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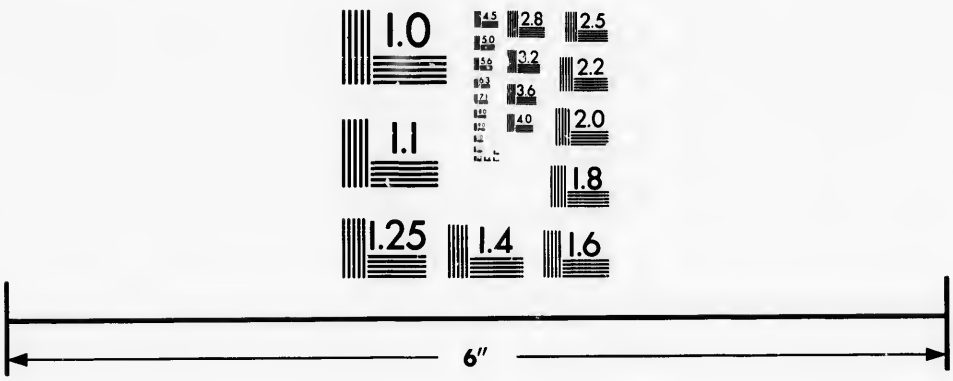

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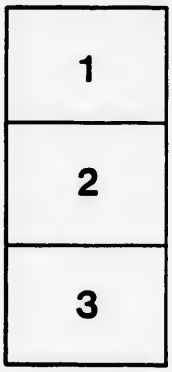

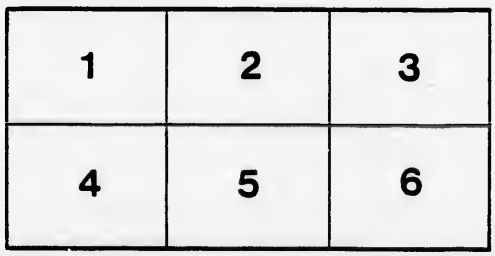

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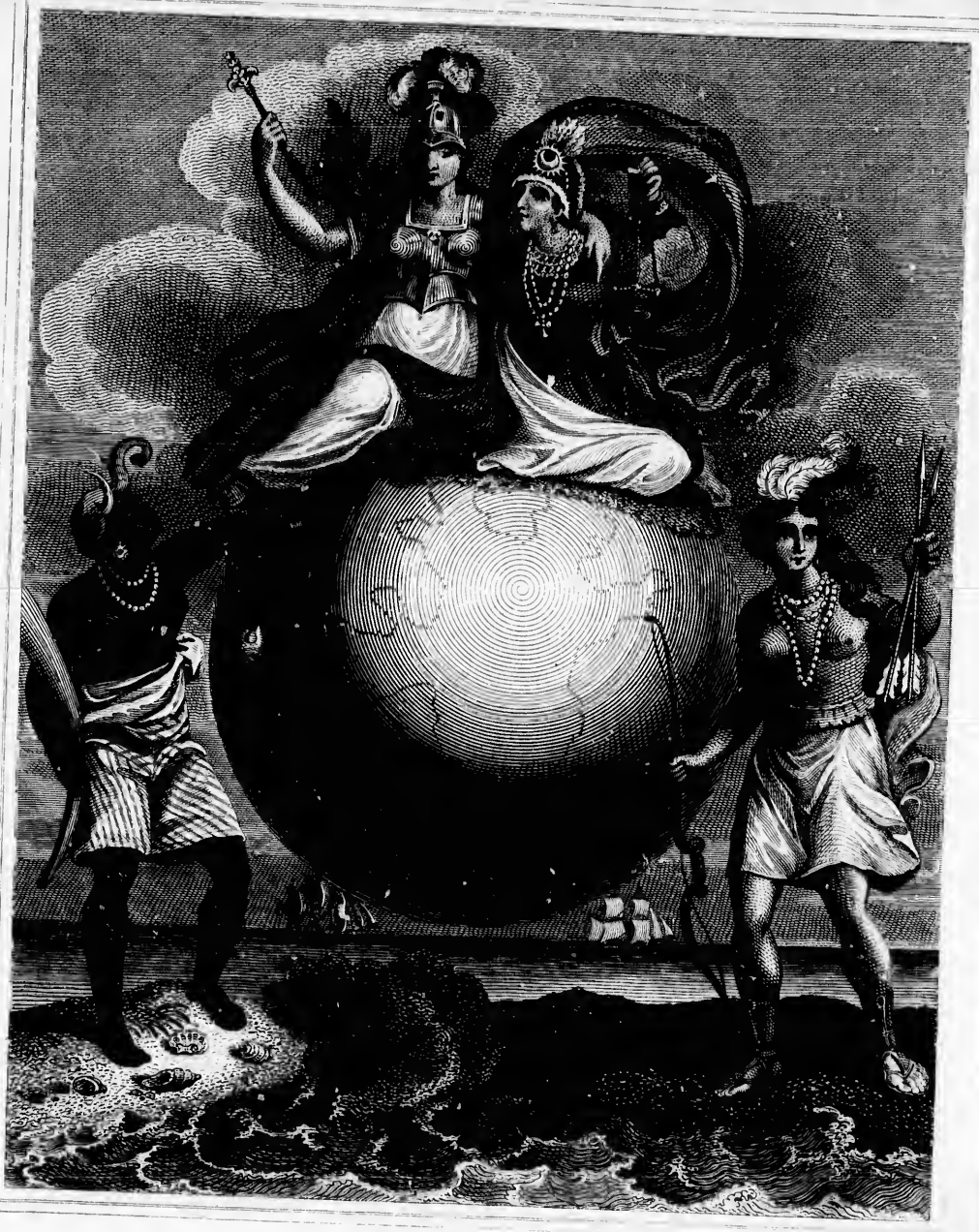

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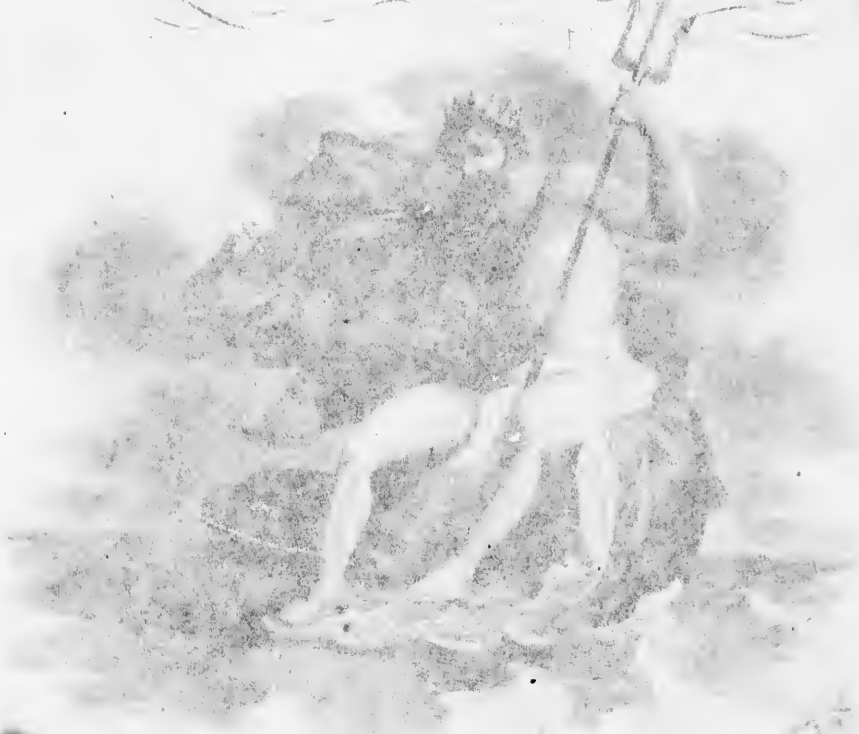
EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA & AMERICA.

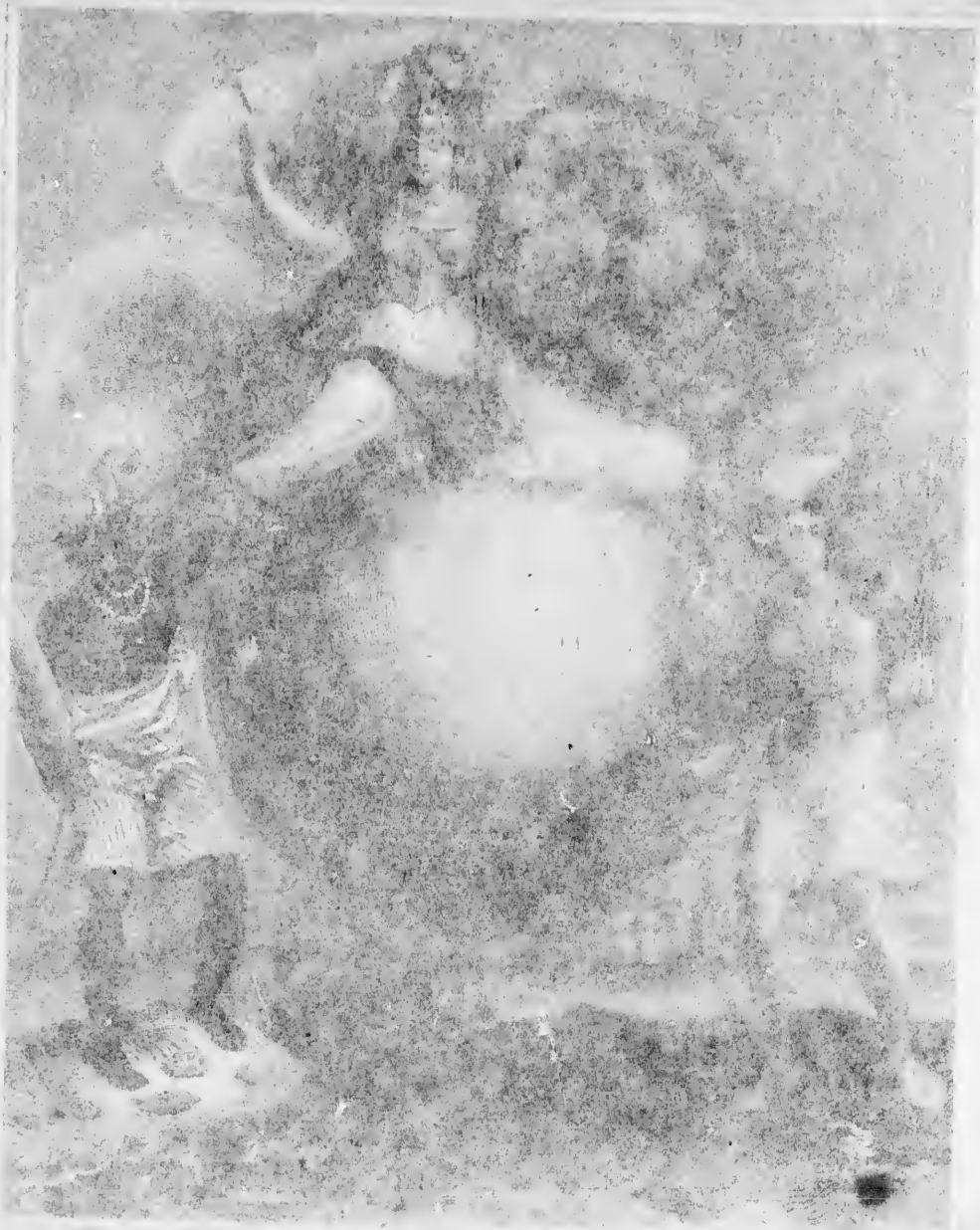
London Published by Thomas Kelly,

Paternoster Row, April 1, 1808

KELLY'S

GEOGRAPHY





KELLY'S,

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GEOGRAPHY.

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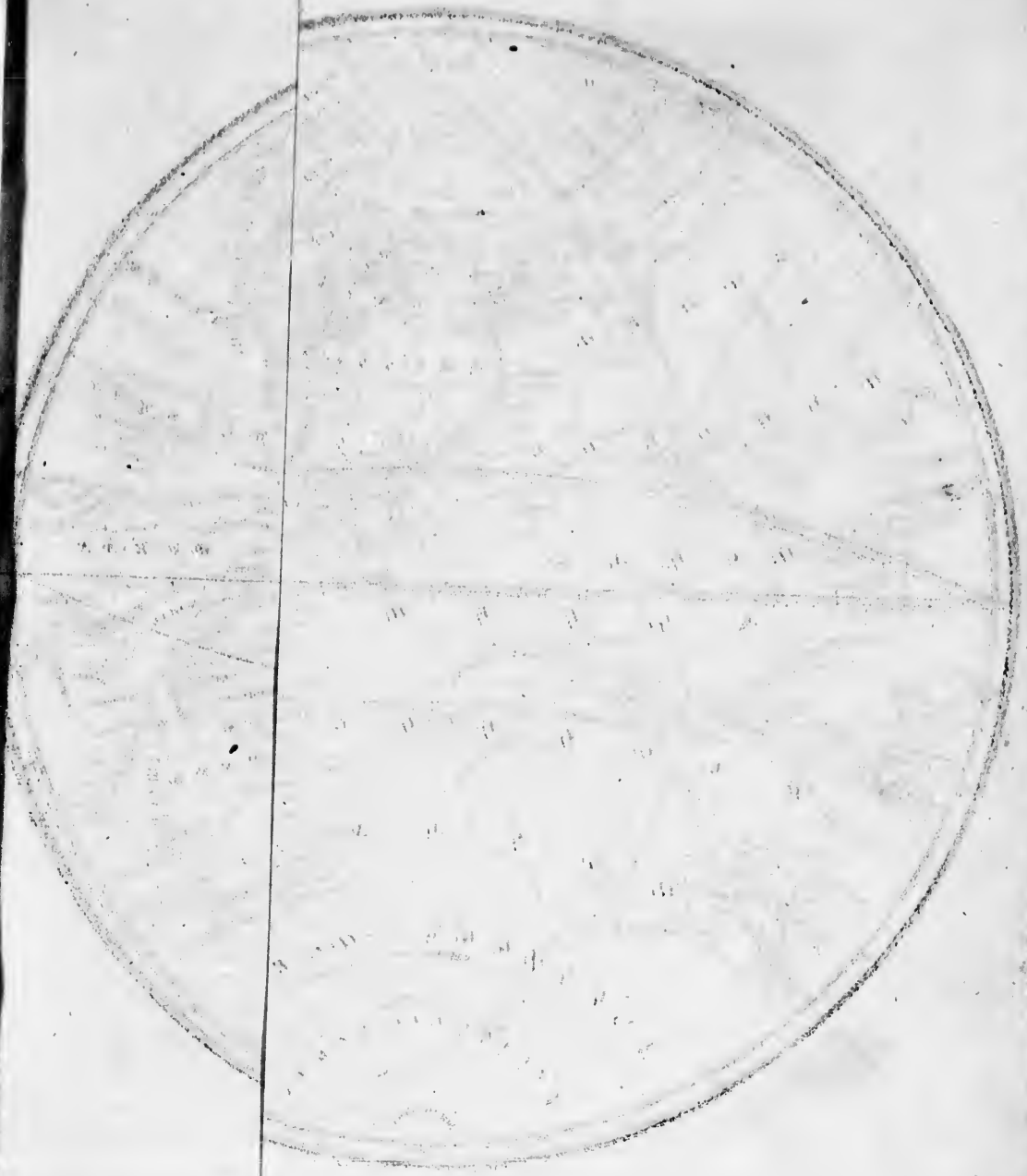

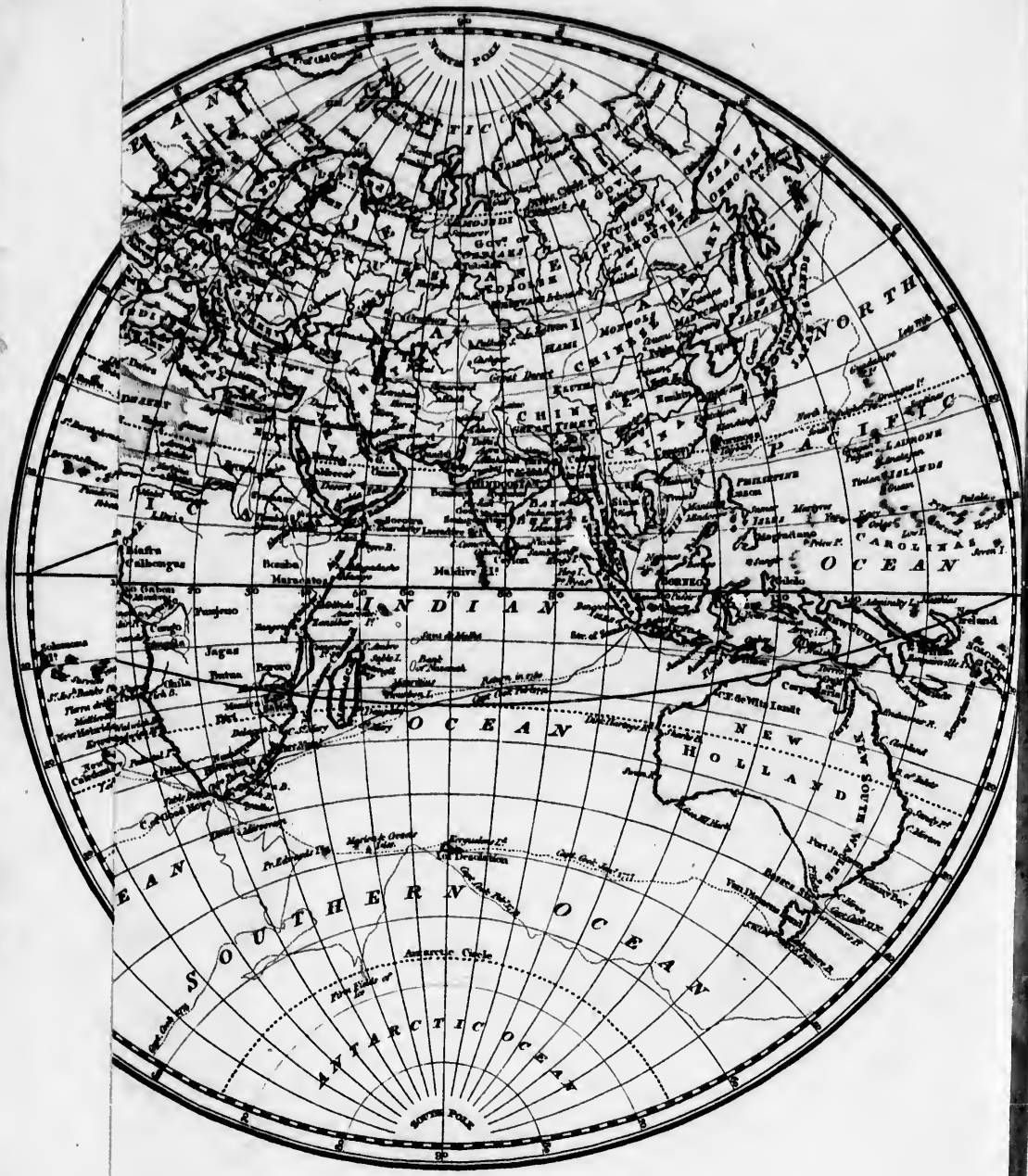
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A NEW AND COMPLETE SYSTEM

OF

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OR,

AN AUTHENTIC HISTORY AND INTERESTING DESCRIPTION

OF THE

Whole World,

AND ITS INHABITANTS:

Comprehending a copious and entertaining Account of all the

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OF

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AS CONSISTING OF

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The whole concluding with a

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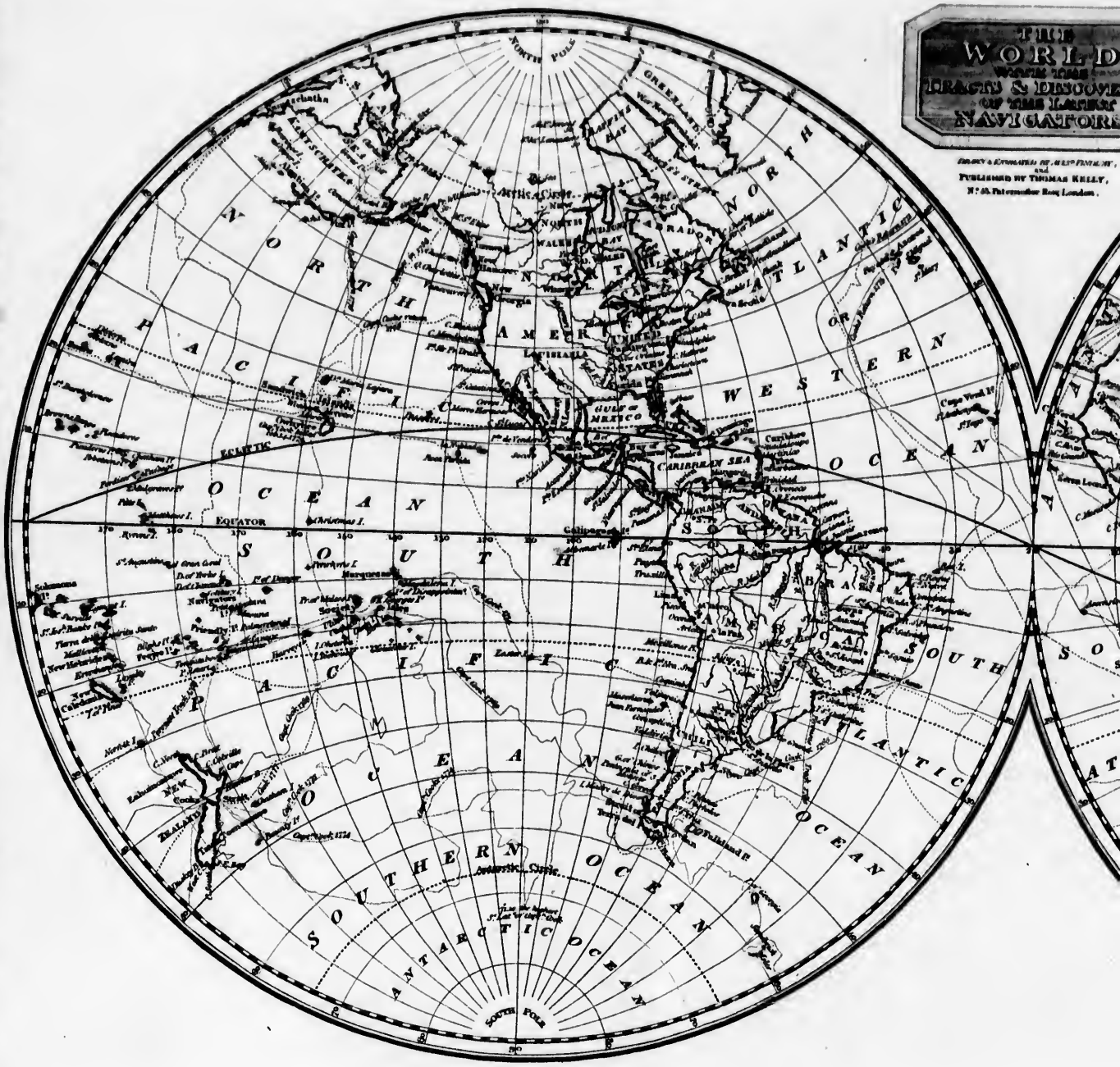
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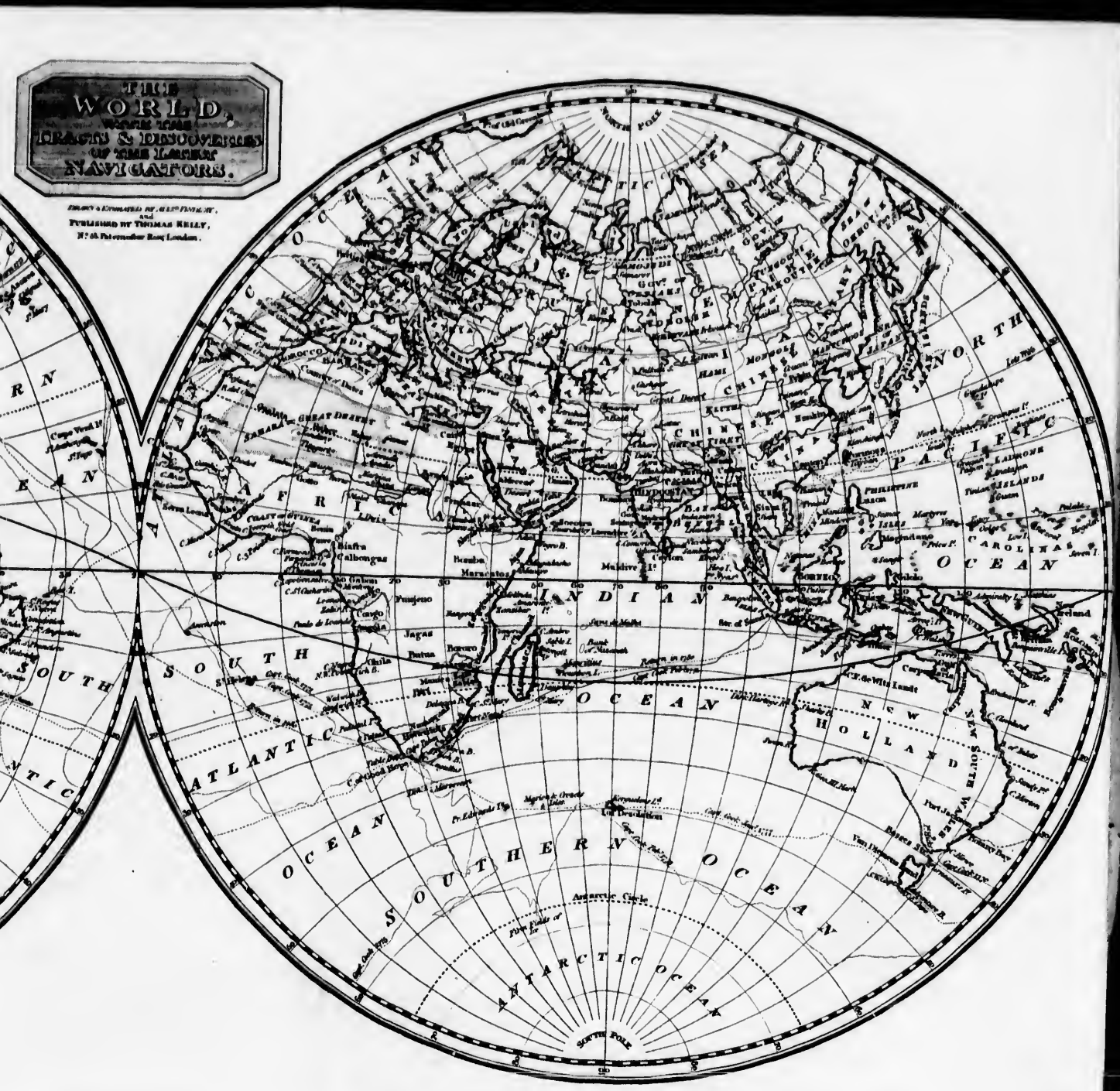
THE WORLD,
WITH THE TRACTS & DISCOVERIES OF THE LATEST NAVIGATORS.
PUBLISHED BY THOMAS KELLY,
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PREFACE.

THE utility and importance of Geography have been frequently discussed, and satisfactorily demonstrated; and the flattering reception given to works of merit, on this subject, has been highly creditable to the taste and discrimination of the British public. It is, however, comparatively, of recent date that this science has assumed a form sufficiently inviting to captivate general attention, and to procure a ready admission into the lady's library, the tradesman's parlour, and the peaceful retirement of the sequestered cottage. Formerly it was confined, like all other branches of literature, to the academic shade; and the method by which it was inculcated rendered it dry and tedious: But, since men have made it their business to blend entertainment with study, and to gratify a laudable curiosity, whilst they profess to give scientific instruction, it has burst forth with such effulgence, and mingled, like the rainbow, so many beauties in itself, that whoever possesses the means of becoming acquainted with the world which he inhabits, and the innumerable objects by which he is surrounded, naturally turns his thoughts to a subject comprising within itself a portion of universal literature, and presenting him at once with a compendious library.

Interesting matter and variety of subject are almost inseparable from a modern system of Geography, conducted upon a popular plan: as the four quarters of the globe, with their respective appendages, are laid under contribution for the gratification of the reader; and every empire, kingdom, state, republic, and colony, are explored on his account. For him the continents of the earth and the islands of the sea are accurately described;—the incense-breathing groves of Asia, the burning deserts of Africa, the extensive wilds of America, and the populous cities of Europe, are successively traversed, to augment his stores of knowledge;—the splendid monuments of antiquity, the romantic scenery of the changing landscape, the secrets of mineralogy, and the charms of botany, alternately claim his notice;—and all the tribes of animated nature pass in review before him. His fellow-men, of various climes and complexions, have still greater claims on his attention; and whilst, borne on the excursive wings of fancy, he makes the tour of the world, he becomes acquainted with the persons, habits, genius, religion, laws, manners, and customs, of its inhabitants;—their government, revenues, language, literature, arts, sciences, manufactures, and commerce, afford him ample subjects of meditation;—and their civil and military history form no inconsiderable part of his intellectual banquet.

Nor is it merely on these accounts that a system of Geography may be read with pleasure and profit: for experience has verified the assertion of Dr. Watts, that "every son and daughter of Adam is *interested* in it;" and Mr. Echard has remarked, that "no ingenious person can be excused for his ignorance in this science, which is the only one that comes under the capacity of *all mankind*:" it may be perused, therefore, with great personal *advantage*, by people of *every* rank and description, from the prince to the peasant. Here the young and the gay may find ample store of amusement; whilst the aged and the studious will refresh their memories by re-

tracing circumstances and events which time had nearly obliterated from the tablet of their minds. In these illustrative pages, the naturalist and the philosopher will meet with objects peculiarly suited to their respective tastes;—the historian will become intimately acquainted with the extent and boundaries of the countries whose vicissitudes he is recording;—the politician may acquire a complete knowledge of the various forms of government subsisting in the world;—military and naval officers will become familiar with the fields on which they may hereafter have an opportunity of gathering unfading laurels, and with the seas or rivers which, on some future occasion, may add to the brilliant victories of British seamen. The merchant and trader will also profit by the information which is here to be gained respecting the commerce, manufactures, and the natural productions and commodities of all nations; and the moralist will learn "to look through nature up to nature's God," and to adore that beneficent Providence which hath cast his lot in a land of happy civilization and freedom.

In presenting the following work before a judicious public, it may be necessary to observe, that the editor and proprietor have no wish to depreciate the labours of their predecessors in this department of literary compilation: but they are decidedly of opinion, that the pleasing study of Geography may be rendered still more alluring, by such a selection of matter as will render *every chapter* acceptable, and *every page* attractive. And, under this idea, they have determined to draw their intelligence from the most accurate and respectable sources; to avail themselves of the most interesting works, however voluminous or expensive; and, upon all occasions, to enliven their narrative with the introduction of pertinent and pleasing anecdotes, illustrative of the respective subjects to which they relate.

With respect to *arrangement*, it has been judged advisable to divide the work into four parts, corresponding with the grand division of the terrestrial globe; and to subdivide each of these into chapters, containing a description of the various empires, kingdoms, states, and islands, belonging to each quarter; among which, Asia, for a variety of cogent reasons, claims pre-eminence; whilst Europe, as the reader's own country, must be left to form the conclusion.

It may be proper to add, that, in pursuance of this plan, all the NEW DISCOVERIES, which demand a considerable share of attention, will be regularly classed under the quarters of the world, instead of being thrown carelessly and promiscuously together, as has been the case in many preceding publications.

The Index to this work will be executed on a plan entirely new; as it is designed to serve, by the copiousness of its contents, and the accuracy of its references, as a complete Gazetteer of the World, which has been long reckoned among the *desiderata* of literature.

To illustrate the geographical descriptions, and to exhibit the most accurate representation of the persons, costume, habits, and ceremonies, of different nations, a series of engravings will be given, which, it is confidently hoped, will be considered *real embellishments;* while the neatness and accuracy of the maps, the quality of the paper, and the beautiful clearness of the type, will unitedly prove that every *possible* exertion has been made to render this new system of Geography worthy of universal patronage and support.

A

COMPENDIUM OF ASTRONOMY;

WITH

REMARKS

ON THE

USE OF THE GLOBES.

SECTION I.

History of Astronomy, Origin of the Zodiac, Constellations, &c.

ASTRONOMY seems to have engaged the attention of mankind in the simplest ages, and from the most remote antiquity. The antediluvians are said to have been skilled in that science; the Chinese appear to have made astronomical observations soon after the flood; and Confucius, who lived five hundred and fifty-one years before the Christian era, has recorded several eclipses. The Japanese, Siamese, and the inhabitants of India, have also, from time immemorial, been acquainted with astronomy. The Druids were skilled in this science; and the Gauls, in general, were consequently able sailors. It appears, also, that the Mexicans were acquainted with astronomy, and made use of intercalary days to bring the solar and civil years to an equality: but with this difference in regard to the method established by Julius Cæsar in the Roman calendar, that they did not interpose a day every four years, but thirteen days every fifty-two years, which produces the same regulation of time.

The Chaldeans and Egyptians were particularly celebrated for their skill in astronomy; and their countries, on account of the general clearness of the air, were highly favourable to astronomical observations. In those warm climates, where the sky is generally serene, the shepherds, watching their flocks by night, would be naturally led to a contemplation of the firmament; and would soon discover that the innumerable multitude of stars observed the same course as the sun: if this shining orb, in the splendor of light, performed its course from east to west, while it afforded to the world the advantages of day, the stars, also, and the moon, glided along in parallel circuits, during the cool refreshing night: one star only seemed to keep its place, and to be as a centre of revolution to all the other luminaries; and this they called the *polar star* or *pole*. When these observations had been made on the celestial bodies in general, and the aspect of the heavens had become somewhat familiar, they were led to observe that some of the luminaries appeared to change their relative situation in the heavens; particularly, the sun and moon appeared to be constantly overtaken and left behind by the stars, as they all seemed to move along together round the earth; sometimes to approach towards the pole, then to recede from it, which evidently produced the seasons of the year, and which gave them an opportunity, in the different seasons, of becoming acquainted with all the visible stars in the northern, and most of those in the southern, hemisphere, in the course of one revolving year.

The *space* round the heavens, in which the moon and planets appeared in their various forms and motions, they considered as a broad circle or belt; and ingeniously divided it into twelve equal portions, which they called *houses*. During the space of one revolving year, this circle seemed to wheel three hundred and sixty-six times about, and the sun to complete three hundred and sixty-five daily courses; hence, the circle continually gaining upon the luminary, the sun was said to enter, occupy, and leave, the several houses successively. This circle is called the *Zodiac*, from a Greek word, implying an *animal*.

Those parts of the circle which the sun seemed to occupy in the spring, when the flocks and herds are increased by the fecundity of the season, were called the houses of *Aries*, or the ram; *Taurus*, or the bull; and

Gemini, or the twins, from the goat's frequently bringing forth twin-kids; these were afterwards changed into the twin-brothers, Castor and Pollux. The other signs of the zodiac were *Cancer*, or the Crab, denoting the retrograde motion of the sun in midsummer; *Leo*, or the Lion, expressive of the intense heat of summer; *Virgo*, or the Virgin, with ears of corn, denoting the harvest; *Libra*, or the Balance, shewing the equality of day and night in autumn; *Scorpio*, or the venomous Scorpion, representing the diseases at the fall of the leaf; *Sagittarius*, or the Archer, signified the hunting season; *Capricornus*, or the Goat, that climbs the craggy mountain, was meant to shew that the sun now mounted the zodiac; *Aquarius*, or the Water-bearer, represented the setting-in of the rain; and *Pisces*, or the Fishes, denoted the fishing season.

In the summer, a short time preceding the annual inundation of the river Nile, a star of the first magnitude appeared in the east, a little before sun-rise. It seems probable that the Egyptians, for a while, kept with anxiety the watches of the night, for fear of too sudden an irruption of the waters; but this brilliant star annually making its appearance a little before the inundation took place, it afterwards sufficed to await the coming of the star. They gave it the names of *Thaut*, the *dog;* and *Anubis*, the *barker* or *monitor*.

It should seem to require an effort in the imagination to see figures of animals, &c. in the firmament; but the ancients imagined that they discovered things of this sort in the arrangement of the stars: and accordingly, in the different houses in the zodiac, and in the stars surrounding their bright Anubis, they saw, by help of a fertile fancy, one bright star represent an eye, another the termination of a tail or horn, these a body, those a limb, &c., till all the signs were determinately fixed. The figures thus sketched out by the fancy of the shepherds were subsequently embellished with the fictions of mythology, till the heavens were nearly filled with imaginary creatures; and these being increased in succeeding ages, served astronomers in their accounts of the starry heavens, as the present divisions of the earth assist geographers in the description of the globe.

The number of constellations in the northern hemisphere is thirty-four; in the southern forty-seven, and in the zodiac twelve. Those stars which are not included in the constellations, are called *unformed stars;* those clusters which are so distant as not to be distinctly seen, are, from their cloudy appearance, comprised under the name of *nebulæ;* and that light-coloured irregular circle which encompasses the heavens, and is distinguishable from the etherial blue by its brilliancy, that zone which owes its splendor to the innumerable stars of which it is formed, and which passes through several of the constellations in its ample range, is called the Galaxy, the *via lactea*, or the milky way.

SECTION II.

Of the Copernican or Solar System.

The Copernican, or Solar System, consists of the sun, seven primary planets, fourteen secondary planets, four newly-discovered bodies, which Dr. Herschel has termed *asteroids*, and the comets.

The Sun is situate near the centre of the orbits of all the planets, and revolves on his axis in twenty-five days fourteen hours and eight minutes. This revolution is determined from the motion of the spots on his surface, which first appear on the eastern extremity, and then gradually come forwards towards the middle, and pass on till they reach the western edge, and then disappear. When they have been absent for nearly the same period of time which they were visible, they appear again as at first, finishing their entire circuit in twenty-seven days twelve hours and twenty minutes.

The spots on this luminary may be viewed with an achromatic telescope of two or three feet focal length, or with a reflector of twelve or eighteen inches; care being taken to guard the eye by the intervention of a dark glass, to take off the dazzling brightness of the sun.

The sun is also affected by a small motion round the centre of gravity of the solar system, occasioned by the various attractions of the surrounding planets; but, as this centre of gravity is generally within the body of the sun, and can never be at the distance of more than the length of the solar diameter from the centre of that body, astronomers generally consider the sun as the centre of the system, round which all the planets revolve.

As the sun revolves on an axis, his figure is supposed not to be strictly globular, but a little flatted at the poles: and that his axis makes an angle of about eight degrees, with a perpendicular to the plane of the earth's orbit. As the sun's apparent diameter is longer in the month of December than in June, the sun is consequently

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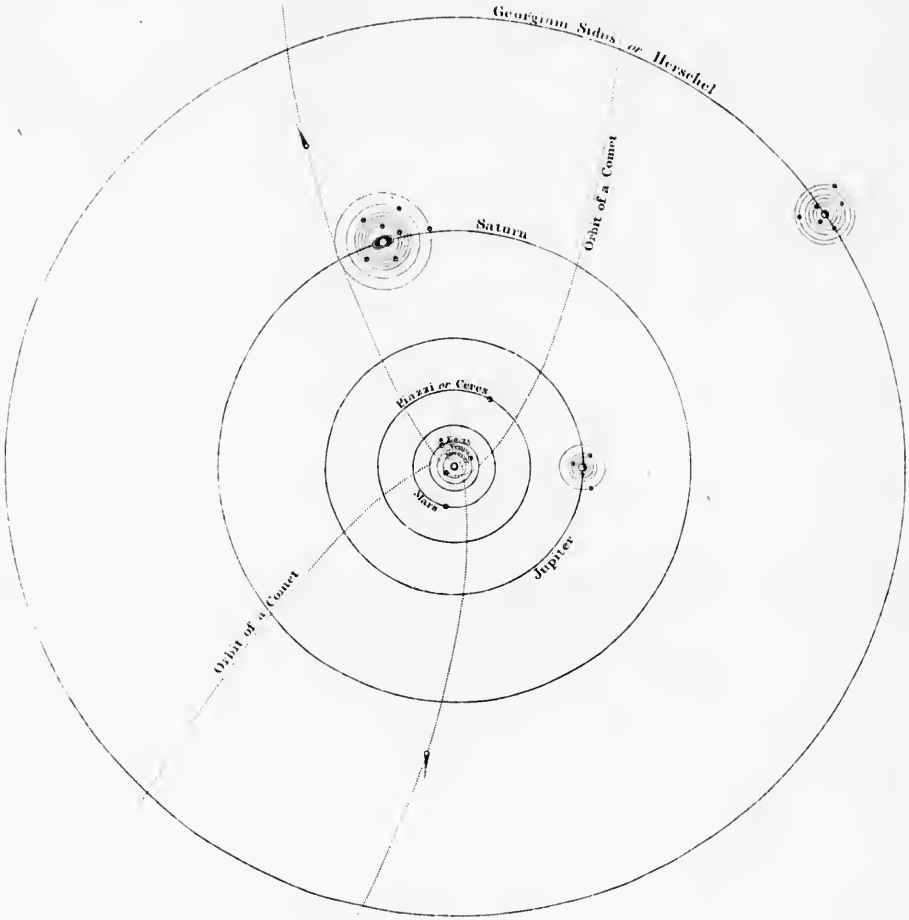
THE COPERNICAN, OR Solar System.



Proportional Magnitude of the Primary Planets

The Proportional Magnitude of the Sun to these Figures is represented by Jupiter's Orbit

Apparent Magnitude of the Sun as seen from each Planet.

Published May 2nd 1817 by THOMAS KELLY, *17 Paternoster Row, London.*

A. Finlay sculp.

nearer to the earth in our winter than it is in summer; for the apparent magnitude of a distant body diminishes as the distance increases. The mean apparent diameter of the sun is stated to be thirty-two minutes two seconds; hence, as the distance of the sun from the earth is ninety-five millions of miles, its real diameter is eight hundred and eighty-six thousand one hundred and forty-nine miles; and, as the magnitudes of all spherical bodies are as the cubes of their diameters, the magnitude of the sun is one million three hundred and seventy-seven thousand six hundred and thirteen times that of the earth: the diameter of the earth being only seven thousand nine hundred and sixty-four miles, the diameter of the sun is above *one hundred and eleven* times the diameter of the earth.

Mercury is the least of all the planets whose magnitudes are accurately known, and the nearest to the sun. The inclination of its axis to the plane of its orbit, and the time in which it revolves on its axis, are unknown, consequently the vicissitudes of its seasons, and the length of its day and night, are also unknown.

When viewed through a powerful telescope, Mercury sometimes appears in the form of a half moon, and sometimes a little more or less than half his disk is seen; hence it is inferred, that he has the same phases as the moon, except that he never appears quite round, because his enlightened side is never turned directly towards us, unless when he is so near the sun as to be rendered invisible by the splendor of the solar rays. The enlightened side of this planet being always towards the sun, and his never appearing round, are evident proofs that he shines not by his own light; for, if he did, he would constantly appear round. The best observations of this planet are those made when he is seen on the sun's disk, called his *transit*; for, in his lower conjunction, he sometimes passes before the sun, like a little spot, eclipsing a small part of the sun's body; as may be seen with a good telescope. The node from which Mercury ascends northward above the ecliptic is in the fifteenth degree of Taurus, and, consequently, the opposite or descending node is in the fifteenth degree of Scorpio. The earth is in the fifteenth degree of Taurus on the 6th of May, and in the fifteenth of Scorpio on the 4th of November; and when Mercury comes to either of his nodes at his inferior conjunction, (that is, when he is between the earth and the sun,) he will pass over the sun's disk, if it happen on or near the days above mentioned; but, in all other parts of its orbit, he goes either above or below the sun, and consequently his conjunctions are invisible.

Mercury performs his periodical revolution round the sun in eighty-seven days twenty-three hours fifteen minutes and forty-three seconds; his greatest elongation is twenty-eight degrees twenty minutes; his distance from the sun, thirty-six millions eight hundred and fourteen thousand seven hundred and twenty-one miles; the eccentricity of his orbit is estimated at one-fifth of his mean distance from the sun; his apparent diameter, eleven seconds; hence his real diameter is three thousand one hundred and eight miles, and his magnitude about one-sixteenth that of the earth.

Mercury emits a bright white light; he appears a little after sun-set, and again a little before sun-rise; but, on account of his proximity to the sun, and the smallness of his magnitude, he is seldom seen.

Venus is the brightest, and, apparently, the largest, of all the planets; her light is distinguished from that of the other planets by its brilliancy and whiteness, which are so considerable, that in a dusky place she causes an object to project a sensible shadow. When viewed through a powerful telescope, this planet appears to have all the phases of the moon, from the crescent to the enlightened hemisphere, though she seldom appears perfectly round. Her illuminated part is constantly turned towards the sun; hence the convex part of her crescent is turned towards the east when she is a morning star, and towards the west when she is an evening star; for, when she is west of the sun, as seen from the earth, that is, when her longitude is less than that of the sun, she rises before him in the morning, and is called a morning star; but when she is east of the sun, that is, when her longitude is greater than the sun's longitude, she shines in the evening after sun-set, and is called an evening star.

Venus is a morning star, or appears to the west of the sun, for about two hundred and ninety days, and she is an evening star, or appears to the east of the sun, for nearly the same time, though she completes her revolution round the sun in two hundred and twenty-four days sixteen hours forty-nine minutes and ten seconds. Should the reader enquire why Venus appears a longer time to the eastward or westward of the sun than the whole time of her entire revolution round him, it may be replied, that, while Venus is going round the sun, the earth is going round him the same way, though slower than Venus, and therefore the *relative* motion of Venus is slower than her *absolute* motion.

Venus is sometimes seen on the disk of the sun in the form of a dark round spot. These appearances, however, can only happen when she is between the earth and the sun, and when the earth is nearly in a line

with one of her nodes. The last transit of Venus was in 1769, and another will not occur till the year 1874. The time which this planet takes to revolve on its axis, and the inclination of its axis to the plane of its orbit, have been given by different astronomers; but Dr. Herschel, from a long series of observations, published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1793, concludes, that the time of its rotation on its axis is uncertain, and that the position of its axis is equally uncertain; that its atmosphere is very considerable; that it has probably inequalities on its surface, but that it requires a better eye than his, or the assistance of better instruments than he is possessed of, to discover any mountains.

The diameter of Venus is seven thousand four hundred and ninety-eight miles; her distance from the sun is sixty-eight millions seven hundred and ninety-one thousand seven hundred and fifty-two miles; and her magnitude something less than that of the earth.

This planet, like Mercury, is never seen at midnight, or in opposition to the sun; being visible only for three or four hours in the morning or evening, as she rises before, or sets after the sun.

The Earth, which we inhabit, is placed between the orbits of Venus and Mars, and revolves round the sun, at the distance of ninety-five millions of miles, in three hundred and sixty-five days five hours forty-eight minutes and forty seconds. Its diameter is seven thousand nine hundred and sixty-four miles; and it turns round its axis from west to east in twenty-four hours; which occasions the *apparent* diurnal motion of the sun, and of all the heavenly bodies round it, from east to west in the same time: it is, therefore, the cause of this apparent rising and setting, and of the alternation of day and night: for although the sun, moon, and stars, *appear* to rise in the east and to set in the west, that appearance is in reality occasioned by the earth turning the contrary way. Thus, children travelling in a carriage, or sailing on a river, are induced to suppose that the trees, hedges, banks, or other objects, are running away in a direction exactly opposite to their route. And if it be urged, as an objection, that we are unable to *perceive* any rotation of the earth, notwithstanding the rapidity with which it is supposed to move, we reply—that as our globe is not impeded by any resisting obstacles, its motion cannot be communicated to the senses; and, as an illustration of this remark, it may be added, that vessels on a smooth sea are sometimes turned completely round by the tide, without the knowledge of the passengers who happen to be employed in the cabin.

But besides the *diurnal* rotation of the earth, which occasions the regular succession of day and night, and the apparent motion of the heavenly bodies, it has another, called its *annual* motion, on which depend the vicissitudes of the seasons—spring, summer, autumn, and winter.

This annual progressive motion may be easily deduced from an attentive observation of the celestial bodies: for as the sun's apparent rotation round the earth, in the course of a day, from east to west, may be referred to the diurnal motion of the earth upon its axis, in a contrary direction; so likewise his seeming annual revolution in the heavens, and his rising and setting continually in different parts of them, may be referred to that motion of the earth in its orbit which it completes in the space of a year.

The phœnomena of the different seasons will appear plainly from the following observations of an intelligent astronomer:—

"Suppose a line to be drawn from the centre of the sun to the centre of the earth, it is evident that the sun will be vertical to that part of the earth which is cut by this line. Now, when the earth is in Libra, the sun will appear to be in Aries, the days and nights will be equal in both hemispheres, and the season a medium between summer and winter; the line dividing the dark and light hemispheres, passes through the north and south poles, and consequently divides all the parallels of latitude into two equal parts: hence the inhabitants of the whole face of the earth have their days and nights equal, viz. twelve hours each. While the earth moves from Libra to Capricorn, the north pole will become more and more enlightened, and the south pole will be gradually involved in darkness, consequently the days in the northern hemisphere will continue to increase in length, and in the southern hemisphere they will decrease in the same proportion, all the parallels of latitude being unequally divided. When the earth has arrived at Capricorn, the sun will appear to be in Cancer; it will be summer to the inhabitants of the northern hemisphere, and winter to those in the southern; the inhabitants at the north pole, and within the arctic circle, will have constant day, and those at the south pole, and within the antarctic circle, will have constant night. While the earth moves from Capricorn to Aries, the south pole will become more and more enlightened; consequently, the days in the southern hemisphere will increase in length, and in the northern hemisphere they will decrease. When the earth has arrived at Aries, the sun will appear to be in Libra, and the days and nights will again be equal all over the surface of the earth. Again, as the earth moves from Aries towards Cancer, the light will gradually leave the north pole,

and proceed to the south: when the earth has arrived at Cancer, it will be summer to the inhabitants in the southern hemisphere, and winter to those in the northern: the inhabitants of the south pole (if any) will have continual day, those at the north pole constant night. Lastly, while the earth moves from Cancer to Capricorn, the sun will appear to move from Capricorn to Cancer, and the days in the northern hemisphere will be increasing, while those in the southern will be diminishing, in length; and while the earth moves from Capricorn to Cancer, the sun will appear to move from Cancer to Capricorn, the days in the northern hemisphere will then be decreasing, and those in the southern hemisphere increasing. In all situations of the earth, the equator will be divided into two equal parts, consequently the days and nights at the equator are always equal. Thus the different seasons are clearly accounted for, by the inclination of the axis of the earth to the plane of its orbit, combined with the parallel motion of that axis."

Respecting the *figure* of the earth, the ancients held various opinions: some imagined it to be cylindrical, or in the form of a drum; but the general opinion was, that it was a vast extended plane, and that the horizon was the utmost limit of the earth, and the ocean the boundary of the horizon. These opinions were held in the infancy of astronomy; and, in the early ages of Christianity, some of the ecclesiastics went so far as to pronounce it *heretical* for any person to declare that there was such a thing as the antipodes. But by the industry of succeeding ages, when astronomy and navigation were brought to a tolerable degree of perfection, and when it was observed that the moon was frequently eclipsed by the shadow of the earth, and that such shadow always appeared circular on the disk or face of the moon, in whatever position the shadow was projected, it was discovered that the earth, which cast the shadow, was spherical; since nothing but a sphere, when turned in every position with respect to a luminous body, can cast a circular shadow.

The rotundity of the earth has also been demonstrated by its circumnavigation, which has been performed at different times by Sir Francis Drake, Lord Anson, Captain Cook, &c. And a variety of simple observations will establish the truth of the doctrine here laid down, beyond the power of contradiction. Thus, if a vessel sail northward, in north latitude, the people on board may observe the polar star gradually to increase in altitude the farther they go: they may likewise observe new stars continually emerging above the horizon which were before imperceptible; and, at the same time, those stars which appear southward will continue to diminish in altitude till they become invisible. The contrary phænomena will happen if the vessel sail southward; hence the earth is evidently spherical from north to south, as well as from east to west.

Again, if we take a stand on the sea-shore, on a clear day, and view ships leaving the coast, in any direction whatsoever; as they recede from us, we may distinctly observe the rigging of the vessels, when the hulls are quite out of sight, as if sunk in the waters. An observer in an evening, from the top of a hill, may distinctly see the setting sun, when it appears to those below to have sunk below the horizon; nay, a person swift of foot, when it has set to him below, may, in some situations, by running up the hill, regain his view. Thus, when rising, does it first tip the tops of the mountains with its rays; and thus do sailors, on their first making land, discover the high parts of the coast, but not the very shore, till they are pretty close in with it.

Now, were the surface of the sea an extensive plain of waters, we should lose sight of the objects, either through defect of sight, thickness of atmosphere, or some similar cause, and then they would disappear all at once.

These observations clearly prove the rotundity of the earth, though common experience shews us that it is not strictly a *geometrical sphere*; for its surface is diversified with mountains and valleys: but these irregularities no more hinder the earth from being reckoned spherical, considering its magnitude, than the particles of dust upon an artificial globe hinders it from being esteemed round.

The Moon is called a satellite, or attendant of the earth, from the circumstance of performing her revolution round it, from change to change, in twenty-nine days twelve hours forty-four minutes and rather more than three seconds, which makes a lunation: but she completes her orbit from one point in the heavens, or from a particular fixed star, to that point or star again, in twenty-seven days seven hours forty-three minutes and five seconds, moving at the rate of about two thousand two hundred and seventy miles an hour. The diameter of the moon is two thousand one hundred and eighty miles, and her distance from the centre of our earth, about two hundred and forty thousand miles.

The moon is said to be at the *full* when (our earth lying between it and the sun) all the enlightened part of it is visible; it is at the *change* when, being between us and the sun, its illumined part is turned from us; and it is termed *half moon* when, being half way between the other two positions, we see but half the enlightened part.

As the light of the sun is reflected on our earth by means of the moon, so, if that satellite be inhabited, our

earth performs the same beneficial purpose in return. Before and after the change of the moon, when it is only visible a little while in the morning and evening, its whole body may be sometimes seen distinctly; and at such times, one side of it resembles a bright slender crescent, but the greater part seems of a very dark hue. "The bright part," says Mr. Walker, "is as the day-light of the moon; the dark part as the moon-shine reflected from our earth."

It is asserted, that, in Italy, and some other countries, where the air is peculiarly clear, the moon at the change is visible when it rises or sets with the sun;—a circumstance which must be occasioned by the light reflected from our globe, which, at that period, is a full moon, and affords thirteen times as much light as we receive from our satellite when at the full. Allowing this to be the case, it appears that the inhabitants of the moon, if such exist, have a full moon when we have change, and a waxing when we have a waning one, all the lunar seasons being the reverse of ours. It may also be remarked, that, as the moon turns only once round on her axis while she performs her orbit, one side, being always turned toward our earth, must consequently receive two weeks of moon-light from the earth, and two weeks of sun-shine successively; the other side remaining two weeks in darkness, and an equal space in constant day. The day and night, therefore, must be a month in length; and, from the inclination of the moon's axis to the ecliptic, she can experience scarcely any diversity of seasons.

As the moon's declination from the equator is not sufficient to occasion a change of seasons, it has been conjectured that her inhabitants may measure their year by observing when one of the poles of our earth begins to be illumined, and the other to recede from view, which always happens at our equinoxes. The year is supposed to be of the same absolute length both to the earth and moon, though they differ very materially as to the number of days; the lunarians having only twelve, while we have three hundred and sixty-five.

The moon is sufficiently near our globe to enable us to observe, even with the naked eye, many inequalities on her surface; and, by the aid of telescopes, astronomers have distinctly discovered them to be mountains, valleys, &c., to which geographical names have been given, though without regard to figure or situation. Even the heights of some of the lunar mountains have been calculated by means of the shadows projected from them on the moon's surface; and the great astronomer, Herschel, has discovered three volcanoes in this planet. The principal one, at the time of observation, was in a part of the moon's disk not then enlightened; but it appeared to be about three miles in diameter, and illuminated the hills in its vicinity, whilst it ejected great quantities of smoke and burning lava. The other two seemed either to have been recently extinguished, or to threaten an immediate eruption.

Various arguments have been adduced for and against the probability of the moon having an atmosphere; but the discoveries of Dr. Herschel, and the attentive observations of other astronomers, seem to determine that question in the affirmative; as streaks of light have been seen to dart instantaneously from different places in the moon at the time of a solar eclipse, which have been taken for lightning, and which seem to evince not only the existence of a lunar atmosphere, but a striking similitude between the moon and our earth.

In the motion of the moon we may perceive a slow continual change, which, though extremely minute, seems to evince that the present order of things must come to an end. It is a known fact, that the moon now completes her period in less time than formerly, approaching nearer to the earth, and going sooner round it. Hence eclipses which occurred several centuries ago, appear, from the accounts given by ancient historians, to have happened differently both in time and place from what the calculations founded upon our astronomical tables make them to have done.

As the moon's motion on her axis is perfectly uniform, completing one revolution in the course of a lunation, our globe would be constantly over the same meridian of the moon, if the motion of that satellite in her journey round the earth were also equable; but she, like the other planets, is observed to move in her orbit with different degrees of velocity, and this occasions what is termed the libration of the moon, and the successive exhibition and disappearance of her opposite limbs, or margins. When her motion is quickest, we see rather more of her western side; when slowest, a little more of her eastern side is presented to view. And as the moon's axis is rather inclined to its orbit, and preserves its parallelism round the earth, we sometimes see one of her poles, and sometimes another, which causes her to have an apparent wavering motion.

We must now turn our attention to the phenomenon of the Harvest-Moon, which is particularly worthy of consideration.

It is generally supposed that the moon rises about fifty minutes later every day than on the preceding; but this idea is correct only with respect to those parts about the equator; for in places of considerable latitude, as

in England, there is a remarkable difference about the time of harvest, when, for several evenings successively, the full moon rises very soon after sun-set; and by thus appearing before the termination of twilight, she prolongs the light to the great benefit of the husbandman, who is employed in gathering in the fruits of his labour; and hence the full moon at this season of the year is aptly denominated the harvest-moon.

The people who reside at the equator do not receive this benefit, nor, indeed, do they stand in need of it, their seasons varying but little, and their weather changing at periodical times. At the polar circles, where the mild season is of short duration, the autumnal moon rises at sun-set from the first to the third quarter; and at the poles, which are not visited by the cheering rays of the sun for half a year together, the winter full-moons shine without setting from the first to the third quarter.

These phœnomena result from the different angles made by the horizon, and by different parts of the moon's orbit, which nearly coincides with the ecliptic. In northern latitudes, the *least* angle made by the horizon and ecliptic is, when Aries rises and Libra sets; as the *greatest* is made when Libra rises and Aries sets. In the latitude of London, as much of the ecliptic rises about Aries and Pisces in two hours, as the moon goes through in six days; and, of course, while the moon is in these signs, she differs but two hours in rising for six days together; that is, about twenty minutes later, at a mean rate, every day or night, than on the preceding. In about a fortnight afterwards, however, the moon comes to the opposite signs, Libra and Virgo, and differs almost four times as much in rising, appearing about an hour and a quarter later every day or night than on that which preceded it.

As the moon can never be full but when opposite to the sun, and that luminary never appears in Virgo and Libra but in August and September, the moon is never full in the opposite signs, Pisces and Aries, but in those months; and hence it is obvious that we can have but two full-moons in the year, which rise so early for a week together, as already mentioned. The former of these is called the *harvest*-moon, for the reason previously assigned, and the other is called the *hunter's* moon.

The moon, being in Pisces and Aries every lunation, must consequently rise in this manner twelve times in the year; but in winter she rises in these constellations at noon, when she is waxing; in winter, at midnight, when she is waning; and in spring, in the morning, at the time of her change. Now, as in the former instances, she is but a half moon, and at the time of change is invisible; our assertion that there are but *two* full moons of the above description in a year, is not affected by these circumstances.

As the ecliptic and horizon are coincident every day, for an instant, on the polar circle, one half of the ecliptic, from one solstitial point to another, rises, and the other half sets, at the same moment: that which rises at once is twenty-four hours in setting, and that which sets at once is twenty-four hours in rising. At the poles, one half of the ecliptic is continually above the horizon, and the other half never rises. It is, also, necessary to observe, that the augmentation or decrease of our moon-light depends upon the opposition of our satellite to the sun. Hence the wintery parts of our globe, where the nights are long and tedious, receive the greatest proportion of light from the moon; and in the arctic and antarctic regions, it shines every second fortnight, or from the first to the third quarter, without setting.

Mars, though sometimes apparently as large as Venus, never shines with so brilliant a light, and, when viewed through a telescope, appears of a dusky red colour. Hence it is conjectured that this planet is encompassed with a thick cloudy atmosphere, through which the red rays of light penetrate more easily than the other rays. This being the first planet without the orbit of the earth, he exhibits to the spectator different appearances from those of Mercury and Venus. He is sometimes in conjunction with the sun, like Mercury and Venus, but was never known to transit the sun's disk. Sometimes he is directly opposite to the sun, that is, he comes to the meridian at midnight, or rises when the sun sets, and sets when the sun rises; at which time he shines with the greatest lustre, being nearest to the earth. When viewed through a powerful telescope, he appears sometimes full and round, at others gibbous, but never horned. The preceding appearances clearly shew, that Mars moves in an orbit more distant from the sun than that of the earth. The apparent motion of this planet, like that of Mercury and Venus, is sometimes direct, or from east to west; at others retrograde, or from west to east; and sometimes he appears stationary. Sometimes he rises before the sun, and is seen in the morning; at others he sets after the sun, and is seen in the evening.

Mars revolves on his axis in twenty-four hours thirty-nine minutes and twenty-two seconds; and performs his revolution round the sun in six hundred and eighty-six days twenty-three hours fifteen minutes and forty-four seconds. His apparent semi-diameter, at his nearest distance from the earth, is twenty-five seconds, consequently his mean distance from the sun is one hundred and forty-four millions nine hundred and seven thou-

sand six hundred and thirty miles; his diameter four thousand two hundred and eighteen miles; and his magnitude a little more than one-seventh of that of the earth.

Jupiter is the largest of all the planets, and, notwithstanding his immense distance from the sun and the earth, he appears to the naked eye almost as large as Venus, though his light is less brilliant. When in opposition to the sun, (that is, when he comes to the meridian at midnight, or rises when the sun sets, and sets when the sun rises,) Jupiter is much nearer to the earth than he is a little before and after his conjunction with the sun; hence, at the time of opposition, he appears larger and more luminous than at other times. When his longitude is less than that of the sun, he is a morning star, and appears in the east before sunrise; but when his longitude is greater than that of the sun, he is an evening star, and appears in the west after sun-set. Jupiter revolves on his axis in 9 hours and 56 minutes, which is the length of his day; but, as his axis is nearly perpendicular to the plane of his orbit, he has no diversity of seasons.

This planet is surrounded by faint substances, called zones or belts; which, from their frequent change in number and situation, are supposed to consist of clouds. One or more dark spots frequently appear between the belts; and when a belt disappears, the contiguous spots disappear likewise. The time of the rotation of the different spots is variable, being less by six minutes near the equator than near the poles.

The inclination of the orbit of Jupiter to the plane of the ecliptic is 1 degree 18 minutes 56 seconds; the place of his ascending node about eight degrees in Cancer; and he performs his revolution round the sun in 4330 days 14 hours 27 minutes and 11 seconds; moving at the rate of 29,894 miles per hour; his mean distance from the sun being 494,499,108 miles. His diameter is 89,069 miles; and his magnitude 1400 times that of the earth.

Jupiter is attended by four satellites or moons, each of which revolves round him in a manner similar to that of the moon round the earth. These satellites were first discovered by Galileo, the inventor of telescopes, in the year 1610, and the discovery has proved of the greatest importance: for, as these satellites revolve round Jupiter in the same direction which Jupiter revolves round the sun, they are frequently eclipsed by his shadow, and afford an excellent method of ascertaining the true longitudes of places on the land. To these eclipses we are also indebted for the discovery of the progressive motion of light, and the aberration of the fixed stars.

The satellites of Jupiter appear of different magnitudes and brightness: the fourth generally appears the smallest, but sometimes the largest; and the apparent diameter of its shadow on Jupiter is sometimes greater than the satellite itself. Dr. Herschel has discovered that Jupiter's satellites revolve about their axes in the time in which they respectively revolve about the primary planet.

The first satellite is the most important, on account of its numerous eclipses. The times of the eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter are calculated for the meridian of Greenwich, and inserted in the third page of the Nautical Almanac for every month; and their configurations or appearances with respect to Jupiter are inserted in page XII. As the earth turns on its axis from west to east at the rate of fifteen degrees in a hour, or one degree in four minutes of time, a person one degree westward of Greenwich will observe the emersion or immersion of either of these satellites four minutes later than the time mentioned in the Nautical Almanac; and, if he be one degree eastward of Greenwich, the eclipse will happen four minutes sooner at his place of observation than at Greenwich. These eclipses should be observed with a powerful telescope, and a pendulum clock, which beats seconds or half seconds.

Saturn shines with a pale feeble light, being the farthest from the sun of any of the planets that are visible to the naked eye. This planet, when viewed through a powerful telescope, appears to be surrounded by an interior and exterior ring, beyond which are seven satellites, of which six are in the same plane with the rings. These rings and satellites are all opaque and dense bodies, like that of Saturn, and shine only by the light which they receive from the sun. The disk of Saturn is also crossed by obscure zones or belts, like those of Jupiter, which vary in their figure according to the direction of the rings. Saturn performs his revolution round the sun in 10,759 days 1 hour 51 minutes and 11 seconds; hence his mean distance from the sun is 907,089,032 miles; and his progressive motion in his orbit is 22,072 miles per hour. His diameter is 78,730 miles, and his magnitude 966 times that of our earth.

The fourth satellite of this planet was discovered by Huygens, a Dutch mathematician, in the year 1655. The first, second, third, and fifth, were discovered at different times, between the years 1761 and 1685, by Cassini, a celebrated Italian astronomer; and the sixth and seventh were discovered by Dr. Herschel, in the years 1787 and 1789. The last two satellites are nearer to Saturn than the other five, and therefore are,

properly speaking, the *first* and *second*; but, to distinguish them from the other satellites, and to prevent confusion in referring to former observations, they are called the *sixth* and *seventh*.

The first, second, third, and fourth satellites, as well as the sixth and seventh, are all nearly in the same plane with Saturn's ring, and are inclined to the orbit of Saturn in an angle of about thirty degrees; but the orbit of the fifth satellite is said to make an angle of fifteen degrees with the plane of Saturn's ring. Sir Isaac Newton conjectured that the fifth satellite of Saturn revolved round its axis in the same time that it revolved round Saturn; and the observations of Dr. Herschel have verified the accuracy of this opinion.

The *Ring of Saturn*, which was first discovered by Huygens, is a thin, broad, and circular arch, surrounding the body of the planet without touching it, like the wooden horizon of an artificial globe. If the equator of the artificial globe be made to coincide with the horizon, and the globe be turned on its axis from west to east, its motion will represent that of Saturn on its axis, and the wooden horizon will represent the ring, if it be supposed a little more distant from the globe.

This ring revolves round the axis of Saturn, and in a plane coincident with the plane of his equator, in 10 hours 32 min. and rather more than 15 sec. The ring, being a circle, appears elliptical, from its oblique position; and it appears most open when Saturn's longitude is about 2 signs 17 degrees, or 8 signs 17 degrees.

The Georgium Sidus, or Georgian, is the remotest of all the known planets belonging to the solar system. It was discovered at Bath by Dr. Herschel, on the 13th of March, 1781, and is frequently called by foreigners *Herschel*, in honour of the discoverer. The Royal Academy of Prussia, and some others, called it *Uranus*, because the other planets are named from such heathen deities as were relatives: thus, *Uranus* was the father of Saturn, *Saturn* the father of Jupiter, *Jupiter* the father of Mars, &c. This planet, when viewed through a telescope of a small magnifying power, appears like a star of between the sixth and seventh magnitude.

In so recent a discovery of a planet at such an immense distance, the theory of its magnitude, motion, &c. must necessarily be imperfect. Its periodical revolution round the sun is said to be performed in rather more than eighty-three years; and its magnitude is upwards of eighty times that of the earth.

The Georgium Sidus is attended by six satellites: of which the second and fourth were discovered in 1787; and the others in 1798. They are all said to be nearly perpendicular to the eliptic; and it is a singular fact, that they perform their revolutions round the planet contrary to the order of the signs.

We must now lay before the reader a brief account of the *new planets* or asteroids, Ceres, Pallas, Juno, and Vesta.

On the 1st of January, 1801, M. Piazzi, Astronomer-Royal at Palermo, discovered a new planet between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, which he styled Ceres Ferdinandia, from the island in which it was discovered, and Ferdinand IV. King of the Two Sicilies. The elements of the theory of this planet are at present very imperfectly known. When seen through a telescope, it appears like a star of the eighth magnitude; its distance from the sun is said to be about two four-fifth times that of the earth, and its periodical revolution near four years and eight months. Its diameter, according to Dr. Herschel, is about one hundred and sixty-two miles.

On the 28th of March, 1802, Dr. Olbers, of Bremen, while examining some of the stars near the Ceres Ferdinandia, perceived a star of the seventh magnitude, situated near the northern part of the constellation Virgo, which had the appearance of a planet. By continuing his observations, he soon discovered it to be a new planet, to which he gave the name of *Pallas*. As the theory of the various phænomena of this planet is less known even than that of Ceres Ferdinandia, the accounts of its magnitude, distance, and the time of its periodical revolution round the sun, are, of course, very imperfect. Its distance from the sun, and the time of its revolution, are said, however, to be nearly the same as those of the Ceres Ferdinandia, and its diameter is computed at ninety-five miles.

On the 1st of September, 1804, Mr. Harding, of Lilienthal, in the duchy of Bremen, discovered the planet *Juno*, which appears like a star of the eighth magnitude. The planets *Ceres*, *Pallas*, and *Juno*, are all so nearly at equal distances from the sun, that it is not yet decided which of the three is the nearest, or the most remote.

On the 29th of March, 1807, Dr. Olbers discovered another planet, which has been named *Vesta*; but of this no satisfactory accounts have hitherto been published: and, in fact, Dr. Herschel considers all these newly-discovered bodies as holding a middle rank between planets and comets, and has, therefore, termed them asteroids.

Though the planets already described, and their attendant satellites, are considered as the whole of the

regular bodies which form the solar system, yet that system is occasionally visited by other bodies, called *comets*, which are supposed to move round the sun in elliptical orbits. Of the number, use, and revolution of these, our knowledge is very imperfect; but they seem far to exceed the number of the planets; and, in fact, no fewer than four hundred and fifty are *supposed* to belong to the solar system.

Like the planets, they are observed to be opaque bodies, shining only by the influence of the sun, and, like them, are carried along in their orbits, by the combination of the centripetal and centrifugal forces; sometimes seeming to go forward, sometimes backward, and sometimes to be stationary. The great eccentricity of their orbits makes them liable to suffer considerable alterations, from the attraction of the planets, and of each other.

It seems, therefore, to prevent disturbances in the spheres, that, while the planets revolve all of them nearly in the same plane, the comets are disposed in very different ones, and distributed over various parts of the heavens. The tails of the comets appear to be vapours exhaled from their bodies and the gross atmospheres that surround them; and, like smoke, they are always in the plane of the comet's orbit, and opposite to the sun; except that their extremities incline towards the parts which the comet has left; and they resemble the smoke of a burning coal, which, if the coal remain fixed, ascends from it perpendicularly; but, if the coal be in motion, ascends obliquely from the motion of the coal: the tails, however, are of so subtile a vapour, that the stars may be seen distinctly through it.

They are called comets, from their having a long tail, somewhat resembling the appearance of hair. This, however, is not always the case; for some comets have appeared, which were as well defined and as round as planets; but, in general, they have a luminous matter diffused around, or projecting from them. These bodies sometimes lose their splendour suddenly, while their bulk remains unaltered. Their apparent magnitude is very different: sometimes they seem only of the size of the fixed stars: at other times they will equal the diameter of Venus, and sometimes even of the moon. In 1652, Hevelius observed a comet, which seemed not inferior to the moon in size, though it had not so bright a splendour, but appeared with a pale and dim light. Of the comet which appeared in the early part of 1661, he observed, that its body was of a yellowish colour, bright, and conspicuous, but without any glittering. In the middle was a dense ruddy nucleus, almost equal in size to Jupiter, encompassed with a fainter substance. The nucleus soon grew bigger and brighter, and appeared divided into a number of parts, one of which, much denser and brighter than the rest, was round, and represented a little lucid star. In about a week, the nuclei became more obscure and confused, and the whole head much diminished, both in brightness and magnitude; two weeks afterwards, its roundness was a little impaired, and the edges lacerated; a month after which, its matter was much dispersed, and no distinct nucleus appeared. The nucleus of the comet of 1618 is said, a few days after coming into view, to have broken into three or four parts of irregular figures. One writer has compared them to so many burning coals, observing that they changed their situation while he was looking at them, as when a person stirs a fire; and a few days after, were broken into a great number of small pieces. Another account of the same comet is, that, on the 1st and 4th of December, the nucleus appeared to be a round, solid, and luminous body, of a dusky ad colour, larger than any star of the first magnitude: on the 8th, it was broken into three or four parts, of irregular figures; and, on the 20th, was changed into a cluster of small stars. Comets have often, also, different phases, like the moon.

As the tail of a comet is owing to the heat of the sun, it lengthens as the comet approaches nearer to, and shortens as it recedes from that luminary. If the eye be in a line, drawn through the middle of the tail, lengthways, the whole will appear round; if out of that line a little, it will appear short; and it is called a bearded comet when the tail hangs down towards the horizon. If the tail of a comet be viewed sideways, it sometimes seems bent, when the earth is not in the plane of the comet's orbit continued; but when that plane passes through the eye of the spectator, the tail appears straight.

The most remarkable comet that has appeared in Europe within the last fifty years, was first observed, at London, towards the end of September, 1807. About seven o'clock in the evening, it appeared with the brightness of a star of the second magnitude, with a short luminous tail, and a nucleus distinct and bright. It continued moving in a northerly direction, at the rate of more than a degree per day, till about the end of the year; its tail first diminishing in size and brightness, and, afterwards, the nucleus, and the comet itself. Its greatest brightness was during the month of October, while receding from the sun and the earth: and it was clearly defined with a common large aperture two-feet night-telescope, with three glasses, of a power of about eight times. Another comet appeared in England in the autumn of 1811.

Here let us pause, and acknowledge with the learned and eloquent Dr. Chalmers, that if the discoveries of science were even to stop here, we should have "enough to justify the exclamation of the Psalmist, 'What is man that thou art mindful of him, or the son of man that thou shouldest deign to visit him?' They widen the empire of creation far beyond the limits which were formerly assigned to it. They give us to see that yon sun, throned in the centre of his planetary system, gives light and warmth, and the vicissitude of seasons, to an extent of surface, several hundreds of times greater than that of the earth which we inhabit. They lay open to us a number of worlds, rolling in their respective circles around this vast luminary—and prove that the ball which we tread upon, with all its mighty burden of oceans and continents, instead of being distinguished from the others, is among the least of them; and, from some of the more distant planets, would not occupy a visible point in the concave of their firmament. They let us know, that though this mighty earth, with all its myriads of people, were to sink into annihilation, there are some worlds where an event so awful to us would be unnoticed and unknown, and others where it would be nothing more than the disappearance of a little star which had ceased from its twinkling. We should feel a sentiment of modesty at this humiliating but just representation. We should learn not to look on our earth as the universe of God, but as one paltry and insignificant portion of it; that it is only one of the many mansions which the Supreme Being has created for the accommodation of his worshippers, and only one of the many worlds rolling in that flood of light which the sun pours around him to the outer limits of the planetary system."

SECTION III.

Of the Fixed Stars, the Doctrine of the Sphere, &c.

Having briefly surveyed the solar system, which, however stupendous in itself, is small in comparison of the immensity of the universe, we proceed to the contemplation of those other vast bodies called the *fixed stars;* which, being of infinite use in the study of astronomy, claim a particular notice in this article. The fixed stars are distinguished by the naked eye from the planets, by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call *twinkling.* This arises from their being so extremely small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the sight of them; when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star, and this succession being perpetual, occasions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their situation with regard to each other. The stars which are nearest to us seem largest, and are therefore called those of the first magnitude. Those of the second magnitude appear less, being at a greater distance; and so proceeding on to the sixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed stars that are visible without a telescope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night, when the moon is absent, they seem to be innumerable, owing to their strong sparkling, and our looking at them in a confused manner; yet, when the whole firmament is divided into signs and constellations, the number that can be seen at one time, by the unassisted eye, is not above a thousand. Since the introduction of the telescope, indeed, the number of the fixed stars has been justly considered as immense; because the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. Mr. Flamstead, late astronomer royal at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about three thousand stars, which are called *telescopic* stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of that instrument. Dr. Herschel, to whose ingenuity and assiduity the astronomical world is so much indebted, has evinced what great discoveries may be made by improvements in the instruments of observation. M. de la Lande, in speaking of his discoveries, says, "In passing rapidly over the heavens with his new telescope, the universe increased under his eye; forty-four thousand stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seemed to indicate that there were seventy-five millions in the heavens!" Even these, however, are as nothing when compared to those that fill the whole expanse,—the boundless fields of Ether.

"And shall we say," enquires Dr. Chalmers, "that these vast luminaries were created in vain? Were they called into existence for no other purpose than to throw a tide of useless splendour over the solitudes of immensity? Our sun is only one of these luminaries, and we know that he has worlds in his train. Why should we strip the rest of this princely attendance? Why may not each of them be the centre of his own system, and

give light to his own worlds? It is true that we see them not; but could the eye of man take its flight into those distant regions, it should lose sight of our little world, before it reached the outer limits of our system—the greater planets should disappear in their turn—before it had described a small portion of that abyss which separates us from the fixed stars, the sun should decline into a little spot, and all its splendid retinue of worlds be lost in the obscurity of distance—he should, at last, shrink into a small indivisible atom, and all that could be seen of this magnificent system, should be reduced to the glimmering of a little star. Why resist any longer the grand and interesting conclusion? Each of these stars may be the token of a system as vast and as splendid as the one which we inhabit. Worlds roll in these distant regions; and these worlds must be the mansions of life and of intelligence. In yon gilded canopy of heaven, we see the broad aspect of the universe, where each shining point presents us with a sun, and each sun with a system of worlds—where the Divinity reigns in all the grandeur of his high attributes—where he peoples immensity with his wonders; and travels in the greatness of his strength through the dominions of one vast and unlimited monarchy."

We now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE; and, in speaking upon this subject, we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the celestial bodies as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any error, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occasions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is also attended with this advantage, that it agrees with the information of our senses.

"The ancients," says a respectable geographer, "observed, that all the stars apparently turned round the earth, from east to west, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they described in those revolutions were parallel to each other, but not of the same magnitude; those passing over the middle of the earth being the largest, while the others diminished in proportion to their distance from it. They also perceived, that there were two points in the heavens, which always preserved the same situation. These points they termed celestial poles, because the heavens seemed to turn round them. In order to imitate these motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial* or *Armillary Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire, called an *Axis*, the extremities of which are fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They farther observed, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle described by the sun was at an equal distance from both the poles. This circle, therefore, must divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator*. It was also called the *Equinoctial Line*, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed, that from the 21st of June to the 22d December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence it set out, from the 22d of December to the 21st of June; they fixed *these points*, which they called *Solstices*, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them; and represented the bounds of the sun's motion by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there than he turned back. Astronomers, observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in the heavens, every twenty-four hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic;* and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of 23 deg. 29 min., the sun's greatest declination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from, and parallel to, this circle, which they call the *Poles* of the zodiac, which, turning with the heavens by means of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the armillary sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are intersected at right angles by two other circles, called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed, that when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they call a *Meridian*, and which is immoveable in the artificial sphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half-spheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it."

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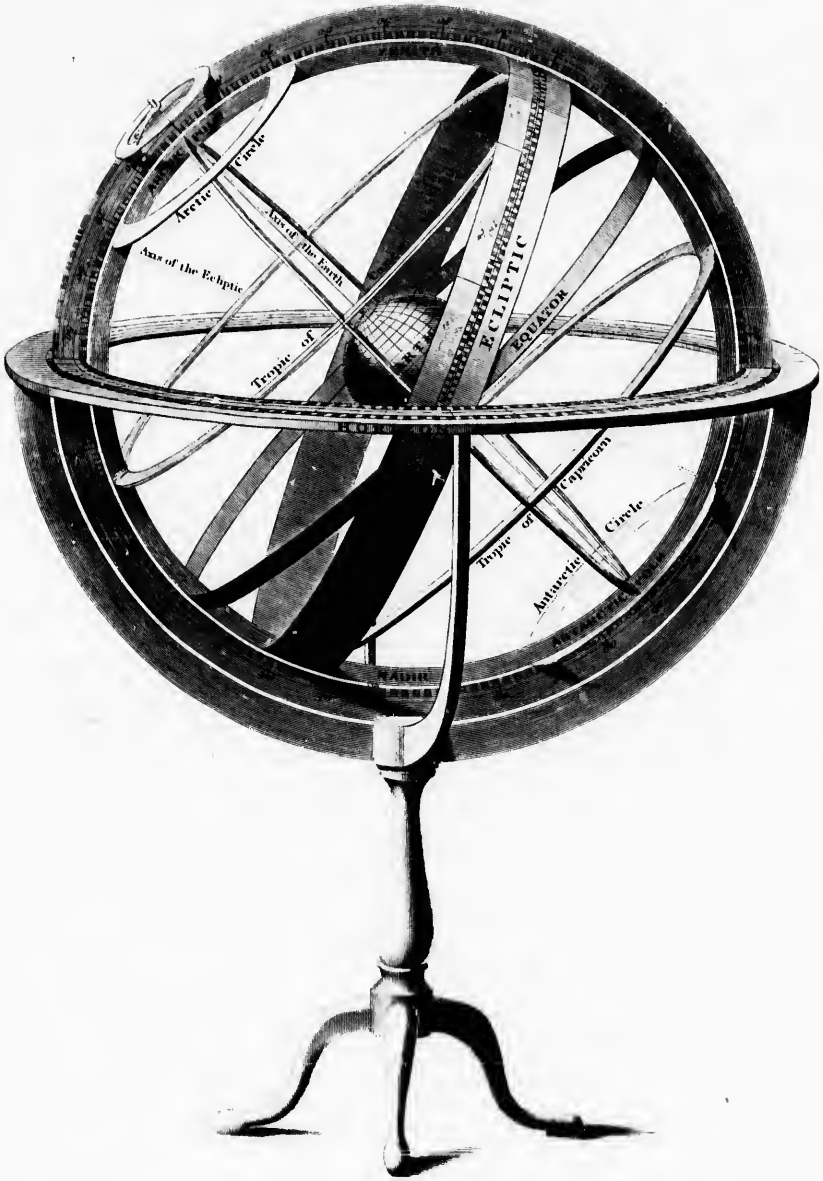

THOMAS KELLY.

SECTION IV.

Description and Use of the Terrestrial Globe.

The terrestrial globe is an artificial representation of the surface of the earth; on which are delineated, according to their relative situations, the continents, islands, empires, kingdoms, and states, into which the known world is divided, together with their principal cities, oceans, rivers, lakes, &c.

The *axis of the earth* (represented on an artificial globe by the wire which passes through its centre from north to south) is an imaginary line, upon which it is supposed to turn, and around which all the celestial bodies seem to revolve in twenty-four hours. The *arctic* and *antarctic poles* are the northern and southern extremities of this axis.

The *equator* is a great circle of the earth, drawn round it, at an equal distance from each of the poles, and dividing it into two equal parts, called the northern and southern hemispheres.

The *ecliptic* is a great circle, in which the sun makes his apparent *annual* progress among the constellations, or it is the real path of the earth round the sun, and cuts the equator in an angle of 23 deg. 28 min.: the points of intersection are styled the *equinoctial points.*

The *horizon* is a great circle which divides the visible half of the heavens from the invisible; and, when applied to the earth, is either spoken of as the *sensible* or *rational horizon.* The former is that circle which terminates our view: the latter is an imaginary line passing through the middle of the earth, parallel to the sensible horizon.

The horizon, on the artificial globe, is a circular flat piece of wood, surrounding the globe, and intended to represent the rational horizon. It is divided into several circles; and, on the *New British Globes,* (from which this description is drawn,) they are arranged in the following order:—

The *first* circle is marked *amplitude,* and is numbered, from 0 to 91 degrees, from the east and from the west, towards the north and south.—The *second* circle is marked *azimuth,* and is numbered, from 0 to 90 degrees, from the north and south points of the horizon towards the east and west.—The *third* circle contains the thirty-two points of the compass, divided into half and quarter points: the degrees in each point are comprised in the azimuth circle.—The fourth circle contains the twelve signs of the zodiac, with the figure and astronomical character of each sign.—The *fifth* circle contains the degrees of the signs, each sign comprising 30 degrees.—The *sixth* circle is occupied by the days of the month corresponding with each degree of the sun's place in the ecliptic.—The *seventh* circle shews the equation of time, or the difference between a correct sun-dial and a well-regulated clock.—And the *eighth,* or outward circle, contains the names of the twelve calendar months.

The *brazen meridian* is the circle in which the globe hangs, and is divided into four quadrants of 90 degrees each. In the upper semicircle of this meridian, the degrees are numbered from 0 to 90, from the equator towards the poles, in the lower semicircle; the degrees are similarly numbered from the poles towards the equator; and they are used for ascertaining the latitudes of places, and for the elevating of the poles. Every place upon the earth is supposed to have a meridian passing through it; and though there are only twenty-four meridians, or lines of longitude, drawn upon the artificial globe, the deficiency is supplied by the brass meridian, to which any place on the surface of the globe may be brought.

Parallels of latitude are circles drawn through every ten degrees of latitude parallel to the equator. Every place on the earth is supposed to have a parallel of latitude passing through it, though only sixteen of these circles are drawn on the artificial globe.

The *tropics* are two small circles parallel to the equator, and 23 deg. 28 min. distant from it: that which lies on the north side is called the *tropic of cancer,* and that on the south side is termed the *tropic of capricorn.*

The *polar circles* are two small circles parallel to the equator, at the distance of 66 deg. 32 min. from it. The northern is called the *arctic,* and the southern the *antarctic circle.*

The *analemma* is a calendar of the months, drawn on that part of the globe which represents the Pacific Ocean, and extending from the tropic of cancer to that of capricorn: the months and days marked on it are divided, to correspond with the sun's declination for every day in the year.

The *hour-circle*, on the artificial globe, is a small circle of brass, which turns on the north pole, and is divided into twenty-four equal parts, corresponding with the hours of the day; and these are subdivided into halves and quarters. On the New British globes, there is also an hour circle at the south pole, numbered with two rows of figures, and furnished with an index or pointer.

The *mariner's compass*, which is usually fixed beneath the artificial globe, is designed to represent the horizon, and is used by seamen to ascertain the situation or course of their vessels. It consists of a circular box, which contains a paper card, divided into 32 points, or equal parts, each point comprising 11 deg. 15 min., or the thirty-second part of 360 degrees. The magnetical needle fixed on this card always points *towards* the north, but is subject to a *variation* toward the east or the west. At present, in England, the magnetic needle points about 24 degrees to the *westward* of the north. In rectifying either of the artificial globes, therefore, allowance must be made for this variation.

The *quadrant of altitude* is a necessary appendage to the artificial globe. It is a thin slip of brass divided into ninety degrees, and may be screwed on any part of the brass meridian. On the terrestrial globe it is principally used in measuring the distances of places.

Having now described all the parts of the terrestrial globe, we proceed to lay down such instructions for using it, as may enable our readers, even *without a master*, to work the subjoined problems.

The first thing to be done is to *rectify the globe;* which, however simple in itself, always puzzles the learner, and renders him unable to proceed a single step without a master. To this, therefore, the reader is requested to pay particular attention. Place the globe in such a position that the magnetic needle in the mariner's compass may point 24 degrees to the *westward of the north;* then the brazen meridian will stand due north and south; and all the points of the horizon will be correct. Having done this, loosen the screw at the bottom of the globe, so that the brass meridian may turn freely, and *elevate the pole* according to the given latitude; that is, bring the degree marked on the brass meridian to the wooden horizon. For example:—Suppose the globe to be placed with the hour-circle at the top, and the equator coinciding with the wooden horizon; if, in this case, you are required to rectify the globe for the meridian of London, you must move the globe downwards towards the north point of the wooden horizon till 51½ degrees, as marked on the brass meridian, come exactly level with the horizon; because London is situate in 51 deg. 31 min. *north latitude;* and 51½ degrees will be sufficiently near for instrumental illustration. Or, should you be required to rectify the globe for the meridian of Buenos Ayres in Brazil, you must turn the globe till rather more than 34½ degrees on the *opposite side* of the brass meridian, and *below* the equator, coincide with the wooden horizon; because Buenos Ayres is situate in 34 deg. 35 min. of *south* latitude. By the elevation of the north or south pole, therefore, we merely mean, that the degrees on the brass-meridian, on the north or south side of the equator, must be brought to the north or south side of the wooden horizon, according as the given latitude is north or south.

When the reader has committed these remarks to memory, and has made himself familiar with the lines, circles, &c., already described, he may proceed to work the following problems.

Problem I. *To find the latitude and longitude of any place.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and the degree which stands directly over it will be the latitude; and the degree marked upon the equator which stands directly under the brass-meridian will be the east or west longitude, accordingly as it is numbered toward the east or west upon the equator. Here it is of considerable importance to remark, that the situation of cities, &c. is usually pointed out on the terrestrial globe by a small mark, thus, o. This *mark*, therefore, and not merely the *name* of the place, should be brought to the brass-meridian, or otherwise the *longitude* may be incorrect.

Problem II. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*—Bring the degree of longitude to the brass-meridian, and under the degree of latitude upon the same meridian you will find the place, on the north or south of the equator, as the latitude is north or south. Thus, if it be asked, What place is situate in 113 deg. 2 min. of east longitude, and in 23 deg. 8 min. of north latitude? you will find that Canton in China is intended.

Problem III. *To find all those places which have the same longitude or latitude.*—In respect of the *longitude*, bring the given place to the brass-meridian, and observe all the places under the edge of that meridian, both on the north and the south side of the equator; for all these will have the same longitude. And in regard of the *latitude*, bring the given place to the brass-meridian, and, having marked its latitude, turn the globe gently round, and observe all those places which pass under the same degree, for these will have the same latitude.

PROBLEM IV. *To find the difference of latitude or longitude between two places.*—To ascertain the difference of latitude, bring one of the given places to the brass-meridian, and mark the degree above it; then bring the other place to the meridian, and the number of degrees between it and the place previously marked will be the difference of latitude. To find the difference of longitude, bring one of the places to the brass-meridian, and note its longitude; then bring the other place to the meridian, and the number of degrees between its longitude and that of the former place, counted on the equator, the nearest way round the globe, will give the answer.

PROBLEM V. *To find the shortest distance between two given places.*—Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over the given places, so that the division marked o may rest on one of the places: then the degrees on the quadrant contained between the two places will give you the distance in degrees; and these will be reduced to geographical or English miles, by multiplying by 60 or by 69¼; as 60 geographical, or 69¼ English, miles make a degree. This problem may also be answered by taking the distance between the given places with a pair of compasses, and applying that distance to the equator, which will shew the number of degrees it contains.

PROBLEM VI. *The hour being given at any place, to find what hour it is in any other part of the world.*—Bring the place at which the time is given to the brass-meridian, and set the hour-circle to the given hour: then turn the globe till the other place comes to the brass-meridian, and the hour-circle will shew the time required.

PROBLEM VII. *To find the Antœci, Periœci, and Antipodes of any place.*—First place the two poles of the globe in the horizon, and bring the given place to the eastern point of the horizon: then, if the given place be in north latitude, observe how many degrees it is to the northward of the east point of the horizon; the same number of degrees to the southward of the east point will shew the *antœci*, or those who live under the same meridian, but on different sides of the equator, and equi-distant from it. An equal number of degrees, reckoned from the *west* point of the horizon towards the *north*, will shew the *periœci*, or those who live under opposite meridians, but on the same side of the equator, and at equal distances from it. And the same number of degrees, counted towards the *south of the west*, will point out the *antipodes*, or those who live under opposite meridians and in opposite parallels. N.B. If the given place be in *south latitude*, the same rule will serve, reading south for north, &c.

PROBLEM VIII. *To find the sun's place in the ecliptic, and his declination.*—Look for the given day in the circle of months on the wooden horizon, and immediately against it, in the circle of degrees of the signs, are the sign or degree in which the sun is for that day. Having found the same sign or degree in the ecliptic, on the surface of the globe, bring it to the brass-meridian; and its distance from the equator, reckoned on the meridian, will be the sun's declination. Or, if you bring the analemma to the graduated side of the brass-meridian, the degree on that meridian exactly above the given day of the month, will be the sun's declination.

PROBLEM IX. *To find the sun's rising and setting, for any given day, at any place.*—Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place, bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the hour-circle to 12. Then bring the sun's place to the eastern point of the horizon, and the hour-circle will shew the time of the sun's rising; bring it to the west point of the horizon, and the hour-circle will shew the time of setting.

PROBLEM X. *To find the sun's meridian altitude, at any place, for any given day.*—Elevate the globe for the latitude of the place, and bring the sun's place to the brass-meridian. Then reckon upon the meridian the number of degrees between the sun's place and the horizon, which will point out the sun's meridian altitude.

PROBLEM XI. *The sun's meridian altitude being given, to find the latitude of the place.*—Having found the sun's place in the ecliptic, bring it to the brass-meridian, and move the globe, till the distance between the sun's place and the north or south point of the horizon (as the question may require) be equal to the given altitude: then the elevation of the pole will answer to the latitude required.

PROBLEM XII. *To find the angle of position between two given places.*—Elevate the north or south pole, as the case may require, as many degrees above the horizon as are equal to the latitude of one of the given places. Bring that place to the brass-meridian; screw the quadrant of altitude upon the degree over it; and move the quadrant till its graduated edge touches the other place: then the number of degrees on the wooden horizon, between the brass-meridian and the graduated edge of the quadrant (reckoning towards the elevated pole) will give the angle of position required.

PROBLEM XIII. *To find that part of the equation of time which depends on the obliquity of the ecliptic.*—Having found the sun's place in the ecliptic, and brought it to the brass-meridian, count the number of degrees between that meridian and the sign Aries, on the equator and on the ecliptic: then the difference, allowing four minutes of time to a degree, will shew the equation of time. It may be proper to add, that, if the number of degrees on the ecliptic exceed those on the equator, the sun is faster than the clock; but, if the number of degrees on the equator exceed those on the ecliptic, the sun is slower than the clock.

SECTION V.

Description and Use of the Celestial Globe.

THE celestial globe is an artificial representation of the heavens, on which the fixed stars are laid down in their natural situations. In using this globe, the student is supposed to be situated in the centre of it, and viewing the stars in the concave surface; and, when it is turned on its axis from east to west, it exhibits the apparent diurnal motion of the heavenly bodies.

In order to avoid needless *repetitions* in our description of this instrument, it will be necessary to remind the reader, that several things which have already been explained, as belonging to the *terrestrial globe*, are also common to the *celestial;* viz. the axis—the brazen meridian—the hour-circle—the horizon, with its eight circles—the mariner's compass—the quadrant of altitude—the ecliptic, &c. The *equator* on the terrestrial globe is called the *equinoctial* on the celestial.

The ZODIAC is a space which extends about eight degrees on each side of the ecliptic, like a belt or girdle, within which the motions of all the planets are performed.

The zodiac, like the ecliptic, is divided into twelve equal parts, called *signs*, each containing 30 degrees. The sun makes his apparent annual progress through the ecliptic at the rate of nearly a degree in a day. The names of the signs, and the days on which the sun enters them, are as follow:—

SPRING SIGNS.	SUMMER SIGNS.
♈ *Aries*, the Ram, 21st of March.	♋ *Cancer*, the Crab, 21st of June.
♉ Taurus, the Bull, 19th of April.	♌ *Leo*, the Lion, 22d of July.
♊ *Gemini*, the Twins, 20th of May.	♍ *Virgo*, the *Virgin*, 22d of August.

These six signs are called *northern signs*, being north of the equinoctial: when the sun is in any of these signs, his declination is north.

AUTUMNAL SIGNS.	WINTER SIGNS.
♎ *Libra*, the Balance, 23d of September.	♑ *Capricornus*, the Goat, 21st of December.
♏ *Scorpio*, the Scorpion, 23d of October.	♒ *Aquarius*, the Water-bearer, 20th of January.
♐ *Sagittarius*, the Archer, 22d of November.	♓ *Pisces*, the Fishes, 19th of February.

These six signs are called *southern signs:* when the sun is in any of these signs, his declination is south.

The spring and autumnal signs are called *ascending* signs; because, when the sun is in any of these, his declination is increasing. The summer and winter signs are called *descending* signs; because, when the sun is in any of these signs, his declination is increasing.

The *cardinal points* in the heavens are the zenith, the nadir, and the points where the sun rises and sets.

The *zenith* is a point in the heavens exactly over our heads, and is the elevated pole of our horizon. The *nadir* is a point in the heavens exactly under our feet, being the depressed pole of our horizon, and the zenith of the horizon of our antipodes.

The *celestial meridians* are lines drawn from pole to pole directly across the equinoctial; they are also called *circles of declination.* The *parallels of declination* are less circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial.

The *poles of the ecliptic*, or those points on which the celestial meridians meet, on each side of the globe, are 90 degrees distant from every part of the ecliptic.

The *colures* are two great circles; one of which passes through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points, Cancer and Capricorn; for which reason they are called the equinoctial and solstitial colures. They divide the ecliptic into four equal parts, and mark the four seasons of the year.

The *constellations* occupy the whole surface of the celestial globe; and are divided into the northern, the southern, and those in the zodiac; and with all these the learner should make himself as familiar as possible.

The *right ascension* of the sun, moon, or stars, is that degree of the equinoctial which comes to the brass-meridian with the celestial body whose right ascension is required: in fact, it is exactly the same as the *longitude* of a place on the terrestrial globe.

The *declination* of any heavenly body is its distance north or south from the equinoctial, reckoned upon the meridian; and corresponds with the *latitude* of places on the terrestrial globe.

Oblique ascension is that degree of the equinoctial which comes to the *meridian* with the sun, moon, or a star, reckoning eastward from the first point of Aries. *Oblique ascension* is that degree of the equinoctial which comes to the *horizon* with the given star, &c. And *ascensional difference* is the *difference* between the right and oblique ascensions.

Right descension, oblique descension, and *descensional difference,* have the same reference to the *setting* of the sun, the moon, or a star, as the preceding terms have to its *rising.*

The latitude of a star, or planet, is its distance north or south from the ecliptic, counted toward the pole of the ecliptic on the quadrant of altitude. The sun being always in the ecliptic, has no latitude. The *longitude* of any celestial body is its distance, counted eastward on the ecliptic from the first point of Aries. The longitude of the sun on the celestial globe is the same as the sun's place in the ecliptic on the terrestrial.

The *rising* of any celestial body is when its centre appears in the eastern part of the wooden horizon;—its *culminating* is when it comes to the brass-meridian; and its *setting* is when its centre disappears in the western part of the horizon.

The *altitude* of any heavenly body is an arc of a vertical circle, contained between the centre of the given body and the horizon. When the object is upon the meridian, this arc is called the *meridian altitude.*

Amplitude is the distance (either north or south) of any celestial object from the east or west point of the horizon, at the time of rising or setting. *Azimuth* is the distance of a vertical circle passing through any heavenly body, from the north or south point of the horizon, and is either easterly or westerly.

As the *planets* are moving bodies, they cannot be represented on the celestial globe; but their places in the zodiac may easily be found, by referring to White's Ephemeris or the Nautical Almanac; and if the learner stick a small piece of paper on the places thus found, he may find their rising, setting, &c. as easily as that of the fixed stars.

These definitions, if committed to memory, will enable the reader to work the following problems.

PROBLEM I. *To find the right ascension and declination of a given star.*—This is exactly the same as finding the longitude and latitude of a place on the terrestrial globe; as when the given star is brought to the meridian, the degree of the equinoctial will shew the right ascension, and the degree on the meridian over the star will give its declination.

PROBLEM II. *Having the right ascension and declination of any star given, to find it on the globe.*—This is done the same as Problem II. on the terrestrial globe.

PROBLEM III. *To find the rising, culminating, and setting of any star, &c.*—Having rectified the globe for the given latitude, and brought the sun's place to the meridian, set the hour-circle at 12. Then bring the given star successively to the eastern point of the horizon, the brass-meridian, and the western point of the horizon; and, by looking each time at the hour-circle, you will see the time of its rising, culminating, and setting.

PROBLEM IV. *To find the latitude and longitude of a given star, &c.*—Bring the pole of the ecliptic which is in the same hemisphere with the given star, to the brass-meridian, and screw over it the quadrant of altitude. Insert a piece of quill or other substance between the globe and the meridian, to keep the former steady, and move the quadrant till it come exactly to the centre of the given object: then the degree of the quadrant cut by the star will be the latitude, and the degree of the ecliptic cut by the quadrant will be the longitude required.

PROBLEM V. *To find on what day of the year any star passes the meridian, at a given hour.*—Bring the star to the brass-meridian, and set the hour-circle to the given time. Then turn the globe till the index point to 12 at noon, and the day of the month corresponding with the degree of the ecliptic, then under the meridian will be the day required.

PROBLEM VI. *To represent the face of the heavens for any night and hour, in any given latitude.*—Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place, bring the sun's longitude to the meridian, and set the hour-circle to

12 o'clock: then turn the globe till the index point to the given hour; and the stars in the heavens will appear in the same situation as upon the globe. If the globe, in this case, be taken into the open air, and a pencil be placed erect on either of the stars drawn on its surface, it will point out that particular star in the heavens.

PROBLEM VII. *The latitude, day of the month, and hour, being given, to find the altitude and azimuth of any star.*—Rectify the globe for the given latitude, bring the sun's place to the meridian, set the hour-circle at 12, and turn the globe till the index point to the given hour. Then fix the quadrant of altitude on the zenith, and bring it over the star. The degree upon the quadrant cut by the star will be its altitude, and the distance between the foot of the quadrant and the north or south point of the horizon, will be the azimuth.

PROBLEM VIII. *The latitude, day of the month, and hour, being given, to find what planets will be visible.*—Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place, bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the hour-circle to 12. Then, if the given time be before noon, turn the globe *eastward* till the index has passed over as many hours as the time wants of noon; but, if the given time be past noon, turn the globe *westward*, till the index has passed over as many hours as the time is past noon. Steady the globe in this position, and look in an ephemeris for the longitudes of the planets; and if any of them be in the signs of the zodiac which are above the wooden horizon, such planets will be visible.

PROBLEM IX. *To find the distance of two stars from each other in degrees.*—Lay the quadrant of altitude over the given stars, so that the division marked o may rest on one of them, and the degrees between them, counted on the quadrant, will give their distance.

PROBLEM X. *To find the time of the moon's rising, southing, and setting for any latitude and day of the year.*—Look in an ephemeris for the moon's longitude and latitude for the given day, and mark its place in the zodiac with a small paper patch; then its rising, southing, and setting, may be found as easily as those of the stars. The term *southing* implies the same as the *culminating* of the stars, viz. coming to the meridian.

TABLE

OF THE

LATITUDES AND LONGITUDES

OF THE

Principal Places on the Surface of the Earth.

Names of Places.	Cont.	Country or Sea	Latitude.	Longitude.	Names of Places.	Cont.	Country or Sea	Latitude.	Longitude.
			° ′	° ′				° ′	° ′
Abbeville	Europe	France	50 7 N.	1 49 E.	Antigua (St. John's)	Amer.	Carib. Sea	17 4 N.	62 9 W.
Aberdeen	Europe	Scotland	57 9 N.	1 28 W.	Antwerp	Europe	Belgium	51 13 N.	4 23 E.
Abo	Europe	Finland	60 10 N.	22 13 E.	Aracan	Asia	India	20 3 N.	93 30 E.
Acapulco	Amer.	Mexico	17 10 N.	101 45 W.	Archangel	Europe	Russia	64 33 N.	38 59 E.
Achen	Asia	Sumatra	5 22 N.	95 34 E.	Arran (Isle)	Europe	Scotland	55 39 N.	5 12 W.
Adrianople	Europe	Turkey	41 10 N.	26 30 E.	Ascension (Isle)	Africa	S. Atl. Ocean	7 56 S.	13 50 W.
Agra	Asia	India	26 43 N.	76 44 E.	Astracan	Asia	Russia	46 21 N.	48 8 E.
Aix la Chapelle	Europe	Germany	50 47 N.	6 4 E.	Athens	Europe	Turkey	38 5 N.	23 52 E.
Alderney (Isle)	Europe	Eng. Chan.	49 42 N.	2 17 W.	Augsburg	Europe	Germany	48 16 N.	10 52 E.
Aleppo	Asia	Turkey	35 45 N.	37 20 E.	Ava	Asia	India	21 30 N	96 0 E.
Alexandria	Africa	Egypt	33 11 N.	30 39 E.					
Algiers	Africa	Algiers	36 49 N.	2 13 E.	Babelmandel Straits	Africa	Abyssinia	12 50 N.	43 50 E.
Amiens	Europe	France	49 53 N.	2 18 E.	Bagdad	Asia	Chaldea	33 19 N.	44 24 E.
Amsterdam	Europe	Holland	52 21 N.	4 51 E.	Bautry Bay	Europe	Ireland	51 26 N.	10 10 W.
Anguilla (Isle)	Amer.	Carib. Sea	19 0 N.	62 57 W.	Barbadoes, B. Town	Amer.	Atl. Ocean	13 0 N.	59 50 W.
Annapolis	Amer.	United States	44 52 N.	64 5 W.	Barbuda (Isle)	Amer.	Atl. Ocean	18 0 N.	61 35 W.
Antibes	Europe	France	43 34 N.	7 7 E.	Basil	Europe	Switzerland	47 35 N	7 29 E.

Names of Places.	Cont.	Country or Sea.	Latitude.	Longitude.
			° ′	° ′
Basse Terre	Amer.	Guadaloupe	15 59 N.	61 59 W.
Bastia	Europe	Corsica	42 30 N.	9 40 E.
Batavia	Asia	Java	6 12 S.	106 53 E.
Bath	Europe	England	51 22 N.	2 21 W.
Belfast	Europe	Ireland	54 35 N.	5 52 W.
Bencoolen	Asia	Sumatra	3 49 S.	102 10 E.
Berlin	Europe	Germany	52 31 N.	13 22 E.
Bermudas (Isle)	Amer.	Atl. Ocean	32 0 N.	63 28 W.
Bern	Europe	Switzerland	46 58 N.	7 31 E.
Berwick	Europe	Scotland	55 47 N.	2 5 W.
Birmingham	Europe	England	52 30 N.	10 50 W.
Bologna	Europe	Italy	44 30 N.	11 21 E.
Bolschetskolostrog	Asia	Siberia	52 54 N.	156 37 E.
Bombay	Asia	India	18 56 N.	72 38 E
Borneo (Isle)	Asia	China Sea	5 3 N.	114 20 E.
Boston	Amer.	NewEngland	42 25 N.	70 59 W.
Botany Bay	Asia	New Holland	34 0 S.	151 21 E.
Boulogne	Europe	France	50 43 N.	1 36 E.
Bourbon (Isle)	Africa	Indian Ocean	20 51 S.	55 30 E.
Bourdeaux	Europe	France	44 50 N.	0 34 W.
Breda	Europe	Netherlands	51 40 N.	4 40 E.
Breslau	Europe	Silesia	51 3 N.	17 8 E.
Brest	Europe	France	48 22 N.	4 29 W.
Bridge Town	Amer.	Barbadoes	13 5 N.	58 35 W.
Brighton	Europe	England	50 49 N.	0 6 W.
Bristol	Europe	England	51 28 N.	2 30 W.
Bruges	Europe	Netherlands	51 12 N.	3 12 E
Brussels	Europe	Belgium	50 51 N	4 22 E
Buda	Europe	Hungary	47 40 N.	19 20 E.
Buenos Ayres	Amer.	Brasil	34 35 S.	58 31 W.
Burgos	Europe	Spain	42 20 N.	3 30 W.
Cachao	Asia	India	21 30 N.	105 0 E.
Cadiz	Europe	Spain	36 32 N.	6 16 W.
Cagliari	Europe	Sardinia	39 25 N.	9 38 E.
Cairo	Africa	Egypt	30 3 N.	31 18 E.
Calcutta, (F. Will.)	Asia	India	22 34 N.	88 20 E.
Calmar	Europe	Sweden	56 40 N.	16 21 E.
Cambridge	Europe	England	52 12 N.	0 4 E.
Canary (Isle), N.E. Pt.	Africa	Canaries	28 13 N.	15 38 W.
Candia (Isle)	Europe	Mediter. Sea	35 18 N.	25 18 E.
Canterbury Cathedral	Europe	England	51 18 N.	1 4 E.
Canton	Asia	China	23 8 N.	113 2 E
Cape of Good-Hope	Africa	Caffraria	34 20 S.	18 28 E.
Cardigan	Europe	Wales	52 10 N.	4 38 W.
Carlisle	Europe	England	54 47 N.	2 53 W.
Carthagena	Amer.	Terra Firma	10 25 N.	75 42 W.
Ceylon, S. Point	Asia	India	5 47 N.	81 2 E.
Chester	Europe	England	53 15 N.	0 3 W.
Christiana	Europe	Norway	59 55 N.	10 48 E.
Christiansand	Europe	Norway	58 11 N.	8 11 E.
Civita Vecchia	Europe	Italy	42 5 N.	15 46 E.
Cochin	Asia	India	9 33 N.	75 35 E.
Coaception	Amer.	Chili	36 42 S.	72 40 W.
Constantinople	Europe	Turkey	41 1 N.	28 55 E.
Copenhagen	Europe	Denmark	55 41 N.	12 35 E.
Cork	Europe	Ireland	51 53 N.	8 28 W.
Coventry	Europe	England	52 25 N.	1 25 W.
Cracow	Europe	Poland	49 59 N.	19 50 E.
Cuzco	S. Am.	Peru	12 25 S.	73 35 W.
Cyprus	Asia	Syria	34 30 N.	33 16 E.
Dantzic	Europe	Poland	54 21 N.	18 38 E.
Deft	Europe	Holland	52 6 N.	4 5 E.
Delhi	Asia	India	28 37 N.	77 40 E.
Derby	Europe	England	52 58 N.	1 30 W.
Domiaica (Isle)	Amer.	Windw. Isles	15 18 N.	61 27 W.
Dorchester	Europe	England	50 42 N.	2 25 W.
Dover	Europe	England	51 8 N.	1 18 E.
Douglas	Europe	Isle of Man	54 7 N.	4 38 W.
Dresden	Europe	Germany	51 0 N.	13 26 E.
Drontheim	Europe	Norway	63 26 N.	10 22 E.
Dublin	Europe	Ireland	53 21 N.	6 6 W.
Dumbarton	Europe	Scotland	55 44 N.	4 20 W.
Dumfries	Europe	Scotland	55 8 N.	3 25 W.
Dunbar	Europe	Scotland	56 1 N.	2 23 W.
Dundee	Europe	Scotland	56 28 N.	2 58 W.
Durham	Europe	England	54 43 N.	1 15 W.
Edinburgh	Europe	Scotland	55 57 N.	3 12 W.
Eddystone	Europe	Eng. Chan.	50 8 N.	4 24 W.
Elsineur	Europe	Denmark	56 0 N.	13 35 E.
Erzerum	Asia	Turcomania	39 56 N.	48 35 E.
Exeter	Europe	England	50 44 N.	3 34 W.
Falmouth	Europe	England	50 8 N.	5 2 W.
Fez	Africa	Morocco	33 30 N.	6 0 W.
Flamborough Head	Europe	England	54 8 N.	0 11 E.
Florence	Europe	Italy	43 46 N.	11 3 E.
Flushing	Europe	Holland	51 27 N.	3 33 E.
François (Cape)	Amer.	Hispaniola	19 46 N.	72 18 W.
Frankfort (on the Maine)	Europe	Germany	49 55 N.	8 35 E.
Frejus	Europe	France	43 25 N.	6 43 E.
Funchal	Africa	Madeira	32 37 N.	17 6 W.
Geneva	Europe	Savoy	46 12 N.	6 0 E.
Genoa	Europe	Italy	44 25 N.	8 56 E.
Ghent	Europe	Flanders	51 3 N.	3 43 E.
Gibraltar	Europe	Spain	36 6 N.	5 22 W.
Glasgow	Europe	Scotland	55 51 N.	4 15 W.
Gloucester	Europe	England	51 5 N.	2 16 W.
Goree (Isle)	Africa	Atlan. Ocean	14 40 N.	17 25 W.
Gottenburgh	Europe	Sweden	57 42 N.	11 38 E.
Gratz	Europe	Germany	47 4 N.	15 25 E.
Greenwich (Observatory)	Europe	England	51 29 N.	0 0
Guadaluupe	Amer.	Carib. Sea	15 59 N.	61 48 W.
Guam (Isle)	Asia	India	14 0 N.	140 30 E.
Guernsey	Europe	Brit.Channel	49 30 N.	2 47 W.
Haarlem	Europe	Holland	52 22 N.	4 36 E.
Hague	Europe	Netherlands	52 4 N.	4 17 E.
Halifax	Amer.	Nova Scotia	44 46 N.	63 27 W.
Halifax	Europe	England	53 45 N.	1 52 W.
Hamburgh	Europe	Netherlands	53 33 N.	10 1 E.
Hanover	Europe	Germany	52 22 N.	9 48 E.
Hastings	Europe	England	50 52 N.	0 41 E.
Havannah	Amer.	Cuba	23 11 N.	82 18 W.
Hecla (Mount)	Europe	Iceland	63 20 N.	20 0 W.
Holyhead	Europe	Wales	53 23 N.	4 40 W.
Horn (Cape)	Amer.	T. del Fuego	55 58 S.	68 13 W.
Hualhiene (Isle)	Asia	PacificOcean	16 44 S.	151 6 W.
Hull	Europe	England	53 50 N.	0 28 W.
Inverness	Europe	Scotland	57 36 N.	4 15 W.
Irkutsk	Asia	Siberia	54 30 N.	104 30 E.
Ispahan	Asia	Persia	32 25 N.	52 50 E.
Jamaica (Port Royal)	Amer.	Atl. Ocean	18 0 N.	76 44 W.
Java Head	Asia	Java	6 49 S.	106 50 E.
Jeddo	Asia	Japan Isle	36 20 N.	139 0 E.
Jerusalem	Asia	Palestine	31 46 N.	35 20 E.
Joanna	Asia	Comoro Isles	12 5 S.	45 40 E.
Juan Fernandez	Asia	Pacific Ocean	33 45 S.	78 37 W.
Kingston	Amer.	Jamaica	47 57 N.	76 38 W.
Kiow	Europe	Russia	50 30 N.	31 12 E.
Koningsberg	Europe	Prussia	54 43 N.	21 35 E.
Ladrone (Grand)	Asia	Pacific Ocean	22 2 N.	113 56 E.
Lahore	Asia	India	32 40 N.	75 30 E.
Lancaster	Europe	England	54 5 N.	2 55 W.
Lausanne	Europe	Switzerland	46 31 N.	6 45 E.
Leeds	Europe	England	53 48 N.	1 34 W.
Leghorn	Europe	Italy	43 33 N.	10 16 E.
Leicester	Europe	England	52 38 N.	1 8 W.
Leipsic	Europe	Saxony	51 19 N.	12 20 E.
Leith	Europe	Scotland	56 0 N.	3 11 E.
Leyden	Europe	Holland	52 8 N.	4 28 E.
Limerick	Europe	Ireland	52 22 N.	9 53 W.
Lincoln	Europe	England	53 15 N.	0 27 W.
Lislithgow	Europe	Scotland	55 56 N.	3 30 W.
Lisle	Europe	Belgium	50 37 N.	3 4 E.
Lisbon	Europe	Portugal	38 42 N	9 4 W.
Litchfield	Europe	England	52 43 N.	1 4 W.
Liverpool	Europe	England	53 22 N.	3 10 W.
London (St. Paul's)	Europe	England	51 31 N.	0 6 W.
Londonderry	Europe	Ireland	50 0 N.	7 40 W

Names of Places.	Cont.	Country or Sea.	Latitude.	Longitude.
			° ′	° ′
Loretto	Europe	Italy	43 15 N.	14 15 E.
Luxembourg	Europe	Belgium	49 37 N.	6 11 E.
Lyons	Europe	France	45 55 N.	4 49 E.
Macao	Asia	China	22 12 N.	113 46 E.
Macassar	Asia	Celebes	5 0 S.	119 48 E.
Madeira (Funchal)	Africa	Atlan. Ocean	32 37 N.	16 56 W.
Madras	Asia	India	13 4 N.	80 28 E.
Madrid	Europe	Spain	40 25 N.	3 12 W.
Malacca	Asia	India	2 12 N.	102 5 E.
Malta (Isle)	Africa	Medit. Sea	35 53 N.	14 28 E.
Manilla	Asia	Phillipines	14 36 N.	120 52 E.
Mantua	Europe	Italy	45 20 N.	10 47 E.
Marseilles	Europe	France	43 17 N.	5 21 E.
Martinico (Port Royal)	Amer.	Atlan. Ocean	14 35 N.	61 0 W.
Mauritius	Africa	Indian Ocean	20 9 S.	57 20 E.
Mecca	Asia	Arabia	21 40 N.	41 0 E.
Mechlin	Europe	Belgium	51 1 N.	4 33 E.
Medina	Asia	Arabia	25 0 N.	39 33 E.
Messina	Europe	Sicily	38 30 N.	15 40 E.
Metz	Europe	France	49 7 N.	6 10 E.
Mexico	Amer.	Mexico	19 25 S.	100 5 W.
Middleburg	Europe	Holland	51 34 N.	3 35 E.
Milan	Europe	Italy	45 27 N.	9 11 E.
Mocha	Asia	Arabia	13 40 N.	43 50 E.
Mons	Europe	Netherlands	90 27 N.	8 57 E.
Montpellier	Europe	France	43 37 N.	3 53 E.
Montrose	Europe	Scotland	56 34 N.	0 20 W.
Montserrat (Isle)	Amer.	Carib. Sea	16 47 N.	62 17 W.
Morocco	Africa	Barbary	30 32 N.	6 10 W.
Moscow	Europe	Russia	55 45 N.	37 32 E.
Munich	Europe	Bavaria	48 9 N.	11 30 E.
Namur	Europe	Belgium	50 28 N.	4 44 E.
Nagasaki	Asia	Japan	32 32 N.	128 46 E.
Nankin	Asia	China	32 4 S.	118 47 E.
Nantes	Europe	France	47 13 N.	1 32 W.
Naples	Europe	Italy	40 50 N.	14 17 E.
Newcastle	Europe	England	55 3 N.	1 24 W.
New York	Amer.	United States	40 40 N.	74 0 W.
Niagara	Amer.	Canada	43 4 N.	79 7 W.
Nismes	Europe	France	43 50 N.	4 18 E.
Nootka	Amer.	Pacific Ocean	49 36 N.	126 4 W.
Northampton	Europe	England	52 15 N.	0 55 W.
Norwich	Europe	England	52 40 N.	1 25 W.
Nottingham	Europe	England	53 0 N.	1 6 W.
Oporto	Europe	Portugal	41 10 N.	8 22 W.
Orenburg	Asia	Tartary	51 46 N.	55 4 E.
Orleans	Europe	France	47 54 N.	1 54 E.
Ostend	Europe	Netherlands	51 13 N.	2 55 E.
Oxford (Observatory)	Europe	England	51 45 N.	1 15 W.
Padua	Europe	Italy	45 13 N.	11 52 E.
Palermo	Europe	Sicily	38 30 N.	13 43 E.
Palmyra	Europe	Syria	33 0 N.	39 0 E.
Panama	Amer.	Mexico	8 47 N.	80 21 W.
Paris (Observatory)	Europe	France	48 50 N.	2 20 E.
Pegu	Asia	India	17 0 N.	97 0 E.
Pekin	Asia	China	39 54 N.	116 27 E.
Pembroke	Europe	Wales	51 45 N.	4 50 W.
Perth	Europe	Scotland	56 22 N.	3 12 W.
Petersburgh	Europe	Russia	59 56 N.	30 19 E.
Philadelphia	Amer.	Pensylvania	39 56 N.	75 13 W.
Pisa	Europe	Italy	43 43 N.	10 23 E.
Plymouth	Europe	England	50 21 N.	4 7 W.
Porto Bello	Amer.	Mexico	9 33 N.	79 50 W.
Port Royal	Amer.	Jamaica	18 0 N.	76 45 W.
Portsmouth	Europe	England	50 47 N.	1 5 W.
Potosi	S. Ame.	Peru	21 0 S.	77 0 W.
Prague	Europe	Bohemia	50 5 N.	14 24 E.
Presburg	Europe	Hungary	48 20 N.	17 30 W.
Quebec	Amer.	Canada	46 47 N.	71 10 W.
Quito	Amer.	Peru	0 13 S.	77 55 W.

Names of Places.	Cont.	Country or Sea	Latitude.	Longitude.
			° ′	° ′
Ramsgate	Europe	England	51 19 N.	1 24 E.
Rheims	Europe	France	49 15 N.	4 1 E.
Rhodes	Asia	Archipelago	35 27 N.	28 45 E.
Rio Janeiro	Amer.	Brazil	22 54 S.	42 43 W.
Rock of Lisbon	Europe	Portugal	38 45 N.	9 35 W.
Rome (St. Peter's)	Europe	Italy	41 53 N.	12 29 E.
Rotterdam	Europe	Holland	51 55 N.	4 29 E.
Rouen	Europe	France	49 26 N.	1 1 W.
Saint Andrew's	Europe	Scotland	56 21 N.	2 49 W.
St. Catherine's (Isle)	Amer.	Atlan. Ocean	27 35 S.	49 12 W.
St. Christopher's (Isle)	Amer.	Caribean Sea	17 15 N.	62 38 W.
St. Eustatia (Isle)	Amer.	Caribean Sea	17 30 N.	63 14 W.
St. Helena (James Town)	Africa	Atlan. Ocean	15 55 S.	5 49 W.
St. Lucia (Isle)	Amer.	West-Indies	13 24 N.	60 46 W.
St. Salvador	S. Ame.	Brazil	11 58 S.	38 0 W.
St. Thomas (Isle)	Amer.	West-Indies	18 21 N.	64 26 W.
Salisbury	Europe	England	51 3 N.	1 47 W.
Samarcand	Asia	Tartary	40 40 N.	69 0 E.
Samos	Asia	Archipelago	37 46 N.	27 13 E.
Santa Cruz	Africa	Teneriffe	28 27 N.	16 16 W.
Santa Fé	Amer.	New Mexico	36 0 N.	105 0 W.
Sandwich (Isle)	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 41 S.	168 33 E.
Scarborough Head	Europe	England	54 18 N.	0 13 W.
Scilly (Lights)	Europe	Eng. Channel	49 56 N.	6 46 W
Sheerness	Europe	England	51 25 N.	0 50 E.
Shrewsbury	Europe	England	52 43 N.	2 46 W.
Smyrna	Asia	Natolia	38 28 N.	27 6 E.
Southampton	Europe	England	50 53 N.	1 23 W.
Stockholm	Europe	Sweden	59 20 N.	18 3 E.
Stonehenge	Europe	England	51 10 N.	1 49 W.
Sunderland	Europe	England	54 55 N.	1 10 W.
Teflis	Asia	Georgia	43 30 N.	47 0 E.
Teneriffe (Peak)	Africa	Canaries	28 17 N.	16 40 W.
Texel (Isle)	Europe	Holland	53 10 N.	4 59 E.
Timor	Asia	India	10 23 S.	124 4 W.
Tobolsk	Asia	Siberia	58 12 N.	68 25 E.
Toledo	Europe	Spain	39 50 N.	3 20 W.
Tomsk	Asia	Siberia	56 30 N.	84 59 E.
Tongataboo (Isle)	Asia	Pacific Ocean	21 9 S.	174 46 W.
Torbay	Europe	England	50 34 N.	3 36 W.
Toulon	Europe	France	43 7 N.	5 55 E.
Trinidad	Amer.	Atlan. Ocean	20 15 S.	126 42 W.
Tripoli	Africa	Barbary	32 53 N.	13 5 E.
Tunis	Africa	Barbary	36 47 N.	10 0 E.
Upsal	Europe	Sweden	59 51 N.	17 38 E.
Utrecht	Europe	Holland	52 7 N.	5 0 E.
Valenciennes	Europe	France	50 21 N.	3 31 E.
Valparaiso	Amer.	Chili	33 2 S.	72 19 W.
Venice	Europe	Italy	45 26 N.	12 22 E.
Vera Cruz	Amer.	Mexico	19 9 N.	96 0 W.
Verd (Cape)	Africa	Negroland	14 43 N.	17 30 W.
Verona	Europe	Italy	45 26 N.	11 18 E.
Versailles	Europe	France	48 48 N.	2 7 E.
Vienna (Observatory)	Europe	Hungary	48 12 N.	16 16 E.
Warsaw	Europe	Poland	52 14 N.	21 0 E.
Warwick	Europe	England	52 18 N.	1 32 W.
Washington	Amer.	United States	38 53 N.	77 43 W.
Wexford	Europe	Ireland	52 22 N.	6 30 W.
Weymouth	Europe	England	52 40 N.	2 34 W.
Whitehaven	Europe	England	54 25 N.	3 15 W.
Wilna	Europe	Poland	54 41 N.	25 27 E.
Winchester	Europe	England	51 6 N.	1 15 W.
Worcester	Europe	England	52 9 N.	2 0 W.
Wurtzburgh	Europe	Franconia	49 46 N.	10 13 E.
Yakutsk	Asia	Siberia	62 0 N.	129 52 E.
Yarmouth	Europe	England	52 45 N.	1 48 E.
York	Europe	England	53 59 N.	1 6 W.
Zurich	Europe	Switzerland	47 22 N.	9 21 E.

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5 N.	4 1 E.
7 N.	28 45 E.
4 S.	42 43 W.
5 N.	9 35 W.
3 N.	12 20 E.
5 N.	4 29 E.
3 N.	1 1 W.
1 N.	2 49 W.
5 S.	49 12 W.
5 N.	62 38 W.
0 N.	63 14 W.
5 S.	5 49 W.
4 N.	60 46 W.
8 S.	38 0 W.
1 N.	64 26 W.
3 N.	1 47 W.
0 N.	69 0 E.
3 N.	27 13 E.
7 N.	16 16 W.
0 N.	105 0 W.
1 S.	168 33 E.
8 N.	0 13 W.
3 N.	6 46 W
5 N.	6 50 E.
3 N.	2 46 W.
8 N.	27 6 E.
3 N.	1 23 W.
0 N.	18 3 E.
0 N.	1 49 W.
5 N.	1 10 W.
0 N.	47 0 E.
7 N.	16 40 W.
0 N.	4 59 E.
3 S.	124 4 W.
2 N.	68 25 E.
0 N.	3 20 W.
0 N.	84 50 E.
0 S.	174 46 W.
1 N.	3 36 W.
7 N.	5 55 E.
5 S.	126 42 W.
1 N.	13 5 E.
7 N.	10 0 E.
1 N.	17 38 E.
7 N.	5 0 E.
1 N.	3 31 E.
2 S.	72 10 W.
3 N.	12 22 E.
0 N.	96 0 W.
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2 N.	16 16 E.
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1 N.	1 32 W.
3 N.	77 43 W.
2 N.	6 30 W.
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0 N.	1 6 W.
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AMERICA
SEA OF KAMTSCHATKA
Aleutian Islands
SEA OF OCHOTSK
SEA OF JAPAN
Gulf of Nankin
YELLOW SEA
Tropic of Cancer
CHINESE SEA
PHILIPPINE
LADRONES
CAROLINE
Samar
Palaw
MINDORO SEA
CELEBEAN SEA
BORNEO
EQUATOR
110
120
130
140

A NEW AND

COMPLETE SYSTEM

OF

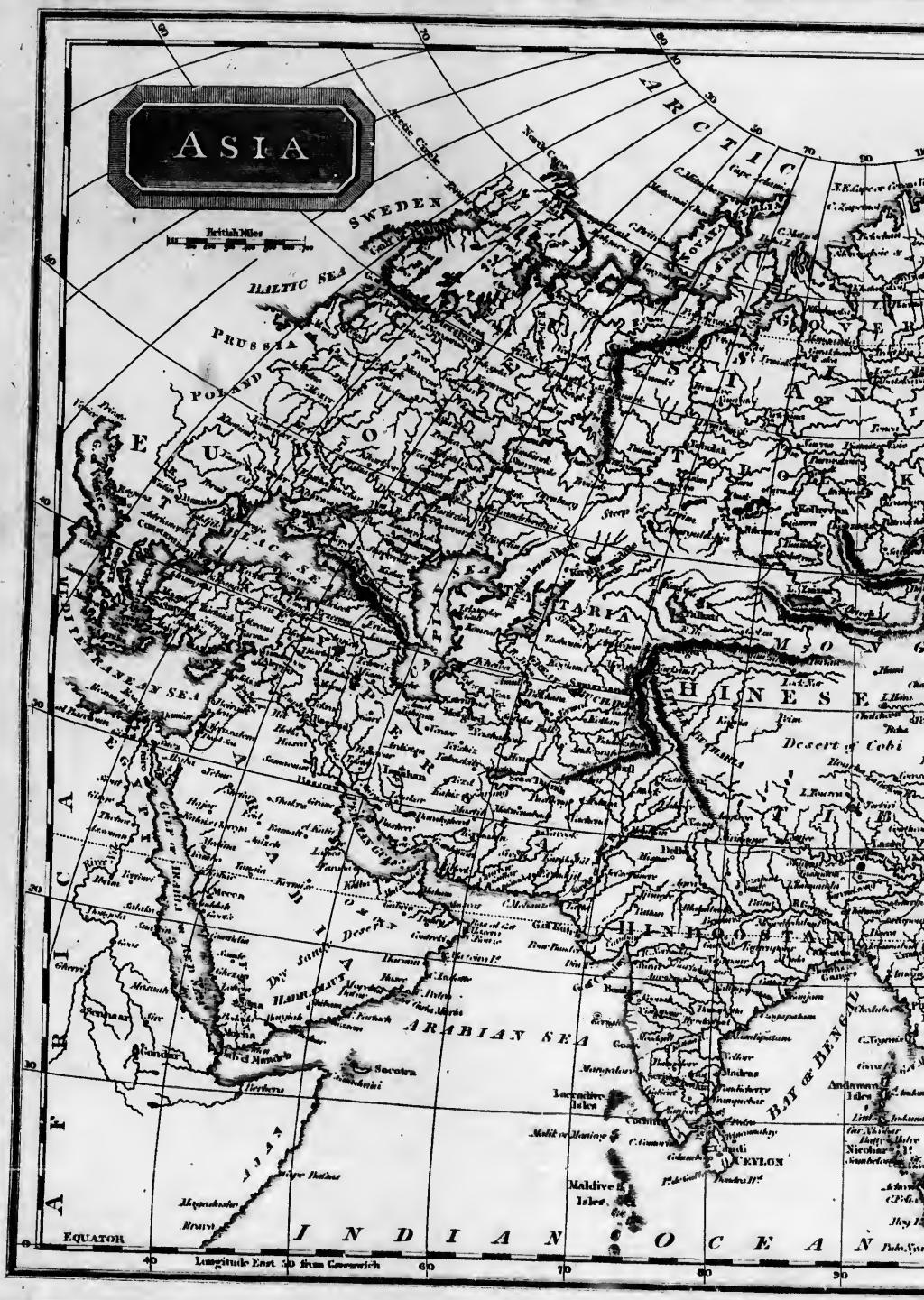
UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

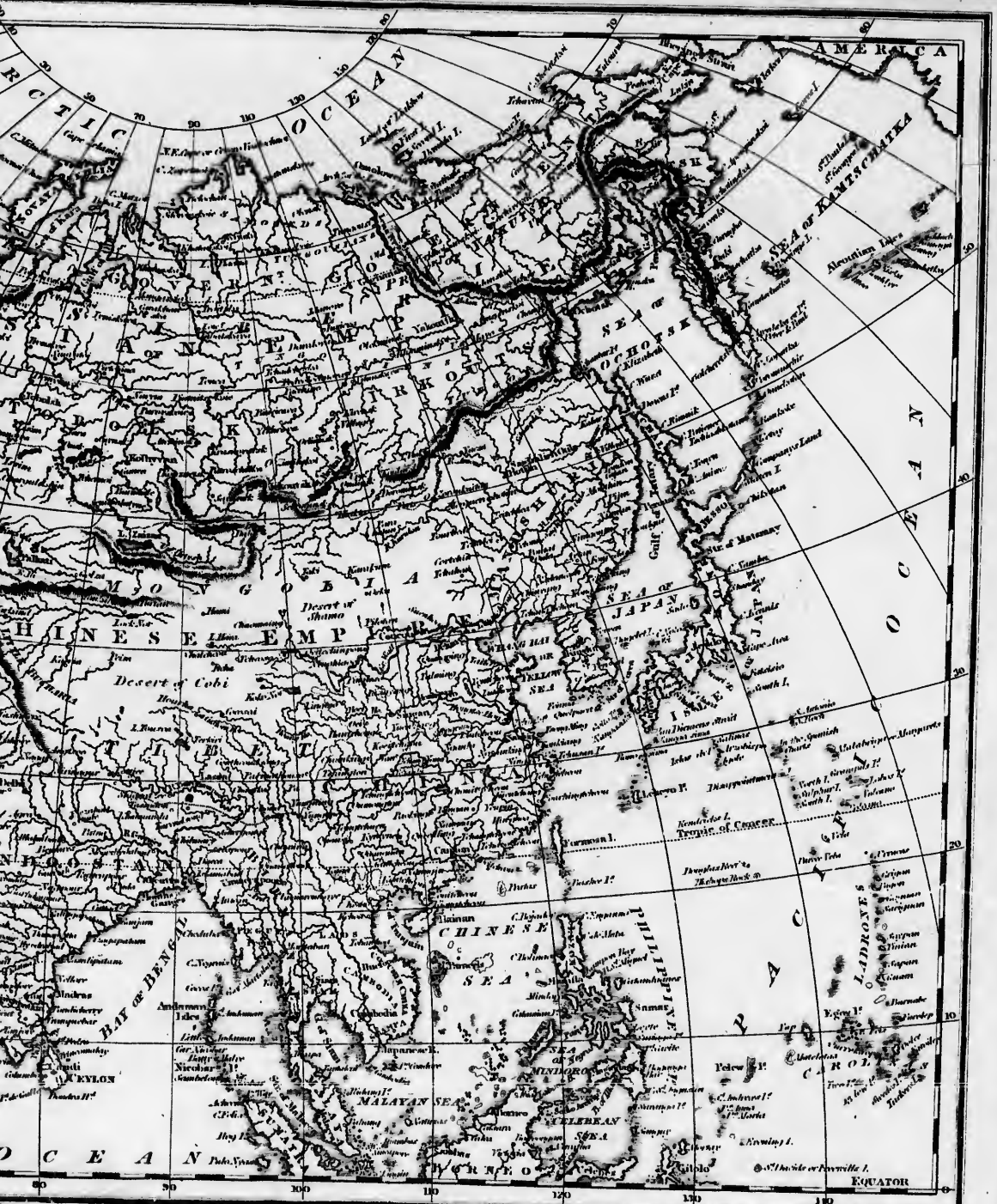
PART I.

ASIA.

THIS division of the terraqueous globe demands the first attention of the geographer and the historian; as it was in this quarter that those grand and interesting events took place, which are recorded in the Holy Scriptures of truth, and which we are commanded to inculcate upon the minds of our children, and of our children's children. It was here that the eternal Jehovah first smiled propitiously on the works of his own creation, and emphatically pronounced them "very good;" whilst "the morning-stars sang together, and all the sons of God shouted for joy." Here our first progenitors were placed in the garden of Eden, which breathed ambrosial sweets around them, and presented to their hands the most delicious fruits and flowers; whilst the lion and the lamb, equally harmless, bounded over the enamelled carpet of the earth, and the heavens resounded with the songs of innumerable birds, warbling amidst the unfading foliage of the trees. Here, subsequently to the introduction of sin, and man's expulsion from the lovely bowers of Paradise, an ark was prepared, by the Divine command, for the preservation of one family from the universal deluge, and, by the migration of different branches of that family, the whole world was progressively peopled. In Asia, the descendants of Abraham were led safely to, and planted in, the land of promise. Here the law of ten commandments was given from heaven, with a degree of pomp and solemnity which may be more easily conceived than described; and a series of miracles evinced and illustrated the power, wisdom, and love, of that adorable Being, who had "chosen Israel as his own inheritance." On this continent the holy prophets uttered their predictions; and here the stupendous work of man's redemption was accomplished by the co-equal Son of God, "who died for our sins, and rose again for our justification." Here also the truths of Christianity were first promulgated;—the first Christian churches were planted;—the blood of the martyrs was first shed;—and from hence the brightest rays of the gospel of peace gradually beamed forth upon a dark and barren world. Finally, in Asia languages were first spoken, arts and manufactures were practised, edifices were reared, and empires were founded, whilst all the other divisions of the globe were uninhabited and unexplored. And whether we advert to the serenity of its climate, the natural fertility of its soil, the fragrancy and salubrity of its plants, gums, and spices, the deliciousness of its fruits, or the richness of its various productions, which sparkle in the mines, embroider the meads, and mingle with its streams, its right of pre-eminence in a geographical description of the earth will be sufficiently and unanswerably established.

This extensive continent is situated between 25 and 190 degrees of east, or 170 of west, longitude; and between the equator and 78 degrees of north latitude. It is about six thousand miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about five thousand five hundred miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca to the northernmost cape of Asiatic Russia. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north. On the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea; and from Europe, by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the Sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the River Don, and a line drawn from it to the River Tobol, and thence to the River Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, which separates it from America; and on the south by the Indian Ocean: so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The following table will convey an accurate idea of the different countries into which it is divided, with their comparative extent of territory, their respective bearings from London, and the religions professed by their inhabitants.


ASIA
British Miles
Arctic Circle
ARCTIC
SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
PRUSSIA
POLAND
EUROPE
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
TARTARY
CHINESE
Desert of Cobi
HINDOOSTAN
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
Desert of Sahara
Socotra
Maldive Isles
Laccadive Isles
CEYLON
Andaman Isles
Nicobar Isles
AFRICA
INDIAN OCEAN
EQUATOR
Longitude East 30 from Greenwich
Published by Thomas Kelly, No. 53, Paternoster Row



Published by Thomas Kelly, at N.° 33, Paternoster Row, London.

Engraved for A. Findlay.

DIVISIONS OF ASIA.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Distance and Bearing from London.	Differ. of Time from London	Religion.
Turkey in Asia.	PALESTINE	210	90	7,600	Jerusalem	1920 S.E.	2 24 bef.	Ch. and Mah.
	SYRIA	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S.E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. and Mah.
	NATOLIA	750	390	195,000	Bursa, or Smyrna	1440 S.E.	1 48 bef.	Mahom.
	DIARBECK, or MESOPOTAMIA	240	210	27,000	Diarbeck	2060 S.E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with some few Christians.
	IRAC, or CHALDEA	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240 S.E.	3 04 bef.	
	TURCOMANIA, or ARMENIA	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S.E.	2 44 bef.	
	GEORGIA	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
	CURDISTAN, or ASSYRIA	210	205	23,900	Mousul	2220 E.	3 — bef.	Mahom.
	CHINA	1350	1060	1,298,000	Pekin	4320 S.E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
	HINDOOSTAN	1890	1550	870,910	Delhi	3720 S.E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. and Pag.
	INDIA beyond the GANGES	2000	1000	741,500	Siam, or Pegu	5040 S.E.	6 44 bef.	Pag. and Mah.
	PERSIA	1300	1050	800,000	Ispahan	2460 S.E.	3 20 bef.	Mahom.
	ARABIA	1400	1260	700,000	Mecca	2640 N.E.	2 52 bef.	Mahom.
Tartary.	ASIATIC RUSSIA	5300	1900	3,050,000	Tobolsk	2160 S.E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. and Pag.
	CHINESE	3000	1080	944,000	Chynian	4480 N.E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	TIBET	1500	500	385,000	Lassa	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	INDEPENDENT TART.	1500	850	500,000	Samarcand	2800 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans

ASIATIC ISLANDS.

ISLANDS.	TOWNS.	S. Miles.	Trade with or belong to.
Australasia		------	English
Polynesia		------	English
The Japanese Isles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch
The Kurile Isles, and those in the Sea of Kamtschatka, lately discovered by the Russians		------	Russia
The Ladrones	Guam	------	Spain
Formosa	Tai-ouan-fou	17,000	China
Anian	Kiontcheow	11,900	China
The Philippines	Manilla	133,700	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove Isles	Victoria Fort, Ternate	------	Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg Isles	Lantor	------	Dutch
Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. surrounding the Molucca and Banda Isles	Amboyna	400	Dutch
	Macassa	68,400	Dutch
	Gilolo	10,400	Dutch
The Sunda Isles: Borneo	Borneo, Caytongee	228,000	All Nations
The Sunda Isles: Sumatra	Achen, Bencoolen	129,000	English and Dutch
The Sunda Isles: Java, &c.	Batavia, Bantam	33,250	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar Isles	Andaman, Nicobar	------	All Nations
Ceylon	Candy	27,730	Dutch
The Maldives	Caridon	------	All Nations
Bombay	Bombay	------	English

Religion.
Ch. and Mah.
Ch. and Mah.
Mahom.
Mahometans, with some few Christians.
Mahom.
Pagans
Mah. and Pag.
Pag. and Mah.
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r belong to.

Though inland seas are less numerous in Asia than in Europe, yet, in addition to a portion of the Mediterranean, this quarter of the globe includes the Red Sea and the Gulf of Persia, the bays of Bengal and Nankin, and other gulfs, which render the coasts much more diversified than those of Africa or America.

The Red Sea, or the ancient Arabian Gulf, is the grand line of division drawn by nature between Asia and Africa; but its advantages have been principally experienced by the latter, which is completely destitute of any other inland sea. This celebrated gulf extends about fourteen hundred and seventy British miles, from the Straits of Babelmandel to Suez, and terminates, not in two equal branches, as described in old maps, but in an extensive western branch, whilst the eastern runs but a short distance beyond the parallel of Mount Sinai. The Gulf of Persia is another inland sea, about half the length of the former, into which the rivers Tigris and Euphrates pour their tributary streams.

The other Asiatic gulfs do not exhibit such characteristic features of what are strictly termed inland seas; but this extensive tract of country contains seas which are totally detached, and entirely different from any that occur in the other quarters of the world. Such are the Euxine and the Caspian seas, the latter of which extends about seven hundred miles in length, and from one hundred to two hundred in breadth. This sea receives several important rivers; and though the northern shores are low and swampy, in other parts the coasts are steep, and the water is of such considerable depth, that a line of four hundred and fifty fathoms will not reach the bottom.

The lake of Aral, situated about a hundred miles on the east of the Caspian, has been but little explored, from the circumstance of its being skirted with sandy deserts; but it is about two hundred miles in length, and seventy in breadth. Its water is salt, like that of the Caspian; and the rivers Sirr and Gihon (the Jaxartes and the Oxus of antiquity) disembogue themselves into it.

The sea of Baikal, in Asiatic Russia, extends about three hundred and fifty miles in length, but its greatest breadth does not exceed thirty-five. The water, though tinged with green, is fresh and transparent, and contains abundance of fish.

The principal rivers of Asia are the Kianku and Hoan Ho, the Lena, the Oby, and the Yenisey, which, in the length of their course, rival any others in the world. Next in importance are the Amur and the Maykaung of Laos, the Burrampooter, and the Ganges; to which the Euphrates and the Indus are very inferior.

The mountains of Asia do not equal those of Europe in elevation. The Altaian chain, however, may be ranked among the most extensive on the surface of the globe; as it extends about five thousand miles, which is a greater distance than that occupied by the Andes of South America. To the south of this ridge extends the elevated desert of Shamo, in a parallel direction from east to west; and in this central prominence of Asia the lofty region of Thibet may be included. The other principal ranges of mountains are Bogdo, Changai, Belur, the Ghauts of Hindoostan, and the Caucasian range between the Caspian and the Euxine seas.

The prevailing form of government in Asia is absolute monarchy; and the blessings of freedom are entirely unknown to its inhabitants, with the exception of the wandering tribes of Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, seemed to consider it impossible that any other form of government could subsist than that of regal despotism.

With regard to religion, Asiatic Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of India, and part of Tartary, acknowledge Mahomet for their prophet and legislator. Other parts of Tartary, India, China, and the Asiatic Islands, are principally inhabited by heathens and idolaters, among whom are the worshippers of Brama and Foe, the devotees of Confucius, and those who profess to adore the supreme Ruler of the universe, under the symbol of fire.

Jews are to be met with in every part of Asia; and these people inhabited the remoter regions of India some centuries before the discovery by the Portuguese. Christianity, though planted here by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible, indeed, have been the hazards and sufferings of the missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and amongst the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to the avarice, cruelty, and injustice of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of power or opulence.

The languages principally spoken in this division of the globe are the Turkish, the modern Greek, the Chinese, the Japanese, the Russian, the Persian, the Malayan, the Arabic, and the Tartarian. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of China and India.

The inhabitants of the southern parts of Asia are extremely indolent, that they never stir but with reluctance. But the northern tribes, who occupy the extensive regions of Tartary, are robust and active, hate idleness, and are continually roving about. The first are the most ingenious, the latter the most courageous: the former have brought several arts to great perfection, the latter deem courage the greatest virtue, and athletic exercises the most essential marks of genius. This disparity of disposition occasions them to despise each other, on account of that contrast which marks their characters: each is satisfied with the nature of his own country; and each imagines, that his peculiar mode of life leads by the most direct road to earthly felicity.

CHAPTER I.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.

THIS vast region is situated between twenty-eight and forty-four degrees of north latitude, and between twenty-six and forty-five degrees of east longitude. It extends about eleven hundred and twenty miles in length, and upwards of a thousand in breadth; and is computed to contain four hundred and seventy thousand and four hundred square miles. Its boundaries are, the Black Sea and part of Circassia on the north; Persia on the east; Arabia and the Levant on the south; and the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, on the west.

Divisions.] Asiatic Turkey is divided into three parts, viz. *Syria*, including Palestine, on the east of the Levant Sea;—*the eastern provinces* of Irac Arabia, or Chaldea; Diarbeck, or Mesopotamia; Curdistan or Assyria; Turcomania, or Armenia; and Georgia; including Mingrelia, Imaretta, and part of Circassia;—and *Natolia*, or Asia Minor, comprising Natolia Proper, Amasia, Aladulia, and Caramania.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The climate of Turkey in Asia has always been considered excellent; as there are a softness and serenity in the air, which are not found on the European side of the Archipelago; and the heat of summer is considerably moderated by those ranges of mountains which are capped with perpetual snow. The soil is extremely various; but in general it is tolerably fertile. Palestine, in particular, was, in former times, luxuriantly productive; and modern travellers assure us, that, notwithstanding its present desolate and neglected state, it still exhibits visible signs of its natural fertility. Even Volney gives his evidence to this fact; and Dr. Shaw remarks, that "if the Holy Land were as well peopled, and as well cultivated, as in ancient times, it would be still more fruitful than the best provinces of Syria and Phœnicia." Wherever wheat is sown, if it be not destroyed by rain, it grows to the height of a man, and yields an exuberant harvest; and the cotton that is gathered in the plains of Ramah and Zebulon is of greater value than that which grows in the vicinity of Sidon and Tripoli. In its happier days, this country abounded with pomegranates, dates, figs, citrons, oranges, hemp, flax, cedars, cypresses, and many other stately and fragrant trees; oil, honey, gums, and drugs; together with a profusion of cattle, fowls, fish, &c.; so that Moses had the strictest regard to veracity, when he described the Land of Promise as "a land flowing with milk and honey; a land of wheat and barley; of vines, figs, and pomegranates; of oil, olives, and honey; a land where there is no lack of any thing."

For the following remarks on the present aspect of this part of the country, and the interest excited by it, we are indebted to M. Chateaubriand, who travelled through Greece, Palestine, Egypt, and Barbary, during the years 1806 and 1807.

"When you travel in Judea, the heart is at first filled with profound disgust; but when, passing from desert to desert, boundless space opens before you, this disgust gradually wears off, and you experience a secret awe, which, far from sinking the spirits, invigorates the mind, and elevates the genius. Extraordinary appearances every where proclaim a country teeming with prodigies. The scorching sun, the towering eagle, the barren fig-tree, all the poetry, all the pictures of scripture, are found here. Every name revives the recollection of something significant—every grotto indicates something symbolical—every hill suggests the voice of a prophet. In these regions the Almighty himself hath spoken. Rivers that are now dried up, rocks that are rent in sunder, sepulchres half opened, attest the miracle. The desert still appears mute through terror, and you would imagine, that it had never presumed to interrupt the awfulness of silence since it heard the voice of the Eternal."

Lakes, Rivers, &c.] The LAKE ASPHALTITES, or Dead Sea, is called in the Jewish writings the Sea of Sodom, the Salt Sea, and the Sea of the Desert. The name of Asphaltites was given to it on account of the great quantity of Asphaltus, or Bitumen, found on its borders. It was called the Dead Sea, because it was supposed that no creature could exist in it, on account of its excessive saltness. It has been generally understood that this lake was formed by the overthrow of the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah, which, for their detestable crimes, perished in an extraordinary conflagration. And it is worthy of remark that, even at present, clouds of smoke are often seen to issue from it, and new crevices to be formed on its banks. "According to the tradition of the inhabitants," says Strabo, "the valley of the lake was formerly peopled by thirteen flourishing cities, which were swallowed up by a volcano." This account is further confirmed by the ruins which travellers have discovered on the western border. The eruptions have long since

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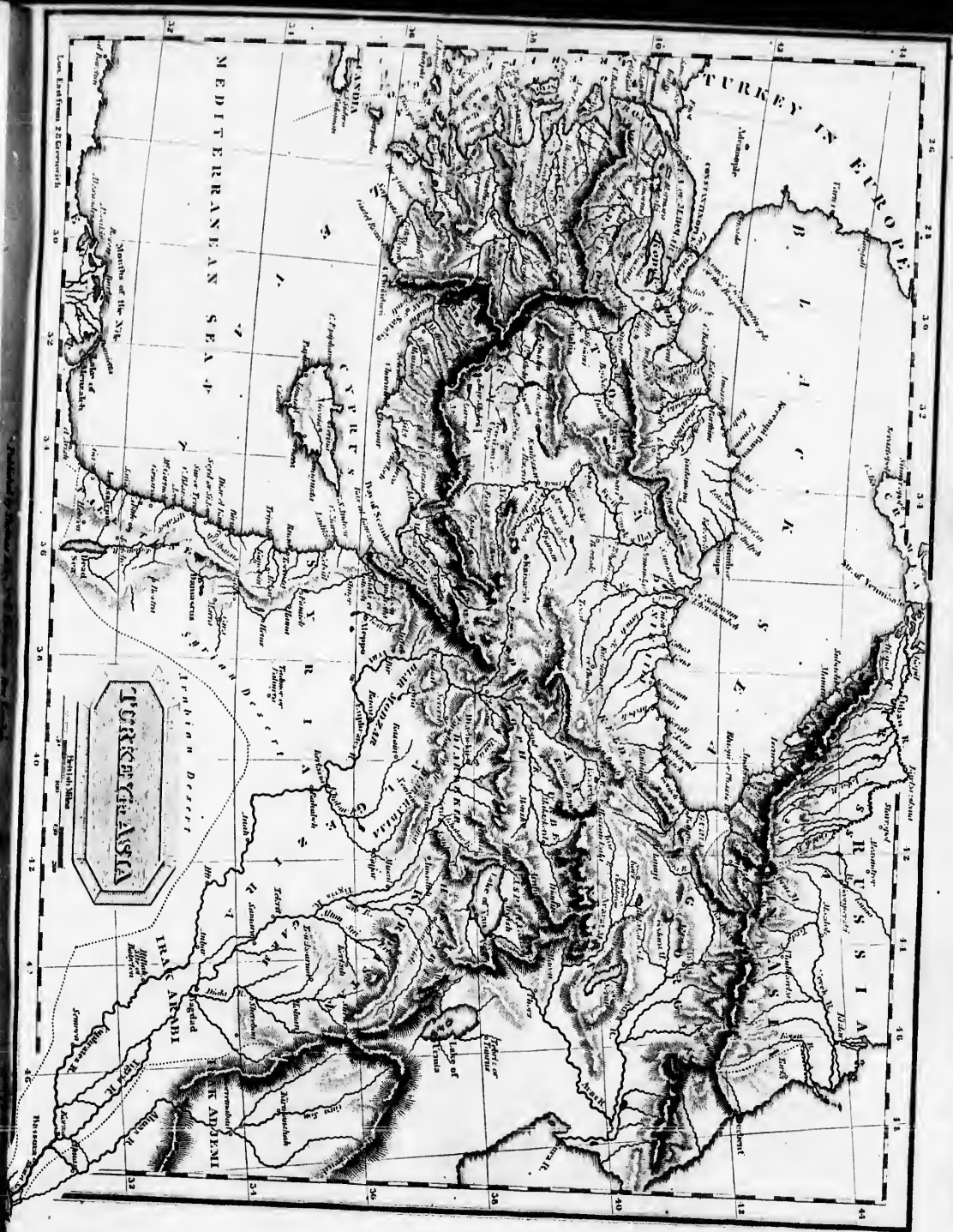

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ceased; but earthquakes, which usually succeed them, still continue to be felt at intervals in that country.

The excessive saltness of the water, which infinitely exceeds that of the sea, is the cause that deprives it of vegetable and animal productions, and occasions that deadly aspect which reigns on the borders of the lake. The origin of the mineral by which it is impregnated is easily discovered, for on the south-west shore are mines of fossil salt, situated in the side of the mountains, which from time immemorial have supplied the neighbouring Arabs.

"The valley, which encloses the Dead Sea," says M. Chateaubriand, "displays a soil resembling the bottom of a sea that has long retired from its bed; a beach covered with salt, dry mud, and moving sands, furrowed as it were by the waves. Here and there, stunted shrubs with difficulty vegetate upon this inanimate tract; their leaves are covered with salt, which has nourished them, and their bark has a smoky smell and taste. Instead of villages, you perceive the ruins of a few towers. Through the middle of this valley flows a discoloured river, which reluctantly creeps towards the pestilential lake by which it is engulphed. Its course amidst the sands can be distinguished only by the willows and the reeds that border it; and the Arab lies in ambush among these reeds, to attack the traveller, and to plunder the pilgrim.

"Such is the scene once famous for the benedictions and the curses of heaven. This river is the Jordan; this lake is the Dead Sea; it appears brilliant, but the guilty cities entombed in its bosom seem to have poisoned its waters. Its solitary abysses cannot afford nourishment to any living creature; never did vessel cut its waves; its shores are without birds, without trees, without verdure; and its waters are excessively bitter, and so heavy, that the most impetuous winds can scarcely ruffle their surface."

"We descended from the ridge of the mountains, to pass the night on the banks of the Dead Sea, and afterwards proceed along the Jordan. In this manner we marched for two hours, following the fissures formed between the sand-hills, in mud baked by the rays of the sun. A crust of salt covered the surface, and resembled a plain of snow, from which a few stunted trees reared their heads. We arrived suddenly at the lake: no murmur, no cooling breeze, announced the approach to its margin. The strand, bestrewed with stones, was hot; the water of the lake was motionless, and absolutely dead along the shore. It was quite dark. The first thing I did on alighting, was to walk into the lake up to my knees, and to taste the water. I found it impossible to keep it in my mouth; it far exceeds in saltness that of the sea, and produces upon the lips the effect of a strong solution of alum. Before my boots were completely dry, they were covered with salt; our clothes, our hats, our hands, were, in less than three hours, impregnated with this mineral. Galen, as early as his time, remarked these effects, and Pococke confirms their reality.

"The moon, rising at two in the morning, brought with her a strong breeze, which, without cooling the air, produced a slight undulation on the bosom of the lake. The waves, charged with salt, soon subsided by their own weight, and scarcely broke against the shore. A dismal sound proceeded from the lake of death, resembling the stifled clamours of the people engulphed in its waters. The dawn now appeared on the opposite mountains of Arabia. The Dead Sea, and the valley of the Jordan, glowed with an admirable teint; but this rich appearance only served to heighten the desolation of the scenery."

The Sea of Tiberias, so called from a city of that name on the south-west shore, is sometimes in scripture termed the Lake of Genezareth, and the Sea of Galilee. The River Jordan runs through it; and, according to Josephus, it is a hundred furlongs in length, and about forty in breadth. In some particulars it differs widely from the Dead Sea, for it is extolled for the sweetness and excellency of its water, and the abundance and variety of its fish.

The only river of note in Palestine is the Jordan, which originates in the Lake Phiala. It runs to the south-west, sending its waters to the Lakes of Samachon and Tiberias; and, after a course of nearly a hundred miles, disembogues into the Dead Sea. Its breadth exceeds sixty feet; but its depth is only ten or twelve. In winter it overflows its channel, and, swelled by the periodical rains, and the melting snows, forms a sheet of water, sometimes a quarter of a league broad. The season of its inundation is generally March, when the snows dissolve on the mountains of the Shaik; at which time its waters are troubled, and its course becomes rapid and impetuous. Its banks are thickly covered with reeds, willows, and various shrubs, which serve as an asylum for various kinds of birds and wild beasts.

M. Chateaubriand spent two whole hours on the banks of the Dead Sea, desirous of seeing the Jordan, at the place where it discharges itself into the lake; but the Arabs, his companions, refused to conduct him to it, because the river near its mouth turns off to the left, and approaches the mountains of Arabia. "I was therefore obliged," says he, "to make up my mind to proceed to the curve of the river that was nearest to us. We broke up our camp, and for an hour and a half advanced over a fine white sand, with extreme difficulty. We were approaching a grove of balm-trees and tamarinds, which, to my great astonishment, I perceived amidst this barren tract. The Arabs suddenly halted, pointing to something that I had not yet remarked at the bottom of the ravine. Unable to make out clearly what it was, I thought

I perceived sand in motion. On drawing nearer, however, to this singular object, I beheld a yellow current, scarcely distinguishable from the sand on its shores. It was sunk considerably below its banks, and its sluggish stream rolled slowly on. This was the Jordan.

"I had surveyed the great rivers of America with that pleasure which solitude and nature impart; I had visited the Tiber with enthusiasm, and sought with similar interest the Eurotas and the Cephisus: but I cannot express what I felt at the sight of the Jordan. It not only brought to my recollection its ancient renown, and one of the most celebrated names which the most exquisite poetry ever confided to the memory of man; but its shores also presented to my view the theatre of the miracles of my religion. Judea is the only country in the world, that revives in the traveller the remembrance of human affairs, and of celestial things; producing in the mind, by this combination, ideas and feelings, which no other country is capable of exciting.

"The Arabs stripped, and plunged into the Jordan. I durst not follow their example, on account of the fever by which I was tormented; but I took up some water from the river in a leathern vessel; I thought it rather brackish; but, though I drank a considerable quantity, I felt no inconvenience from it. I even think it would be pleasant, if it were purified from the sand that it carries along with it.

"About two leagues from the place where we halted, I perceived, higher up the river, a thicket of considerable extent, to which I determined to proceed, concluding in my own mind, that this must be nearly the spot where the Israelites passed the river, opposite Jericho; where the manna ceased to fall; where the Hebrews tasted the first fruits of the promised land; where Naaman was cured of his leprosy; and, lastly, where Jesus Christ was baptized by his illustrious fore-runner, John the Baptist. We advanced towards this place; but, as we drew near, we heard the voices of men in the thicket. Unfortunately, the human voice, which every where else cheers you, and which you would love to hear on the banks of the Jordan, is precisely what most alarms you in these deserts. My companions proposed an immediate retreat; but I declared that I had not come so far to be so hasty to return; that I agreed to go no higher up the river; but that I was resolved upon examining it facing the spot where we then stood. They reluctantly yielded to my purpose, and we again repaired to the bank of the Jordan, which a bend of the river had carried to some distance from us on the right. I found it to be of the same breadth and length here as a league lower down; that is, about six or seven feet deep close to the shore, and about fifty paces in breadth. Having finished such notes as I wished to make, I saluted the Jordan for the last time, took a bottle of its water, and a few rushes from its bank, and quitted the river."

But the *principal* rivers of Asiatic Turkey are, the Euphrates and the Tigris; the comparative course of the former being computed at fourteen hundred, and that of the latter at eight hundred, British miles. The other rivers of note are the Kizil Irmak, the Halys of antiquity; the Minder or Meander; the Orontes; and the Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, celebrated for its golden sands.

Mountains.] Among the mountains of Asiatic Turkey, the first rank is due to the Taurian chain; which extends about six hundred miles east and west, from the Euphrates to near the shores of the Archipelago. A modern traveller found the ascent and descent to occupy three days; and he observes, that the heights abound with cedars, savines, and junipers.

Mount Ararat, on which Noah's ark rested, after the waters of the deluge had subsided, is situate in the midst of a large plain, on the east of Armenia. M. Tournefort observes, that this mountain presents the most disagreeable spectacle imaginable, as it has neither houses, trees, nor shrubs, on its surface; and appears as if continually mouldering away. He divides it into three regions: the lowermost of which is occupied by a few shepherds tending wretched flocks; the second is inhabited by crows and tigers; and all the rest is covered with snow, which, during half the year, is involved in thick clouds. On the side of the mountain, next Erivan, is a very abrupt precipice, the extremities of which have a black appearance, as if smutted with smoke; and in this direction masses of rock are continually falling with a hideous noise. The Olympus (now called Keshik Dag) is one of the highest mountains in Asia; and about a hundred and forty miles to the westward rises Mount Ida, the summit of which was styled Gargunus: from this the western prominences extend to the Hellespont; and amidst them stood the famous city of Troy.

In Syria, the celebrated mountain of Libanus, or Lebanon, runs in a direction north and south of the Mediterranean; and the Anti-Libanus is a short detached range, nearly parallel on the east. The hills in and near Jerusalem will be noticed in our description of that interesting city.

Animals.] The best horses are of Arabian extract; and are sparingly fed with barley and chopped straw, to accustom them to abstinence, and to endure fatigue. The hyæna and the wild boar are frequently seen in Asia Minor; and tigers of the smaller kind occupy a part of Mount Ararat. The sheep in the vicinity of Smyrna have immensely large tails, which are mere lumps of fat, and often weigh ten or twelve pounds. The goats of Angora are extremely beautiful; the hair being of a dazzling whiteness, and as fine as silk. It is curled naturally into locks of eight or nine inches long, which make the finest camblets. This hair is spun in the country, and manufactured at Angora. These

goats are only to be seen within a few miles of the city, as the breed degenerates, if they are carried farther.

Van Egmont, envoy extraordinary from the United Provinces to the court of Naples, in reciting his travels through Anatolia, says, "In the country are great numbers of storks, which afford the inhabitants an odd kind of diversion. They place hen-eggs in the stork's nest; and, when the young are hatched, the male, on seeing them of a different form from its own species, makes a hideous noise, which calls together a crowd of other storks hovering about the nest, and who, to revenge the disgrace that the female has in appearance brought on her nest, destroy her, by pecking her to death; the male in the mean time making the heaviest lamentation, as if bewailing his misfortune, which obliged him to have recourse to such disagreeable severities.

"Here," says the same author, "I also saw the creature called the cameleon. It was found among the ruins of Old Smyrna castle. The creature was pretty large, and I saw it change its colour three several times, becoming black, white, and green. It was placed on a piece of red cloth, and often turned, but never assumed that hue. Whether the creature were too large, and the smaller only imitated this colour, or from any other reasons, is beyond my philosophy to determine. With regard to its food, during the eight days it lived with us, I did not observe it to eat any thing except small flies, which it caught in the air with its tongue."

Minerals, and Mineral Waters.] Ancient Lydia was famous for the production of gold; but at present there is no trace of any metal but copper. The mineralogy of the country, however, in modern times, has been very imperfectly known; as the indolence of the inhabitants prevents their researches into the bowels of the earth. The best mineral waters are those near the city of Prusa, at the bottom of Mount Olympus. The water is highly celebrated for its medicinal virtues; and two magnificent baths are erected for the accommodation of the invalids who resort to it, one for men, and the other for women.

Curiosities.] Many natural curiosities are found in Palestine, particularly stones exactly resembling citrons, melons, peaches, olives, bunches of grapes, and even several kinds of fish; they are found principally about Mount Carmel: those that resemble olives are the Lapides Judaïci, which have always been deemed medicinal. In the neighbourhood of Bethlehem is found a stone of the slate kind, which exhibits in every flake the representation of a variety of fishes. Near the lake Asphaltites are a number of hillocks, resembling places where there have been lime-kilns, and abundance of saline efflorescences.

A thorny bush grows in the plains of Jericho, which bears a fruit that has some similitude to an unripe walnut. From this fruit the natives extract an oil, which is an excellent remedy for bruises, when internally applied, and for wounds when used externally. Its reputation is so great, that it is preferred even to the balm of Gilead.

Two more natural curiosities abound in the plains of Jericho, viz. the wood-olive, the outward coat of which is green, like the common olive, but, being taken off, a nut of a woody substance appears: it is of about the thickness of an almond-shell, and ribbed lengthways. And the karoub, or locust-tree, which bears a fruit like a bean, containing some small seeds: the shell, when dried, is eaten, and has a very agreeable taste. These are thought to be the locusts on which John the Baptist fed, and not the animal of that name, as many have supposed.

Cities, &c.] JERUSALEM, the ancient capital of Judea, once renowned for the splendor of its monarchs, the sumptuous magnificence of its temple, and the pomp of its worship, exhibits at present no remains of the city, as it existed in our Saviour's time, or as it was afterwards rebuilt by the emperor Adrian; scarcely one stone being left upon another. Even the situation is altered; for Mount Sion, the most eminent part of the ancient Jerusalem, is now nearly excluded; whilst Mount Calvary, which is expressly said to have been "without the gate," is almost in the centre of the city. With respect to its present state, it is but about three miles in circumference, and thinly inhabited. The walls are weak, and without bastions; and the ditch inconsiderable. The gates are six in number, viz. Damascus, St. Stephen's, Herod's, Sterquelina, Bethlehem, and Mount Sion Gate; beside the Golden Gate, which is shut up, on account of a prophecy which the Turks have among them, that by this gate the Christians are to take Jerusalem.

For the following interesting particulars relative to this city we are indebted to our countryman Dr. Clarke, whose travels have been recently laid before the public.

"At three o'clock we mounted our horses, and proceeded on our route. No sensation of fatigue or heat could counterbalance the eagerness and zeal which animated all our party, in the approach to Jerusalem. Every individual pressed forward, hoping first to announce the joyful intelligence of its appearance. At length, after about two hours had been passed in this state of anxiety and suspense, ascending a hill towards the south, a Greek, in the van of our cavalcade, exclaimed, that he saw the holy city; and instantly throwing himself from his horse, was seen bareheaded, upon his knees, facing the prospect he surveyed. Suddenly the sight burst upon us all. Who shall describe it? The effect produced was that of total silence throughout the whole company. Many of the party, by an immediate impulse, took off their hats, as if entering a church, without being aware of it. The Greeks and Catholics shed torrents of tears; and presently beginning to cross themselves with unfeigned devotion, asked, if they might be permitted to take off the covering from

their feet, and proceed barefooted to the holy sepulchre. We had not been prepared for the grandeur of the spectacle which the city exhibited. Instead of a wretched and ruined town, by some described as the desolated remnant of Jerusalem, we beheld, as it were, a flourishing and stately metropolis, presenting a magnificent assemblage of domes, towers, palaces, churches, and monasteries, all of which, glittering in the sun's rays, shone with inconceivable splendor. As we drew nearer, our whole attention was engrossed by its noble and interesting appearance. The lofty hills by which it is surrounded, give to the city itself an appearance of elevation inferior to that which it really possesses. About three-quarters of an hour before we reached the walls, we passed a large ruin upon our right hand, close to the road. At this place, two Turkish officers, mounted on beautiful horses sumptuously caparisoned, came to inform us, that the governor, having intelligence of our approach, had sent them to escort us into the town. When they arrived, we were all assembled upon an eminence, admiring the splendid appearance of the city; and, being impressed with other ideas than those of vain ostentation, would gladly have declined the parade, as well as the interruption occasioned by a public entry. As we approached the city, the concourse of people became very great, the walls and the road-side being covered with spectators. An immense multitude at the same time accompanied us on foot; some of whom, welcoming the procession with compliments and caresses, cried out, "Good Englishmen! Success to England!" others, cursing and reviling, called us a set of rascally christian dogs, and filthy infidels. We could never learn, why so much curiosity had been excited, unless it were, that, of late, owing to the turbulent state of public affairs, the resort of strangers to Jerusalem had been less common; or that they expected another visit from Sir Sidney Smith, who had marched into Jerusalem with drums beating and colours flying, at the head of a party of English sailors. Novelty, at any period, produces considerable bustle at Jerusalem; the idleness of its inhabitants, and the uniform tenor of their lives, rendered more monotonous by the cessation of pilgrimages, naturally dispose them to run after a new sight, or to listen to new intelligence. The arrival of a Tartar courier from the vizier's army, or the approach of foreigners to the city, rouses Christians from their prayers, Jews from their traffic, and even Mahometans from their tobacco, or their opium, in search of something new.

"Men who are entitled to high consideration, and to whose authority even reverence is due, have written to illustrate the topography of Jerusalem; and some of the ablest modern geographers have applied all their talents, ingenuity, and information, to describe it. It would, therefore, seem like wanton temerity, to dispute the identity of places, whose situation has been so ably discussed, and so generally admitted, were there not this observation to urge that the descriptions of Jerusalem since the Crusades have principally issued from persons who had no ocular evidence of the places they describe. If, as spectators upon the spot, we confessed ourselves dissatisfied with the supposed identity of certain points of observation in Jerusalem, it was because we refused to tradition what appeared contrary to the evidence of our senses. Possessing as much enthusiasm as might be necessary in travellers viewing this "holy city," we still retained the power of our understandings sufficiently to admire the credulity, for which no degree of preposterousness seemed too mighty. There is much to be seen at Jerusalem, besides its monks and monasteries; much to repay pilgrims, of a very different description from those who usually resort thither, for all the fatigue and danger that they must encounter. At the same time, to men interested in tracing, within the walls, antiquities referred to in sacred history, no sight can be more mortifying than the city in its present state. The mistaken piety of the early Christians, in attempting to preserve, either confused or annihilated the memorials it endeavoured to perpetuate. On viewing the havoc they have made, it may now be regretted, that the Holy Land was ever rescued from the dominion of Saracens, far less barbarous than their conquerors. The absurdity of hewing the rocks of Judea into gilded chapels, and of disguising the face of nature with painted domes and marble coverings, by way of commemorating the scenes of our Saviour's life and death, is so evident and so lamentable, that it has not escaped the reprehension of travellers no way remarkable for their incredulity.

"We were conducted to the governor's house, who received us in very great state, offering his protection, and exhibiting the ordinary pomp of Turkish hospitality, in the number of slaves, who brought fuming incense, coffee, preserved fruit, and pipes, to all the party, profusely sprinkling us, as usual, with rose and orange flower water. Being then informed of all our projects, he ordered his interpreter to go with us to the Franciscan Convent of St. Salvador, a large building like a fortress, the gates of which were thrown open to receive our whole cavalcade. Here we were admitted into a court, with all our horses and camels, the vast portals were then again closed, and a party of the most corpulent friars we had ever seen from the warmest cloisters of Spain and of Italy waddled round us, and heartily welcomed our arrival.

"From the court of the convent we were conducted by a stone staircase to the refectory, where the monks, who had received us, introduced us to the superior, who was not a whit less corpulent than any of his companions In all the convents I had ever visited, and they are not few in number, I had never beheld such friars as the Franciscans of St. Salvador.

"After being regaled with coffee, and some delicious lemonade, we were shewn to our apartments, to repose ourselves until supper. The room allotted to our English party we found to be the same which many travellers have already described. It was clean, and its walls were white-washed. The beds also had a cleanly appearance, although a few bugs warned us to spread our hammocks upon the floor, where we slept for once unmolested. Upon the substantial door of this chamber, whose roof was of vaulted stones, the names of many English travellers had been carved. Among others, we had the satisfaction to notice that of THOMAS SHAW, the most learned writer who has yet appeared in descriptions of the Levant. Dr. Shaw had slept in the same apartment in 1722, seventy-nine years before our coming.

"In the morning we set out to visit what are called 'The Holy Places.' From the monastery we descended to the church of the holy sepulchre, the external appearance of which resembled that of any ordinary Roman Catholic church. Over the door we observed a bas-relief, executed in a style of sculpture meriting more attention than it has hitherto received. At first sight, it seemed of higher antiquity than the existence of any place of Christian worship; but, upon a nearer view, we recognised the history of the Messiah's entry into Jerusalem, the multitude strewing palm-branches before him: the figures were very numerous. Entering the church, the first thing they shewed us was a slab of white marble in the pavement, surrounded by a rail. It seemed like one of the grave-stones in the pavement of our English churches. This, they told us, was the spot where our Saviour's body was anointed by Joseph of Arimathea. We next advanced towards a dusty fabric, standing in the midst of the principal aisle, and beneath the main dome. This rested upon a building partly circular and partly oblong, as upon a pedestal. The interior of this strange fabric is divided into two parts. Having entered the first part, which is a kind of anti-chapel, they shew you, before the mouth of what is called the sepulchre, the stone whereon the angel sat: this is a block of white marble, neither corresponding with the mouth of the sepulchre, nor with the substance from which it must have been hewn; for the rocks of Jerusalem are all of common compact limestone. Dr. Shaw, speaking of the holy sepulchre, says, that all the surrounding rocks were cut away, to form the level of the church, so that now it is 'a grotto above ground:' but even this is not correct. There are no remains of any ancient known sepulchre, that with the most attentive and scrupulous examination we could possibly discover. We doubted, therefore, whether this were the identical tomb in which Christ lay, and are of opinion, that not a remnant of the original sepulchre can now be ascertained. Yet, with all our sceptical feelings thus awakened, it may prove how powerful the effect of sympathy is, if we confess that, when we entered into the *Sanctum Sanctorum*, and beheld, by the light of lamps now continually burning, the venerable figure of an aged monk, with streaming eyes and a long white beard, pointing to the place '*where the body of our Lord was*,' and calling upon us 'to kneel and experience pardon for our sins,' we knelt, and participated in the feelings of more credulous pilgrims. Captain Culverhouse, in whose mind the ideas of religion and patriotism are inseparable, with firmer emotion drew from its scabbard the sword he had so often wielded in the defence of his country, and placed it upon the tomb. Humbler worshippers heaped the memorials of an accomplished pilgrimage; and while their sighs alone interrupted the silence of the sanctuary, a solemn service was begun. Thus ended our visit to the sepulchre.

"If the reader has caught a single spark of this enthusiasm, it were perhaps sacrilegious to dissipate the illusion: but much remains untold. Every thing beneath this building seems discordant, not only with history, but with common sense. Forty paces from the sepulchre, beneath the roof of the same church, and upon the same level, are shewn two rooms, one above the other. Close to the entrance of the lower chamber, or chapel, are the tombs of Godfrey of Boulogne, and of Baldwin, kings of Jerusalem, with Latin inscriptions in the old Gothic character. At the extremity of this chapel they exhibit a fissure or cleft in the natural rock, which they say happened at the crucifixion; and, to complete the *naiveté* of the tradition, it is added, that THE HEAD OF ADAM WAS FOUND WITHIN THE FISSURE! Then, if the traveller has not already heard and seen enough to make him regret his waste of time, he may ascend by a few steps into a room above. There they will shew him the same crack again, and immediately in front of it a modern altar. This they venerate as Mount Calvary, the place of crucifixion; exhibiting upon this contracted piece of masonry the marks or holes of the three crosses, without the smallest regard to the space necessary to erect them. After this, he may be conducted through such a farrago of absurdities, that it is wonderful the learned men who have described Jerusalem should have filled their pages with any serious detail of them.

"But, quitting these degrading fallacies, let us break from our monkish instructors; and, instead of viewing Jerusalem as pilgrims, examine it by the light of history with the Bible in our hands: we shall thus find many interesting objects of contemplation. If Mount Calvary has sunk beneath the overwhelming influence of superstition, studiously endeavouring to modify and disfigure it, through so many ages; if the situation of Mount Sion yet remains to be ascertained; the Mount of Olives, unmisguised by fanatical labours, exhibits the appearance it presented in all the

periods of its history. From its elevated summit, almost all the principal features of the city may be discerned; and the changes that eighteen centuries have wrought in its topography may perhaps be ascertained. The features of nature continue the same, though works of art have been done away; the beautiful gate of the temple is no more; but Siloa's fountain happily flows, and Kedron sometimes murmurs in the valley of Jehosaphat.

"The hill which now bears the name of Sion is situated upon the south side of Jerusalem, part of it being excluded by the wall of the present city, which passes over the top of the mount. If this be indeed Mount Sion, the prophecy of Micah, that the plough should pass over it, has been fulfilled to the letter, for such labours were actually going on when we arrived. Here the Turks have a mosque over what they call the tomb of David. No Christian can gain admittance; and, as we did not choose to loiter among the other legendary sanctities of the mount, having quitted the city by what is called 'Sion Gate,' we descended into a dingle or trench, called Tophet or Gehinnon by Sandys. As we reached the bottom of this narrow dale, sloping towards the valley of Jehosaphat, we observed upon the sides of the opposite mountain, facing Mount Sion, a number of excavations in the rock. We rode towards them, their situation being very little elevated above the bottom of the dingle, upon its southern side. When we arrived, we instantly recognised a peculiar sort of sepulchres, and, alighting from our horses, found that we should have ample employment in examining them. They were all of the same kind of workmanship, exhibiting a series of subterraneous chambers, hewn with wonderful art, each containing one or more repositories for the dead, like cisterns carved in the rock, upon the sides of those chambers. The doors were so low, that, to look into any one of them, it was necessary to stoop, and, in some instances, to creep upon our hands and knees: these doors were also grooved, for the reception of immense stones, once squared and fitted to the grooves, by way of closing the entrances. Of such a nature were, indisputably, the tombs of the sons of Heth, of the kings of Israel, of Lazarus, and of Christ. The burying-places of the ancients were universally excluded from the precincts of their cities. In order, therefore, to account for the seeming contradiction implied by the situation of the place now shewn as the tomb of the Messiah, it is pretended that it was originally on the outside of the walls of Jerusalem; although a doubt must necessarily arise, as to the want of sufficient space for the population of the city between a boundary so situated and the hill which is now called Mount Sion. The sepulchres we are now describing carry in their very nature satisfactory evidence of their being situated out of the ancient city, as they are now out of the modern. They are not to be confounded with those tombs, commonly called 'sepulchres of the kings,' to the north of Jerusalem. What, therefore, are they? Some of them, from their magnificence and the immense labour necessary to form the numerous repositories they contain, might lay claim to regal honours; and there is one, which appears to have been constructed for the purpose of burying a single individual. Are we not authorised to seek here for the sepulchre of Joseph of Arimathea, who, as a pious Jew, necessarily had his burying-place in the cemetery of his countrymen, among the graves of his forefathers? The Jews were remarkable for their rigid adherence to this custom: they adorned their burial-places with trees and gardens; and the tomb of this Jew is accordingly described as being in a garden; and it was 'in the place where our Saviour was crucified.'

"Leaving the mountain where all these sepulchres are hewn, and regaining the road which conducts towards the east into the valley of Jehosaphat, we passed the *fountain of Siloa;* from hence we ascended to the summit of the MOUNT OF OLIVES, passing in our way a number of Hebrew tombs. Here indeed we stood upon holy ground; and it is a question, which might reasonably be proposed to Jew, to Christian, or Mahometan, whether, in reference to the history of their respective nations, it be possible to attain a more interesting place of observation. So commanding is the view of Jerusalem afforded in this situation, that the eye roams over all the streets and around the walls, as if in the survey of a plan or model of the city. The most conspicuous object is the mosque, erected upon the site of the Temple of Solomon. This edifice may perhaps be regarded as the finest specimen of the architecture among the Saracens which exists in the world. A spectator, standing upon the Mount of Olives, and looking down upon the space enclosed by the walls of Jerusalem, in its present state, as they have remained since their restoration in the sixteenth century, must be convinced, that, instead of covering two conspicuous hills, Jerusalem now occupies only one eminence, namely, that of Mount Moriah, where of old the temple stood, and where the famous mosque of Omar is now situated. It is probable, that the whole of Mount Sion has been excluded, and that the mountain covered by ruined edifices, whose base is perforated by ancient sepulchres, and separated from Mount Moriah by a deep trench, extending as far as the fountain of Siloa towards the eastern valley, is in fact that eminence, which was once surrounded by the 'bulwarks, towers, and regal buildings of the house of David.' There seems to be no other way of reconciling the accounts which ancient authors give of the space occupied by the former city. That the summit of this mountain was formerly included within the walls of the ancient city, seems forcibly demonstrated by the remains, which to this hour are upon it, both of walls and sumptuous edifices. In this view of the subject, the topography of the city seems more reconcileable with

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A VIEW NEAR THE CITY OF DAMASCUS.

ancient documents. The present church of the holy sepulchre, and all the trumpery attached to it, will, it is true, be thrown into the back ground; but the sepulchres of the kings of Judah, so long an object of research, do then become a prominent object in the plan: the possible site of our Saviour's tomb may be denoted; and

——— Siloa's brook, that flow'd
Fast by the Oracle of God,

will continue in the situation assigned for it by Christian writers of every sect and denomination, since the age of the apostles and earliest fathers of the church.

"As we descended from the mountain, we visited an olive-ground, always mentioned as the Garden of Gethsemane. This place is, not without reason, shewn as the scene of our Saviour's agony, the night before his crucifixion; both from the circumstance of the name it still retains, and its situation with regard to the city. We found a grove of aged olive-trees, of most immense size, covered with fruit almost ripe. It is a curious and interesting fact, that, during a period of little more than two thousand years, Hebrews, Assyrians, Romans, Mahometans, and Christians, have been successively in possession of the rocky mountains of Palestine; yet the olive still vindicates its paternal soil, and is found at this day upon the same spot, which was called by the Hebrew writers, 'Mount Olivet,' and the 'Mount of Olives,' eleven hundred years before the Christian era.

"The rest of this day's journey was spent in viewing antiquities, justly entitled to the highest consideration among the curiosities of Jerusalem; the 'sepulchre of the Virgin Mary,' and the 'tombs of the patriarchs.' All of these are in the valley between the Mount of Olives and the city, on the eastern side of the brook Kedron, at the foot of the mountain. The 'sepulchre of the Virgin' is to the north of the other tombs: these being nearly opposite to the area of Solomon's Temple, where the mosque of Omar is now situated. We descended to it by a noble flight of fifty marble steps, each of these being twenty feet wide. Appropriate chapels, within a lofty and spacious vault, distinguished the real or the imaginary tombs of the Virgin Mary, of Joseph, of Anna, and of Caiaphas.

"Proceeding hence towards the south, along the eastern side of the valley, between the Mount of Olives and Mount Moriah, towards the bridge over the Kedron, across which Christ is said to have passed in his visits to the garden of Gethsemane, we came to 'the sepulchres of the Patriarchs,' facing that part of Jerusalem where Solomon's Temple formerly stood. The antiquities, which particularly bear this name, are four in number: according to the order in which they occur, from north to south, they are severally called, the sepulchres of Jehosaphat, of Absalom, the cave of St. James, and the sepulchre of Zechariah. From the difficulty of conveying any able artists to Jerusalem, and the utter impossibility of finding any of the profession there, these monuments have never been faithfully delineated. To form the sepulchres of Absalom and Zechariah, the solid substance of the mountain has been cut away; sufficient areas being thereby excavated, two monuments of prodigious size appear in the midst, each seeming to consist of a single stone, although standing as if erected by an architect, and adorned with columns, which appear to support the edifice, but of which they, in fact, form an integral part, the whole of each mausoleum being of one entire block of stone. These sepulchres are a continuation of one vast cemetry, extending along the base of all the mountainous elevations which surround Jerusalem upon its southern and eastern sides. The 'sepulchre of Jehosaphat,' and the 'cave of St. James,' are smaller works, of the same nature with the monuments ascribed to Absalom and Zechariah. They all contain apartments and receptacles for the dead, hewn after the same surprising manner. A very extraordinary circumstance concerning the two principal sepulchres is, that, at present, there is no perceptible entrance to the interior. The only way of gaining admittance to that of Absalom is, through a hole recently broken for that purpose; and to that of Zechariah there is no entrance of any kind.

"Having now examined all the antiquities to the south and east of Jerusalem, we crossed the bed of the brook Kedron, by the bridge before mentioned; then ascending to the city by a very steep hill, on which tradition relates that Stephen the martyr was stoned, we made the circuit of the walls upon the northern and western side; but, finding nothing remarkable, we entered by the gate of Jaffa.

"The streets of Jerusalem are cleaner than those of any other town in the Levant, though, like all of them, they are very narrow. The houses are lofty; and, as no windows appear on any of the lower stories, and those above are latticed, the passage through the streets seems to be between dead walls. We visited the shops, which are in a most unwholesome situation, being covered over, and to all appearance a nursery for every species of contagion. Scarcely any thing was exposed to sale; as the various articles of commerce were concealed through fear of Turkish rapacity.

"On the following morning we left Jerusalem by the gate of Damascus, on the north-west side, to view the extraordinary burial-place, erroneously called 'the sepulchres of the kings of Judah,' about a mile distant from the walls. This place does not exhibit a single sepulchral chamber, as in the instances so lately described, but a series of subterraneous chambers, extending in different directions, so as to form a kind of labyrinth somewhat resembling that in Egypt, known by the name of the 'sepulchres of the Ptolemies.' Each chamber contains a certain

number of receptacles for dead bodies, not much larger than our coffins. The taste manifested in the interior of these chambers seems also to denote a later period in the history of the arts: the skill and neatness visible in the carving is admirable; and there is much of ornament displayed in several parts of the work. We also observed slabs of marble exquisitely sculptured, such as we had not seen in the burial-places before mentioned. The entrance is by an open court, excavated like a quarry, and forming a square of thirty yards. We lighted some wax tapers, and descended into the first chamber; in the sides of which were some square openings like door-frames, offering passages to yet interior chambers. In one of these we found the appearance of a white marble coffin, entirely covered with the richest and most beautiful sculpture, but, like all the other sculptured work about the place, it represented nothing of the human figure, nor of any animal, but consisted entirely of foliage and flowers, chiefly of the leaves and branches of the vine.

"When we regained the city, we waited upon the governor, to thank him for the civilities we had received. Upon this occasion we used all the interest we had, to obtain admission into the mosque erected upon the site of the temple by the Caliph Omar, in the seventh century. He entreated us not to urge the request, saying his own life would certainly be required as the price of our admission: we were, therefore, compelled to rest satisfied with the interesting view it afforded from his windows, which regarded the area of the temple. The sight was so grand, that we did not hesitate in pronouncing it the most magnificent piece of architecture in the Turkish empire; and, considered externally, far superior to the mosque of St. Sophia in Constantinople. By the sides of the spacious area in which it stands, are certain vaulted remains, which plainly denote the masonry of the ancients; and evidence may be adduced to prove, that they belonged to the foundations of Solomon's Temple. As to the mosque itself, there is no building in Jerusalem that is to be compared with it, either in beauty or riches. The lofty Saracenic pomp so nobly displayed in the style of the building, its numerous arcades, its capacious dome, with all the stately decorations of the place, its extensive area, paved and variegated with the choicest marbles, the extreme neatness observed in every avenue towards it, and, lastly, the sumptuous costume observable in the dresses of all the eastern devotees, passing to and from the sanctuary, make it altogether one of the finest sights the Mahometans have to boast."

To this narrative of the existing state of Jerusalem, we shall append the following remarks of M. Chateaubriand:—"The houses of Jerusalem are heavy square masses, very low, without chimnies or windows; they have flat terraces or domes on the top, and look like prisons or sepulchres. The whole would appear to the eye one uninterrupted level, did not the steeples of the churches, the minarets of the mosques, the summits of a few cypresses, and the clumps of nopals, break the uniformity of the plan. On beholding these stone buildings, encompassed by a stony country, you are ready to enquire, if they are not the confused monuments of a cemetery in the midst of a desert.

"Enter the city; but nothing will you there find to make amends for the dulness of its exterior. You lose yourself among narrow unpaved streets, here going up hill, there down, from the inequality of the ground; and you walk among clouds of dust or loose stones. Canvas stretched from house to house increases the gloom of the labyrinth; bazars, roofed over, and fraught with infection, completely exclude the light from the desolate city. A few paltry shops expose nothing but wretchedness to view and even these are frequently shut, from apprehension of the passage of a cadi. Not a creature is to be seen in the streets, nor a creature at the gates, except now and then a peasant gliding through the gloom, concealing under his garments the fruits of his labour, lest he should be robbed of his hard earnings by the rapacious soldier. Aside, in a corner, the Arab butcher is slaughtering some animal, suspended by the legs from a wall in ruins: from his haggard and ferocious look, and his bloody hands, you would rather suppose, that he had been cutting the throat of a fellow-creature than killing a lamb. The only noise heard from time to time in this *Deicide* city is the galloping of the steed of the desert: it is the janissary, who brings the head of the Bedouin, or returns from plundering the unhappy Fellah.

"Amid this extraordinary desolation, cast your eyes between the Temple and Mount Sion: behold a petty tribe cut off from the rest of the inhabitants of this city. The particular objects of every species of degradation, these people bow their heads without murmuring; they endure every kind of insult without demanding justice; they sink beneath repeated blows without sighing; if their head be required, they present it to the scimitar. On the death of any member of this proscribed community, his companion goes at night, and inters him by stealth in the Valley of Jehosaphat, in a shadow of Solomon's Temple. Enter the abodes of these people, you will find them, amidst the most abject wretchedness, instructing their children to read a mysterious book, which they, in their turn, will teach their offspring to read. What they did five thousand years ago, these people still continue to do. Seventeen times have they witnessed the destruction of Jerusalem, yet nothing can discourage them, nothing can prevent them from turning their faces towards Sion. To see the Jews scattered over the whole world, according to the word of God, must doubtless excite surprise: but to be struck with supernatural astonishment, you must

view them at Jerusalem; you must behold these rightful masters of Judea living as slaves and strangers in their own country; you must behold them expecting, under all oppressions, a king who is to deliver them. Crushed by the cross that condemns them, and is planted on their heads, skulking near the temple, of which not one stone is left upon another, they continue in their deplorable infatuation. The Persians, the Greeks, the Romans, are swept from the earth, and a petty tribe, whose origin preceded that of those great nations, still exists unmixed among the ruins of its native land. If any thing among nations wears the character of a miracle, that character, in my opinion, is here legibly impressed."

NAPOLOSE is the ancient city of Sichem, or Shechem, by which latter name it is always denoted in the scriptures. It is even yet a city of considerable magnitude, and the metropolis of an extensive country, abounding with all the necessaries of life.

This city is particularly entitled to attention, as being the burial-place of several of the Old Testament worthies. Here, in their ancient sepulchres, as everlasting as the rocks in which they are hewn, the traveller contemplates the spot where the remains of Joseph, of Eleazer, and of Joshua, were severally deposited. If any thing connected with the remembrance of past ages be calculated to awaken local enthusiasm, the land around this city is pre-eminently entitled to consideration. The sacred narrative of events, which occurred in the fields of Sichem, from our earliest years, is remembered with delight; but, with the territory before our eyes, where those events took place, and in the view of objects existing as they were described above three thousand years ago, the grateful impression kindles into ecstacy. Along the valley may still be seen, as in the days of Reuben and Judah, "a company of Ishmaelites coming from Gilead, with their camels bearing spicery, and balm, and myrrh," who would gladly purchase another Joseph of his brethren, and convey him as a slave to some Potiphar in Egypt. Upon the circumjacent hills, flocks and herds are seen feeding, as of old; nor in the simple garb of the shepherds of Samaria, at this day, is there any thing repugnant to the notions we may entertain of the appearance formerly presented by the sons of Jacob.

Sichem, or Napolose, as it is now called, was considered, in the time of Alexander the Great, as the capital of Samaria; and its inhabitants were styled *Samaritans*, not merely from the country which they occupied, but as a sect at variance with the Jews. The principal object of veneration among them is *Jacob's well*, over which a church was formerly erected. This is situated at a small distance from the town, in the road to Jerusalem, and has been visited by pilgrims of all ages, but particularly since the Christian era, as the place where the Messiah revealed himself to the woman of Samaria. The spot is so distinctly marked by the evangelist John, and is so little liable to uncertainty from the circumstance of the well itself, and the features of the country, that, if no tradition existed to identify it, the site of it could scarcely be mistaken "Perhaps," says Dr. Clarke, "no Christian scholar ever read the fourth chapter of John's gospel attentively, without being struck with the numerous internal evidences of truth, which crowd upon the mind in its perusal. Within so small a compass, it is impossible to find in other writings so many sources of reflection and of interest. Independently of its importance as a theological document, it concentrates so much information, that a volume might be filled with the illustration it reflects upon the history of the Jews, and upon the geography of their country. All that can be gathered from Josephus on these subjects, seems to be as a comment to illustrate this chapter. The journey of our Lord from Judea into Galilee; the causes of it; his passage through the territory of Samaria; his approach to the metropolis of that country; its name; his arrival at the Amorite field, which terminates the narrow valley of Sichem, or Napolose; the ancient custom of halting at a well; the female employment of drawing water; the disciples sent into the city for food, by which its situation out of the town is so obviously implied; the question of the woman, referring to existing prejudices which separated the Jews from the Samaritans; the depth of the well; the oriental allusion contained in the expression '*living water*;' the history of the well, and the customs thereby illustrated; the worship upon Mount Gerizzim;—all these occur within the space of twenty verses: and, if to these be added that remarkable circumstance mentioned in the 51st verse of the chapter, where it is stated that, 'as he was now *going down*, his servants met him,' his whole route from Cana being a *continual descent* towards Capernaum, we shall perhaps consider it as a record, which, in the words of HIM who sent it, 'we may lift up our eyes, and look upon; for it is white already to harvest.'

NAZARETH is a small town in the province of Galilee, and about seventy miles distant from Jerusalem. It is situated on the side of a barren rocky elevation, facing the east, and commanding the view of a long valley. A handsome church has been erected over the cave in which the Virgin Mary is said to have resided; and there is also a convent of Franciscan friars; but both the church and the convent, in their present state, exhibit proofs of having been recently repaired, or entirely re-built. The monks exhibit to travellers several objects of veneration in Nazareth; such as the workshop of Joseph, which is situated near the convent, and was formerly included within its walls; the synagogue where Christ is said to have read the scriptures to the Jews, and which at present is a church;

and a precipice without the town, where they affirm the Messiah leaped down, to escape the rage of the Jews, after the offence his doctrine in the synagogue had occasioned. From Luke's description of the place, the monks suppose, that Nazareth formerly stood eastward of its present situation, upon a more elevated spot. But the latest English traveller who has visited this place asserts, that the present town occupies exactly the same spot as the place anciently did. "Induced by the words of the evangelist," says he, "to examine the place more attentively than we should otherwise have done, we went, as is written, 'out of the city, unto the brow of the hill, whereon the city is built,' and came to a precipice corresponding with the words of the gospel. It is above the Maronite church, and probably the precise spot alluded to by the text of St. Luke's gospel."

BETHLEHEM, situated about six miles to the south-east of Jerusalem, has been rendered for ever memorable as the birth-place of that adorable personage, who is styled "The Author and the finisher of our faith." Here the first Christians built an oratory over the supposed spot, on which the incarnate God was discovered in a manger. The Emperor Adrian ordered it to be demolished, and a statue of Adonis to be erected in its stead; but the empress Helena destroyed the idol, and built a church on the same spot. This edifice is in the form of a cross, and the long nave or foot of the cross is adorned with forty-eight columns of the Corinthian order, in four rows. These columns are two feet six inches in diameter at the base, and eighteen feet high, including the base and capital. The altar is dedicated to the wise men of the east; and on the pavement, at the foot of the altar, is a marble star, said to correspond with the point of the heavens where the miraculous star that conducted those visitants became stationary. Two spiral staircases, each composed of fifteen steps, open on the sides of the outer church, and conduct to a subterraneous church beneath, which is said to be the place of the Saviour's nativity. As it is supposed to occupy the original site of the stable, it is irregular; the length of it being thirty-seven feet six iuches, the breadth eleven feet three inches, and the height nine feet. It is hewn out of the rock; and the sides and the floor are covered with beautiful marble. The church receives no light from without, but is illuminated by thirty-two lamps sent by different Christian princes. At the farther end, on the other side, there is a spot marked by a white marble, incrusted with jasper, and surrounded by a circle of silver rays, resembling those with which the sun is represented, and which is intended to mark the spot where the child Jesus was born.

The pictures which adorn this church are of the Italian and Spanish schools, representing the Virgin and child, the annunciation, the adoration of the wise men, the visit of the shepherds, and all the mysteries of the place. The ornaments of the manger are of blue satin, embroidered with silver. Incense is continually smoking before the cradle of the Saviour; and, during the time of performing mass, a fine organ plays the sweetest and most tender tunes of the best Italian composers. At a short distance to the southward of Bethlehem, the famous fountains, pools, and gardens, of Solomon are shewn. The pools are three in number, lying in a row, and so disposed that the waters of the uppermost fall into the second, and those of the second into the third. They are of a quadrangular figure, equal in breadth, but differing in length, the breadth of each being four hundred and fifty feet; but the length of the first is eight hundred feet, of the second one thousand feet, and of the third one thousand one hundred feet. They are very deep, and lined with plaster; and at about the distance of seven hundred feet is a fountain, from which they receive their waters. On the eastward of the city the well of David is shewn, for the waters of which that monarch so passionately longed. And about two furlongs from this well are the remains of an aqueduct, which anciently conveyed the waters of Solomon's pools to Jerusalem.

ALEPPO, the finest and most opulent place in Syria, is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. The houses, according to the oriental custom, consist of a large court, with a dead wall toward the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo and its suburb are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest of which the citadel or castle is erected. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which was estimated by the late Dr. Russel to contain 230,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 were Christians, and 5000 Jews; but, at present, according to Mr. Eton, it does not contain more than 50,000, which depopulation has chiefly taken place since 1770. Whole streets are uninhabited, and bazars abandoned. It furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the Empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their warehouses, lodging-rooms, and compting-houses. This city abounds in handsome mosques, public bagnios, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the east.

SMYRNA, the capital of Anatolia, is said to have been founded by Alexander the Great; and, in the time of the

Romans, it was called the "ornament of Asia." In 1034, a Turkish rebel, named Tzachas, assumed the regal title, and, having seized upon Smyrna, made it his capital. At the beginning of the thirteenth century, it all lay in ruins, except the fortress. In the wars between the Turks and Greeks, it greatly declined, and was taken with immense slaughter by Tamerlane, in 1402; but in a subsequent period it revived; and its commodious harbour and advantageous situation have rendered it the emporium of all the traffic of Asia Minor.

The public edifices have been chiefly erected by the Turks, with the materials of the ancient city. The bezestan, or market, and the tizir-khan, were both raised with the white marble of the theatre. The haven is defended by a strong castle, and sheltered from all winds, except the westerly, by high mountains.

The mosques, baths, market, and khans, are the principal buildings, and some of them are very noble. The streets in general are narrow, intricate, and inconvenient; but the most disagreeable circumstance to those who live here is the great heat, which commences in June, and continues till September. During this season the ground is burnt up, and exhibits large chasms, which it is imagined give vent to bituminous vapours, that, if confined, would occasion earthquakes. Few years pass without a shock or two; but, in general, they are rather alarming than destructive. They usually happen when the weather is calm, in spring and autumn; at which time the sea withdraws a considerable way from the beach, and the water is very low. A terrible one happened in 1688, which overthrew a great part of the city. Smyrna is frequently visited by the plague. When it rages violently, the consuls, factors, merchants, &c. retire into the country; and many people abandon their dwellings to live abroad under tents.

This city is one of the seven that contended for the honour of being the birth-place of Homer, to whose memory a temple was erected. It is likewise the seat of one of the seven Asiatic churches, mentioned in the book of Revelation. In the environs, Roman medals have been frequently found; and near it are the remains of an ancient Roman circus or theatre.

The following anecdote is naturally connected with the mention of this city, and cannot fail of proving acceptable:—In the month of March 1797, a dreadful insurrection broke out in Smyrna, on account of a janissary, who was killed by a Sclavonian, a subject of Venice. The Turks became furious; but, not daring to attack the Franks, they turned their rage against the Greeks, and committed murders, and every act of atrocity: at length they set fire to part of the city, and the lives of the European residents were preserved with the greatest difficulty. An aga, arriving from Constantinople at this critical juncture, appeased the tumult, having condemned eighteen Turks to be put to death. The first Greeks found in the streets were compelled to be the executioners; and among these was an old respectable merchant, who, performing his new office with much timidity and awkwardness, occasioned some unnecessary pain to the person whom he was appointed to kill. A Turkish officer, after reproaching the venerable Greek, struck him with his cane; upon which the aga 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 immediately seized and beheaded.

Diarbeck, the capital of Diarbeck, or Mesopotamia, is situated between two rivers, and encompassed by two walls, the outermost of which is defended by seventy-two towers. There are but three gates. Over that towards the west, some Latin and Greek inscriptions are seen, though many of the letters are almost obliterated. The name, however, of Constantine is visible, and frequently repeated, which gives occasion to surmise, that the city was either originally built, or greatly repaired and improved, by that emperor. The Tigris forms a half-moon about it, and a steep precipice descends from its walls to the water-side. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and, upon the whole, is one of the most commercial and populous cities in Asiatic Turkey. It is supplied with water from the Tigris, by means of an artificial canal, and embellished with several market-places, and other elegant buildings, particularly a spacious mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. On the sides of the river are several caravanseras or inns; and near the town is a chapel, in which the Turks affirm is the place of Job's sepulture. The neighbouring country is pleasant and fertile.

Bagdad, the principal city of Irac, or Chaldea, is delightfully situated in a fine plain, on the eastern bank of the Tigris. It was founded by the Caliph Almansur, in the 145th year of the Hegira, and is built upon the site of the ancient Seleucia. It was the seat of most of the caliphs of the race of Al-Abbas; but, at present, it retains few marks of its ancient grandeur. In form it is of an irregular square, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade; being annually visited by the caravans from Smyrna, Aleppo, and the west. The houses are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over, to admit a free circulation of the air; many of the windows are of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceilings richly ornamented. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange-trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000. The bazars, or market-places, are tolerably handsome and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandise, to the number of twelve thousand. Here, also, are five mosques, a castle

of white stone commanding the river, and a palace occupied by the Turkish governor.

ERZERUM, the capital of Turcomania, is situated on the northern extremity of the province, about ten days' journey from the frontiers of Persia, and five from the Euxine Sea. It is the residence of a Turkish bashaw, is defended by a good castle, and has a strong garrison of janissaries.

Erzerum is a place of great trade, which principally consists of copper and brass wares, the ore of which is found in the neighbouring mountains, printed calicoes, red and yellow leather, silk, madder, gall-nuts, caviare, and beautiful furs. It is likewise a repository for vast quantities of merchandise, which come from the East-Indies. All who go from hence to Persia, except Turks, pay a capitation-tax of five crowns, and five per cent. for all specie which they carry with them. Every stranger who enters the town is obliged to pay five crowns, and all merchandise is taxed at nine per cent.

Fuel is so scarce in this city, that the inhabitants are under the necessity of substituting cow-dung, made into turfs; the perpetual burning of which occasions a scent throughout the place which is very offensive to strangers. Every thing you eat or drink, even the very cream, is tainted with this vapour; yet travellers assert, that there are coals in the neighbouring hills; but the inhabitants neither understand their nature, nor how to dig for them. The water is excellent; rivulets of which run through most of the streets; but the wine and brandy are difficult to be got at, though they are extremely bad, when procured, for the sale of them is strictly prohibited. The Greeks are obliged to inhabit the suburbs, because, being tinkers, they make such a perpetual clattering with their hammers, that it would disturb the tranquillity of the Turks, who cannot bear the thoughts of a noisy trade.

TEFLIS, the principal city in Georgia, is handsomely built, and makes a fine appearance: the houses are of stone, with flat roofs, and are remarkably clean; but the streets are narrow and dirty. It is situated on the side of the river Kur, at the foot of a mountain, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side next the river. Here are thirteen Greek churches, besides one for the Armenians, and one for Roman catholics: and the environs are prettily ornamented with pleasant houses and fine gardens.

MOUSUL, the capital of Curdistan, or Assyria, stands on the banks of the Tigris, opposite to the ruins of the ancient city of Nineveh. The people here have great commercial connections with the inhabitants of Bagdad, and the merchants of Curdistan. Caravans likewise pass through it to and from Persia. It is singular, that the soil on the city side of the river is barren, but on the opposite side very fertile. The heat is so excessive in summer, that none go out of doors from two hours after sun-rise till an hour after sun-set. There is, likewise, a malignant and dangerous wind, called the *samiel*, which often blows from hence to Surat, and is supposed to be the same mentioned in the book of Job. It is impregnated with little streaks of fire, as small as hairs, which immediately kill those who inhale them, and turn them as black as a coal. When the people perceive them coming, they fall flat on their faces, and sometimes escape. This wind is felt chiefly on the banks of the river, and is supposed to proceed from sulphureous vapours. Independent of this wind, the hot air is often dangerous, and injures the lungs, inflames the blood, and parches the skin, or raises it into blisters, and occasions it to peel off. On this account travellers wear a kind of mask, made of soft crape, to preserve their eyes; but, after all their precaution, they often become inflamed.

Antiquities.] The countries comprised in Asiatic Turkey once contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and sculpture, and even the remains of their splendid monuments are so numerous, that they have afforded materials for many voluminous publications. The most remarkable of these, however, are the ruins of Balbec and Palmyra; which have been justly said to form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis of Cœlo-Syria, is pleasantly situated upon a rising plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus.

"In taking a view of this city, from the south," says a traveller, who visited it a few years ago, "we see the present town encompassed with its wall; and, at the east end, the most considerable ruins of the ancient Heliopolis, particularly the remains of its magnificent temple, which are mostly surrounded by a Turkish fortification.

"The portico, which formed the grand front of the temple, is so noble, that no ornaments seem wanting to render it complete; but it is disfigured by two Turkish towers, built on its ruins. Behind it an hexagonal court, into which the portico leads, is adorned with the most magnificent buildings, now in ruins; but enough is still left to give an idea of their ancient grandeur. The walls are adorned with pilasters of the Corinthian order, with statues for niches; the doors are finely ornamented, and the entablature, which surrounds the building above the pilasters, is richly adorned with festoons: but the colonade which surrounded these edifices is destroyed, scarcely any thing remaining but the pedestals; and the whole court is covered with broken columns, capitals, and other parts of the building.

"This leads into a quadrangular court, in which are likewise remains of magnificent edifices, much in the same taste. The portico was crowned with an attic course, which was also carried through the two courts, and seems to have been ornamented with statues.

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"We now come to the great temple, the approach to which was through the anterior portico and courts. Little more of this edifice remains than nine lofty columns supporting their entablature. It is remarkable, that the shafts of these columns consist of three pieces, most exactly joined together without cement, being only strengthened with iron pins, received into a socket, worked in each stone. Most of the bases have two such sockets, one square and another circular, corresponding with two others, of the same shape and dimensions, in the under part of the shaft. On measuring some of the largest of those that were circular, it was found that the iron pin which they received must have been a foot long, and above a foot in diameter. By the sockets in all the fallen fragments of this temple, it appears that each stone had probably been fastened in this manner. How much this method contributed to the strength of the building is remarkably seen in the most entire temple, where a column has fallen against the wall of the cell with such violence, as to beat in the stone it fell against, and break part of the shaft, while the joinings of the same shaft have not been in the least opened by the shock.

"The temple, which is most perfect, is irregularly placed with respect to the former, and is also built upon a much lower horizontal plan. It was a peristyle of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, which still continue to support their entablature, notwithstanding several unsuccessful attempts of the Turks to destroy them, in order to get at the iron employed in strengthening this noble building. The arch of the portico is divided into compartments by the richest mouldings and carved work, cut in the solid stone. These compartments are in an alternate succession of one hexagon and four rhomboids, inclosing figures and heads in alto relievo. The rhomboid pannels contain heads of gods, heroes, and emperors; the hexagons also contain the heads of the same subjects, and sometimes entire figures, relating to the ancient mythology; as Leda and the swan, Ganymede riding on the back of an eagle, a half length of Diana, &c. On the inside of this temple a row of fluted Corinthian columns reach to the top of the building, supporting a rich entablature. Between each column is a niche, finely ornamented, and above each niche an opening answering to it, supported by small columns. The roof is fallen down, and out of the ruins of the entablature grow many shrubs.

"At some distance, to the west of these superb remains, is a magnificent circular temple. The order of this structure without is Corinthian, and within both Corinthian and Ionic; but the shafts of all the columns are of one piece. The lower or Ionic story is converted into a Greek church, and for that purpose is separated from the higher or Corinthian story. Turkish houses, and other modern additions, erected against it, destroy its symmetry.

"On the south-west part of the city, where the walls enclose a small part of the foot of Anti-Libanus, is a single Doric column, of considerable height; but nothing in its size, proportions, or workmanship, is so remarkable as a little basin on the top of its capital, which has a communication with a semicircular channel, cut longitudinally down the side of the shaft, and five or six inches deep. It is said, that water was formerly conveyed from the basin by this channel; but how the basin was supplied cannot now be ascertained.

"The city-walls, like those of most of the other ancient cities of Asia, seem the confused patch-work of different ages. The pieces of capitals, broken entablatures, and, in some places, reversed Greek inscriptions, to be seen in surveying them, shew that their last repairs were made after the decline of taste, with such materials as lay nearest at hand. The city-gates, in general, correspond with what has been said of the walls; but that on the north side presents the ruins of a large subasement, with pedestals and bases for four columns, in a taste of magnificence and antiquity much superior to that of the other gates.

"Near the city-walls is a quarry of free-stone, from which, probably, the immense stones employed in the subasement of the great temple were taken, while the more ornamented parts of those buildings were supplied from a quarry of coarse white marble, on the west of the city, and at a greater distance. In the first quarry there are still some vast stones cut and shaped for use. One of these stones, thus shaped, but not entirely detached from the quarry at the bottom, we found to be seventy feet long, fourteen broad, and fourteen feet five inches deep. This stone, according to these dimensions, contains fourteen thousand one hundred and twenty-eight cubic feet; and, were it Portland stone, should weigh about two millions two hundred and seventy thousand pounds avoirdupois, or about one thousand one hundred and thirty-five tons."

PALMYRA is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about two hundred miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined, as it were, with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which should be seen, to be fully understood, and justly appreciated. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending four thousand feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticoes, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and dis-

jointed, that it is impossible to form an idea of the whole when perfect.

"Nothing but ocular proof," says our author, "could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom, that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the western nations for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts.

"The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its origin to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Mark Antony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallianus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Unwilling to submit to the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and murdered her principal nobility, and, among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned: none of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach beyond the Christian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it gradually dwindled to its present state."

Government, Laws, &c.] The Turkish government is generally represented as a compound of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the accounts of Sir James Porter, who resided at the Porte, in quality of ambassador from his Britannic Majesty, it appears, that the rigours of that government are considerably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no such thing as hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered secure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at a trifling expence. Even Jews and Christians may in this manner secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether depend on the superstition of the sultan: he knows, that any attempt to violate it would shake the foundation of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion. Were he to transgress these laws, he would become an infidel, and cease to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed not only as a system of religion, but also as a political code. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obscure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institutions of the prophet; and no member of the society, however powerful, can transgress them with impunity, or violate them without punishment.

The subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular quota of men, consider themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of the emperor, who seldom calls for the head or the estate of a subject, who is not an immediate servant of the court. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government are those who approach the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden vicissitudes, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the visier, or prime-minister, the kiaja, second in power to the visier, the reis-effendi, or secretary of state, and the aga of the janissaries, are the most considerable. These, as well as the mufti, or high-priest, the pachas, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised, by application and assiduity, from the most obscure situations, and are often the children of Tartar or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the intrigue and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank; and they have an additional reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long the dignities to which they have attained may continue in their possession.

The fundamental law in the Turkish legislature is, that every thing must be decided by the testimony of witnesses. With these, therefore, both plaintiff and defendant must be equally provided; but there are few law-suits without false witnesses. The art of the judge is employed in discovering to which of the parties he shall allow the right of affirming; and this first judgment decides the cause; for, if one party denies, the other is permitted to prove. If, therefore, a man be sued by another he never saw, for

a debt he never owed, he will be obliged to pay, on the deposition of two Turkish witnesses, who shall affirm their knowledge of the debt. The only defence that can be made in such a case is, to admit the debt was due, but assert that it had been paid. If the judge will admit of the party's producing witnesses, they may easily be procured, and it will only cost a trifling compensation to those who have taken the trouble to perjure themselves, and ten per cent to the judge by whose means the cause is gained. The punishment for false witnesses is, that the party be led through the streets upon an ass; but this is seldom executed.

With respect to the criminal statutes, that law which sentences the murderer to lose his life, permits, at the same time, the nearest relations of the murdered to grant him a pardon. The criminal is conducted to the place of punishment: but the executioner takes on himself the office of mediator, and negociates to the last minute with the next of kin to the deceased, or his wife, who commonly follows, to be present at the execution. If the proposals are refused, the sentence is executed; if accepted, the criminal is re-conducted to the tribunal, to receive his pardon. But an accommodation seldom takes place, as the selling the blood of relations is justly considered a scandalous transaction.

Robbers on the highway are not punished, unless taken in the commission of some daring crime. The territories of the Grand Signor are infested with banditti, who commit the greatest enormities; and the efforts of government too often serve only to disperse them, and drive them farther from the capital. If they commit robberies, or even murders, in a village, the cadi goes thither, and imposes a fine on the inhabitants, without troubling himself to secure the offenders. On this account, the peasants take care to conceal the robberies that have been committed from the judges, whose presence is more dangerous than that of the thieves.

That doctrine of the Koran, which enjoins submission to the decrees of Providence, seems improper to constitute part of a criminal code, as will appear from the following circumstance:

A Turk having killed a Christian by a violent blow on the skull with a club, the judge, after surveying the instrument employed in committing the murder, declared it could not have caused the death of the Christian without the particular interference of Providence, which mortals had no right to oppose. If, however, the Christian had committed the murder in question on the body of a Turk, the decision would have been very different.

Each quarter has its tribunal, in which a cadi, attended by a clerk, sits all day long, to hear complaints, and administer justice, which is the more speedy, as the payment of the expences immediately follows the sentence.

The prices of commodities are fixed by an officer, who proclaims them, and takes care that the weights and measures are honest. Delinquents are condemned to the bastinado, or some severe punishment. Bakers sometimes have an ear nailed to their shop, or are hanged, according to the caprice of the judge; and one instance is recorded of a baker, who, having been proved guilty of making bread deficient in weight, as well as being concerned with others in raising the price of that necessary article, was, by order of the Grand Signor, baked alive in his own oven.

Landed property, in this country, is held particularly sacred, as will appear from the following anecdote:—One of the Ottoman princes having determined to build a mosque upon a particular spot, found no difficulty in making the necessary purchases of the houses on the premises, till a Jew, who possessed a house of small value in the centre, refused to part with it at any price. Large offers were made, but the Jew remained inflexible, his obstinacy prevailing over his avarice. The courtiers pleased themselves with the expectation of seeing the Jew's house demolished, and himself dragged to punishment; but, contrary to general example, the prince descended from the throne to consult the law, and wrote thus to the mufti: "A man desires to build a temple: all the Mussulmen, proprietors of the ground on which it is to be erected, are in haste to participate of so good a work. One man only, and he a Jew, refuses all offers. What punishment does he deserve?" "None:" replied the mufti, "property is sacred without distinction of individuals, and a temple may not be erected in violation of so holy a law. As it appears to be the desire of the Jew to transmit his property to his children, and it is the right of the sovereign to insist on hiring any ground he may choose, a contract for the hire of the ground must be made out to this Jew and his descendants: then the house may be pulled down, and the temple built, without fear that the prayers of the Mussulmen offered therein should be rejected." The decree of the mufti was executed.

Revenues.] The revenues of this empire arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes, which fall chiefly on the Christians, and other subjects, who are not of the Mahometan persuasion. The rich pay a capitation-tax of thirty shillings a year, tradesmen fifteen shillings, and common labourers six shillings and ten-pence halfpenny. Another branch of the revenue arises from the tribute annually paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of *presents*. These persons, to indemnify themselves, exercise every species of oppression that avarice itself can suggest, till, becoming opulent from

the vitals of the people whom they are sent to govern, their riches give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the name of his accuser; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched with the imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy pacha receives it with the highest respect; and, after he has read it, he exclaims: "*The will of God and the emperor be done.*" Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and, having tied it round his own neck, and offered a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord tight, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

The following remarks of M. Chateaubriand, on the government and police of Jerusalem, will fully illustrate those oppressions to which we have alluded, and which sometimes lead to a catastrophe so truly tragical.

"Jerusalem is comprehended in the pachalik of Damascus, for what reason I know not, unless it be a result of that destructive system which is naturally, and, as it were, instinctively, pursued by the Turks. Cut off from Damascus by mountains, and still more by the Arabs, who infest the deserts, Jerusalem cannot always prefer its complaints to the pacha when oppressed by its governors. It would be much more natural to make it dependant on the pachalik of Acre, which lies near it; the Franks and the Latin fathers might then place themselves under the protection of the consuls residing in the ports of Syria; and the Greeks and Turks would be able to make known their grievances. But this is the very thing that their governors are desirous of preventing; they would have a mute slavery, and not insolent wretches who dare complain of the hand that oppresses them.

"Jerusalem is therefore at the mercy of an almost independent governor, who may do with impunity all the mischief he pleases, if he be not afterwards called to account for it by the pacha. It is well known that, in Turkey, every superior has a right to delegate his authority to an inferior; and this authority extends both to property and life. For a few purses a janissary may become a petty aga, and this aga may, at his good pleasure, either take away your life, or permit you to redeem it. Thus executioners are multiplied in every town. The only thing ever heard in this country, the only justice ever thought of, is, *Let him pay ten, twenty, or thirty purses.—Give him five hundred strokes of the bastinado.—Cut off his head.* One act of injustice renders it necessary to commit a still greater. If one of these petty tyrants plunder a peasant, he is absolutely obliged to plunder his neighbour also; for, to escape the hypocritical integrity of the pacha, he must procure by a second crime sufficient to purchase impunity for the first.

"It may perhaps be imagined, that the pacha, when he visits his government, corrects these evils, and avenges the wrongs of the people. So far from this, however, the pacha is himself the greatest scourge of the inhabitants. His coming is dreaded, like that of a hostile chief. The shops are shut up; the people conceal themselves in cellars; they feign to be at the point of death on their mats, or withdraw to the mountains.

"The truth of these facts I am able to attest, since I happened to be at Jerusalem at the time of the pacha's visit. Abdallah is sordidly avaricious, like almost all the Mussulmen: in the capacity of commander of the caravan of Mecca, and under the pretext of raising money for the better protection of the pilgrims, he thinks that he has a right to multiply his extortions; and he is always devising new ways of fleecing the people. One of the methods which he most frequently employs is, to fix a very low maximum for all kinds of provisions. The people are delighted, but the dealers shut up their shops. A scarcity commences; the pacha enters into a secret negociation with the shopkeepers, and, for a certain number of purses, grants them permission to sell at any price they please. These men are, of course, desirous to recover the sums which they have given the pacha: they raise the price of necessaries to an extraordinary height, and the people, dying a second time for want, are obliged to part with their last rag, to keep themselves from starving.

"I have seen this same Abdallah practise a still more ingenious vexation. I have observed, that he sent his cavalry to pillage the Arabian farmers beyond the Jordan. These poor people, who had paid their usual tax, and who knew that they were not at war, were surprised in the midst of their tents and of their flocks. They were robbed of two thousand two hundred sheep and goats, ninety-four calves, a thousand asses, and six mares of the purest blood: the camels alone escaped, having followed a shieck who called them at a distance. These faithful children of the desert carried their milk to their masters in the mountains, as if they had known that these masters were bereft of every other species of nourishment.

"A European could scarcely guess what the pacha did with his booty. He put more than twice as high a price upon each animal as it was worth, rating each goat and sheep at twenty piastres, and each calf at eighty. The beasts thus appraised were sent to the butchers and different persons in Jerusalem, and to the chiefs of the neighbouring villages, who were obliged to take them, and pay for them at the pacha's price upon pain of death. I must confess that, had I not been an *eye-witness* of this double iniquity, I should have thought it absolutely incredible. As to the asses and horses, they became the property of

the soldiers; for, according to a singular convention between these robbers, all the beasts with a cloven hoof taken in such expeditions belong to the pacha, and all other animals fall to the share of the troops.

"Having exhausted Jerusalem, the pacha departs; but, in order to save the pay of the city-guards, and to strengthen the escort of the caravan of Mecca, he takes the soldiers along with him. The governor is left behind with about a dozen men, who are insufficient for the police of the city, much less for that of the adjacent country. The year before my visit, he was obliged to conceal himself in his house, to escape the pursuit of a band of robbers, who entered Jerusalem, and were on the point of plundering the city.

"No sooner is the pacha gone, than another evil, the consequence of his oppression, begins to be felt. Insurrections take place in the plundered villages; they attack each other, mutually intent on wreaking hereditary vengeance. All communication is interrupted; agriculture perishes; and the peasant sallies forth at night to pillage his enemy's vine, and to cut down his olive-tree. The pacha returns the following year; he demands the same tribute from a country whose population is diminished. In order to raise it, he is obliged to redouble his oppressions, and to exterminate whole tribes. The desert gradually extends; nothing is to be seen but here and there habitations in ruins, and near them cemeteries, which keep continually increasing: each succeeding year witnesses the destruction of a house, the extinction of a family; and soon nothing is left but a cemetery to mark the spot where once stood a village."

Population.] The population of this country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the most geographers been able to ascertain it, because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian era, or even under the Roman emperors, owing to various causes; and, above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and the practice of polygamy, which is undoubtedly unfavourable to population. The number of inhabitants, however, in Asiatic Turkey, has been recently computed at ten millions.

Commerce, Manufactures, &c.] Smyrna is the principal port for what is called the Levant Trade; and to this place France used formerly to send sugar, coffee, cochineal, and indigo; but at present, in consequence of the loss of her Indian colonies, and the crippled state of her navy, this trade is a mere name. England sends out, besides West-Indian produce, iron, tin, cloths, shalloons, &c. In Aleppo there are some flourishing manufactures of silk and cotton; and the caravans from Bagdad and Bassora frequently bring hither the products of India and Persia. Asiatic Turkey is also celebrated for its carpets, which bear a high price in Europe; and Damascus is universally famed for its steel for warlike weapons.

Languages and Literature.] The radical languages of this extensive tract of country are the Sclavonic, which was probably the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Arabic, the Syriac, and the modern Greek. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some few of them understand astronomy so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but these are considered as men of very extraordinary attainments.

Manners, Customs, &c.] The Turks, who form the major part of the inhabitants of this country, are, in general, of the middle stature, and well made, with a tolerably fair complexion, black hair and eyes, and regular features. Most of the women are deemed handsome during their youth, but begin to look old at the age of thirty. In their dispositions the Turks are grave, sedate, and passive; but, when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive, beyond conception; and, in matters of religion, tenacious and morose. The morals of the Asiatic Turks, however, are far preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers, and the vices of avarice and inhumanity are chiefly found among their great men. They are likewise punctual in their dealings with each other; and their charity and public spirit are conspicuous in their building caravanseras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of other accommodations. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells for the refreshment of poor pilgrims and travellers.

The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never remove it but when they sleep. Their shirts are open, without collar or wristband; and over these they throw a long vest, tied with a sash, in which they frequently have a dagger, and carry their money and their tobacco-pouch. Over the vest they wear a loose gown, somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and, instead of shoes, they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a mosque or a private habitation.

The first part of the women's dress is a pair of drawers, very full, and reaching to the heels; over this is the shift, with wide sleeves hanging half way down the arm, and closed at the neck with a button. They have a long waistcoat made close to the shape, with long sleeves falling back, and varying in materials and ornaments, according to their respective ranks. They have also a robe exactly fitted to the shape, and reaching to the feet, with very long falling sleeves: this is girt with a girdle about four inches broad, which persons of respectability have richly ornamented. The *curdee* is a loose robe lined with ermine or sable, which they throw off or put on, according to the weather.

The head-dress is composed of a cap called *talpoc*, which is in winter of fine velvet, and in summer of a light stuff. This is fixed on one side of the head, hanging a little way down, with a tassel bound with a circle of diamonds, or a rich embroidered handkerchief. On the other side of the head the hair is laid flat, and tastefully ornamented with flowers, feathers, or a large bouquet of jewels, representing natural flowers. The hair hangs at its full length behind, divided into tresses, braided with pearls or ribbons.

No woman, let her rank be what it will, is permitted to walk in the streets without two *murlins;* one that hides the whole head-dress, and hangs half-way down the back, and another that covers all the face except the eyes. The shape is also entirely concealed by a *ferigee,* which has long sleeves reaching to the finger-ends, and which is wrapped round like a riding-hood. By this means they are so disguised, that a woman of the first rank cannot be distinguished from her slave; and it is impossible for the most jealous husband to know his wife when he meets her.

Such of the Turkish ladies as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet a deep yellow with *henna:* and they universally blacken the inside of their eye-lids with a powder called *ismid.* This operation is performed with a cylindrical piece of silver, steel, or ivory, about two inches long, of the size of a common probe. This instrument they wet with water, that the powder may adhere to it, and, applying the middle part horizontally to the eye, shut the eye-lid upon it, and draw it through.

When the overtures of a man mean nothing more than an insult, the Turkish women are inexorable; but it is impossible to consider without horror the dismal consequences of the blind passions to which they are sometimes a prey. We do not here allude to those women who so frequently sell their charms, and whose mutilated dead bodies are so often seen in the environs of cities, a circumstance that may be accounted for on the principles of avarice or fear in the men; but to those women of a more exalted rank, whom an irresistible fury overpowers, and who escape privately from their harems. These unfortunate beings always carry off with them their jewels, and think nothing too good for their lovers. Overcome by their unhappy passion, they do not perceive that this very wealth becomes the cause of their destruction. The seducers to whom they fly seldom fail, in a short time, to punish their temerity, and insure the possession of their effects, by a crime which, however monstrous, the government is least ready to visit with punishment. The bodies of these women, stripped and mangled, are frequently seen floating in the ports, under the very windows of their assassins; but these dreadful examples, so likely to intimidate the rest, seldom excite terror, or produce reformation.

The common salutation of the Turks is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this extensive empire have any inclination to walk or ride, either for health or diversion. In fact, laziness is so congenial to their dispositions, that they laugh at the Europeans for taking a walk, deeming it ridiculous to walk merely for the sake of amusement. A European ambassador, once giving an entertainment to all the foreign ministers and Europeans, excited the curiosity of some Turks of distinction, who expressed the greatest astonishment at seeing some of the first characters among the Europeans stand up to take a part in the dances on the occasion. To walk or to ride to their gardens, where they are situated at a small distance, once or twice a week, at the proper seasons, is as much as most of them care to do. Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting with darts, at which they are very expert. Some few of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. The most religious among them find sufficient exercise in conforming to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites, prescribed by the Arabian impostor.

At their meals they use a round table, placed upon a stool about fourteen inches high, beneath which a piece of red cloth is spread. There is no table-cloth; but their knees are covered with long silk napkins. The dishes are placed in the middle of the table, being brought in one by one, and changed as soon as every one has tasted a little. The leban in basins, bread, salads, pickles, spoons, &c. are disposed in order round the edges. They use neither knives nor forks. The first dish is broth, and the last pillaw. The intermediate dishes are mutton roasted and stewed with herbs, and cut to pieces; stewed pigeons, fowls, &c. stuffed with rice and spices; but the most favourite dish is a whole lamb stuffed with rice, almonds, raisins, and pistachios. It is observable, that the Turks and Jews seldom or never eat beef, their favourite food being mutton. The common bread is made of wheat, badly fermented, and badly baked: people of fashion have, however, a better sort. Beside these, they have biscuits and rusks stewed with fennel-flour. They have a desert of sweet starch, and a thin syrup with currants, raisins, dried apricots, slices of pears, pistachios, and apples swimming in it; of which each eats a spoonful, and then the repast is concluded.

They usually breakfast on honey, fried eggs, &c. and dine about eleven o'clock; but the principal meal is supper, which is served up at six in the summer, and five in the winter. They drink water at meals, and coffee after dinner. The licentious drink wine and spirits publicly

but the hypocritical part of the people in private; and, when they once begin, they generally drink to excess.

Visitants are entertained with a pipe of tobacco, wet sweetmeats, and coffee, without sugar or milk. When particular respect is intended, sherbet and a sprinkling of rose-water are added. But as soon as the wood of aloes is introduced, it is understood that the host begins to wish his visitor gone. Men and women here smoke to excess. The tube of the pipe is made of the wood of the rose-tree, but the bowl is of clay.

The Turks retire to rest early, and sleep in the principal part of their clothes. Their bed consists of a mattress, and over it a sheet in summer, and a carpet, with a sheet sewed to it, in winter. The men are either lulled to rest by music, smoke themselves to sleep, or are talked to sleep by their women, who are taught to tell innumerable stories for that purpose.

Though inebriety impels the Turks to commit many outrages, and though their laws forbid the use of wine, there are, and have been for years past, in their capital cities, public taverns, which are protected by the government, because the tax imposed upon their proprietors augments the revenue. Their police affixes the seal to the door of every tavern; but a little wicket is contrived underneath, which they pretend to overlook, and affords an entrance always open and public. It requires only a little stooping to evade the law, and get intoxicated without molestation.

All the capital places of Turkey have many public bagnios, which are frequented by people of all sects and conditions, except those of very distinguished rank, who have generally private baths in their own houses, constructed in the following manner:

Two small chambers, built with brick, and faced with marble or plaster, communicate, and are each enlightened by small cupolas, cut in checquers. This little edifice is commonly joined to the house by a small room, in which they undress. Double doors, folded over and listed with felt, shut in the first and second part of the stove. A wood fire is kept up in a subterraneous vault, the entrance of which is without. This fire-place is under the farthermost chamber, and heats a caldron immediately beneath the marble floor, which serves as a ceiling to the vault. Pipes, placed within the walls, come from the inside of the caldron, and go out at the cupola, to evaporate the water, which is kept continually boiling. Other tubes, communicating with a reservoir, are likewise contained within the brick-work, and furnish the inside with cold water, by means of cocks placed at the side of those which yield the warm water. Small seats of smooth wood are made to sit on; and drains are cut in the marble to carry off the water which is thrown down.

These private baths, thus heated twenty-four hours before they are used, by being thus constructed, have so great a degree of heat, that, after being entirely undressed in the exterior chamber, and having put on very high sandals of wood to keep the feet from being burnt by the marble-floor, it is impossible to enter the first room, without stopping a moment bewteen the two doors, to let the lungs dilate; after which it is impossible to enter the second stove, under which the heat is most active, without taking the same precautions; and, it is probable, that the air of this room bears the same proportion to that of the first, as this does to the external air. A sudden perspiration, rushing through all the pores, is felt on entering; but the violence of this heat does not prevent the women from staying in these baths five or six hours together.

Those who have not private baths, go to the public ones; which are always prepared, and contrived in such a manner as to contain a great number of people. Some of the women, more delicate and scrupulous than the rest, take the bath for themselves alone, and go thither with their particular friends. To complete the entertainment, they carry with them their provisions. Their pleasures consist in enjoying greater liberties than they could otherwise possibly procure. Bathing women, called *telleks*, with their hands wrapped in little bags of serge, rub the skin till it is dry. They likewise make use of a very fine clay, mixed with rose-leaves, and afterwards dried in the sun, as a kind of soap, with which they rub the head, pouring on it warm water from large metal basins. The women's hair, thus cleansed and perfumed, is afterwards tied up in a great number of small tresses. These public baths are likewise frequented by the men, but at different hours from those set apart for the women; as it is death for any male to enter the bath when females are present.

With respect to amusements, the Turks generally entertain themselves within doors with chess or draughts; but they are prohibited from betting upon any games, by the laws of the Koran. The Turkish music consists of two sorts, one for the field, and the other for the chamber. The first, which is performed before the great military officers, and also used in the garrisons, consists of trumpets, cymbals, hautboys, and large drums, the upper head of which is beaten with a heavy drum-stick, and the lower with a small switch. Besides these, they have small drums, which are beat upon after the manner of our kettle-drums; and this music has a good effect at a distance. Their chamber-music consists of a guitar, an Arab fiddle, a dulcimer, the dervises' flute, a couple of small drums, and the diff, an instrument which serves to beat time to the voice, which is frequently the worst of all their music; for many of them bellow so hideously, as to spoil what would otherwise be harmonious. As they are unacquainted with the method of writing music, they are obliged to learn entirely by the ear. However, when several persons play

together, they keep exact time. The Turkish ballets are very pleasant and entertaining, both for their figures, and the variety of their steps; and the dresses of the dancers are light and elegant.

The burials of the Turks are very decent. The corpse is attended by the relatives, chanting passages from the Koran, and, after being deposited in a mosque, it is committed to the earth by an iman, or priest, who pronounces a funeral-oration at the time of interment.

To these remarks on the Asiatic Turks, it may be proper to add some information relative to the other inhabitants of this extensive region.

The *Curds*, who, in the summer, pass from Mousul to the sources of the Euphrates, are a pastoral people, conducting their herds from one country to another; and, in the time of Tournefort, they extended as far west as Toxat, where other hordes, 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 principal conductors of the Levant trade, for which their frugality and enterprise render them peculiarly qualified.

The *Druzes* are a remarkable people of Syria, who 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 belief. A modern traveller says, they practise neither circumcision, prayer, 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 *Circassians*, who inhabit the frontiers of the Caucasus, are supposed to have derived their origin from the Arabs; and they are considered by some as the remains of those armies which were formerly sent by the caliphs to the Caucasus; while others are of opinion, that they are descended from the Mamelukes.

Much having been reported of the beauty of the Circassian women, the following extract from a recent author will be thought interesting:—

"Girls are brought up by the mother. They learn to embroider, to make their own dresses, and that of their future husbands. The daughters of slaves receive the same education, and are sold, according to their beauty, from twenty to a hundred pounds, and sometimes much higher. These are principally Georgians. Soon after the birth 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 however which is little attended to. On the wedding-day, the belt is cut with a dagger by the husband, a custom sometimes productive of fatal accidents. The bridegroom pays for his bride a marriage-present, or kalym, 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 greatest 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 principal 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.

"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 they are now grown more tranquil under the loss of their wives and relations."

We shall subjoin some farther particulars of the Circassians from the splendid work of M. Pallas, who travelled amongst these people, at the request of the empress Catherine, part of them, on the southern line of the Caucasus, being subjects of Russia.

"The Circassians are a handsome race. The men are generally of a tall stature, and of a thin form; they are very slender about the loins, have a small foot, and great strength in the arms. They have mostly a martial appearance; yet there are some traces left, from which it may be inferred, that they are descended from parents belonging to the tribe of the Nagais. Although their females are not all Circassian beauties, yet they are generally well shaped, have a fair complexion, dark-brown or black hair, and are justly proportioned. I have, however, met with a greater number of beauties among the Circassian women, than in any other unpolished race.

"Over the shift, the girls wear a laced jacket, because the petticoat, which reaches to the ancles, is open along the front, and resembles part of the men's dress; but married women wear wide breeches. Besides the belt above mentioned, there is another point which contributes to preserve the elegant shape of the girls: they live abstemiously, their whole allowance consisting of milk and pastry. In compliance with the ideas which the Circassians, as well as the Turks, entertain of beauty, a woman must

have a very narrow waist. When females go abroad, they wear wooden clogs, to keep their feet clean, and at the same time make use of mittens on their delicate hands. Painting the face is considered here as a proof of the loss of virtue; but girls dye the nails of their fingers with the flowers of the balsamina, which in the Circassian language is called *kna*. Their head-dress consists of a cap resembling that worn by the other sex: under this the hair is turned up in a thick queue, which is covered with linen. The Circassians compress the waist of both sexes from early infancy, by means of straps, on which the sabre is suspended: hence they are, in general, uncommonly thin between the loins and the breast. Their feet are uniformly of an extraordinary small size, because they also compress them in the tightest manner within their morocco slippers, which gives them the appearance of dancers.

"The dress of the men is light and becoming. The upper garment is furnished with a small embroidered pocket, on each side of the breast, for holding cartridges. On the head, which is shorn, the more opulent wear a cap, quilted with cotton, in the form of a melon, and adorned with gold and silver laces: the whiskers are likewise suffered to grow. Over the lower dress, which is composed of light stuff, the higher orders generally wear a short rich waistcoat, to supply the place of armour, either with or without a surtout coat. The upper dress is made shorter than the under; the sleeves are sometimes open, and bordered with furs. The breeches have knee-straps, and the seams are bound with lace or embroidery of gold and silver threads, manufactured by the women. When a great man makes a visit in form, he puts on all his accoutrements, over which he sometimes wears a coat of mail. These coats of mail are fabricated of polished steel rings, and imported, some from Persia, and some from Kubesha, to the people about the Circassian mountains. The helmet and the arm-plates are made of polished steel. In the girdle they carry their dagger and pistols, and the bow and quiver are tied round their hips. In common visits, the coat of mail is worn below the upper dress, and they arm themselves only with a sabre, and cover their heads with an ordinary cap.

"It is common to see Circassians of the lower class walking in the fields, dressed in their shaggy felt cloaks; and this they do in the warm days of summer. When they go without a sabre and other arms, they provide themselves with a strong staff, on the top of which is fixed an iron head, and the lower end is furnished with a sharp iron pike, about eighteen inches long, which they throw expertly like a dart. Persons of rank and wealth never leave the house without a sabre; nor do they go beyond the limits of the village without being completely armed, and having their breast-pockets supplied with ball-cartridges. Their clergy, and the literati, let the beard grow; the clergy generally wear a deep red turban, and scarlet breeches, somewhat longer than those of the latter."

These people reside, from time to time, in villages which, from various causes, are frequently deserted. On migrating, they destroy their habitations, carry off the timber with their utensils, and burn what they cannot remove. If they afterwards happen to settle at some distance from water, they form a canal, which they conduct, by means of small banks, from the nearest rivulet. They sometimes erect, in the fields, round huts of wicker-work, in which is a pit, used as a place of retreat. In the vicinity of the village are placed stacks of hay and corn, secured by a fence; they sometimes manufacture large baskets, which are fixed on the ground, and secured with covers, to preserve their threshed corn.

Their habitations consist, in general, of a large room for the mistress of the house, and a small apartment for the female slaves and girls. The large room has a door on the right-hand corner, leading to the street, and another on the left, leading to the inner yard. In the interior, against the front wall, is a chimney, made of plastered wicker-work, with a commodious fire-place, and a short flue. "At that end of the room which leads to the yard, we remarked," says M. Pallas, speaking of the houses of the upper classes, "a broad couch, with carved balusters: in a collateral line was a window facing the street, which was sometimes used as an entrance to the room. Around the whole wall, and above the sofa, were hung, on pegs and poles, various articles of female dress, such as needle-work, apparel, and furs: below the roof, and in a transverse direction, was placed their store of Turkey wheat in ears, which they occasionally roast in hot ashes, and collect the grains, separated from them by heat, for immediate use, and likewise to preserve them for warlike expeditions; as these grains, together with a species of cheese made of millet, afford, on such occasions, their principal subsistence. The husband commonly resides in a separate apartment, and seldom makes his appearance when his wife receives company."

The principal pursuits of the higher orders are war, pillage, and the exercise of hunting: they live a wandering life, assemble in drinking parties, and undertake military excursions. The lower orders are kept in due subordination; and, though the prince exacts no imposts, they are compelled to serve in the field. Vassals, or boors, are considered as hereditary property; as they implicitly obey the will of their lords, and their lives and possessions are entirely at their disposal: yet there is not any instance of their having been sold to slavery. These vassals, and the slaves subjected during their wars, form the majority of the lower order: they till the land, attend the flocks, carry timber and fuel from the forest, get in the harvest, make hay, and are occupied in the several de-

partments of agriculture. Their wives and adult girls also assist at the harvest. When the Circassians remove to some distance from the villages, they raise temporary huts, by joining poles, which they cover with branches of trees and long grass, so that they appear in the form of hay-stacks. Their great men take up their abode in huts of the same construction, when, in their excursions, they are obliged to be stationary for a length of time.

Every male peasant is obliged to labour for a stated time, at hay-making, for his lord; also to cut wood in the forest, to carry both the hay and wood to his habitation, and to deliver for every bullock a cart-load, or seven sacks, of millet. When a peasant marries, he is obliged to present to the lord of the manor two cows and two oxen, for obtaining his consent: but the inhabitants of the mountains, tributary to the Circassian nobles, present, in general, for each family, only one sheep, or its value in felts, felt cloaks, cloth, copper vessels, and other articles. Every peasant, who possesses sheep, is obliged to contribute one to the prince's household, during the summer-encampment.

The laws of hospitality and revenge, though opposite in their nature, are strictly observed among the Circassians. The law of hospitality is founded on certain principles, and every person conforming to it is protected from all injuries. He who undertakes the cause of a stranger, defends him, if occasion require, not only at the hazard of his own life, but also that of his relatives; nor does he suffer him to depart without a proper guard, and consigns him over to the ruler of the next district, under condition that an injury offered to the guest shall be avenged with the same rigour as one offered to a relation. Revenge is taken with equal impartiality. The murder of a relative must be avenged by the next heir, though an infant at the time when the act was committed: and the vengeance is exercised, sooner or later, either publicly or privately, on the life of the murderer. This desire of revenge extends to the whole tribe, insomuch that the hostile chiefs of two different tribes, when they accidently meet each other, are under a necessity of fighting for their lives, unless they have mutually engaged to pursue a different route. Such is the spirit of resentment, that all the relatives of a murderer are implicated in the guilt; and this desire of revenge occasions much bloodshed among all the nations of the Caucasus; for, unless pardon be obtained, the principle operates during succeeding generations.

The youth of both sexes maintain a free intercourse with each other, as the Circassian women in general are not reserved. In their courtships, respect is paid to the rank of the parties. A married pair do not appear before their parents during the first twelve months, or till the birth of a child.

Polygamy is allowed among the Circassians, the first wife having many more privileges than the second or third; few, however, have more than one wife, and she regards her husband's intrigues with indifference, or perhaps with complacency.

The education of the children of the higher order tends to suppress every feeling of affection. They are, soon after birth, committed to the care of a man of rank, frequently not very opulent; and the parties have no desire to see a son till he is an adult, and capable of bearing arms, nor is any notice taken of the girls till after marriage. The tutor of a male takes upon him the whole care of his education: he instructs the youth in all the practices of robbery; he provides him with arms as soon as he is able to wield them; and, when fully accoutred, he presents him to his father; and the grateful pupil rewards his tutor with a considerable part of the spoil he is able to acquire, for instructing him in the predatory arts.

The female children of the great are trained to all kinds of ornamental work, such as embroidery, weaving of fringe, making of dresses, and platting of baskets and straw-mats. The person entrusted with their education must procure for his ward a husband of equal rank, on pain of losing his head.

The following singular customs, peculiar to the Circassians, are related by a Russian traveller of distinction:—

"Some of these people are so expert in stealing cattle, and carrying off women, that they make a trade of it. Their principal endeavours are directed towards carrying off beautiful virgins, or handsome women. Such as they take, they keep as concubines, or sell them to the Armenians, who supply the Turkish harems, making them pass for Christians, in order to enhance their value. They also carry their children to Kaffa market, with their cattle, where they obtain seven thousand Turkish piasters for a young and handsome girl." Kluman, of Vienna, one of the latest travellers of credit, in his voyage to the Crimea, asserts the same thing. "These female slaves," says he, "when brought to market, are locked up in a small private apartment. When there, I was desirous of seeing some, and spoke to the salesman for that purpose. One of them was, consequently, brought to me, into a room where I was waiting. She was well dressed, but her face was veiled; she kissed my hand, agreeably to the oriental custom, and her master ordered her to walk to and fro. She was elegant in the extreme; when she unveiled her face, she absolutely enchanted me, so inexpressible was her beauty. Her hair was light, her eyes full and blue, her nose a little long, her lips lovely, her features regular, her complexion white and soft, and her cheeks tinged with a fine carmine; she had a long neck, and a fine bosom completed the charms of her person. She was de-

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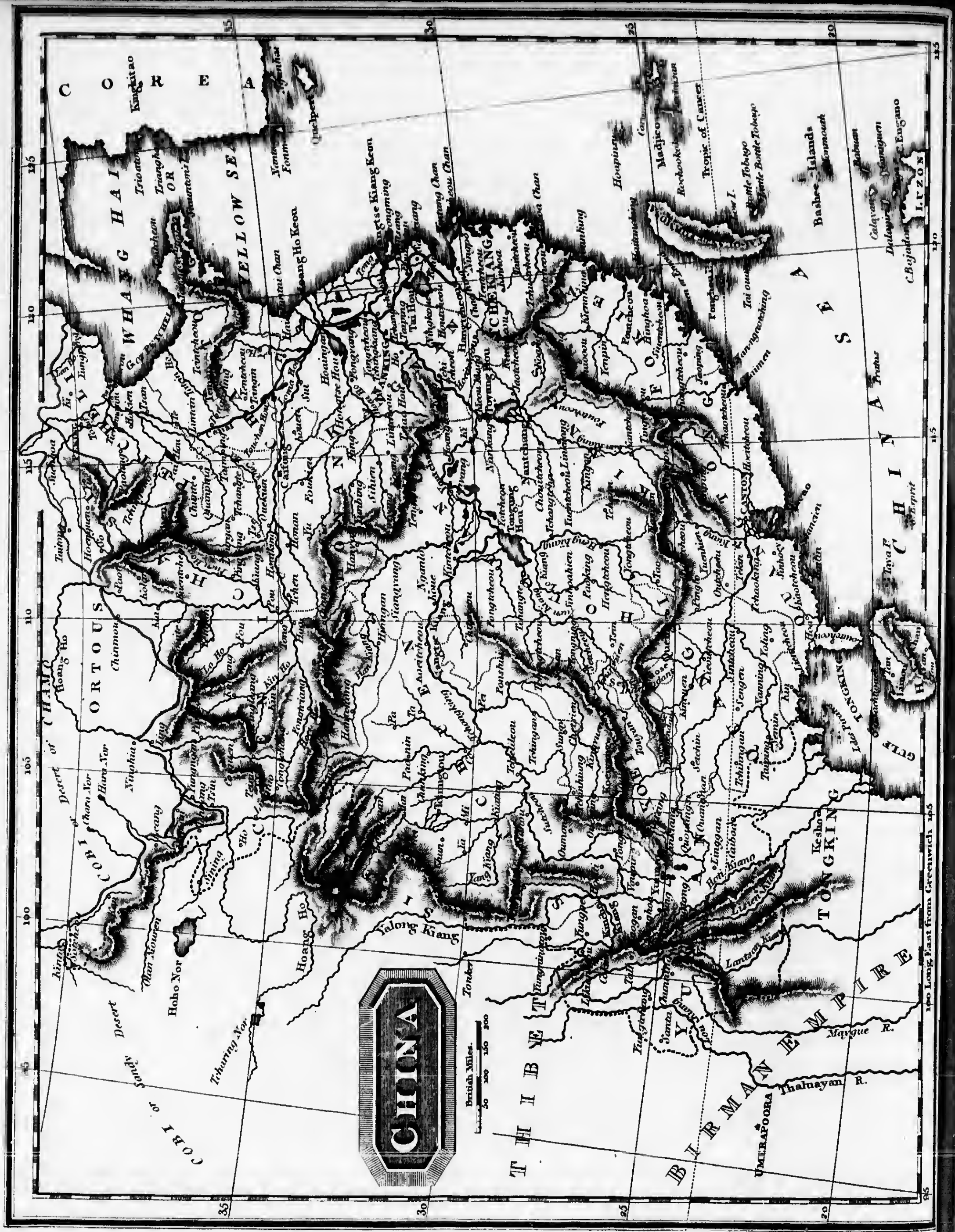

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sired to wipe her face with a white handkerchief, to shew me her beauty was not owing to paint. She then shewed her teeth, which were white and regular. I was allowed to feel her pulse, in order to be convinced of her health. After this she was ordered to withdraw. Her price was four thousand piasters, or about one hundred and twenty-five pounds English; which, he said, was the value of such a slave."

With respect to their funerals, they wrap up the dead in large winding-sheets, and bury them without a coffin. In different places, about Mount Caucasus, epitaphs, crosses, and inscriptions, are seen, which indicate them to have been made by Christians. Probably, these are the remains of the Greek empire, when the seat of it was at Byzantium; or else of the colony of Moravians, who quitted their country about the end of the fifteenth century, in which they were exposed, and sought an asylum here, though they are now entirely degenerated, and mixed with others, preserving only their name and language.

For the *history* of the Turks, we must refer the reader to the article of *Turkey in Europe*, to which it properly belongs.

CHAPTER II.

CHINA.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.

CHINA, properly so called, is situated between twenty and forty-two degrees of north latitude, and between ninety-eight and a hundred and twenty-three degrees of east longitude; extending thirteen hundred and fifty miles in length, and one thousand and sixty in breadth, and containing a surface of one million two hundred and ninety-eight thousand square miles. Its boundaries are, the celebrated wall of China on the north; the Pacific Ocean, which separates it from North America, on the east; the Chinese Sea on the south; and the mountains and rivers of Asiatic Russia and Tibet on the west.

Divisions and Population.] The following statement of the division, population, and extent of China, was delivered to Lord Macartney, at his request, by a Chinese mandarin, named Chow-ta-Zhin, and appears to have been founded on authentic documents, taken from one of the public offices in Pekin.

Provinces.	Population.	Square Miles.	Acres.
Pe-che-lee	38,000,000	58,949	37,727,360
Kiang-nan } 2 Provinces	32,000,000	92,961	59,495,040
Kiang-see	19,000,000	72,176	46,192,640
Tche-kiang	21,000,000	39,150	25,056,000
Eo-chen	15,000,000	53,480	34,227,200
Hou-pe } Hou-qung	14,000,000	144,770	92,652,800
Hou-nan } Hou-qung	13,000,000		
Ho-nan	25,000,000	65,104	41,666,500
Shang-tung	24,000,000	65,104	41,665,560
Shan-see	27,000,000	55,268	35,371,520
Shen-see	18,000,000	154,008	98,565,120
Kan-sore	12,000,000		
Se-chueen	27,000,000	166,800	106,752,000
Canton	21,000,000	79,456	50,851,840
Quan-see	10,000,000	78,250	50,080,000
Yu-nan	8,000,000	107,969	69,100,160
Koei-cheou	9,000,000	64,554	41,314,560
Total	333,000,000	1,297,999	830,719,360

With respect to this statement, it has been observed, that "the extent of the provinces is ascertained by astronomical observations, as well as by admeasurement. The number of individuals is regularly taken, in each division of a district, by a tything-man, or every tenth master of a family. These returns are collected by officers resident so near as to be capable of correcting any gross mistake; and all the returns are entered in the register at Pekin. Though the general statement is strictly the result of those returns added to each other, which seem little liable to error, yet the amount of the whole is so prodigious, as to appear incredible. It must, however, be recollected, that population in China is not subject to be materially diminished by war. Celibacy is rare, even in the military professions. The number of manufacturers, whose occupations are not always favourable to health, whose constant confinement to particular spots, and sometimes in a close or impure atmosphere, must be injurious, and whose residence in towns exposes them to irregularities, bears but a very small proportion to that of husbandmen in China. In general, there seem to be no other bounds to Chinese populousness than those which the necessity of subsistence may put to it. From a consideration of the influence of all these causes, therefore, the great population of China, asserted in this statement, will not, perhaps, seem surprising, though it appears from it, that every square mile in this vast empire contains, upon an average, about one-third more inhabitants, being upwards of three hundred, than are found upon an equal quantity of land, upon an average, in the most populous country in Europe."

Climate, Soil, &c.] The air of this country differs according to the situation of the respective parts. Towards the north it is sharp, in the middle temperate, and in the south hot. As the low lands are rendered fertile by innumerable canals, the higher grounds are cultivated by the labour of the people, who have levelled some of the hills, and increased the surface of others, by flattening them at the summit. They have also divided a great number into separate ridges, regularly secured with stone walls; and the surfaces of these terraces are sown with numerous kinds of grain, and watered by machines curiously adapted to the purpose.

Some of the hills are cut in the most fanciful shapes, so as to resemble, at a distance, a variety of animal figures, as elephants, camels, leopards, boars, tigers, &c. Those, which, by way of eminence, are called "The Hills of Five Horses' Heads," have a great affinity to their appellation, and may be deemed a stupendous production, both as to nature and art: nor are they only expert at levelling natural hills, but equally adroit in raising artificial mounts; so that every cultivated part is effectually secured from colds, heats, blasts, and droughts.

From this concise view of the natural fertility of the soil, and the ingenuity, as well as industry, of the inhabitants, the reader may infer the production of a superabundant supply, not only of the necessaries, but delicacies, of life; and also the opulence, populousness, and pleasantness, of a region thus situated and cultivated. And, with respect to the general aspect of the country, such is the variegated prospect of its verdant lawns, delightful groves, sequestered bowers, wonderful canals, winding streams, verdant trees, glittering cascades, and lofty turrets, that the eye cannot behold it without entertaining the idea of a perfect elysium.

Agriculture.] It is remarked by the Abbe Raynal, in his Philosophical and Political History, that, to do honour to the profession of agriculture, the emperors of China become husbandmen officially. It is one of their public functions to break up the ground in the spring; and the parade of magnificence that accompanies this ceremony draws together all the farmers in the vicinity of the capital. The example of the prince is followed in all the provinces, and, at the same season, the viceroy repeats the same ceremonies, in the presence of a numerous concourse of husbandmen.

Where the face of a 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; and the rain-water collected in it is conveyed, by canals, to the different terraces.

The collection of manure is an object of so much attention with the Chinese, that a prodigious number of old men, women, and children, are constantly employed about the streets, and public roads, with baskets tied before them, and holding in their hands small wooden rakes, to pick up the dung of animals, and any thing that may answer the purpose of manure; but, above all others, except the dung of fowls, the Chinese farmers prefer the soil collected by nightmen. This manure is mixed sparingly with a portion of stiff loamy earth, and formed into cakes, which are afterwards dried in the sun. They are then thrown into a large cistern, containing all other sorts of dung, together with the leaves, roots, and stems, of plants, mud from the canals, offals of animals, and even the shavings collected by the barbers. With all these as much water is mixed as will dilute the whole; and in this state, generally in the act of putrid fermentation, it is applied to the ploughed earth.

The Chinese husbandmen always steep the seeds they

intend to sow in liquid manure, until they swell, and germination begins to appear, which, they say, has 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 are sown. Perhaps this method has preserved the Chinese turnips from the fly, that is often fatal to their growth elsewhere. They also apply liquid manure to the roots of plants and fruit-trees, as contributing much towards forwarding their growth and vigour.

The following method is adopted for watering the fields in seasons of drought. Two men stand upon projecting banks, opposite to each other, each holding in his hand a rope, fastened to a bucket, which, when filled with water from the river, after swinging it to and fro several times, is thrown with rapidity into a reservoir, made near the river's bank; and from this, by means of small channels, the water is conveyed over the adjoining fields. At other times, a long pole, the length of which is unequally divided, is made to turn upon a pivot across an upright post; a bucket, fixed at the shortest end, is lowered into the river, which, when filled, is hoisted by the longest lever, and its contents poured into the reservoir.

The construction of the Chinese plough is very simple; and, in places where the soil is light, it is drawn by men and women. There is no coulter to the plough; the share, which penetrates, being made to terminate in a curve, performs the office of a mould-board for turning back the earth. It is sometimes made of iron, but more frequently of a timber called iron-wood.

The process of shelling or husking rice is performed by putting the grain into a strong earthen vessel, or large stone mortar, fixed in the ground, and striking it with a conical pestle, adapted to the end of a lever. This pestle is often wrought by a person treading upon the end of the lever. Another mode of effecting this is, by placing the grain between two flat circular stones, the uppermost of which is made to turn round, but at such a distance from the undermost, as not to crush the rice placed between them.

Amongst the modes for raising water from rivers, for irrigating their lands, the Chinese make use of a chain-pump, the chambers of which, instead of being cylindrical, are always square. The inside of a hollow wooden trunk is divided in the middle, by a board, into two compartments; a chain, made to turn over a small wheel or roller, at each extremity of the trunk, is fastened to flat and square pieces of wood, exactly fitted to the capacity of the cavity; these move with the chain round the rollers, and raise a volume of water proportionate to the dimensions of the hollow trunk. The power to work this machine may be applied different ways: when it is intended to raise a great quantity of water, sets of wooden arms, in the form of the letter T, are fixed to the lengthened axis of the rollers, and smoothed, for the foot to rest upon. The axis is made to turn upon two uprights, rendered steadi by a piece of timber stretched across them. Two or three men, by treading upon the projecting part of the wooden arms, supporting themselves, at the same time, by a cross-beam, give a rotatory motion to the chain; and the parts called lifters, being attached to it, raise up a constant and abundant stream of water.

The Chinese have no meadow-land, and but little pasturage; nor are oats, beans, or turnips, sown in the fields for the use of cattle. There are scarcely any parks or pleasure-grounds, but those appertaining to the emperor. The roads, being narrow, occupy but little land, as the chief intercourse is by canals. Commons, or waste grounds, are unknown in China; nor do they suffer their arable lands to lie fallow. The labour of the inhabitants is principally applied to the raising of articles which administer to the comforts, but not to the luxuries, of life. Even soldiers, when not on duty, are busied in husbandry.

Mountains.] The Chinese chains of mountains, some of which are supposed to rival the Apennines and Pyrenees, may be seven or eight in number; but so imperfect is 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 information from the French Jesuits, who had long resided in China, lays down the mountains, in all his maps, as confused spots, scattered over the whole country; and Du Halde merely informs us, that some of them contain mines of silver, and some produce marble and crystal, whilst others yield a variety of medicinal herbs.

Rivers, Lakes, Canals, &c.] The Hoambo, or Yellow River, so called from the yellow tinge of its waters after heavy rains, rises towards the frontiers of Hindoostan, in the intermediate mountains between Tartary and the province of Suchan, and, after maintaining a serpentine course of near 1900 miles, discharges itself into the Eastern Ocean.

The Ky-am, or Blue River, has its source in Tibet, whence it flows from east to west, and empties itself into the Eastern Ocean. It is chiefly remarkable for its breadth and depth. The Pearl River is so named from the number of precious stones found among its gravel, which, by moonshine, overspreads its waters with so uncommon a lustre, as gives their surface the transparent gloss of waving pearl.

The River Tomin, in harvest-time, turns blue; of which the adjacent inhabitants avail themselves, by using its waters for the purpose of dying. The waters of a river near Pomgaw are so thin, that timber will not float on them; and those of another, in the neighbourhood of Ching-tien, are odoriferous. The waters of the Xo are medicinal, and much resorted to by the diseased for the cure of various disorders.

But the most remarkable river in China is one near the city of Hang-cheu, which rises annually, upon a certain day, to a stupendous height. Multitudes repair to behold this phenomenon; though neither Asiatic nor European philosophers have yet defined the cause of it. When the surges subside, the surface of the shores, which they covered, is pared off, and becomes excellent salt; a commodity equally useful and salutary to the inhabitants of an inland district, who would be greatly distressed, were they not supplied by means of this inundation.

Du Halde informs us, that the lake of Tong-tint-hou, in the province of Hou-quang, is more than eighty 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: the navigation of this last is dangerous. 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.

The Chinese *canals* are equally admirable in design and execution, and exhibit the most striking proofs of human invention, diligence, and assiduity. Some of these extend several hundred miles, and are deep enough to contain vessels of considerable burden. They are admirably disposed, and the banks on each side are lined with hewn stone. When the wind permits, vessels are navigated in them by the usual means of sails; and, in calms, they are towed by men. These vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought, by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. The whole country is chequered, as it were, and watered by sluices from the large canals, over which are erected a great number of bridges, with the centre arches so constructed as to admit of the passage of vessels without the least obstruction. The most superb of these canals is that called Yun-lean, or the Royal Canal; a most stupendous work, that divides China into two parts, north and south, and opens an uninterrupted communication between the two extremities of the empire.

Animals.] China produces horses, oxen, swine, buffaloes, and deer of various kinds. Tigers, leopards, and other wild animals, are also very numerous. The mang-tchang-tse, or musk roe-buck, is a species of deer, without horns. The bladder, or bag, that grows beneath its belly, exhibits, when opened, grains of musk adhering to the inner coats of the bag: the valuable perfume extracted from this animal is of great importance to the commerce of the country. The Chinese camel is about the size of a middle-sized horse, of a dun or ash colour, well-made, and has two bunches upon its back. The sheep have short fleshy tails, weighing several pounds, in high estimation among Chinese epicures. There are abundance of mules here; some are killed and eaten, their flesh being much admired. They resemble those of Europe in point of shape and size, but are of a lighter colour, and very fleet.

With respect to birds, eagles, cranes, storks, birds of paradise, pelicans, peacocks, pheasants, geese, swans, ducks, and a great variety of others, are found here in abundance.

Wild-duck hunting is a very common practice amongst the Chinese. They scoop out a large gourd, and fit it to their heads, leaving proper apertures for sight and respiration; they then go naked into the water up to their chins, that nothing may appear above water but the gourd, which the duck, being accustomed to see floating, soon approaches, and, pecking at it, the duck-hunter seizes him by the feet, and secures him.

Some of the rivers of China produce a yellow fish, which is delicious food. They are very large, and only to be caught at stated seasons. The meal-fish is much esteemed, and the eyes are remarkable, being surrounded by a black ring, which is again enclosed by two white circles of an admirable brightness. The armour-fish, so termed from the vast number of scales with which it is covered, is deemed excellent food; and there is a saying concerning it among the Chinese, which is, "that the armour is fit for a soldier, and the flesh food for an emperor."

Gold and silver fish are generally kept by the opulent, in the ponds which embellish their gardens; and many varieties are found in the rivers, canals, and lakes, with which the country is intersected.

Among the insects the most remarkable are, a species of moth, as large as a humming-bird; a butterfly of amazing size and beauty; and a species of lizard, called the wall-dragon. But the most *useful* insect of this country is the silk-worm.

Vegetable Productions.] China abounds with vegetable productions; among which may be noticed, orange, lime, and citron trees; a kind of date-tree; the pea-tree, which produces a fruit resembling the pea of Europe; the meal-tree, the pulp of which yields excellent flour; and the varnish-tree, which produces an excellent varnish. In the vicinity of Nankin is found the tallow-tree, which grows to the height of a common cherry-tree; its beautiful white blossom is followed by its fruit, growing in bunches, which is contained in a hard brownish husk, which, when ripe, separates in the middle like a chesnut. Each husk contains three small kernels, about the size of a hazel-nut; and every kernel is covered with a hard, white, oily substance, which has the properties of tallow; but, in stripping it off, it does not soil the hands. With this the Chinese make candles; though, to harden them, they are generally dipped in the wax produced by an insect found in Cochin-China From the shell and kernel is extracted a good deal of oil:

so that this tree produces tallow for candles, and oil for lamps.

The tea-tree commonly bears leaves from top to bottom, which are indented like our sweet-brier; and the flower is very much like that, with six upper and six under leaves. The fruit is of the size of a small pippin, finely flavoured, and tastes somewhat like a clove. The seed is round, blackish, and about the size of a large pea, when dry and shrunk. Being put into the mouth, it yields at first a sweet, but, being kept longer in it, a bitterish, taste; and yields likewise a quantity of oil, which, in some parts, they use as sauce to food. It seldom, if ever, grows to above the size of a rose-bush, or, at most, a filbert-tree.

There are several kinds of tea, some finer, smoother, and more fragrant than others, according to the soil they grow in. That called Singlo is deemed the most elegant, and used by the more opulent. Some are denominated from their particular colours or qualities; as the Vowi, or Bohea, is so called from its dark or brown colour. This sort is much esteemed in China for its flavour and medicinal qualities.

The tea-tree often grows upon the sides of mountains, and among rocky cliffs, which are inaccessible to man. But the Chinese obtain the leaves by the following singular stratagem. Those declivities are often the habitations of monkeys, whom they mock and imitate, till the animals, to revenge themselves, break off the branches, and shower them down upon the insulters; from which branches the Chinese afterwards strip off the leaves.

When Doctor Lettsom had read the above passage, taken from Grosier's Description of China, he wrote to the author, to thank him for having given an account of the tea-tree, which coincided so exactly with his own, and which had been treated with unmerited ridicule. The doctor likewise mentions drawings, in which monkeys are represented gathering the branches or leaves of the tea-tree, without exhibiting any menacing attitude. They appeared to be rather fulfilling an office to which they had been regularly trained; and the more so, because others were walking, or sitting by the people, as if tamed and domesticated, whilst they were quietly gathering the leaves from the trees.

The largest and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest classes, are often exposed to sale, with little preparation, and still retaining that kind of vegetable taste, which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, while the more essential flavour remains without diminution. The young leaves undergo a considerable preparation, before they are delivered to the purchaser. Each leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up, almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded, in the progress of its growth

In the most recent accounts of the preparation of the tea-plant, the idea of strewing the leaves upon sheets of copper is exploded; and it is affirmed, that they are placed upon earthen or iron plates, made much thinner than can be executed by any European artist. The plates are placed over a charcoal-fire, which renders the leaves dry and crisp. The colour and astringency of the green tea is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves are plucked.

The Chinese neither drink their tea in the manner we do, nor so strong, but use it only as their common beverage. They were first obliged to have recourse to it, to correct the unwholesome brackishness of their waters, which, in some places, were not only distasteful, but productive of diseases; so that, when its virtues became known, it grew into universal use. It is considered, by them, as a great diluter and purifier of the blood; a strengthener of the brain and stomach; a promoter of digestion, perspiration, and other secretions; and, particularly, an excellent diuretic.

The use of tea was introduced into England before the Restoration, as mention is made of it in the first act of parliament, that settled the excise on the king for life, in 1660. Catherine of Lisbon, wife of Charles II. rendered the use of it common at his court.

The plant called *camellia sesanqua* is similar to, and often substituted for, the tea-tree. The petals of this plant, called, by the Chinese, chawhaw, or flower of tea, from their resemblance to each other, and likewise the flowers of the Arabian jessamine, are sometimes mixed among the teas, in order to increase their flavour. The camellia sesanqua bears a nut, from which is extracted an edible oil, equal to the best kinds imported from Florence.

But, of all the shrubs growing in this country, the cotton-shrub is looked upon as the most useful. As soon as the harvest is got in, the peasants sow cotton in the fields; and, raking the earth over the seeds, there soon springs up a shrub, about two feet high, the flowers of which are in general yellow, but sometimes red. A small button, about the size of a nut, and opening in three places, succeeds the flower, and, on the fortieth day after the flower's appearance, discovers three or four wrappings of white cotton; this, which is fastened to the bottom pod, contains seed for the ensuing year. As all the fibres of the cotton are fastened strongly to the seeds they inclose, the people separate them with an engine. The cotton is afterwards carded, spun, woven, and converted into calico.

Minerals.] Iron, copper, quicksilver, lead, white copper, load-stones, pit-coal, salts of various kinds, and quarries of marble, are contained in the mountains of China. Here are also mines of gold: but, as one of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of the precious metals, for

fear of hurting industry, these are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] Some volcanoes, and lakes of particular qualities, are found in different parts of the Chinese empire. The volcano of Linesung sometimes makes so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of the lakes are said to petrify fishes, when put into them.

The Chinese bridges, from their construction and extent, cannot be sufficiently admired. They are sometimes built upon barges, strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch. That over the river Saffrany, though only consisting of a single arch, is four hundred cubits in breadth, and five hundred in length, and connects two mountains; and some, in the interior of the empire, are still more stupendous.

The bridge of Suen-tcheou, in the province of Fo-Kien, is built over an arm of the sea, and supported by above three hundred pillars: its length is about two thousand five hundred feet, its breadth twenty; and the stone work, from pier to pier, at the top, consists of large single massy stones. The iron bridge in the province of Koei-cheou consists of chains of iron, reaching over a river extremely deep and rapid, though not broad. On each bank are raised two massy piles of masonry, to which are fastened chains that cross to the opposite side, and on these are laid broad planks.

The triumphal arches of this country, though not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet demand attention. They are mostly erected to the memory of great men, with vast labour and expence; and are said, in the whole, to be eleven hundred; many of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments are also very conspicuous.

The pagodas, or temples, erected to their fabulous deities, are very numerous: they consist, in general, of one tower, terminating in a dome. Some are built of brick, and others of hard-tempered earth.

The celebrated Porcelain Tower, in the vicinity of Nankin, consists of a prodigious number of pieces of timber, differently boxed, and let one into another, which is considered a great embellishment in Chinese architecture. It must be acknowledged, that this labyrinth of beams, girders, &c. has something in it striking; though, in fact, it is no better than a regular kind of embarrassment and confusion, proceeding from the ill taste of this people for architecture, who are entire strangers to that noble simplicity so justly admired in the best European buildings.

The great wall of China, which is a master-piece of industry, genius, and perseverance, excelling every fortification attempted by the ancients, was built, some centuries before Christ, by the Chinese Emperor Chinchu Voang, to prevent the incursions of the western Tartars. This wall, which begins in the province of Shen-si, on the side of Tartary, is continued over mountains and valleys to the forty-second degree of north latitude, and then reaches southward as far back as to the thirty-ninth. It is principally built of brick, and cemented with the strongest mortar, insomuch that, though it has stood upwards of two thousand years, it still continues firm. It is about fifteen hundred miles in length, including its numerous turnings and windings, and the intermediate spaces supplied by the mountains, which, in several places, form a natural fortification; and in many others there is a wide ditch only; so that of the real wall there is no more than four hundred miles. Its height does not exceed thirty feet. During the reign of the Chinese emperors, it was continually guarded by a million soldiers; but, since the conquest of China by the Tartars, they are satisfied with guarding only particular parts of it. It has three or four lofty towers, or forts, within the compass of every mile, many of which are situated upon the highest mountains; and the wall is broad enough upon the top for six horses to gallop abreast.

To raise men for building this wall, which is stated to have been completed in five years, the emperor commanded, that three out of every ten men throughout his dominions should work at it; and afterwards two out of every five were compelled to labour at this vast undertaking. It is also said, that though the inhabitants of each province worked as near their own abode as they could, yet, either by the length of their journey, or the difference of climate, almost all those employed in its construction died unexpectedly. This raised a tumult in the empire, which caused the murder of the emperor, and his son Agutzi, in the fortieth year of his reign. When it is considered that this structure, besides being extended along dreary wastes, and even surfaces, is carried over expansive rivers, in the form of bridges, some having two tiers of arches, and also, in the same shape, across deep and wide extended valleys, uniting, as it were, the mountains which form them; that it ascends the highest, and descends the steepest, precipices: and with all this, considering the immensity of labour, the ingenuity of the artists, the difficulty of transporting materials, and the short time of its completion, the imagination is lost in the contemplation of an object, whose grandeur is not surpassed by any work of art in the universe.

Public Roads.] The most striking proofs of the art and industry of the Chinese are exhibited in the projection and execution of their high roads, which are broad, well paved, and secure. They are generally bordered with

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lofty trees, and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet high, which prevent travellers from entering the fields. Openings are left, however, at certain intervals, which give a passage into the cross-roads that lead to different villages. On all the great roads, covered seats are erected at proper distances, where travellers may shelter themselves from the inclemency of the weather.

The inns are spacious, but, in general, badly supplied with provisions; so that travellers are obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a plain mat. Government requires of those who keep inns, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it. "We met with many turrets," says Mr. Bell, to attend the embassy, "called post-houses, erected at a certain distance from each other, with a flag-staff, on which was hoisted the imperial pendant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run from one part to another with great speed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in sight of each other; and, by signals, they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By these means, the court is informed, in the speediest manner, of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote parts of the empire." Coaches are not used in this country: but gentlemen commonly travel in sedan-chairs, palanquins, or on horseback; and ladies, in close litters, suspended between two mules.

Cities, &c.] PEKIN, the metropolis of China, is pleasantly situated in a fine fertile plain, in the most salubrious part of the empire, abounding with all the necessaries and comforts of life, except tea, none of which grows in that province. The frost is rather severe in winter; but the heat in summer is moderate.

Pekin is built in the form of an oblong square, and is divided into two cities. That which contains the imperial palace is called the Tartar city, because, when the present family came to the throne, the Chinese were driven without the walls, where they erected a new city, which, being joined to the other, renders the whole an irregular form, of about eighteen miles in circumference. The walls and gates of Pekin are of the height of fifty cubits, so that they completely hide the city; and slopes are constructed within the town, by which horsemen may ascend the walls.

The gates are not embellished with statues, nor other carving; all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which, at a distance, gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built with mortar, and the rest with large bricks, excellently cemented.

The principal streets are spacious, and three or four miles long. The shops of the merchants, for neatness and riches, excel most in Europe. The name of the tradesman, and the articles he deals in, are placed over the shop-door; the entrance to which, besides being decorated with streamers, is embellished with gildings, sculptures, paintings, &c. in a manner which attracts and charms the eye: but the principal Chinese shops and markets are kept in the suburbs.

As all provisions are brought to this city by land-carriage, the streets are filled with carts, camels, horses, and other beasts of burden, with their drivers; so that it is difficult to pass through the gates in a morning or evening: the artificers also contribute to increase the crowd, as they work in the houses of those who employ them, and are perpetually looking out for business. Barbers go about ringing bells, to get customers: they carry with them a stool, basin, towel, pot, and fire; and, when any person calls to them, they run up to him, and, placing their stool in a convenient place in the street, shave the head, clean the ears, put the eye-brows in order, and brush the shoulders, all for the value of little more than a halfpenny. They then ring their bell again, and are ready for another customer. The taylors, who ply in the streets, go home to the houses of their customers, and do their work there. They do not use thimbles, but tie a rag upon their thumbs; nor do they sit down to their work, but sew standing.

Prostitutes are not suffered to live within the walls: their houses are of a particular kind, and many of them lodge together, generally under the inspection of a man, who is responsible for any disturbance they occasion.

The principal streets are guarded by soldiers, who patrole night and day, not only with their swords, but with whips in their hands, with which they lash indifferently all persons concerned in any breach of the public peace. Indeed, there is always in this city a garrison of forty thousand men, to preserve good order. Here are no clubs, balls, or other nocturnal meetings; and the soldiers take into custody all persons whom they see in the streets in the night-time, if they do not give a good account of themselves.

It has been remarked of the palace, that "its grandeur does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers." F. Artier, a French jesuit, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference; and that the front of the building shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the interior is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from twenty to sixty feet high, which form a number of small valleys, plentifully watered by canals, which, uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful barks sail on these pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which have the least resemblance to each other. Every valley has its house of

pleasure, large enough to lodge a European nobleman, with all his retinue. In the middle of a lake, which is nearly half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a magnificent palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The palaces of the chief mandarins occupy a considerable extent of ground, as they have only one floor: they consist of several open courts, in which the buildings are not contiguous; and they are so fond of privacy, that they have no windows towards the street; neither will they suffer their neighbours to have any which can overlook them.

According to the best information given to the late English embassy, the whole population of this city was about three millions. The low houses of Pekin seem scarcely sufficient for so vast a population; but very little room is occupied by one family, at least in the middle and lower classes of life. A Chinese dwelling is generally surrounded by a wall six or seven feet high. Within this inclosure, a whole family of three generations, with all their respective wives and children, will frequently be found. One small room is made to serve for the individuals of each branch of the family, sleeping in different beds, divided only by mats suspended from the ceiling.

NANKIN is the capital of the province of Kiang-nan, and was for many ages the metropolis of the empire. It was originally surrounded with a triple wall, measuring about sixteen leagues in circumference; but the palace, once famous for its splendor and magnificence, has been destroyed. The streets of this city are narrow, but well paved; the houses are low, but handsome; the shops spacious, and well furnished with goods. Nankin is celebrated for its great number of libraries: it excels likewise in printing, and in artificers of most kinds.

The public buildings are rather mean, except a few temples, the city-gates, and a tower of porcelain, about two hundred feet in height. The population is estimated at about four millions, including those who live in barks upon the water; and, indeed, wherever a city is situated on the banks of a canal or river, there is seen another large floating city of barks; so that the rivers and canals in China are, in proportion, as populous as the land.

CANTON is the capital city and sea-port of the province of Quang-tong. There can hardly be a more charming landscape, than that which presents itself on entering the river that leads to the town. It is various, gay, and animated. On one side, meadows, of a most lovely green, extend out of sight; on the other, groves, or little hills, appear, which rise in the form of amphitheatres, ascended by steps made of green sods. Here rocks are seen covered with moss; there villages rising among the copses. Sometimes canals present themselves, which form islands, or, losing themselves in the earth, expose to view their beautiful banks, the whole forming a most delightful prospect.

Canton unites, as it were, three cities in one: they are separated by high walls, but so contiguous, that the same gate serves to pass from one to the other. The whole forms a figure almost square, and is not much less in compass than Paris. The streets are long and straight, and paved with hewn stone; but mostly narrow, except a few which are adorned with triumphal arches. They are wholly taken up with shops, which make a fine show; and tradesmen, who deal in the same articles, reside in the same quarter of the town.

Many of the public edifices are very handsome. Besides thirteen triumphal arches, there are a great number of idol-temples, surrounded with cells of the Bonzes. The hall of Confucius and the academy of the literati are curious structures; and the palaces of the mandarins are built in a peculiar style of Chinese grandeur. Here are market-places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap.

The houses, though very neat, are far from being stately; almost all of them consist of a ground-floor, and are built of earth, ornamented with bricks, and covered with tiles. The windows, in summer, are of cane, to let the air through; in winter, of oyster-shells, scraped till they are semi-transparent. The walls are covered with thin white paper; and, in winter, charcoal is burnt in the middle of the rooms. Some of the meaner sort of people have their habitations composed of wood. The houses of the European factors are built on a fine quay, having a regular facade of two stories towards the river. They are constructed, with respect to the interior, partly after the Chinese, and partly after the European, mode. Adjoining to these are a considerable number of houses, which belong to the Chinese, and are let out by them to the commanders of vessels, and to merchants, who make only a temporary stay.

The river is crowded on both sides with junks, arranged in rows, containing a prodigious number of people. These junks, lying close together, form streets; and each junk, containing a whole family, is divided into various apartments. The common people, who inhabit them, rise betimes in the morning, either to fish, or work in the rice-grounds, which yield two crops annually.

The great quantity of money, brought hither from the most distant countries, draws the merchants of the several provinces to this port, where may be found almost every thing that is rare or curious in the empire. The inhabitants are industrious, ingenious, and expert in the imitative art, and in the embellishment of their manufactures

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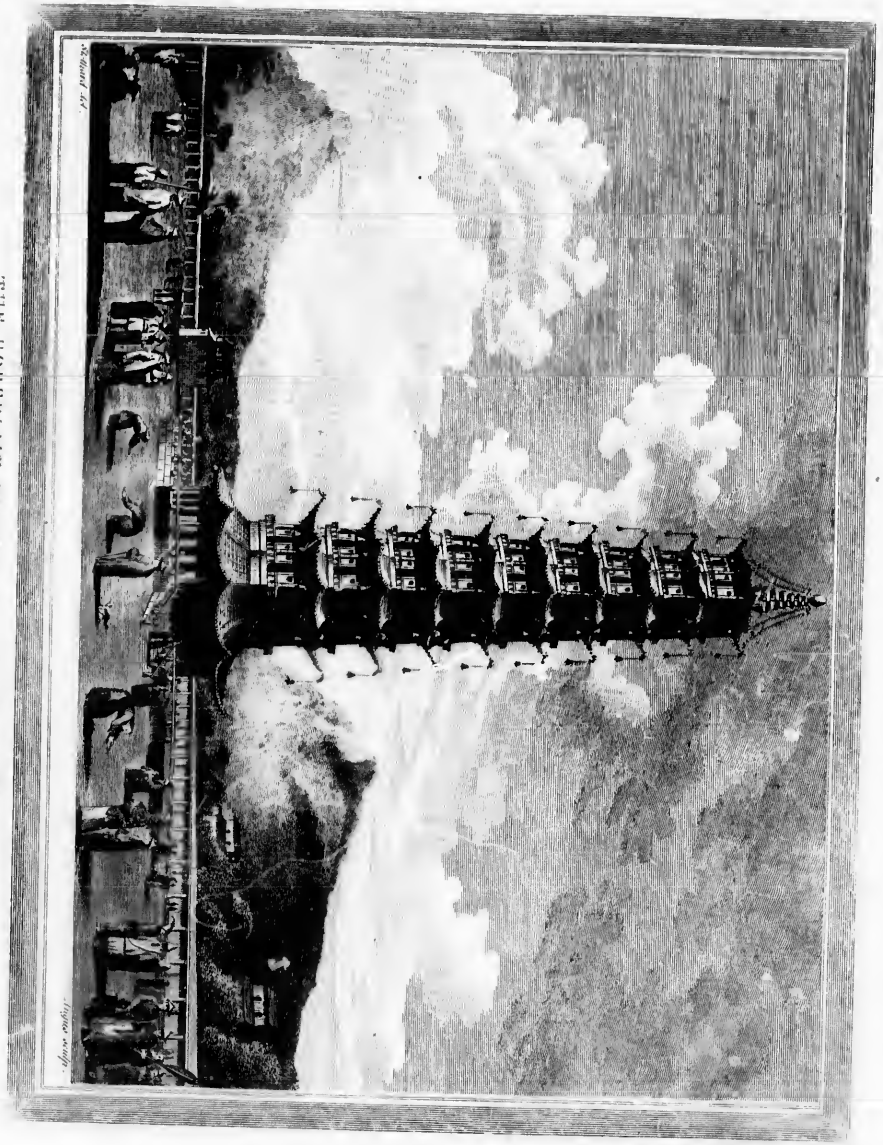

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though these are not in estimation with the people at Pekin, being undervalued by them, and, as they say, neither substantial nor well-wrought. They also complain, that the materials are either scanty or ill-chosen, and the internal workmanship too slight. Notwithstanding, the silks at Canton, called *sha*, are there accounted the best of that kind, especially the flowered sorts, which are wrought open like lace, and much worn in summer.

Though the number of artificers in this city is almost incredible, yet, not being sufficient for its trade, they have established a great many manufactories at Fo-shen, which have rendered it famous throughout the whole province. During the troubles in which Canton was involved, the trade was carried to this borough, distant four leagues. It is at least three leagues in circumference, is a place of great resort, and not inferior even to Canton, either for its wealth or the number of its inhabitants. The viceroy resides at Canton, which has under its jurisdiction seventeen cities, one of the second, and sixteen of the third rank.

The population of Canton has been variously estimated. At the time of Lord Macartney's embassy, it was computed, that there were in this city, and its suburbs, one million two hundred thousand inhabitants, and there were five thousand trading vessels lying before the city.

The factories belonging to different European nations, each of which has its peculiar flag flying, are handsome buildings, arranged in a line along the river, without the city-walls; and in the vicinity are warehouses also for the reception of articles for sale, as well as for Chinese merchandise for exportation. Whatever purchases are made for the English East-India Company, are done by agents, whose liberal emoluments place them above the temptation of fraudulent or dishonourable practices; and who are bred in the habits of method, punctuality, and probity.

As no European is permitted to take his wife with him to Canton, the English supercargoes live together at a common table, which is maintained by the company; and each of them has apartments appropriated to himself, consisting of three or four rooms. The period of their residence rarely exceeds eight months in a year; and as, during that time, they are almost constantly occupied in the service of the company, they may submit with the less uneasiness to the restrictions under which they live.

Macao, situate at the mouth of the Tigris, is capable of receiving sixty-four gun ships into its road at the entrance of Typa; and in its port, which is below the city, and communicates with the river to the eastward, ships of seven or eight hundred tons half laden.

The entrance of the port is defended by a fortress, consisting of two batteries, which, on entering, it is necessary to pass within pistol-shot. Three small forts, two of which are mounted with a dozen guns, and one with six, guard the southern part of the city from all Chinese enterprizes; these fortifications, which are in the very worst state, would by no means be formidable to Europeans, but are fully adequate to keep in awe the whole maritime force of the Chinese. There is, besides, a mountain, which commands the country, and on which a detachment might hold out a very long siege.

The land-side is defended by two fortresses, one of which mounts forty guns, and can contain a garrison of a thousand men. It has a cistern, two springs of running water, and casemates to enclose warlike ammunition and provisions; another, upon which are mounted thirty guns, cannot allow of more than three hundred men. Here is a spring, which is very abundant, and never dry.

The city of Macao has a very pleasant appearance. The remains of its ancient opulence are several fine houses, let out to the supercargoes of the different companies, who are obliged to pass the winter here; the Chinese compelling them to quit Canton on the departure of the last vessel belonging to their nation, and not suffering them to return till the arrival of the ships from Europe in the following monsoon.

The whole population of Macao may be estimated at twenty thousand persons, of whom one hundred are Portuguese by birth; about two thousand of half-blood, or Portuguese Indians; and as many Caffre slaves, who serve as domestics: the rest are Chinese, and employed in commerce, or the different trades which render the Portuguese themselves tributary to their industry.

Government.] The original plan of the Chinese government was almost completely patriarchal. Duty and obedience to the father of each family were strongly recommended and enforced; but, at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were considered as his substitutes; and the degrees of submission, which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature, to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had peculiar modes of speaking and writing; and the people were taught to believe, that the princes partook of divinity; so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached. "In the great palace of Pekin," says Sir George Staunton, "all the mandarins resident in the capital assembled, about noon, on his imperial majesty's birth-day, and, dressed in their robes of ceremony, made the usual prostrations before the throne; incense of sandal and rose-woods burning upon it at the same time, and offerings being made of viands and liquors, as if, though absent, he were capable of enjoying them. Mr. Barrow, a gentleman of the embassy, was present,

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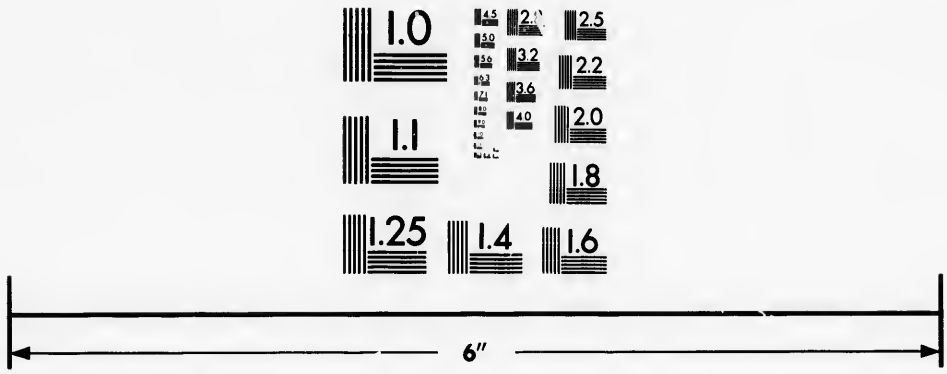

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while the same ceremonies were observed at Yuen-min-yuen; and he was informed, that they likewise took place on that day in every part of the empire, the prostrators being every where attentive to turn their faces towards the capital. On the days of the new and full moon, similar incense is burnt, and offerings are made before the throne by the officers of the household in the several palaces of the emperor."

Self-interest is no small occasion of the great respect, which is shown to the emperor by his subjects; for, as soon as he ascends the throne, the whole authority of the empire is in his hands, and the fortunes of his subjects are entirely at his disposal. All places of honour and profit are in his gift. Honesty, learning, experience, and gravity of behaviour, are said to be the only qualifications to ensure success to the candidate for any post of trust or dignity. He has absolute power over the lives and properties of all his subjects. Offenders are arraigned and tried in the different provinces; but the sentence is always presented to the emperor, who either confirms or rejects it, as he pleases. He can impose what taxes he thinks fit upon his subjects, to supply the necessities of the state. This power, however, is seldom made use of; and there is a custom every year of exempting a province, sometimes two or three, from their usual taxes, if they have suffered through sickness or dearth. The right of making peace or war belongs to the emperor: he may make what treaties, and upon what terms, he pleases, provided they are not dishonourable to the empire. The judgments passed by him are irrevocable; and his sovereign courts and viceroys dare not use the least delay in registering them; while, on the other hand, the sentences pronounced by other magistrates are not obligatory, till they are confirmed by the emperor. Another singular circumstance belonging to the Chinese government is, the right that the emperor has of choosing his successor, whom he may elect not only from the royal family, but from among his other subjects. And there have been emperors, who, finding none of their family able to support the dignity of a crown, have chosen for their successors persons of obscure birth and fortune, but eminent for virtue and understanding. The grave itself does not put an end to the monarch's power over his subjects, which is exercised even upon the dead, whom he disgraces or honours, when he is inclined either to reward or punish themselves or their families. He confers upon them, after their decease, titles of honour; canonizes them as saints; or, according to their language, "makes them naked spirits." Sometimes he builds them temples; and, if their administration of public affairs has been very beneficial, or their virtues remarkably eminent, he commands the people to honour them as gods.

Notwithstanding these powers, there are three circumstances, which, if an emperor have any regard to his reputation, will induce him to govern by the rules of strict justice. The first is, that the old legislators have always made it a standing maxim, that kings are properly the fathers of their people; and hence the title most honourable and esteemed among them is that of ta-fou, or grandfather. Their philosophers constantly maintain, that the state is but a large family; and that he, who knows how to govern the one, is the best capable of ruling the other. And no virtues will compensate in a prince the want of affection for his people. Secondly, every mandarin may tell the emperor of his faults, provided it be done in a respectful and becoming manner. Thirdly, if the emperors have any regard for their character, the manner in which their histories are written is alone sufficient to restrain them within the bounds of rectitude. A certain number of men, chosen on account of their learning and impartiality, observe all the actions, and even words, of their prince; and each of these persons, by himself, and without any communication with the others, sets down, on loose slips of paper, the various occurrences, as they happen; and then puts them, through a chink, into an office, set apart for this purpose. In these papers, both the emperor's virtues and faults are set down with liberty and impartiality; and, in order that neither hope nor fear may bias these biographers, this office is never opened during the life of the reigning prince, nor while any of his family sit on the throne. When the crown goes into another line, which often happens, all these loose memoirs are collected and compared, and a true history of the emperor is compiled from them, to propose him as an example to posterity, if he has acted wisely; or to expose him to common censure and odium, if he has been inattentive to the welfare of his people.

The emperor has two sovereign councils; the one is called the extraordinary council, and is composed of princes of the blood only; the other is called the council in ordinary, and comprises several ministers of state. There are, also, at Pekin, six sovereign courts, whose authority extends all over the provinces of China. Each of these courts has business of a distinct nature; but affairs of importance cannot be concluded without the mutual concurrence of all. Thus, in time of war, the number of troops, the qualities of their officers, and the marching of the armies, are provided for by the fourth court; but the money to pay them must be had of the second.

Viceroys are appointed for the inspection of the provinces; and their power is very considerable; but this is, in some degree, counterbalanced by that of the great mandarins, who may accuse them, when they are satisfied it is necessary for the public good. The people have also the right of petitioning the emperor, against their governors. And, the more effectually to protect private persons, whose complaints cannot always reach the ears of the prince,

persons of known wisdom and reputation are dispersed up and down in every province, who inform themselves in what manner the mandarins behave in the execution of their offices, and bring those to punishment whom they discover to be guilty of acts of oppression. Sometimes the emperor himself visits his provinces in person, for the purpose of doing justice to all his subjects. In one of these excursions, he met with an old man, weeping bitterly; and, upon enquiring the cause of his grief, the man, ignorant of the dignity of the person to whom he was speaking, replied, "I had but one son, who was the comfort and support of my life; and of him I have been deprived by the power of a mandarin, and thus rendered miserable during the remainder of my life: for how can I, poor and friendless, oblige so great a man as he is to make me restitution?" "This may not be so difficult as you imagine," said the emperor: "lead me to the mandarin's house." This was done; and the mandarin, convicted of the violence of which he was accused, was condemned to instant death; whilst the emperor bestowed on the afflicted father the office of the criminal; at the same time charging him to execute it with equity, lest he, also, should be made an example.

Laws, Punishments, &c.] The civil laws of the Chinese are principally taken from their books of morality, and their grand basis is filial piety. Their penal laws are so combined, that no fault escapes punishment, and the correction never exceeds the crime committed. Every person accused must be examined before five tribunals, whose enquiries are directed, not only against him, but also against his accuser, and the witnesses that appear in the cause. He must, indeed, remain in confinement during this process; but the Chinese prisons are spacious and convenient; and it is the duty of a mandarin to inspect them frequently, to see that the prisoners are properly treated, to send for physicians when any of them are taken ill, and to supply them with medicines at the expence of government. The accused are always treated with lenity, being considered innocent until their guilt is substantiated; and even then, they are scarcely allowed to want for any thing. A gaoler, presuming to treat his prisoners with unbecoming harshness, would be severely punished; and even the judges must answer at their peril for any additions to the severity of the law. While the culprit remains in prison, a copy of the whole process is laid before the emperor; and several other copies are made out, both in the Chinese and Tartar languages, which are submitted to the consideration of the most learned doctors. When the crime is of a very heinous nature, and fully proved, the emperor writes at the bottom of the sentence, "When you receive this order, let it be executed without delay;" but, in general, he writes, "Let the criminals be detained in prison, and executed in autumn," that being the season appointed for capital punishments. The emperor possesses a power of granting pardons; but, according to the constitution of the empire, he can only extend his mercy to the son of a widow, who has not married again; to the heir of an ancient family; to the descendant of some grandee or citizen, who has deserved well of his country; or to the sons or grandsons of a mandarin, who has acquired popularity by a faithful discharge of his duty. Children and very old men cannot be cited before a tribunal. The son of a very aged father and mother may be pardoned, if private property, or the public peace, be not injured by his liberation; and, if several sons of such a venerable pair be all guilty, or accomplices in the same crime, the youngest is generally reprieved, that he may administer comfort to his parents.

The bastinado is the slightest of the Chinese punishments, and has no infamy annexed to it. The emperor may even cause it to be inflicted on some of his courtiers, without affecting their reputation; and a mandarin may order it to be inflicted on any disorderly person, without the form of trial. The number of blows is in proportion to the crime, but never less than twenty.

The pan-tsee is an instrument of punishment, which every mandarin may use at discretion, either when any one neglects to salute him, or when he administers public justice. Upon these occasions he sits gravely behind a table, on which is placed a bag of small sticks; his officers being furnished with some of these pan-tsees, and waiting his signal to use them. When he means to punish any one, he takes one of these small sticks from the bag, and throws it into the hall of audience: the culprit is then laid down on the ground, and a strong domestic gives him five blows on his posteriors. If another stick be thrown, he receives five blows more; and so long as the mandarin thinks proper. After this, the criminal is ordered to kneel, and thank his judge for his kind correction.

The wooden collar is a singular punishment. It is formed of two pieces of wood, hollowed in the middle for the neck, with long slips of paper upon it, expressing the crime for which the punishment is inflicted, and the time it is to continue. When it is put on, the person cannot raise his hand to his mouth, but is obliged to be fed, and to carry this disagreeable load day and night. These collars are lighter or heavier, according to the nature of the offence: they commonly weigh about fifty or sixty pounds; but, on some occasions, they exceed a hundred. The criminals are generally exposed in some public place; but they find various ways to lighten their excessive load: some walk with their relations and friends, who support the four corners, that it may not gall their shoulders; others have a chair to support the four corners; and some kneel, and, placing the edge of the collar on the ground, amuse themselves with viewing the passengers.

These punishments are all which the Chinese laws permit the mandarins to inflict on criminals: they may, indeed, condemn to exile; but their sentence must be examined by the supreme courts. Mean and ignoble persons are beheaded; for, in China, the separation of the head from the body is disgraceful: on the contrary, persons of quality are strangled, which is a more honourable death; but, if their crimes be very heinous, they are punished like mean persons; and sometimes their heads are cut off, and hung on a tree in the highway. Murder is punished with death: rebels, traitors, and servants who murder their masters, are cut in pieces; but for theft, where no violence is offered, the offender escapes with a severe bastinado.

What is called cutting in pieces is a most cruel punishment. The executioner fastens the criminal to a post; then flaying the skin off his head, pulls it over his eyes; and afterwards mangles him, by cutting pieces from all parts of his body; and, when he is weary of this barbarous exercise, he leaves him to the cruelty of the populace. It must be observed, however, that, although this punishment has sometimes been inflicted with all these dreadful circumstances, the law only enjoins, that the criminal's belly shall be opened, his body cut into several pieces, and his remains thrown into a ditch.

The torture, both ordinary and extraordinary, is sometimes used in China. The former is applied to the hands or feet: for the hands, small pieces of wood are applied diagonally between the fingers of the criminal, which are also tied close with cords, and he is left for some time in that painful situation. The torture for the feet is still worse. An instrument, consisting of three cross-pieces of wood, is provided; that in the middle being fixed, and the others moveable: the feet of the condemned person are then put into this machine, which squeezes them so close, that the ancle-bones are completely flattened. The extraordinary torture consists in making small gashes in the body, and then tearing off the skin like thongs. This, however, is never inflicted but for treason, or some other heinous crime, where the prisoner's guilt has been clearly proved, and it is necessary to make him discover his accomplices.

Robbery between relations is more severely punished than any other; and that is accounted the most atrocious, where nephews or younger brothers appropriate to themselves beforehand any part of the inheritance, which they have a right to share with their uncles or brothers. Information against a parent, elder brother, or uncle, even though the accusation be just, is invariably punished with a hundred blows of the *pan-tsee;* abusive language is death by strangling; to strike them is punished with decapitation; and, if any one presume to hurt or maim them, his flesh is torn from his bones with red-hot pincers. Homicide, though purely accidental, is always punished with death. A rope, six or seven feet long, with a running noose, is thrown over the criminal's head, and a couple of domestics, belonging to the tribunal, pull it strongly in opposite directions: they then quit it suddenly, and in a few moments give a second pull, which generally completes their melancholy business.

The office of executioner in China is so far from being attended with any disgrace, that it is esteemed an honourable employment: he even wears a sash of yellow silk, which is the badge of the emperor's service, and one of the distinguished ornaments of the princes of the blood; and his instrument of punishment is wrapped in silk of the same colour.

Revenue, &c.] The following statement of the Chinese revenues is taken from Sir G. Staunton's account of the British embassy.

"The public revenues of China Proper are said to be little less than two hundred millions of ounces of silver, which may be equal to about sixty-six millions of pounds sterling. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expences, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are first paid upon the spot, out of the treasuries of the respective provinces, where such expences are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treasury at Pekin. This surplus amounted, in the year 1792, according to an account taken from a statement furnished by Chow-a-Zhin, to the sum of 36,614,328 ounces of silver, or 12,204,776*l.* A land-tax was substituted in the last reign for the poll-tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Most imports, and all luxuries, are likewise taxed; but the duty, being added to the original price of the article, is seldom distinguished from it by the consumer. A transit duty is also laid on goods passing from one province to another. Each province in China, which may be compared to a European kingdom, is noted chiefly for the production of some particular article, the conveyance of which, to supply the demand for it in the others, raises this duty to a considerable sum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Presents from the tributaries and subjects of the emperor, and the confiscations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the revenues of the public treasury. Taxes, such as upon rice, are received in kind. The several species of grain, on which many of the poorer classes of the people principally subsist, are exempted from taxation: so is wheat, to which rice is always preferred by the Chinese."

Extraordinary expences, in case of insurrections or other occurrences, are generally levied by additional taxes on the provinces adjacent to the scene of action, or connected with the occasion of the expence.

No certain accounts could be obtained of the Tartar

revenues. Besides what the emperor derives from his demesnes there, the chiefs pay to him a tribute, which frequently increases, as they are better able to afford it. Goods imported into China, from Tartary, or through it, such as furs and leather, are liable to the payment of a small duty, in passing the great wall; but all Chinese goods, exported to Tartary, pass free.

In the mode of taxation in China, much equity and humanity are displayed. Every citizen, from twenty to sixty years of age, pays a tribute proportionate to his income. If any persons neglect to pay, they receive the bastinado, or are thrown into prison; and sometimes a certain number of such aged poor are quartered upon them, as government would otherwise have to maintain; and these must receive subsistence, till the demands of government are satisfied.

Military and Marine Force.] From the information given to the gentlemen of the English embassy by Van-ta-Zhin, who was himself a distinguished officer, it appeared, that the total of the army in the pay of China, including Tartars, amounted to one million infantry, and eight hundred thousand cavalry; and, from the observation made by the embassy, in the course of their travels through the empire, of the garrisons in the cities of the several orders, and of the military posts at small distances from each other, there appeared nothing improbable in the calculation, with respect to the infantry; but they met few cavalry; though they were of opinion, that a great body of horse might be employed on some distant service. The marine force is comprised chiefly of the junks, which we have already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade along the coast, or to the neighbouring countries.

Religion.] There is no state-religion in China; nor is any day observed as a sabbath; but the temples are open every day for the visits of devotees, who may be divided into three sects, one of which acknowledges Confucius for their founder, the second Lao-kium, and the third Foë.

Confucius was born about five hundred and fifty years before Christ, and was cotemporary with Pythagoras. In early life he gave proofs of a liberal genius; and, as he advanced in years, applied himself to the study of moral philosophy. His reputation gradually spread through the empire; and he was soon at the head of three thousand followers, out of whom he made choice of seventy-two, to propagate his doctrine in different places. His moderation and candour were equal to his genius and learning, as he prudently avoided giving offence to the prejudices of his country, by a too-zealous and violent attack upon its errors.

At the age of fifty-five he was elevated to the dignity of first minister of his native country, which he governed with so much wisdom and authority, that, in a little time, the face of things underwent a complete change: but the king, seduced by the allurements of a woman, soon forgot the excellent advice and instructions of his minister; and Confucius, after vainly endeavouring to reclaim him, set out in search of wiser princes in other kingdoms: nor had he occasion to travel a great way, for all were ambitious to receive him as their guest. He died at the age of seventy-three, and had a magnificent monument erected to his memory near the city of Kio-feu.

The Chinese entertain a profound veneration for his memory, and have a chapel dedicated to him in almost every city, where the mandarins and other literati assemble on particular days, presenting oblations to him, after the manner of a sacrifice. It is said, however, that they venerate rather than adore him, and meet to honour and celebrate his memory.

Lao-kium, the founder of the second sect, was born about six hundred years before Christ, in the province of Houquang. At a very early age he applied to the study of the sciences, and made himself master of the history, laws, and customs of his country. He wrote a book containing five thousand sentences, replete with excellent morality. At length, after having spent a life of solitude and sanctity, he died at a place called U, where a tomb was erected to his memory. This philosopher constantly recommended solitude, as an infallible mean of elevating the human mind above earthly objects, and of emancipating it from its material chains. Such, however, was his ignorance of divine truth, that he even denied the immortality of the soul.

Foë, the founder of the third sect, was born in India, about a thousand years before Christ. He taught the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and held out happiness under certain conditions, which consist more in donations for the erecting of temples, and maintenance of priests called bonzes, than in the observance of moral duties; the neglect of which is the punishment of the defaulters in having their souls pass into the bodies of the meanest animals, in which their sufferings are to be apportioned to their transgressions.

The idol Foë is generally represented by three figures: one is a man of gigantic stature, with a monstrous belly, sitting cross-legged, in the oriental style; this they call the idol of immortality: the second is about twenty feet high, and is styled the idol of pleasure: and the third, about thirty feet high, with a crown on his head, is denominated the great king Kan. Exclusive of these, they have a considerable number of little idols, not in their pagodas only, but in their houses. All of them have their *los*, or house hold gods. These petty idols, however, are not treated with that respect, which is shewn to their great gods; on the contrary, if they do not sometimes grant them their requests, they give them the bastinado. But the great gods,

in the temples, are worshipped with the most profound veneration.

The temples of Foë abound with images, some of which exhibit so strong a likeness to those in churches of the Roman faith, that a Chinese, conveyed into one of the latter, might imagine the votaries he saw were adoring the deities of his own country. On the altar of a Chinese temple, behind a screen, is frequently a representation, which might answer for that of the Virgin Mary, in the person of *Shin-moo*, or the sacred mother, sitting in an alcove, with a child in her arms, and rays proceeding from a circle round her head, with tapers continually burning before her. The resemblance of the worship of the Chinese to the forms of the catholic church, in some other particulars, has been, indeed, thought so striking, that some of the missionaries have conjectured, that the Chinese had formerly received a glimpse of Christianity from the Nestorians, by the way of Tartary.

Foë is said to have left behind him five grand commandments, viz. Never to deprive any creature of its life; never to rob any man of his property; never to be guilty of incontinence; never to tell a lie; and never to drink wine.

According to Staunton's account, the religion of the emperor is considered novel in China, and its worship is performed with most magnificence in Tartary. In the summer solstice, the emperor goes in solemn procession to a temple called *Tien tan*, or the Eminence of Heaven, to pay obedience, and return thanks for its benign influence; and a similar ceremony, in the winter solstice, is performed in the temple of the earth; but personification does not take place in either. This religious worship of heaven and earth is confined to the person of the emperor; and, for his accommodation, it is performed at Pekin, where he annually appears abroad in several other magnificent processions.

The religion of the Tartars, though nearly similar in its doctrines with that of the worshippers of Foë, is different in mode of worship. They have no priests of the order of bonzes, but priests of their own, named Lamas; and, instead of worshipping the god Foë, they pay adoration to the Great Lama, or high-priest, whom they denominate the Immortal Father, believing that he never dies; and the priests omit nothing that may give credit to the deceit; for, when one Lama happens to die, they immediately appoint another that resembles him as nearly as possible.

The Great Lama resides in Tibet, where he is never seen but by his favourites, except when he makes his appearance in the temple, to receive the offerings and adorations of the people. He then sits upon a kind of throne, lighted only by a few lamps, which give so feeble a light, that there is no possibility of discerning plainly the features of the impostor. The people, therefore, implicitly believe that he is immortal.

With respect to the state of Judaism in this empire, the Jews, who many ages ago inhabited a part of the country, have, at this period, a synagogue at Kai-fong-fou, the capital of Ho-nan. They were visited, in the year 1704, by an Italian Jesuit, named Gozani, who had several conferences with them. They permitted him to enter their *sanctum sanctorum*, reserved only for the high-priest; and shewed him twelve little tabernacles, or presses, in which were deposited their sacred books. Among these was a book, written in beautiful characters, on long sheets of parchment, rolled round several wooden rollers. This was their pentateuch, which, they said, was miraculously preserved in the time of a great inundation, that happened in 1643, when the whole city of Kai-fong-fou was laid under water; but, as the leaves and characters had sustained some injury from the water, the chief officers of their synagogue had caused twelve copies of it to be taken, and deposited in the tabernacles.

Exclusive of the above manuscripts, they had numbers of small volumes, in old chests, containing extracts from the pentateuch, and fragments of other sacred books. However, they said they had lost several of their canonical books at the time of the inundation. Gozani, upon comparing their pentateuch with a Bible he had carried with him, found an exact agreement between them, with regard to chronology, as well as the age and genealogy of the patriarchs. In other respects, however, the text was much corrupted.

Gozani relates, that, from an allowed tradition amongst them, their ancestors entered China under the dynasty of Han, which commenced two hundred and six years before Christ, and continued on the throne four hundred and twenty-six years: so that in this wide space of time we must place the uncertain epocha of the first settlement of the Jews in the Chinese empire.

They adhere stedfastly to most of the ancient ceremonies enjoined by the laws of Moses, as circumcision, a strict observance of the sabbath, and of other feasts, particularly that of unleavened bread. When they read the pentateuch in the synagogue, they cover their faces with a transparent veil, in memory of Moses, who descended from the mountain with his face covered. They also eat the Paschal lamb, and abstain from blood.

Christianity is said to have been planted in China nearly as soon as the religion of Mahomet. It must be acknowledged, however, that it did not make the same early progress. Some writers assert, that the patriarch of the Indies sent Christian missionaries to China, in the eighth year of the reign of Tai-tsou, or about the middle of the seventh century of the Christian era; and that, four years after this, Tai-tsou suffered them to preach the gospel in his country. They further say, that, in the year 1625, a stone tablet, ten feet long and five broad, was found in the

province of Shensi, containing the names of seventy missionaries, who came from Judea to preach the gospel to the Chinese, together with a compendium of the Christian faith, all cut in Syriac characters. Towards the end of the sixteenth century, however, when the European missionaries first set footing in China, they found no remains of Christianity among them. Rogers, a Neapolitan jesuit, first opened the mission in China, and was succeeded by Ricci, of the same society, who continued the work with such success, that he is considered by the jesuits as the principal founder of this mission. He, in some measure, reconciled the ancient religion of the country with the first principles of theology, assuring the people, that his moral system was the same with that of their celebrated philosopher Confucius; which secured him many followers. In 1630, the Jesuits were succeeded by the Dominicans and Franciscans; and now it was that commotions broke out. Their first disputes were on the subject of certain ceremonies concerning the worship of Confucius, and some honours paid to the dead; for as, in their funeral-obsequies, they burnt incense, and practsied libations, sacrifices, and other rites, savouring of idolatry, these were condemned by one part of the missionaries, as incompatible with the purity of the Christian faith. Others, of a more moderate temper, and who had little hope of raising up this infant plantation to maturity without such indulgences, were for tolerating these rites, looking on them as things of an indifferent nature. Several years were spent in altercation: but the literati, who possessed all the employments under government, were so obstinately attached to Confucius, and the established rites of their country, that no reasonable condescension could induce them to abate any thing of their superstition; though even their monarch, Chang-hi, granted an edict in 1692, allowing Christianity to be preached throughout the empire. Strenuous appeals were made to Rome by both parties of the contending missionaries. At length, in 1704, the pope decreed, "That the words Tien and Changti should not any longer be applied to the Deity; that the Christians should not enter the temples erected to Confucius, and thenceforward pay no further adoration to their ancestors; and, lastly, that those tablets of their forefathers, bearing the inscription of '*the seat of the soul*,' should be removed from every Christian's habitation. This decree, however, was softened by a few privileges. The converts were allowed to appear in the halls of their ancestors, as *spectators* of the rites there performed; and they had the indulgence of hanging up the tablets of their progenitors in their houses.

This decree, and a subsequent bull of Clement XI. in 1715, excited the utmost confusion. The ministers of state, and the other mandarins, jealous of the growing reputation of the missionaries, were continually disclaiming against them; and, at length, obtained a revocation of an edict, that had been passed in favour of the Christian religion by Chang-hi; and, in the reign of his successor, Yong tchin, all the missionaries were banished to Canton; and upwards of three hundred churches were either pulled to the ground, or converted to profane uses. From the period of this catastrophe, which happened in 1723, Christianity was so far from gaining ground in China, that the professors of it were persecuted with the utmost rigour, till the month of February, 1785, when the late emperor Kien-long, was pleased to put a stop to it.

At present, the protestant missionaries are making the greatest possible exertions, consistent with prudence, for the introduction of Christianity among the natives; and this design appears likely to receive great assistance from the recent translation of the New Testament into the Chinese language.

Superstition.] Of the extreme superstition of the common people among the Chinese, some idea may be formed from the following circumstance, related by Staunton.

"There is only one female figure in the temple of Foë particularly prayed to by unmarried women, who desire husbands, and married women, who wish for children. But, as the doctrine of Foë admits of a subordinate deity, propitious to every wish that can be formed in the human mind; as the government of the country never interferes with mere opinions, or prohibits any belief which may not affect the peace of society, it is no wonder it should spread among those classes of the people, who are dissatisfied with the ordinary events of nature. Thus, from extreme superstition, the temples are particularly frequented, and the superintendent deity first consulted, previous to the undertaking of any thing of importance, whether it be to enter into the matrimonial state, to set out on a journey, to make or conclude a bargain, or any other momentous event.

"This is performed by various methods. Some place a parcel of consecrated sticks, differently marked and numbered, which the consultant, kneeling before the altar, shakes in a hollow bamboo, until one of them falls on the ground; its mark is examined, and referred to a correspondent mark in a book, which the priest holds open, and sometimes it is written on a piece of paper, pasted upon the inside of the temple. Polygonal pieces of wood are, by others, thrown into the air. Each side has its particular mark: the side that is uppermost, when fallen on the floor, is in like manner referred to its correspondent mark in the book or sheet of fate. If the first throw be favourable, the person who made it prostrates himself in gratitude, and undertakes the business in agitation with entire confidence. But, if the throw should be adverse, he tries a second time, and the third throw determines the question. They return thanks when the oracle proves propitious to their wishes. Yet they

often cast lots to know the issue of a projected enterprise, and then supplicate for its proving favourable.

"Every town is imagined to be under the protection of certain stars or constellations: of which last the Chinese reckon twenty-eight: they have stars, also, which answer to the twelve signs of the zodiac, called the twelve mansions of the sun.

"In fine weather, persons of every class live much without doors, and, accustoming themselves to watch the appearances of the heavens, they connect them, by habit, with terrestrial events, as if these had a dependance on the former. Some fortuitous occurrences taking place, have strengthened the belief, and the vanity of prescience has laid the foundation of the pretended science of astrology."

An eclipse of the sun is always considered, by the Chinese, as portending some national calamity; and, as they estimate their own happiness by the degree of virtue possessed by their sovereign, they attribute their misfortunes to his privation of moral excellence. Even the emperor is forced, as it were, to accede to the idea, and govern himself accordingly. On the eve of an eclipse, for example, he never engages in any important enterprise; but seems desirous of avoiding the converse of his ministers, that he may secretly examine into his past actions, with a view to correct their errors, for which the approaching eclipse may be sent as an admonition; and his subjects are invited freely to offer their advice.

Language, Learning, &c.] The Chinese language is justly considered the most singular in the world. Almost every syllable constitutes a word, and there are scarcely fifteen hundred distinct sounds; yet, in the written language, there are at least eighty thousand characters, or different forms of letters, so that every sound may have about fifty senses. The leading characters are denominated keys, 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.

The difficulty of comprehending and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters, as are found in the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are reverenced as a superior species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so obscure, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into indigence, if they neglect those studies by which their ancestors were elevated. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *King*, or the sacred books, which contain the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records, relative to these subjects. History forms a separate class: yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments, on account of their relation to religion and government; and, among others, the *Tekun-tficou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Lou, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su* or *Che;* that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tsu*, or *Tse*, comprehends philosophy, and contains all the works of the Chinese literati; the productions, also, of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions; and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth is called *Tcie*, or *Miscellanies;* and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, &c. They are acquainted with most kinds of poetry in use among Europeans, and have stanzas, odes, elegies, epigrams, satires, and even songs and ballads, peculiar to themselves. Although they have not the same resources as Europeans, in the attracting fictions of ancient mythology, they supply the deficiency by bold and ingenious metaphors, and by using the names of several animals in an allegorical sense. Thus, the eagle is called *the host of the clouds;* the jackdaw, *the bird of speech;* the head, *the sanctuary of reason;* the eyes, *the stars of the forehead*, &c. But, to give a clearer idea of their poetry, we will lay before our readers part of a poem, which was written by the Emperor Kien-Long, after he had sat about fifty years on the throne of China.

After expatiating on the natural beauties which distinguish the country of his ancestors, and describing the beautiful prospect which the sea exhibits in the gulf of Lea-tong, he proceeds to celebrate the mountains that surround the city of Monkden, in the following manner:—

"Mountains! by you I begin—mountain of iron, embroidered mountain, to direct the paths of the traveller, dost thou present thyself at so remote a distance—To suspend his fatigue, and cheer his sight, dost thou exhibit a form and colours so singular—Thou art a certain mark to point out the route he ought to pursue, in order to reach, without interruption, the goal of his repose.—Shall I exhibit thee in that point of view wherein thou appearest majestically beautiful and enchanting; or in that wherein thou inspirest sadness mingled with terror? —No; to name thee only is sufficient to make thee known. —In vain should I attempt to describe those amphithe-

atres, covered with delightful verdure, with which thy sides are eternally crowned; those charming views, that form, at a distance, an almost insensible declivity, over which the eye may wander with endless delight; those clustered mounts, which, from space to space, give birth to each other; those crystal streams, which, pouring down in an infinity of cascades, hasten to unite their waters in the plain, and thence to form rivers, rivulets, and a thousand rills. In vain should I attempt to describe those thick and lofty ridges, which, at a distance, hide the light of the sun during day, and the brightness of the moon during night: those proud summits, which, after having pierced the clouds, still stretch toward the wide expanse of heaven.—My attempt would be equally vain, should I endeavour to delineate those gloomy caverns, enormous fissures, pointed rocks, and hideous precipices, which cannot be approached without awe; those dangerous clefts, which excite emotions of terror; and those profound gulfs, which the eye cannot behold but with horror. What language, however expressive, what pencil, however bold, can sketch out, can even pourtray, a part of thy soft enchanting beauties; equally awful, and alike sublime!—It is by viewing them only that we can form an idea of them.—If the beauties which distinguish thee are contrasted with objects that seem, in our sight, to degrade thee, it is because thou art not wholly destined for the use of man.—The wild animals, which press the earth with their feet, the reptiles that creep, and the fowls that cleave the air, in thee find nourishment and shelter. Children of nature, of that benevolent mother who watches over all, they claim an equal right to her protection. Open, then, O mountains! Open for them your bosoms: let your caverns and precipices afford a retreat to the most ferocious among them; let your steep and hollow rocks be a concealment for others; be an asylum to all. Multiply your productions to nourish them; and let your limpid streams distil, to quench their thirst. Man is not jealous; he will admire you the more!"

The Chinese do not write with a pen, like the Europeans, but with a hair-pencil. They make use of a piece of polished marble, hollowed at one end to hold water, in which they dip their stick of ink, and then gently rubbing it, there is, in a few moments, produced a fluid ink. They do not hold their pencils sloping, as we do our pens, but perpendicular to the paper. They write from top to bottom, in columns, and begin their books where our's end; that is, they begin at the right-hand side of the paper, and proceed to the left, like the Hebrews. But their paper is so very thin, that it will not bear writing on both sides.

They perform all the operations of arithmetic with great celerity, but differently from the Europeans. They calculate by help of a machine called *swan-pan*. Small balls are hung upon wires, and placed in different columns. Those in the first row, to the right, stand for *units*, the next column, from right to left, for *tens*, and so on in a ten-fold ratio. The multiplication, as well as subdivision, of quantities and measures, among the Chinese, is rendered simple by addecimations.

The Chinese method of printing is also very different from ours. Instead of using moveable types, they cut their characters on wooden blocks. When an author is about to print his manuscript, he gets it fairly transcribed on a fine transparent paper; then the engraver glues each leaf upon a smooth block, with the face of the type to the wood, and then cuts away the wood, leaving only the types, which is effected with such a degree of nicety, that, when printed off, they so exactly resemble the original, as to render it difficult to distinguish the print from the handwriting. This method of doing business, it must be allowed, is subject to great inconveniences, on account of the necessity of multiplying the blocks of wood, and the length of time taken up in the engraving; and, as the pages are separately worked off, it must be a long time before a volume can be completed. But, on the other hand, it is to be considered, that the Chinese engraver works his characters almost as fast as the European printer composes his. This could not, however, be supposed to be done, without considering that the Chinese characters are a sort of short-hand, some of which not only express words, but whole sentences.

Moral philosophy, which has always been the principal study of the Chinese literati, is reduced to two principal heads, namely, the reciprocal duties between parents and children, and those between prince and people. Between polity and morality they make no distinction: the art to govern well, and the art to live well, are one and the same principle with them. The sages of China have produced the most excellent moral books; and have suited their style and tenets to the most ordinary capacities; studying rather to instruct the uninformed, than to acquire applause for themselves.

The knowledge of astronomy among the Chinese may be traced back almost to the foundation of their empire. Their learned historian, Confucius, has been found exact in his calculation of eclipses in general, according to the declaration of the jesuits: and the Chinese are still possessed of several astronomical books, which, they assert, were composed under the dynasty of Han, who reigned before the birth of our Saviour; by which it appears, that these people, for upwards of two thousand years past, have been acquainted with the solar year, as consisting of three hundred and sixty-five days and some hours; the apparent diurnal motions of the sun and moon from east to west; the meridian altitude of the sun; the right ascension of the stars, and the time of their passing through

the meridian; as likewise the revolutions of Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, Venus, and Mercury: and their observations in these particulars have been nearly the same with ours, in point of exactness: though they have no tables for the retrograde and stationary aspects of the planets.

The Chinese divide their year into twelve lunar months, some of which consist of twenty-nine, others of thirty days; and every five years they have an intercalary month, to adjust the lunations with the sun's course. They reckon by weeks, as we do, and give the name of a planet to each of the seven days. Their astronomical day begins at midnight, which is divided into twelve equal parts, each answering to two of our hours. Though they are not acquainted with the art of making clocks, they have solar quadrants, and other chronometers.

The Chinese boast, that they were acquainted with the art of navigation, and the Indian Seas, long before the birth of Christ; and pretend to the invention of the mariner's compass, to which their sailors superstitiously offer perfumes in sacrifice.

The Chinese compass-box has, upon its upper surface, several concentric circles, of correspondent sizes. The innermost contains eight different characters, which represent the four cardinal points, east, west, north, and south; and the four bisecting ones, north-east, south-west, north-west, and south-east. These eight characters are also meant to express as many equal divisions of the natural day, each of three hours; and that of the east, being placed towards the sun-rising, the rest, of course, will represent, nearly, the position of the sun at the different times of the day.

The next circle has twenty-four divisions, with appropriate characters, denoting a twenty-fourth part of the heavens, and, consequently, a twenty-fourth part of the natural day; each point containing fifteen degrees, a proportionate part of three hundred and sixty, the number of degrees into which all celestial circles are divided.

Another of the circles contains the cycles of sixty years, by which the Chinese reckon their chronology; and the two remaining ones explain their doctrines of mythology and philosophy.

Physic is at a low ebb among the Chinese; as there are no public schools nor professors of the healing art. They have some good practical physicians, the greatest part of whose medicines consists of herbs, roots, fruits, seeds, &c. which are, for the most part, good stomachics and gentle aperients; but they are totally ignorant of anatomy. The science of medicine, among them, consists in the knowledge of the pulse, of which their ideas are exceedingly erroneous. By the beating of the pulse they pretend to know the cause of any disorder, and in what part of the body it lies. They say, that the pulse of a man differs from that of a woman, and that it changes with the seasons of the year. To form a decisive judgment of the cause of complaint in a patient, they lay his arm upon a pillow, and then apply their fingers to the artery. At first, they touch it gently, then a little closer, and, lastly, press it very hard. They take time to examine the beating, and distinguish the differences, according as the motion is more or less quick, uniform, or irregular, which they observe with the most attentive exactness. According to the variations, they pronounce what part of the body is affected, how long the disorder will continue, and whether the patient will recover or not.

In diseases arising from plethora, as well as in many other cases, a free use of the lancet is often necessary to preserve life; yet surgery, in China, is so little understood, that venesection is never performed. If at any time the faculty think it necessary to puncture any part of the body, to let out what they call a collection of vapour, it is done with a gold or silver needle, which operation gives exquisite pain to the patient. But blood-letting is never practised, as will appear from the following anecdote:—

Some years since, a gentleman was requested to visit a friend of a Chinese merchant, who was ill, and finding his complaint to be a large abscess upon the thigh, and in a state of maturity, he opened it with a lancet, pressed out the matter, and applied proper dressings, promising to revisit him the next day. The following morning, the gentleman's Chinese servant, learning what had been done, appeared greatly distressed, and exclaimed violently against the merchant, for suffering him to draw blood of a Chinese with any instrument, as he must have known, that, should the patient die, he would be put to death, without regard to the motives which suggested the operation. The patient, however, recovered, and was grateful to his benefactor.

Manufactures, and Commerce.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry; but it is an industry devoid of elegance. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe; but it is now well known, that the principal material is a pulverised earth, and that several European countries far excel the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. In England, in particular, it has been carried to a high degree of perfection.

The Chinese silks are generally as thin as gauze, though some of them are more durable; and their cotton and other cloths are admired, as furnishing a light but warm dress. Their ink, for the purpose of drawing, is said to be made of oil and lamp-black; and they manufacture paper from the bark of bamboo; but it is not comparable, for writing or printing, to that of Europe. Their trade is open to all nations; but, since the discovery of the porcelain manufacture, it has been considerably diminished.

Manners, Customs, &c.] The Chinese, in their persons, are of a middle stature, with broad faces, black hair, small dark eyes, short noses, and thin beards, which they wear long on the bottom of the chin and upper lip, but pull from their cheeks with tweezers. Their complexion, toward the north, is fair; toward the south, swarthy; and the fatter a man is, the greater is his fame for personal beauty. Men of rank, who are not much exposed to the sun, are generally of a delicate complexion; and the literati suffer their nails to grow to an enormous length, to distinguish them from mechanics. The women have little eyes, black hair, regular features, plump rosy lips, and a delicate, though florid, complexion.

An absurd custom prevails throughout China, of confining the feet of female infants in such a manner, that they can never possibly grow to their full size; and this smallness of the feet is accounted such an essential accomplishment, that the Chinese ladies never think they can purchase it at too dear a rate. As soon, therefore, as a female infant is born, the nurse wraps up its feet in tight bandages; and the consequent torture must be endured, until the feet have ceased to grow. Thus the women are almost entirely deprived of the use of their feet, and walk in a most awkward hobbling manner.

There is but little difference between the ordinary dress of men and women among the Chinese. Rank and dignity, however, are distinguished by certain accessary ornaments, and those insignia are regulated by government.

The general dress consists of a long vest, which folds over the breast, and reaches to the ground. It is fastened, on the right side, by four gold or silver buttons, placed at a little distance from each other; the sleeves are wide toward the shoulder, growing narrow as they approach the wrist, where they terminate in the form of a horse-shoe, covering the hands, and leaving nothing visible but the ends of the fingers. The vest is tied round the waist with a silk sash, from which is suspended a sheath, containing a knife and a pair of chopsticks, which are used instead of forks. Under this vest both men and women wear short wide shirts, of different kinds of cloth, according to the season: these are made somewhat similar to a waistcoat that folds over the bosom, and with close narrow sleeves, fastened at the wrist; and under the shirt some persons wear a silk net, to prevent it from adhering to the skin: they also wear drawers of satin or cotton, and over these a pair of white trowsers.

In warm weather, the Chinese have their necks bare; but, in winter, they cover them with a satin cape, sewed to their vest, and edged with fur; and the vest itself is also trimmed with sheep skin, or quilted with silk and cotton. People of quality line theirs with sable skins, or the finest fox-skins edged with sable; and, in very cold weather, they wear a surtout that reaches to the waist, with wide short sleeves, terminating at the elbow. People of rank never go abroad without boots, which are generally made of quilted satin or cotton; they have neither heel nor top, but are made to fit the foot with great exactness; and, as the foot of the boot is like the leg, slippers are worn over them, with good substantial soles. When they ride, however, they have other boots, made of calf-skin or horse-leather, which are remarkably soft and pliable. This article of dress is considered so indispensable, that, when any one pays a Chinese a visit, and he happens to be without his boots, he will actually make his friend wait till he has put them on.

Formerly they were at great pains to preserve their hair; but the Tartars compelled them to cut off the greater part of it, and to alter the form of their clothes, after their fashion. Thus the Chinese, though painted as if bald, are not so naturally; that small portion of hair, which they preserve on the tops of their heads, being all that is allowed by government: it is generally very long, and plaited into a tail. In summer, they wear a cap, shaped like an inverted funnel, made of rattan or cane, lined with satin, and ornamented at the top with a taft of red hair, which flows loosely in the wind, and has a very pretty effect. In winter, these caps are made of plush, turned up with fur; and, being very shallow, are tied under the chin with a string. The mandarins and literati wear a cap of the same form, but it is lined with red satin, and covered with white, with red silk fringe flowing from the top, instead of hair. With respect to colours, the emperor and princes of the blood only have a right to wear yellow; and certain mandarins have liberty to wear satin of a red ground: this privilege, however, is only assumed on days of ceremony; for, in general, they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The inferior ranks are allowed to wear no other colours but blue or black.

The dress of a Chinese peasant differs from that worn by citizens in the same proportion as in other countries. It generally consists of a pair of large drawers, wooden shoes, terminating at the toe in a sharp point, and a coarse linen frock, over which is thrown a cotton vest, that descends to the middle of the thigh.

The dress of the women consists, in general, of a robe, close at top, and so long as to cover their toes; and the sleeves, if not held up, would hang down to the ground: of course, their hands are seldom seen. The colour of these dresses is entirely optional; but black or violet are usually chosen by women advanced in years.

The head-dress consists chiefly in arranging the hair into a variety of curls, and interspersing it with gold or silver flowers. Sometimes part of it is formed into a roll, fastened with silver bodkins, while the rest flows down the neck in ringlets; but, in cold weather, it is generally wrapped round with a sort of black hood. Some of the

ladies ornament their heads with the figure of a fabulous bird, which is made of copper or silver gilt, according to the rank of the wearer: its wings are extended, and lie pretty close to the head-dress, embracing the upper part of the temples, while the long spreading tail forms a kind of plume on the top of the head. Its body is placed directly over the forehead, and the neck and tail hang down; but the former, being joined to the body by an invisible swivel, plays freely about, and moves with the slightest motion of the head. Persons of quality sometimes have several of these birds made up into a single ornament; and young ladies frequently wear a crown of pasteboard, the forepart of which rises in a point above the forehead, and is covered with jewels, while the rest of the head is decorated with artificial flowers and diamond pins.

The colour proper for mourning, in China, is white. A son can wear no other for three years after the death of his father or mother; and, ever afterwards, his clothes must be of one colour. Silks and furs are forbidden to children; and the law has even prescribed the time when they are first to wear a cap. This is put upon their head by the master of the ceremonies, who addresses them in the following manner: "Consider, that you now receive the dress of those who have attained to maturity, and that you cease to be children: renounce, therefore, all childish thoughts and inclinations; assume a grave and serious deportment; apply yourselves closely to the study of virtue and wisdom, and endeavour to merit a long and happy life."

The manners of the Chinese bear little resemblance to those of any other nation; and their historians assure us, that they have remained unaltered for the space of four thousand years. The women are condemned to almost perpetual imprisonment within their own houses; and a young man, who resolves to enter into the married state, knows nothing of the features or person of his intended, but from the account of some female confidant, who both negociates the match, and determines the sum which must be paid to the parents of the bride; for, in China, a father does not bestow any portion on his daughter; but every man is expected to give a dowry to his wife. If, however, the negociators deceive the bridegroom in their account of the lady, he is at liberty to refuse her, on forfeiting the purchase-money.

The calendar is invariably consulted for a lucky day to solemnize the nuptials; and, in the intermediate time, letters pass between the young couple, presents are exchanged betwixt the two families, and the bridegroom purchases some jewels for his bride. When the appointed day arrives, the bride is locked in a close palanquin, the key of which is delivered to a trusty domestic, who must deliver it to none but the husband; and the lady is carried to her new home, preceded by a band of music, and followed by her relations. Every thing that composes her portion is also borne before and behind her, by persons of both sexes, while others walk on each side with flambeaux and lighted torches. The bridegroom, richly dressed, waits the arrival of the procession at his gate, and, on receiving the key, eagerly opens the palanquin. If he be contented with the person of his spouse, he receives her with many expressions of joy; but, if he be much disappointed, he suddenly shuts the chair, and sends her back to her relations.

When the bride is so fortunate as to give satisfaction, she quits her palanquin, and is followed by her relations into the hall, where the new-married couple pay their respects to the parents of the bridegroom. The bride is then entertained by the ladies that have been invited to the wedding; and the male visitants sit down to a banquet with the husband, till the approach of night warns them to retire to their respective habitations.

A Chinese can only have one lawful wife; and this wife must be nearly of his own age and rank; but he may purchase as many concubines as he pleases, provided he enters into a contract to treat their daughters well. These women are entirely dependant on the lawful spouse, and are expected to pay an implicit obedience to her commands. Their children are considered as hers, and address her only by the appellation of mother: indeed, she is generally given to understand, that her husband engages these concubines merely to increase the number of her children and female attendants. Some husbands, desirous of male issue, which they have not by their wives, will hire a concubine from this motive only; and, when their wish is accomplished, they dismiss her, with free permission to marry.

On the death of a lawful wife, the concubines and their children mourn for her three years; and the husband may then raise his favourite of these women to the place of the defunct; on which occasions, age, rank, and all the above-mentioned ceremonies, are dispensed with.

In all seraglios, she who is first brought to bed has the preference of the rest; and, till a woman has had one child, she is not suffered to sit down at table with the rest of the family, and is obliged to act the part of an attendant. Next to barrenness, the greatest scandal is to bring several females into the world; and hence it often happens, that, when a woman has three or four girls together without a boy, she will either expose or strangle them with her own hands: and, whenever the parents are indigent or unfortunate, they consider it as a merciful act to remove an infant from a miserable existence.

A widower or widow may enter a second time into the married state, without being subjected to any restrictions respecting the equality of age or rank. A widow of quality, being absolute mistress of herself, seldom marries

again, but those of ordinary rank do; and persons, of the poorer class, are often sold, for the benefit of their late husband's relations. As soon as the bargain is concluded, a couple of porters bring a chair, in which the poor widow is shut up, and conducted, by a number of trusty people, to the abode of her new spouse.

Marriage is so highly esteemed in China, that a poor man, who is unable to purchase a wife, will sell himself for a slave, on condition that he shall be permitted to marry a female slave in the family. Old bachelors are universally regarded with contempt, and, as the Chinese consider it most unfortunate to leave no children to mourn over their graves, there is scarcely an unmarried man to be found in the country

Divorces are allowed, in cases of adultery, mutual dislike, jealousy, or hereditary and infectious diseases. If a wife elope from her husband, he can sue out a process, and obtain a sentence to sell the fugitive, who then ceases to be his wife, and becomes his slave. If a man absent himself from his wife for three years, she may lay her complaint before a tribunal, and will be allowed to marry again.

Marriage is deemed illegal in China, in the following cases:—1. If a young woman has been betrothed to a young man, and presents have been given and received by the parents of the intended husband and wife. 2. If, instead of a beautiful young woman, another be substituted of a disagreeable figure; or if the daughter of a freeman marry his slave; or if any one give his slave to a free woman, under a pretence that he is his son, or relation: in all these cases the marriage is null and void; and those who have had any concern in making up the match are liable to severe punishment. 3. A mandarin of letters is forbidden to form an alliance with any family residing in the city, or province, of which he is governor. 4. No Chinese youth can enter into the conjugal state during the time of mourning for a father or mother; if promises have been made, they cease on that event taking place; but, after the usual time of mourning is expired, the relations of the intended bride may write to the surviving parents of the young man, to remind him of his engagement. 5. The solemnization of marriage must be suspended when a family experiences any severe misfortune, and even if a near relation be thrown into prison; though this may be set aside, provided the unfortunate person give his consent. 6. Two brothers cannot marry two sisters; nor is a widower allowed to marry his son to the daughter of a widow whom he chooses for his own wife. A man is, also, strictly forbidden to marry any of his own relations.

The apartments of the Chinese ladies are generally situated in the most retired part of the house, and here they employ themselves with painting, music, or needlework; and keep birds, dogs, and other animals, for their diversion; but they are secluded from all society, except their domestics, and never intermeddle with the business of their husbands. "A wife," says the Chinese book of ceremonies, "is not mistress of herself; she has nothing at her disposal; she can give no orders, but in her own apartment; and here all her authority is confined."

The education of a child commences as soon as it is born, and the book of ceremonies prescribes that its nurse must speak little, adhere strictly to truth, have a mild temper, and behave with the utmost propriety, both to her equals and superiors. The child is taught to use its right hand as soon as it can put it to its mouth, and then it is weaned. At six years of age, (if a boy,) he is taught the numbers most in use, and made acquainted with the names of the principal parts of the world; at seven, he is separated from his sisters, and no longer allowed to eat with them, nor to sit down in their presence; at eight, he is instructed in the rules of good breeding and politeness; at nine, he studies the calendar; at ten, he is sent to a public school, where he is taught reading, writing, and accounts; from thirteen to fifteen, he is instructed in music; at fifteen, he is taught archery and horsemanship; and, at twenty, his education is considered complete.

The book first put into the hands of children, points out what they ought to learn, and the manner in which they should be taught: this volume is a collection of short sentences in rhyme, and the pupils are obliged to give an account in the evening of what they have learned in the exercise of the day. After this elementary treatise, they receive the four books which contain the doctrines of Confucius; but the meaning of the work is never explained to them, until they have got by heart all the characters, or words, in the book. While thus employed, they are likewise taught to form the characters with a pencil. For this purpose they are furnished with large leaves of paper, on which very large characters are written, or printed, with red ink; and all they are required to do is, to cover these red characters with black ink, and to follow exactly their shape and figure, so that they may be insensibly accustomed to form the different strokes.

After a scholar has made himself master of the characters, he is allowed to compose; but the subject is pointed out to him only by one word. Competitions are also established in China, but most of these are of a private nature: twenty or thirty families, all of the same name, and who have only one hall for the names of their ancestors, agree among themselves to send their children twice a month to this hall, to compose; and each head of a family, in turn, gives the subject of the literary contest, and adjudges the prize.

In every city, town, and village, in China, there are school-masters, who teach such sciences as are generally cultivated in the empire. Parents, possessed of a certain

fortune, provide tutors for their children, to form their minds to virtue, and to initiate them in the rules of good breeding; as well as to make them acquainted with the laws and history of their country. These masters have, for the most part, attained to some degree among the literati, and frequently arrive at the most important employments of the state. The education of the women is generally confined to giving them a taste for solitude, and accustoming them to modesty and silence; and, when their parents are rich, they are likewise instructed in such accomplishments as are most likely to render them agreeable to the other sex.

Every province of China abounds with free-schools, and even some of the villages are not destitute of this advantage. The sons of a peasant are there received as readily as those of a grandee; their duties and their studies are the same; the attention of the masters is equally divided between them; and, from this obscure source, talents often spring, which afterwards make a conspicuous figure on the theatre of life.

The Chinese eat all kinds of flesh, fish, and fowl, as Europeans do. They account horse-flesh extremely delicate, and, in times of scarcity, the poor people will eat dogs, cats, snakes, frogs, or any kind of vermin; but the common food consists of rice, pulse, and roots, with flesh and fish-broth. Their meat is always seasoned in the dressing; and, before it is served up, it is cut into little square pieces, like dice. They use neither cloth, napkins, knives, nor forks; but they have two little round sticks, with which they take up their meat very dexterously; and, in eating rice and broth, they hold the cup to their mouths, and lade it in with these chopsticks. Contrary to all other oriental nations, they use high chairs, and tables; and, at an entertainment, almost every one has a small lacquered table to himself.

The principal strong liquors used by the Chinese, are *hockshue* and *samshue*. The first is of the colour of brown beer, but remarkably clear and strong: this is said to be an infusion of wheat in scalding-hot water, but it tastes more like mum than beer. Samshue is a spirit distilled from rice, either of a pale or reddish colour, and has been mistaken, by some travellers, for wine. The principal beverage, however, is tea.

The multitude of ceremonies used, on all occasions, by the Chinese, are extremely irksome to strangers. An invitation to an entertainment is not supposed to be given with sincerity, till it has been renewed three or four times in writing. A card is sent on the evening preceding the entertainment, a second on the morning of the appointed day, and a third when every thing is prepared. The master of the house always introduces his guests into the hall, where he salutes them one after another. He then orders samshue to be brought to him, in a small cup, made of silver, porcelain, or precious wood, and placed on a small varnished salver. He takes this in both hands, bows to the surrounding company, advances toward the fore part of the hall, and, raising his eyes and the cup toward heaven, pours out the liquor on the ground, in imitation of the well-known libations of antiquity.

After this ceremony, he pours fresh liquor into his cup, and reverently places it on a table, set apart for the most considerable guest; who, in return, calls for another cup, and endeavours to place it on the table intended for the master of the feast, but the latter prevents him, with a thousand apologies, according to the rules of Chinese politeness.

A superior domestic conducts the chief guest to an elbow-chair, covered with rich flowered silk, in which, after many apologies, he sits down, and the rest of the company follow his example, by taking their seats, in order to abridge the ceremony.

Scarcely are the company seated, before several comédians enter the hall, and all bow together, so low that their heads touch the ground, four times: after this, one of them produces a list of the pieces they are able to perform extempore, and, when the piece is fixed on, they commence their representation with a flourish of trumpets, fifes, and drums. The hall-floor serves for a stage, which, on this occasion, is covered with a carpet. The actors, about to perform, are placed in some of the adjoining apartments, whence they come forth to act their respective parts, and the guests present are generally the only spectators. Sometimes, however, the master of the house will admit a certain number of people into the court, to be partakers of the amusement.

Every person has twenty-four dishes, in succession, served up to him, all of which are in the form of ragouts. They never begin to eat till the master of the feast leads the way; but, on his giving the accustomed signal, all the company snatch up their chopsticks, and carry them to their mouths in regular uniform motion, as if they were performing some military exercise: they also take as much care as possible that their mouths all move together, for to be before-hand, or to make the rest wait, is accounted extremely vulgar.

Towards the middle of the entertainment, soup is brought in, accompanied with small loaves, or pies; which the guests take up with their chopsticks, steep them in the soup, and eat them without waiting for any signal, or being obliged to keep time with each other. The entertainment, however, continues, in other respects, with the utmost formality, until tea is introduced; after which, they usually take a turn in the garden, or in another apartment. Meanwhile the tables are spread with a desert, which, like the feast itself, consists of twenty-four

dishes, made up of sweetmeats, preserved fruits, hams, shell-fish, and salted ducks, baked or dried in the sun. The same ceremonies which preceded the repast are now renewed, and the master invites his guests to drink more freely, but no person is compelled to drink more than he likes, provided all the customary motions be gone through. About midnight, the company breaks up; a small sum of money is given to the domestics; and each person returns home in a chair, preceded by several servants, who carry large lanterns of oiled paper, inscribed with the name and quality of their master. Without such an attendance, they would inevitably be stopped by the city-guard; and, on the ensuing morning, they return a card of thanks to the officer of the watch.

Visits from the inhabitants of a city to a governor are always attended with presents. As soon as the visitors enter the hall of audience, they range themselves in a line, fall on their knees, and bow their heads even to the ground, unless prevented by the governor's politeness. Sometimes the most considerable among them takes a cup of wine in both hands, and presents it to the governor, exclaiming, "Behold the wine that giveth happiness!" After him, another advances with sweetmeats, exclaiming, in like manner, "Behold the sugar of long life!" and these ceremonies are repeated three times, by different persons.

Visits to a superior must always be paid before dinner; but, if a visit be returned the same day, this punctilio may be dispensed with. The cards, which are previously sent on this occasion, are generally of red paper, ornamented with flowers, and folded like a screen: the visitor's name is written in one of the folds, and many respectful expressions in the other. If the visit be to an intimate friend, or person of inferior rank, the visiting card is only a leaf of plain paper; and black cards are invariably sent to persons who are in mourning.

When a visitor arrives at the house of a superior, he is introduced into the hall by a couple of servants, who hold an umbrella and a fan, inclined to each other, so as to form a screen before him; and these barriers are not removed, till he has advanced near enough to salute the master of the house, who never rises from his chair. If, however, the person visited be the inferior, he goes into the street to conduct the stranger in; they bow to each other as soon as they meet, and a set of short compliments are interchanged; at every step they halt, and dispute who shall enter first, till at length the visitor suffers himself to be overcome, and walks to the next apartment.

When the guest or guests have entered, then commence all those formalities, which are minutely pointed out in the Chinese book of ceremonies; and, after a quarter of an hour's grimace, they seat themselves opposite to each other. They are obliged to sit upright, with downcast looks, their hands stretched out on their knees, and their feet even. Loquacity is, also, studiously avoided; and sometimes not a single word is spoken, except the prescribed compliments, which are uttered with all imaginable submission, and always in the third person; as, "The favour your lordship has conferred on one so much beneath him, lays his servant under the deepest obligation.—Permit the servant to offer his lord this curiosity, which his poor country affords."

A little time after the company have taken their seats, as many cups of tea are brought in as there are persons present; and the manner of taking up the cup, conveying it to the mouth, and returning it to the servant, form so many articles in the book of ceremonies, which are always performed with the most rigid minuteness and punctuality.

When it is time to retire, the master of the ceremonies conducts each of the guests to his chair, waits till he is taken up, and then bids him adieu. But, if the stranger be about to return home on horseback, a ceremony still more tiresome must be gone through; for he will not be so rude as to mount before the master of the house; and the latter urges him to it: the stranger then protests, that the world shall be turned upside down, before he will be guilty of such unpardonable rudeness; and the altercation continues till the master retires out of sight, and the visitor takes his seat in the saddle. He then directs his course homeward; and, when he has gone a little way, a servant is dispatched after him, to wish him a pleasant journey.

The Chinese form of salutation, even among persons of ordinary rank, is much less expeditious than that of Europeans. A common salute consists in joining both hands together before the breast, moving them in an affectionate manner, bending the head a little, and reciprocally uttering a complimentary word, something like "your humble servant." When a person meets one of superior rank, he joins his hands by locking the fingers together, raises them above his forehead, and afterwards brings them gradually toward the ground, making a profound obeisance with his whole body. When two friends happen to meet after a long absence, they both fall on their knees opposite to each other, bend their bodies to the earth, then raise them up, and repeat the same two or three times. When they see a man in good health, the usual address is, "Prosperity is painted on your looks;" or, "You have a happy countenance."

When two mandarins of considerable rank meet in their sedan-chairs, each joins his hands, lowers them down, and then raises them to his forehead, and repeats this till they are out of each other's sight. But, if one be of higher rank than the other, the latter orders his chair to stop; or, if he be on horseback, he dismounts, and makes a profound obeisance to his superior.

Plays are sometimes performed on open scaffolds, and in half a dozen streets at a time. On each side of the

stage are screens; and the actors are richly dressed; but they have no painted scenery. As no women bear a part in these exhibitions, female parts are performed by boys, or young men of an effeminate cast. Some companies of players consist of men from twenty to forty years of age, and these are most highly esteemed by the Chinese; but Europeans generally admire those between twelve and eighteen. Their tragedians seem to act with great propriety, so as to affect the passions of a spectator, who is totally ignorant of the language; and it is much to the credit of the Chinese government, that no pieces are suffered to be performed, except such as tend to inspire youth with a love of virtue, and an utter abhorrence of vice. The streets are so crowded on these occasions, that there is scarcely any possibility of passing; and when an actor plays his part well, he is always encored. Plays are generally concluded with sham fights, tumbling, and other feats of agility.

Hunting is free to every one in China. Such persons as wish to enjoy the diversion alone, shut up a quantity of game in parks, which have been enclosed for that purpose. When the emperor goes a hunting, he selects thirty thousand of his body-guards, who are armed with darts and javelins, and are disposed in such a manner, that they completely environ a considerable extent of ground upon the mountains. The guards, thus posted, form a large circle, marching nearer to each other with an equal pace, taking care not to quit their ranks: the circle is thus reduced to a much smaller one, and the beasts are gradually enclosed as in a net; for the guards, alighting from their horses, keep so very close to each other, that not the smallest outlet is left for any to escape. The animals in this small circle are hunted so close, that they frequently fall at the feet of the hunters through extreme fatigue, and are thus taken with the utmost facility. Sometimes the hunters will thus take two or three hundred hares, together with a prodigious number of wolves and foxes.

Once a year the emperor goes a hunting into Tartary; and, at these times, he often meets with tigers, of extraordinary fierceness; yet, when these animals find themselves enclosed by the hunters, they seem to be struck with a kind of terror at the sight of such a number of enemies, all ready to direct the points of their lances at them. Far from imitating the stag and other animals, which, so hemmed in, run up and down without ceasing, and try every means to escape, the tiger squats down, and endures for a long time the barking of the dogs, which are let loose upon him; but, at length, being excited, either by excess of rage or the absolute necessity of defending himself, he darts forward, with prodigious leaps, to some particular part which he has fixed on, and there attacks the hunters; but they check his progress with the points of their lances, and usually plunge them to his heart at the moment he is preparing to seize some of them.

The Chinese cannot enjoy any amusements but such as are authorised by law; and even with respect to their annual public entertainments, which have been established by custom in every city of the third class, the law has determined, that none shall be admitted to them but either graduate doctors of unblemished reputation, mandarins of law or arms, who have retired from public life, aged heads of families, or citizens of exemplary virtue. These entertainments consist of feasting and music, and are principally intended to preserve mutual regard and friendship. At these assemblies some articles of the law are read, after which the president adds, "If we have been assembled at this solemn festival, it is not so much for the pleasure of eating and drinking, as to encourage us to shew fidelity to our sovereign, obedience to our parents, affection to our brethren and sisters, veneration to our elders, attachment to our friends, and a desire to promote universal concord among our neighbours and fellow-citizens." The airs which are sung, and the instrumental accompaniments, likewise tend to harmonize the spirits, and conciliate universal benevolence; so that these banquets have been justly styled "feasts of love, and assemblies of instruction."

The vernal festival is celebrated, throughout the empire, in a way that evidently tends to the encouragement of moral labour and industry. In the morning, the governor of every city comes from his palace, crowned with a garland of flowers, and enters his chair, in which he is carried, amidst a profusion of standards, lighted flambeaux, music, and effigies of illustrious persons, who have acquired celebrity by their encouragement of agriculture. The houses are hung with rich carpeting, and illuminated by lanterns; triumphal arches are erected at certain distances; an earthen figure of a large cow, with gilded horns and magnificent trappings, is borne by about forty men; a child, with one foot naked and the other shod, called the "Spirit of Diligence," follows, driving on the image with a rod; labourers, with all the implements of husbandry, march behind; and a troop of comedians, and people in masks, bring up the rear.

Thus attended, the governor advances to the eastern gate of the city, as if he designed to meet the spring, and then returns to his palace in the same order. After this, the cow is stripped of her ornaments; a number of earthen calves are taken from her belly, and distributed among the crowd; the cow herself is broken and distributed in like manner; and the whole is concluded by a speech from the governor, in praise of agriculture, and an exhortation to the people not to neglect so useful and invaluable an art.

Two other public festivals are celebrated at a great expence: one at the commencement of the year, which is called "Taking leave of the old year;" and the other on

the fifteenth of the first month; at which times all business is suspended, presents are given and received, inferior mandarins pay their respects to their superiors, children to their parents, and servants to their masters. Every family assembles in the evening to partake of a grand repast; but no stranger, nor distant relation, is admitted; from a superstitious notion, that he would rob the family of that good fortune which descends on their habitation with the first moment of the new year. On the next and following days they exhibit still more lively demonstrations of joy; for every shop is shut, visits are paid to relations and friends, plays are publicly acted, and the whole empire exhibits a general scene of festivity.

On the feast of lanterns, every part of the empire is so completely illuminated, that, if a person could take a view of it at once, all the country would seem in a blaze; for every person, both in city and country, on the coast, and on the rivers, light up painted lanterns, of various forms and sizes. Even the most indigent families exert themselves at this festival, and, according to the best of their abilities, contribute to the general illumination.

The lanterns used on this occasion are generally large, of various shapes, and covered with transparent silk, on which flowers, animals, and human figures, are usually painted. They are lighted by lamps or wax-candles; and to the corners of each are fixed elegant streamers of silk or satin. Some of the largest lanterns exhibit moving figures, like the Chinese shades that may be seen in London. Persons, who lie concealed, put these figures in motion, by means of imperceptible threads, and the spectators are highly amused with horses galloping, ships sailing, armies in full march, &c. Some accompany these moving figures with humorous expressions, that seem to proceed from the shades on the lantern; while others carry about serpents, of an enormous length, illuminated within, from the head to the tail, and so contrived, that they wreathe about in different forms, as if they were alive.

To augment the splendor of this festival, the Chinese exhibit a variety of those fire-works, for which they are justly celebrated. Magailens informs us, that he was greatly surprised at one of these exhibitions, where an arbour of vines, with red grapes, was represented, and the arbour burnt, without being consumed: the colour of the wood, fruit, and foliage, was also represented with astonishing exactness. The excellence of the Chinese artists, however, may be better conceived from a description of a spectacle of this nature, which was exhibited by the emperor Chang-hi, for the diversion of his court: "The fire-works commenced with six large cylinders, planted in the ground, which sent forth so many streams of flame, rising to the height of twelve feet, and falling in beautiful showers. These were followed by a covered box, supported by two pillars, which threw up a shower of fire; several painted lanterns, and sentences written in large characters of burning sulphur; and six elegant branched candlesticks, with different tiers of lights, ranged in circles, so brilliant as to disperse the darkness of the night. At last, the emperor set fire to one of the works, which was instantly communicated through an extent of eighty feet; the fire reached several poles and painted figures, whence proceeded a prodigious multitude of rockets; and, at the same time, a number of painted lanterns and branched candlesticks were lighted in all directions."

The following account of the feast given by the emperor Kien-long, to the ancients, on the 14th of February, 1785, is too interesting to be omitted:

"This imperial feast, which Kien-long gave to the ancients, is one of those events which will make an epoch in the empire. Kang-hi, his uncle, set the example, who, ascending the throne very young, celebrated the sixtieth year of his reign, in 1722. Kien-long celebrated the fiftieth year of his reign, and the sixty-fifth of his age, on this day. At the end of 1784, he solemnly announced his intention, and made a number of promotions among the mandarins, professors of the arts, belles lettres, and military. He likewise exempted all the people from taxes that year, and finally repealed those which pressed hard on them. He ordered distributions of rice, and pieces of silk or stuff, to be given to every poor person throughout the empire, who had attained the age of sixty years. Those who were one hundred, had fifty bushels of rice, and two pieces of silk; one of the first, the other of the second quality. Those who had attained ninety years, received thirty bushels of rice, and two pieces of silk, of an inferior quality. Those who were less than sixty, and exceeding fifty, had five bushels of rice, and one piece of silk. Every other person had rice and silk in proportion to their ages, reckoning by ten years.

"This grand and solemn feast was held at the city of Pekin, and gave great satisfaction to those for whom it was made.

"Three thousand aged men of quality being assembled at the palace, the emperor, who chose to do the honours of the table, took his place at the head. The only distinction made was, the elevation of his throne about a foot higher than the other seats, solely, as he declared, for the purpose of seeing that every thing was right, as the tables were served in all parts equally, where the guests were distributed four and four. At others, were the princes of the blood, the nobility, and the mandarins. At a circular table sat the emperor's family, to see that nothing was wanted by those ancient guests, and to exhort them to partake of the repast which their good master had invited them to. A numerous band of musicians played during the time, which was followed by a ballet, represented by the comedians of the court; and, at the end, the vocal

performers chanted a hymn, in honour of *Tien*, to return thanks for this particular day. The emperor then retired, and his ministers distributed to each of the company a present, with a wish, written upon it, 'That each might enjoy long life, and what they desired:' also a piece in verse, which the emperor had composed for the occasion, and which was nearly as follows: 'To the venerable ancients invited to the solemn feast, to rejoice with me, in memory of what was done before by my august uncle.'

'The blessings, which I have received from heaven, are without number: it is impossible for me to reckon them: but I cannot avoid expressing the peculiar happiness I feel, in having renewed this day, which has caused the most pleasing emotion in my heart, and which I shall ever call in pleasure to my memory, as having seen my princes and my people take their place by the side of their master, serving, and to be served, equally upon the same footing, without any distinction of rank, being equally happy as an assembly of friends, with the same motives of joy and gladness. This is the second time, by the special favour of God, that I have enjoyed the same sight, with the same feeling of heart. Our descendants will, no doubt, be penetrated with sentiments of the most tender veneration, when they read in history, that two emperors of my august race have celebrated, the one the sixtieth, and the other the fiftieth year of his reign; rejoicing, as in a family repast, with the whole empire, represented by the chosen of its aged people.'

With respect to the general character and temper of the Chinese, authors are much divided, some degrading them in the opinion of their readers, and others praising them in the most extravagant manner. It shall be our study, therefore, to avoid these extremes, and to extract the most impartial accounts of this truly singular people, from writers of acknowledged respectability.

Though naturally suspicious of strangers, they are eager to take advantage of them, and continually apply themselves to discover the inclinations, humours, and tempers, of those with whom they have any commerce; for, when they have an interest to manage, no people know better how to insinuate themselves into the good opinion of others, or to improve an opportunity to greater advantage. A foreigner is in continual danger of being cheated, if he trust to his own judgment; and, if he employ a factor, as is usual, both merchant and factor will unite to deceive him. Du Halde gives a striking example of the knavery and effrontery of a Chinese merchant: "The captain of an English vessel bargained with a person, at Canton, for several bales of silk, which the latter was to provide against a certain time. When they were ready, the captain went, with his interpreter, to the house of the merchant, in order to discover whether the goods were sound. On opening the first bale, he found it according to his wish, but the rest were damaged and good for nothing. The captain, irritated by this discovery, reproached the merchant, in the severest terms, for his dishonesty; but the Chinese, after having heard him for some time, replied, with perfect composure, "Blame, sir, your knave of an interpreter; for he assured me, that you would not inspect the bales."

"I myself," says a traveller, who was frequently in China, "bought a piece of stuff, for waistcoats and breeches, without looking over the whole of it, presuming it was all alike, and sent it to the taylor; but was much surprised, on his bringing them home, to find my waistcoat of different colours and substances.—A gentleman, of my acquaintance, went into a goldsmith's shop, to buy a gold head for his cane; the shop-keeper, having none of the kind he wanted, but silver ones, told him, he would make one to the pattern; but this head, afterwards, proved to be a silver one gilt, and was, probably, one of those which the gentleman had seen in the shop.—When I have been in shops, I have frequently had my handkerchief, or fan, stolen from me, and, on demanding them again, have only been laughed at.—I knew a poor sailor, who pulled out his purse to count a few dollars, which he had borrowed from the purser, to buy some necessaries for his homeward passage, and a Chinese, observing him, snatched the purse out of his hand, and ran off. Several persons saw this infamous action, yet not one of them attempted to stop the thief, but, on the contrary, laughed at the Englishman's simplicity, in endeavouring to recover it. At last the Chinese, finding his pursuer at his heels, threw the purse from him; but when the poor mariner took it up, he found, to his great mortification, that there was but one dollar left. Had he overtaken the thief, it is highly probable that the aggressor would have been rescued, and the sailor sent home to the factory half-dead with blows; for the mob are often so insolent to foreigners, as if there were neither law nor government in the country; excepting when a mandarin passes, and then they all stand aside, with their eyes fixed on the ground.

The lower class of people are very dexterous in counterfeiting and adulterating every thing they sell. Sometimes, a stranger thinks he has purchased a capon, when, in reality, he has only a skin; all the rest having been scooped out, and the cavity so ingeniously filled, that the deception cannot be discovered till it is cut up. The counterfeit hams of China have been often described. They are made of a piece of wood, cut in the form of a ham, and coated over with a certain kind of earth, which is covered with hog's-skin; and the whole is so curiously painted and prepared, that a knife is necessary to detect the fraud.

The Chinese are naturally litigious and vindictive; but their revenge is always taken secretly; and they will not

only dissemble their malice, but appear patient, even to insensibility, till they have a favourable opportunity to accomplish their design. It is but justice, however, to observe, that they possess many good and amiable qualities. They are mild and affable, circumspect in all their actions, and always weigh the consequences of things before they carry them into execution. Politeness is considered as a principle of morality, and all ranks of men are constantly used to it; so that tradesmen, servants, peasants, and even footmen, may be often seen taking leave of each other on their knees; farmers, in their rustic entertainments, use more compliments than the most brilliant circle of Europeans; and even seamen, who, from their manner of living, acquire a natural roughness, treat each other like brothers, and pay one another such deference, that a stranger might think them united in the strictest bonds of friendship.

Filial piety is a virtue universally revered in China. Indeed, no instance is known of a legislator's having been under the necessity of enforcing it by law; for it is not only considered as a natural duty, but an important point of religion, and a point that is always observed with the utmost strictness and attention. This duty seems to be the main support of the government; for, as patriotism formed the basis of the ancient republics, filial piety is here inculcated, not only to preserve harmony and felicity in private families, but that all subjects should behave to their prince as dutiful children; and that the sovereign should cherish and protect his subjects as the common father of the nation.

The observance of this virtue is one of the first maxims impressed on the infant mind, and is strongly inculcated in all the public schools. The law has, also, regulated all the relative obligations between children and parents, husbands and wives, uncles and nephews, &c. restraining, on the one hand, by gentle chastisement, and encouraging, on the other, by honorary rewards. A father has the merit of every great action which his son performs; and the emperor grants only to fathers, whether living or dead, those marks of distinction which their sons have merited.

If a father charge his son with any crime before a magistrate, the son is supposed to be guilty; and, if the offence be capital, he must lose his life, without any other evidence.

"If a son," says an intelligent writer, "presume to strike or deride his parent, the whole country is immediately alarmed, and the judgment is reserved for the emperor himself. The criminal is sentenced to be cut into ten thousand pieces, and afterwards burnt; his lands and tenements are destroyed; and even the houses that stood contiguous to his habitation are rased to the ground. The magistrates of the place are also turned out of office, and all the neighbourhood threatened, as having given countenance to so diabolical a temper; for it is supposed, that a man would never have arrived at such a degree of wickedness at once; but must have discovered his depraved disposition on other occasions, of which the magistrates or neighbours should have taken immediate cognizance.

"Even the emperors themselves cannot reject the authority of their parents without incurring the universal detestation of the nation; and their history contains an anecdote of this kind, which makes the filial piety of the Chinese appear truly amiable.

"One of their emperors had a mother, who provoked him, by an imprudent intrigue, to banish her into a distant province; and, because he knew that his conduct, in so doing, would not be agreeable to his courtiers, he positively forbade them, on pain of death, to make any remarks upon the subject. For some time they remained silent, hoping that he would soon see his error, and recal the author of his existence; but, as their hopes were disappointed, they at length resolved to interfere, and brave all danger, rather than suffer so pernicious a precedent. The first, who ventured to put up a request in this affair, was put to death on the spot; yet, a day or two afterwards, another made a similar attempt; and, to show the world that he was willing to sacrifice his life to the public good, he ordered his hearse to stand at the palace-gate: the emperor, rather provoked than affected by this noble action, sentenced the petitioner to die; and, to terrify all others from following his example, ordered him to be put to the torture. Still, however, the Chinese persisted in their resolution, and bravely resolved to perish, one after another, rather than pass over in silence a base action. A third, therefore, ordered his coffin to be set at the palace-gate, and protested to the emperor, that he could no longer see him persist in his crime without remonstrating. 'What shall we lose by our death,' said he, 'but the sight of a prince, on whom we cannot look without amazement and horror? Since you will not hear us, we will go and seek out your ancestors, and those of the empress your mother; *they* will hear our complaints, and, perhaps, in the darkness and silence of the night, you may hear their ghosts and ours reproach you for your injustice.' The monarch was exasperated beyond all bounds at the boldness of his subjects, and inflicted on this petitioner, with many others, the severest torments he could devise. At length, however, after great numbers had voluntarily perished in this noble struggle, the emperor repented of his cruelty, and recalled his mother to the enjoyment of her former dignities; by which means he conciliated the esteem of his courtiers, and engaged the affection of all his faithful subjects.

"On the first day of every year, acknowledgments of duty and respect are renewed in the emperor's family, as well as in that of every loyal citizen and villager. About

sun-rise, all the mandarins of the different tribunals repair to the palace, dressed in their official robes, and the royal family and household, with distinguished badges, appear in their respective places. The emperor then leaves his chamber, to pay his respects to his mother, in an adjoining apartment. He is carried there in a chair of state, but quits it on entering the hall of audience; and the president of the tribunal of ceremonies presents a petition from the emperor, requesting her imperial majesty to receive, on her throne, the humble marks of duty and affection, which he is about to pay her. This is carried to the empress, in her apartment, and she immediately comes forth, dressed in a habit of ceremony, and followed by her whole court. When she has ascended the throne, the emperor and his suit approach, to the sound of soft music, and a mandarin cries out, *kneel*. Immediately the emperor, princes, and grandees, fall on their knees; and, on the mandarin's crying out, *prostrate yourselves*, they throw themselves on their faces. After nine prostrations, they all rise; a petition is presented to the emperor, from his mother, requesting him to return to his own apartments; the music again breathes some melodious strains; and the emperor returns to his own hall of audience, where he receives the compliments of the nobility.

"Besides this ceremony on new year's day, the emperor is obliged to visit his mother every five days, during his life; and an emperor, newly proclaimed, cannot receive the homage of his grandees, till he has first paid his respects to his mother. He never takes a wife without her consent, never bestows any principalities upon his children, nor grants any favour to his people, without previously consulting her. In short, the Chinese are of opinion, that the filial piety of their prince augments all the virtues of his subjects; that all wickedness commences with disobedience to parents; that every virtue is in danger when filial piety is attacked; that every thing which tends to promote this duty is a pillar to the state; and that every thing which militates against it is a public calamity."

The funeral-rites of the Chinese are considered as the most important of their ceremonies. A few minutes after a man has expired, he is dressed in his richest apparel, adorned with every badge of his dignity, and placed in the coffin; which is generally made of very durable wood, varnished, and sometimes gilt. The preparation of a coffin, in which the body may be enclosed after death, is one of the chief objects of attention to a Chinese during his life, and great sums are often expended on it; so that persons of opulence sometimes lay out a thousand crowns: the poorer classes will often expend all they are worth; and, in cases of extreme poverty, a son will sell himself for a slave, in order to puchase a coffin for his father; which, perhaps, shall remain twenty or thirty years useless, but is considered as the most valuable piece of furniture belonging to the family. The manner of interment is as follows: First, they sprinkle some lime on the bottom of the coffin, and lay the body on it, taking care to place the head on a pillow, and to add a great deal of cotton, that it may remain steady. The body generally remains exposed seven days, and, during this time, all the friends, who have been invited, come and pay their respects to the deceased, the nearest relations remaining in the house. The coffin is then placed in the hall of ceremony, which is hung with white linen, interspersed with pieces of black or violet-coloured silk. Before the coffin is placed a table, on which stands the effigy of the deceased, or a carved ornament, inscribed with his name; and these are always accompanied with flowers, perfumes, and lighted tapers. In the mean time, all the sons of the deceased, clothed in linen and girded with cords, stand on one side of the coffin, in a mournful posture, whilst the widow and her daughters stand on the other side, behind a curtain, occasionally uttering dismal cries. During the time that the corpse is thus kept, there are tables, covered every morning with tea and sweetmeats; the persons, who come to pay their respects, are ushered in and out by a relation, appointed for that purpose; and a large sheet of paper is hung over the gate, expressing the name and quality of the deceased, and giving a short detail of his life and actions.

On the day of burial, the relations are again assembled, and most of them attend the corpse to the place of interment, in the following order: A number of men march in file, carrying pasteboard figures of slaves, elephants, lions, tigers, &c. Others follow with flags, censers filled with perfumes, and tables of sweetmeats; while melancholy and plaintive airs are played on drums, bells, and other instruments. Immediately after the musicians follows the coffin, which is carried under a canopy of violet-coloured silk, neatly embroidered, and covered with network. The eldest son, clothed in a canvas frock, having his body bent, and leaning on a staff, follows near the coffin; behind him are his brothers, two and two, leaning on crutches, as if unable to support themselves; and the procession is closed with the mother and daughters, carried in close chairs, and all the other relations and friends of the deceased, in mourning.

When they arrive at the place of interment, the coffin is deposited in a tomb; and, at a small distance, there are several temporary halls, with tables covered with provisions, and served up with great splendour to the mourners and attendants. The repast is sometimes followed by fresh marks of homage to the deceased; but these are generally dispensed with, and the company content themselves with complimenting the eldest son; who, however, answers only by signs. But, if the deceased were a grandee of the empire, his relations do not leave the tomb for a month or two, but reside in apart-

ments prepared for them, and renew their homage every day.

The generality of the Chinese have such a profound veneration for the burying-places of their ancestors, that no consideration can induce them to travel into remote parts of the world: and they seem to despise those of their countrymen, who, for the sake of trade, or other causes, go to the adjacent islands; because they imagine that these men must leave their bones in unhallowed ground.

Persons of rank are commonly buried in mountains, or in solitary places, remote from towns; and some of their sepulchres are very magnificent. If a tomb be erected in a valley or plain, a large heap of earth is raised over it, and covered with white plaster, so that no wet can penetrate it. In the vault, an altar is erected, and covered with meats, incense, lighted tapers, and figures of slaves and animals, which are supposed to be serviceable to the dead in another state. And, if the defunct held any considerable office, his most virtuous actions are engraved on marble, and fixed up in front of the tomb; while a number of figures, representing officers, eunuchs, horses, stags, camels, lions, and elephants, are ranged round in different rows; and groves of aged cypresses preserve an awful and melancholy gloom, which is calculated to make a deeper impression on the contemplative mind, than the costly decorations of funeral-monuments in Europe.

Every family of respectability has a large building, called the hall of ancestors, erected on some part of their estates, which is common for all the branches of that family. In this hall, a long table is set against the wall, on which are painted the figures of their progenitors, who have rendered themselves illustrious by their talents, or who have honourably filled some office under government. Sometimes, however it contains only the names of men, women, and children, belonging to the family, with their ages and dignities, inscribed upon tablets.

In spring, the relations assemble at this hall; and the most opulent of them prepare a banquet, which seems to have been originally designed for the dead; for they never touch any of the viands till an offering has been solemnly made. But, exclusive of these annual entertainments, the Chinese consider themselves obliged to visit the tombs of their ancestors once or twice a year; when they begin by plucking up the weeds and bushes that surround the sepulchre, and conclude by placing wine and provisions upon it, which serve to regale their assistants.

History.] The national antiquity, to which the Chinese pretend, exceeds all credibility; as their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have been the first man; and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But, upon an accurate investigation of this subject, it appears, that all their historical events, prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, and full of contradictions. It appears, also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. The imperial annals are comprehended in six hundred and sixty-eight volumes; and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions, of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts which concern the monarchy, since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and, from age to age, have been chronologically arranged, under the inspection of government, with all possible precautions against illusion or partiality. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of their sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian era, ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose the changes which he proposed to introduce. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books: yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient records that yet remained; but, though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears, that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few; and that they are still in smaller numbers for more remote periods.

Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different tribes and families of succession, are enumerated in the annals of the Chinese. Yet neither Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire; and neither of them could keep the conquests they made. The celebrated wall of China, however, proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. At this period, the war with the Mandshur Tartars continued, and, in addition to this calamity, there was a great famine in China. The reigning monarch, Hoai-tsong, a worthless indolent man, suffered himself to be directed in every thing by his ministers and eunuchs, who greatly oppressed the people: a revolt was the consequence; and, in a short space of time, there were eight different factions, under the same number of chiefs. These were, however, afterwards reduced to two, and, at length, to one, headed by a commander named Li, who invaded the

provinces of Ho-nan and Shen-si, and assumed the imperial title.

This usurper committed the most dreadful ravages. In his attack of Cuif-ong, the capital of Ho-nan, that town was inundated, by a sudden breaking down of the dykes of the Yellow River, and three hundred thousand persons perished. He afterwards marched to Pekin, and entered without the least opposition; for he had privately conveyed into the city a number of his people, in disguise, who threw open the gates: and such was the supineness of Hoai-tsong, the emperor, that he knew nothing of this circumstance, till the usurper had laid the whole city under his subjection. As soon, however, as he heard the news, he marched from his palace, at the head of six hundred of his guards, who treacherously abandoned him. In this dilemma, he retired into the gardens of his palace, with his daughter, whom he beheaded, and then hung himself upon a tree. His wives, his prime minister, and some of his eunuchs, also terminated their own existence.

The news of this event soon reached the troops, then making war in Tartary, under the command of a general named Ou-sang-guey, who refused to acknowledge Li as his sovereign; on which the latter put himself at the head of his army, for the purpose of giving him battle. Ou-sang-guey shut himself up in a strong fortified town, whither Li marched his troops, and, having taken captive the father of Ou-sang-guey, ordered him to be loaded with irons, and placed at the foot of the town-wall, sending word to his son, at the same time, that if he did not immediately surrender, his father should be sacrificed. The father found means to send a message to his son, begging him to surrender; but the son sacrificed his filial esteem to the interests of his country, and the old man was put to a cruel death. On this, Ou-sang-guey, inflamed with rage, concluded a peace with the Mandshur Tartars, and engaged them to enter into an alliance with him against Li, whose superior force he was unable to resist.

Tsong-te, the king of these Tartars, readily came to his assistance, at the head of eighty thousand warriors, forced the usurper to raise the siege, pursued him even to Pekin, and so totally routed his army, that he was forced to fly into the province of Shen-si, where he spent the remainder of his days in obscurity. Ou-sang-guey, however, soon had cause to repent having joined so great and powerful a prince; for Tsong-te no sooner arrived at Pekin, than he began to think of improving the success of his arms, and the favourable disposition of the people, into the means of his advancement to the throne of China; but, being seized with an illness, that speedily brought on his dissolution, he had just time to declare his son emperor, who was only about six years of age. This election was confirmed by the grandees and people, who, in consideration of the signal services done by the father, connived at the tender age of the child, who assumed the name of Tchuntchi, and is considered as the founder of the twenty-second dynasty.

This revolution, which united a considerable part of Great Tartary to the Chinese empire, happened in the year 1644: and, since the union, the Tartars seem rather to have submitted to the laws of the Chinese, than to have imposed any upon them. In fact, the latter may be said to derive as much advantage from it as the Tartars themselves. Both nations, so opposite in genius and character, have each been considerably benefited by the incorporation. The fierce spirit of the Tartar has given a degree of martial ardour to the peaceful temper of the Chinese, while the arts and commerce of the latter have humanized and softened the savage roughness of the former.

Two memorable events in the annals of China happened in the years 1771 and 1772, when a nation of the Tartars left their settlements under the Russian government, on the banks of the Wolga and Yaik, near the Caspian Sea, and, in a vast body of many thousand families, passed through the country of the Hassack, when, after a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontiers of Carapan, and offered themselves as subjects to the Emperor Kien-long, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture. The following year, a second emigration of several thousand Tartar families took place, who also quitted their settlements under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these migrations to be engraved upon stone, in four different languages.

The English opened their first commercial intercourse with China in the year 1634, pursuant to a licence granted by King Charles I. They long had many obstacles to encounter, in consequence of the superior influence of the Dutch and Portuguese; but, at present, they are the most favoured nation; although, through the prejudices and jealousies of the principal mandarins, the object of Lord Macartney's splendid embassy was rendered abortive.

Kien-long, the late emperor, ascended the throne in 1736, and died February 11, 1799. He was succeeded by Ka-king, the present emperor, who, immediately on his accession, degraded and imprisoned Hoo-choong-taung, the prime minister of his predecessor. This minister was in power at the time of the embassy, and was supposed to be very hostile to the object of it; his disgrace, therefore, excited a hope, that such another attempt might prove successful; but the failure of the late Russian embassy has proved, that no advantages are to be derived by negociations with China.

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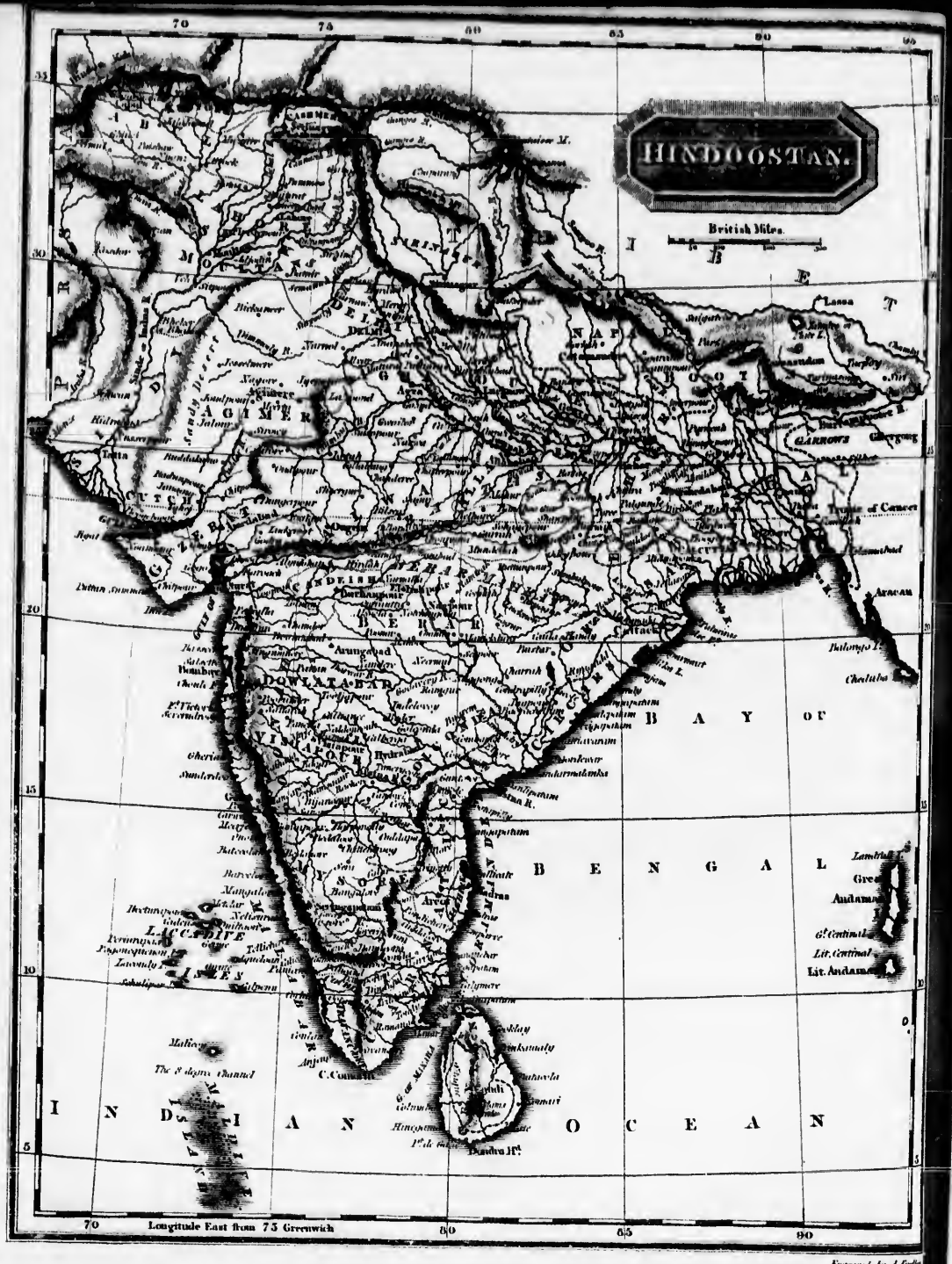

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CHAPTER III.

HINDOOSTAN.

Name and Boundaries.

HINDOOSTAN, or India within the Ganges, appears to have received its name from the river *Indus*, to which has been added the Persian termination *stan*, signifying a country. In former times it was called the empire of the Great Mogul, because it was then subject to the successors of Tamerlane; but such is the instability of human greatness, that the present mogul, a lineal descendant of that emperor, is merely a nominal prince, of little or no importance in the politics of the country. The boundaries of Hindoostan are, Tibet on the north; the bay of Bengal on the east; the Indian Ocean on the south; and Persia on the west.

Divisions.] Various arrangements have been adopted by geographers in their divisions of this extensive region; but the most simple and perspicuous is that of Major Rennell; who divides Hindoostan into four parts, viz. the provinces on the river Ganges,—those on the river Indus,—the central provinces,—and the southern provinces.

The provinces on the Ganges are those of Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude and Agra, with part of Delhi, and Agimere.

Those on the river Indus comprise Lahor, Cassimere, Cabul, Candahar, Moultan, and Sindi.

The central provinces are those of Guzerat, Berar, Orissa, Sircars, and Dowlatabad.

And the eastern provinces comprehend Madura, Tanjore, the Carnatic, the Decean, Golconda, Mysore, and the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel.

British Possessions.] The British possessions in Hindoostan are computed at about two hundred and thirteen thousand square miles; their population at between twelve and fourteen millions of inhabitants; and the revenues arising from them at about three millions and a half sterling. They consist of three distinct governments; viz. that of Calcutta, or Bengal, on the Ganges; that of Madras, on the coast of Coromandel; and that of Bombay, on the Gulf of Cambaya; to which are added the districts ceded by Tippoo Saib, in 1792; and the territory appropriated by the East-India Company after the taking of Seringapatam.

Climate, Seasons, Soil, &c.] Notwithstanding the great extent of this country, the climate and seasons are generally very regular; as the winds blow six months from the south, and six from the north, with little variation. The months of April and May, and the beginning of June, are so sultry, that the reflection from the ground is apt to blister the face of a European; and the coldest day is hotter at noon than the hottest day in England. A breeze, or small gale of wind, however, blows every day, which is a great relief to the inhabitants. From Surat to Agra, and beyond, it seldom rains, excepting from the middle of June to the middle of September. During that season, it generally rains every day, and sometimes for a week together, without intermission; by which means the land is enriched, and the surface of the ground, which previously resembled the barren sands of Arabia, is soon covered with verdure. When the rainy season is over, the sky resumes its former serenity, and scarcely a cloud is to be seen during the remainder of the year. A refreshing dew, however, descends every night, which tends equally to fertilize the earth, and to cool the air.

The soil is, in many parts, so excellent, as to consist of black vegetable mould, to the depth of six feet. Rice is the principal grain; and, on the dry sandy lands of the coast of Coromandel, great industry is displayed in watering it. Maize and the sugar-cane are also favourite products. The cultivation of cotton also is widely diffused; and this plant particularly thrives on the dry coast of Coromandel. There is 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. The fertility of the land, however, amply compensates for any defect in practice or industry. The harvest is divided into two periods, the former being in September and October, and the latter in March and April.

Rivers.] The principal river in Hindoostan is the Ganges, which 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. Its source is still a curious object of investigation; for there cannot be much reliance placed on its delineation in the Chinese map of Tibet, published by Du Halde. Anquetil du Perron considers the source of the Ganges as still unexplored; and says, that the Chinese missionaries only discovered that of the Gagra, a large river running parallel with the Ganges on the east, and joining that noble stream above Chupra. The researches

of the jesuit Tieffenthaler seem to evince, that the Gagra springs from a lake called Lanken, to the west of the lake of Mansoror, whence one source of the Ganges is supposed to flow. He has laid down the latitude of the noted Gangoutra, or Cow's Mouth, in latitude thirty-three degrees, being a celebrated cataract, where the Ganges is said to pass through a vast cavern in a mountain, and falls 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, the Ganges is said to enter the wide plains of Hindoostan; and pursue 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. Being navigable throughout, and thus affording the means of commercial intercourse, it has obtained the adoration of the inhabitants of its banks, from the innumerable benefits it continually bestows upon them; and it has been worshipped as a divinity since the period when, according to tradition, Madam Durga plunged into it, and disappeared. They relate, that this woman was their legislator; that, when she became superannuated, she descended to the bottom of the Ganges, and that she still resides there.

To the superstitious belief attached to this story many poor creatures have fallen victims. It is believed, that every one who is drowned in the Ganges is destined to enjoy, with this fair personage, eternal happiness, and that it is by her contrivance and interposition that accidents of this kind happen. When a man, therefore, is in danger of drowning, instead of endeavouring to extricate him, the by-standers wish him every kind of pleasure, recommend themselves to his favour, and even, if necessary, forward the catastrophe, or, at least, are afraid of incurring the displeasure of their fair divinity by assisting him to reach the shore. It is seldom, however, that they have occasion to extend so far their inhuman zeal towards any of their countrymen; for a native, who happens to fall into the water, persuading himself that he is going to enjoy eternal happiness, has no desire to escape from it.

The Hindoos bathe at least once a day; and men, women, and children, go into the water together, without the smallest idea of indecency. They leave their shoes on the bank, and sprinkle themselves as they enter the river: when they are up to the middle in water, they take off the piece of cloth which goes round their loins, and wash it, perform the ablutions directed by their religion, put on their apron again, and come out. Some Bramins often come to bathe, bringing with them a small brass vessel, of the shape of a censer, in which are some grains, about the size of a pea: these they throw, one at a time, into the river, uttering, in a low tone of voice, a prayer or two. They then sprinkle themselves slightly on the back, touch their temples with the first joint of their thumb, wash their apron, and retire.

Besides the ceremonies observed in bathing, the Hindoos make offerings to the Ganges, of oil, cocoa, and flowers, which they expose on its banks, to be washed away by the stream. When they have a friend at sea, and wish to offer vows for his return, they light in the evening some small lamps, filled with cocoa-oil, and placing them in earthern dishes, which they adorn with garlands, they commit them to the stream. If the dish sink speedily, it is a bad omen for the object of their vows; but, if they can observe their lamp shining at a distance, they indulge the most pleasing hopes; and, if it go so far as to be at length out of sight, without being extinguished, it is considered as a sure token that their friend will return in safety.

"This Madam Durga, who has deified the Ganges," says a modern writer, "is held in great veneration: her festival is celebrated every year, in the month of October, and, while it lasts, nothing is known but rejoicing; the natives visit each other, and, on three successive evenings, assemble together for the adoration of their divinity. Her statue is placed in a small niche of clay, which is gilt, and adorned with flowers, pieces of tinsel, and other similar ornaments. The statue itself is dressed in the most magnificent attire they can procure, is about a foot high, and the niche, with its appendages, about three feet six inches All the opulent Hindoos celebrate a festival of this kind in their own houses, and are ambitious of displaying the greatest luxury, lighting up their apartments in the most splendid manner. There is one of these celebrations, at least, in every quarter of the town; so that all the inhabitants have an opportunity of paying their devotions. The room is furnished with seats for the guests, and the statue is placed on a small stage, concealed by a curtain. The curtain being drawn up by the servants, a concert begins, in which the principal instrument is a sort of bag-pipe. The reed of this not being flexible, and the performer being wholly ignorant how to modulate its tone, nothing can be less musical than the sound it produces, unless it be the tunes that are played upon it: the most vile and discordant clarionet is melody itself, compared with this instrument, which would literally split the ears of any other audience. In the midst of this concert the pantomime is introduced, in which the personages of the scene, uncouthly dressed, and insupportably disgusting, from the rancid odour of the oil of cocoa, exhibit some ridiculous tricks, calculated to amuse the honest Indians, who laugh heartily, and give themselves up to the most extravagant joy. For two days every kind of respect and adoration is paid to the idol: but, on the third, appearances alter:—they abuse it, call it a prostitute, and load it with execra-

tions: this done, they take it upon their shoulders, and carry it to the banks of the Ganges, followed by the horrid din of the bag-pipe; where, reiterating their curses, they throw it into the water, amidst the most frightful cries and howling, and leave it to its fate.

"It is not easy to discover the drift of this ceremony. The Bramins say, in confidence, that the festival of Madam Durga was instituted to perpetuate and honour her memory, to retain the people in a devotion, which had for its object to give a character of sacredness to the Ganges, and thus enforce the precept, which enjoined the salutary practices of frequent ablution and bathing: but this lady not being the supreme deity, it was proper to conclude the ceremony with acts of insult, which would convince the people, that Bramah alone was entitled to the unmixed and never-ceasing adoration of mankind."

The noblest tributary stream of the Ganges is the Burrampooter. The course of this river, and its junction with the Ganges, were first ascertained by Major Rennell, in 1765. It runs four hundred miles through the British territory; and, for the last sixty miles before its junction with the Ganges, its breadth is from four to five miles. It unites with the Ganges below Luckipour, where the mingled streams form a body of running fresh water, resembling a gulf of the sea, interspersed with islands, some of which rival in size and fertility the Isle of Wight. In the months of the Ganges, and the Burrampooter, the sudden influx of the tide will rise instantaneously to the height of from five to twelve feet.

The course of the Burrampooter 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.

The other principal tributary streams which swell the Ganges, are the Gagra, the Jumna or Yumena, and the Soan. The Gagra, after pursuing a long course from the mountains of Tibet, passes through the province of Oude; and its comparative course is about seven hundred miles.

The Jumna rises from the mountains of Sirinagur, pursuing nearly a parallel course to the Ganges on the west, as the Gagra does on the east; but its comparative course does not exceed five hundred miles. The Soan is said to spring from the same lake or source with the Nerbudda, (which flows in an opposite direction to the Gulf of Cambay,) and joins the Ganges at a short distance below its union with the Gagra.

The Indus, and its confluent streams, are next in importance to the Ganges. The source of this river, like that of the Ganges, remains unknown; though it seems to rise from the eastern side of the Belur Tag, or Cloudy Mountains of Little Bucharia; its comparative course may be about a thousand British miles, when it forms a delta, in the province of Sindi, entering, by several mouths, the Indian Ocean.

The tributary rivers of the Indus chiefly join it in the northern half of its course, where they form the Panjab, or the 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, the Chunab, the Rauve, the Setlege, and the Hyphasis.

The Godaveri, which rises at Trimbuck Nassor, in the western Gauts, from several sources, about seventy miles to the north-east of Bombay, was little known in Europe till recent times. About ninety miles above its egress into the sea, it receives the Bain Gonga, which pervades several vast forests, in a singular wild country, inhabited by uncivilized people, in the centre of Hindoostan. The Bain Gonga was first discovered to Europeans by the late Colonel Camac; its course is about four hundred miles, while that of the Godaveri is about seven hundred. This last river, like another Nile or Ganges, fertilizes the country; and, from the benefits which it confers, is esteemed sacred.

The next in consequence, in the central division of Hindoostan, is the Nerbudda, which may be called a solitary stream, as it receives few contributions. It course is almost due west, and about equal to that of the Godaveri.

The Deccan, or most southern part of Hindoostan, is bounded and enriched by the Kistna, which rises at Balisur, not far to the south of Poonah, and forms a delta near Masulipatam, after a comparative course of about five hundred miles. This river rivals any Indian stream in the fertility diffused by its inundations: while the richest diamond-mines in the world are found in the neighbouring hills to the north.

To the south of the Kistna is the Caveri, another large and sacred stream, which passes by Seringapatam, 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.

Lakes.] The lakes of Hindoostan are few in number Rennel mentions that of Colair, which, during the inundations, is about forty or fifty miles in extent, and is a considerable piece of water in all seasons; it is situated about mid-way between the Godaveri and Kistna, in the new soil gradually formed by the inundations of these rivers, about twelve miles to the north of Masulipatam. That of Chilka bounds the British Sircars on the north, and is a kind of salt creek, communicating with the sea: the lake of Pullicat is of a similar kind. One or two lakes are to be found in the vicinity of the Ganges and the Indus; and the country of Cassimire is supposed to have been originally a large lake, as reported in the native traditions: indeed, a considerable expanse of water still remains in the northern part of this country, called

the lake of Ouller, and is about fifty-three miles in circumference.

Mountains.] The mountains chiefly celebrated by the Hindoos may be said to be only visible from their country, being the northern chain of the Tibetian Alps, covered with perpetual snow: for which cause they are called Himmala, from a word denoting snow. But there appears much confusion, even in the most recent delineations of the Indian ranges of mountains, and their exact denominations. The eastern ridge, called, by Ptolemy, Sepyrus, may now be called Tipera. Those on the south of Asam may be styled the Garro mountains, being inhabited by a people of that name. The ridges to the south of Nipai and Bootan are far inferior in height to the Himmala.

The mountains to the west of the Indus, on the Persian frontier, may be taken for the Besius and Parvetius of Ptolemy; but the modern names are not accurately known.

The Gauts rise abruptly on each side, but particularly on the west, forming, as it were, enormous walls, supporting a high terrace in the middle, and pass through a great part of the Mahratta territories, to the north of Mysore. Opposite to Paniany, on the western coast, there is a break or interruption of 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.

Forests.] In this extensive portion of Asia, a great part of which remains in primitive wildness, there are many large forests, particularly near the mouth of the Ganges, and in the wide unexplored regions on the west of the Circars. These forests surpass, in exuberance of vegetation, any idea which Europeans can form: creeping plants, of prodigious size and length, extended from tree to tree, form an impenetrable gloom, and a barrier, as it were, sacred to the first mysteries of nature.

The most prominent feature in the Indian 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. The coasts of Malabar and Coromandel abound with cocoa-nut trees, the fruit of which supplies an agreeable nutriment, and the fibrous covering of the nut is manufactured into elastic cables. The areca-palm is also cultivated throughout India, for its nuts; which, mixed with the leaves of the betel-pepper, and a little quick-lime, 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 used for rafters; and the palm-toddy, the common distilled spirit of the country, is made from its juice. 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. Other fruit-bearing trees are so numerous, that they are little known, even by name, to Europeans. The pillaw is a tree of equal singularity and use: from its trunk and largest branches are produced large fibrous bags, sometimes of the weight of twenty-five pounds, which are filled with nuts, like the chesnut, and resembling the almond in flavour. The mango is reckoned the most exquisite of the Indian fruits, and is found in considerable abundance, both wild and cultivated, through the whole peninsula.

Animals.] The cattle of Hindoostan 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, of various beautiful kinds, abound, particularly that called the Nyl-Ghau. Apes and monkeys are numerous in various parts of Hindoostan; and the ourang-outang is said to be found in the vast forests on the west of the Circars. 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, who are rendered doubly miserable by the fanatical prejudices of the system of the Bramins. The other animals are wild boars, tigers, bears, wolves, foxes, jackalls, and hyenas.

Elephants are common in all parts of India, and are trained to every sort of employment, even to hunting the tiger. It is customary to fasten on the back of this huge animal a pavilion, large enough to hold five or six persons, who ascend to it by a ladder, which is afterwards suspended from the crupper. When a tiger is to be hunted, the persons, who engage in the amusement, get into this pavilion, and have several well-trained dogs, that beat the country before them. The elephant follows the dogs till he gets scent of the tiger, which he does, generally, at a great distance. Immediately he raises his trunk into the air, like the mast of a ship, and seems anxious to keep it from being laid hold of by his enemy. On this signal the hunters prepare to fire.

In the mean time, the dogs press upon the tiger, which, on perceiving the elephant, stands immoveable, with his mouth open and his claws extended, roaring dreadfully, and attentively watching every motion of the elephant. The latter approaches within the length of his trunk, which he still keeps erect, and out of danger: the two animals, for a moment, look at each other, and this is the time when the hunters usually fire. The shot makes the tiger start, on which the elephant seizes him, and, dexterously lifting him up with his trunk, and letting him fall again,

crushes him to death, by treading upon him, and forces his entrails through the wounds. Whenever a tiger makes his appearance near any place that is inhabited, he is hunted in this manner.

The birds which abound in India are of all the varieties known in other countries. Among the fish are dolphins, botenas, and albicores. The former has not the faintest resemblance to the descriptions of that fish, as given by our painters: it is as straight a fish as any that swims, and has a bright golden colour, appearing through a beautiful azure that is mixed with it. The fish is no sooner out of its element, than its colour begins to fade. There are many sorts of shell-fish on the coast of India, particularly oysters, which are little inferior to those caught on the coast of England.

The inhabitants of India are annoyed by swarms of insects and reptiles, such as musquitos, bugs, scorpions, snakes, and particularly serpents.

Travellers, who are not sufficient naturalists to class the latter, usually distinguish three principal sorts: First, the minute-serpent, which is a small black sort, with yellow rings, found frequently in pasture-land. The corrosive matter contained in the vesicles of this reptile is so sharp and violent, that it causes almost instantaneous death. The general opinion of the vulgar is, that a person may live just as many minutes after being bit, as the animal has rings round its body; and hence it is called the *minute-serpent*

The second description of serpent is that called by the Portuguese *capella*, from a word in their language, signifying a cloak. It has a membrane on each side of the head, which, whenever the animal is irritated, rises up, and forms a kind of head-dress, that gives it a very beautiful appearance. This serpent is extremely venomous; but alkali cures its bite. The third species is the house-serpent, which is neither dangerous nor irritable. It even glides into the cradles of infants, without occasioning the least accident. Yet an emotion of horror is naturally excited on finding it in a human dwelling. As soon, therefore, as one of these reptiles is discovered, care is taken to destroy it; or, if it is to be caught, an enchanter is sent for.

This man arrives loaded with baskets, containing various kinds of snakes and serpents. His legs are furnished with a description of rings, which hang loosely on the ancle. These rings are cut in two, breadthwise, and the two parts hollowed, so that, at each motion of the juggler's foot, the two sides strike against each other, and produce a shrill noise, resembling the sound of a brass basin when struck with a hammer. Another instrument is also employed, called a drone bag-pipe; the noise of which is so great, that the serpent, stunned and overcome by it, is easily taken.

The enchanter begins by making the serpents in the baskets dance; but he does not expose them till he has played some time to stupify them a little; yet, in spite of this precaution, as soon as the baskets are opened, the capelles, in particular, seem inclined to be angry; and, on being provoked, they rise up, and assume a threatening posture. The man keeps near them, and strikes occasionally with his foot to stupify them. When the right effect is produced, a giddiness takes place, the eye loses its lustre, and the serpent, by attempting to balance itself, exhibits the appearance of dancing.

The serpent that is to be caught, attracted by the noise, is sure to leave its retreat, and, on the sight of its fellow-creatures, it readily joins them, follows their example, and soon partakes of their supineness. The conjuror then puts a basket over its head, and, shutting it up, carries it off with the rest.

Minerals.] The diamond is found in beds of torrents, or in yellow ferruginous earth, under rocks of quartz, or sand-stone. The principal diamond-mines are those near Visiapour and Golconda, both near streams that flow into the Kistna, in the southern division of Hindoostan; Golconda being in the territory of the Nizam, while Visiapour belongs to the Mahrattas.

Antiquities.] The ancient monuments of Hindoostan are very numerous, and of various descriptions, exclusive of the tombs and other edifices of the Mahometan conquerors. But the most remarkable are those in the island of Elephanta, near Bombay; which have been thus described by the Rev. T. Smith, in his Wonders of Nature and Art:—

"The elephanta cave may be justly ranked among the most interesting antiquities of India; for it has not only excited the attention of every curious traveller, but ingenuity has been literally tortured, and conjecture almost exhausted, by the reiterated attempts of the learned to discover the era of its excavation, the purpose for which it was originally designed, and the true meaning of those hieroglyphic figures, which are still to be seen sculptured on the walls.

"This cave presents itself about half way up the ascent of the rocky hill, from whose bosom it is excavated; and the principal entrance is from the north. The massy roof is supported by four rows of columns, regularly disposed, but of an order in architecture different from any in modern use. Each pillar stands upon a square pedestal, and is finely fluted; but, instead of being cylindrical, gradually bulges out towards the centre. The capital is also fluted, and has the appearance of a cushion pressed flat by the enormous weight of the superincumbent mountain. Above these columns there runs a stone ridge, resembling a beam, cut out of the rock, and richly adorned with carved work; and along the sides of the cavern are

ranged forty or fifty colossal statues, which, as well as the pillars, are shaped in the solid rock. Some of these figures wear rich diadems; others have on their heads a sort of pyramidal helmet; and others display only bushy ringlets of curled or flowing hair. Many of them have four or six hands, in which they grasp the weapons of war and the trophies of peace, the symbols of justice and the ensigns of religion. Some of their countenances are extremely terrific, and some are marked with an air of deep dejection, while others are distinguished by a placid and serene benignity.

"At the upper end of the cave, amidst a profusion of sculpture, appears an enormous bust, with three heads, which is supposed to represent the great triple deity of India, *Brahma*, *Veeshnu*, and *Seeva*. The middle face, which is presented full, and expresses a dignified composure, is upwards of five feet in length, and nearly four in width. The face on the right was probably designed to represent the amiable attribute of the preserver *Veeshnu*, as the face is illumined with smiles, and gazes, enamoured, on a bunch of flowers, which its left-hand holds up to view: the right-hand holds a fruit, resembling a pomegranate, and on one of the wrists appears a ring, like that worn by the modern Hindoos. But the head on the left is certainly designed to express the dreadful attributes of the destroyer *Mahadeo;* for the features appear distorted by contempt and fury; serpents supply the place of hair; the tongue is violently thrust out between the teeth; the representation of a human skull is conspicuous on the covering of the head; and the right-hand grasps a hooded snake, which appears to be about a foot in thickness. Each side of this niche is supported by a gigantic figure, leaning on a dwarf.

"To the right of the grand bust, stands a large figure, which most travellers have denominated an *Amazon*, from the circumstance of its having no right breast, while the left is remarkably large and globular. This statue has four arms; the foremost right-hand rests upon the head of a bull; the other grasps a hooded snake; and in the inner left hand is a circular shield, which the figure turns toward itself: the head is richly ornamented. On the right stands a male figure, bearing a pronged instrument, somewhat like a trident; on the left is a female, holding a sceptre; and near the principal is a beautiful youth, sitting on an elephant. Above these are two curious figures, the one having four heads, and the other four arms; and at the top of the niche appears a groupe of small statues, supported by clouds.

"In a niche, on the left of the great bust, is a male figure, having four arms, and measuring nearly seventeen feet in height; and further to the left stands a female, about fifteen feet high, whose countenance is peculiarly soft and gentle. In the back-ground appear one figure with four heads, supported by birds; another with four arms, seated on the shoulders of a man; and several smaller ones in attendance.

"On each side of these curious groupes is a small dark room, which, in ancient times, was probably sacred to the unpolluted Bramins; but is now occupied by bats, spiders, snakes, and scorpions. Captain Hamilton informs us, that, upon his entrance into the cave of Elephanta, he discharged a pistol, on purpose to drive away those dangerous creatures; and that, at the sound, a huge serpent, fifteen feet long and two feet thick, issued from a dark recess, which compelled him and his companions to make a precipitate retreat.

"To the left of the last described groupe is another, in which a male appears leading a female toward a majestic figure, seated in the corner of the niche, and wearing a head-dress, somewhat similar to that of a European judge on the bench: the countenance and attitude of the female are highly expressive of modesty and timid reluctance; but a male seems to follow, and urge her forward.

"In another niche, about fifty feet nearer the entrance, a very singular figure arrests the attention of every spectator. Its features are distorted, its mouth is wide open, and its whole aspect inexpressibly terrible. This statue, the limbs of which are carved in a gigantic style, has eight arms, but only six of them are now perfect. The two uppermost of those that remain are widely extended, and support a sort of canopy, upon which are sculptured various figures, in attitudes of adoration. One of the right hands grasps a sabre, and the other sustains, by the thigh, an infant, whom the furious monster seems about to destroy. Of the two left-hands, the uppermost holds a bell, which is constantly used in the religious ceremonies of the Hindoos, and the lower one supports what M. Niebuhr thinks a basin, to catch the blood of the infant; but what Mr. Hunter affirms, at the time of his visit, actually contained the mutilated figure of a child, with its face averted from the gigantic figure, and exceedingly bent; so that the head, which is now broken off, must have hung back very low, and have exhibited a horrid spectacle. Each arm of the great statue is decorated with bracelets, and on one of them is a chain of human skulls, which evidently shadow forth the destroying deity of India. Above and below this figure are several smaller statues, all of which have the sensations of distress and horror strongly depicted upon their countenances.

"On the opposite side of the cave are the figures of a man and woman, sitting, as the people of Hindoostan do at present, with an attendant on each side: at the feet of the male is the figure of a bull couchant; and in each corner of the niche stands a gigantic guard. Opposite is a correspondent niche; but the situation is dark, and the figures are greatly mutilated.

"A niche, filled with defaced sculptures, is observed on each side the entrance. On one side is a male, which appears to have had eight arms; but these are now broken off; in the back part is a figure with four arms, supported by birds; and another with four heads, whimsically elevated. In the opposite niche is a large figure, in a sitting posture, together with a horse in the back-ground, caparisoned according to the present mode of the country.

"At the west end of this grand cavern is a dark recess, twenty feet square, but destitute of any external ornament, except the altar in the centre, and eight figures which guard the four doors that lead into it. These figures, which are of the enormous height of thirteen feet and a half, are all finely sculptured in alto relievo, and appear as if starting from the wall to which they are attached. They have all rich collars round their necks, and their heads are decorated like those of the other statues. Such are the formidable guardians of a recess which was devoted to the most sacred mysteries of the Hindoo religion; but our pity and abhorrence are at once excited by the indelicate emblem, called the *Lingam*, under which they represented, in this pagoda, the power of the first creative energy, by whose operations all nature is produced.

"Exclusive of the interesting objects that have already been described, there are compartments on both sides, separated from the great cavern by fragments of rock and loose earth, which may probably have fallen from the roof. That on the right is very spacious, and contains several pieces of sculpture; the most conspicuous of which has a human body, but the head of an elephant; and is supposed to represent Ganésa, the first-born of *Seeva*, and the Hindoo god of Wisdom.

"The opposite compartment contains several figures: and a deep cavity in the rock is filled with excellent water, which, being always sheltered from the sun, is deservedly esteemed by those persons whom curiosity leads hither through a scorching atmosphere. J. Goldingham, Esq. observes, in his account of the elephanta cave, that a traditional account of the extent of this cavity, and the communication of its waters, by subterraneous passages, with others very distant, was given him by a native of the island; which would make a considerable figure in the hands of a poet."

Natural Curiosities.] The most striking object of this description is the great Banian tree of India, which grows on an island in the river Nerbudda, and is supposed to be the most stupendous production of nature in the vegetable world. The following account of it, given by a writer of great respectability, cannot fail of proving acceptable:

"This tree, called *Cubeer Burr*, in honour of a famous saint, was formerly much larger than it is at present; for high floods have, at different times, carried away the banks of the island where it grows, and along with them such parts of the tree as had extended their roots thus far: yet what still remains is about two thousand feet in circumference, measuring round the principal stems; but the hanging branches, the roots of which have not reached the ground, cover a much larger extent. The chief trunks of this single tree amount to three hundred and fifty, all superior in size to the generality of our English oaks and elms; the smallest stems, forming into stronger supporters, are more than three thousand; and from each of these new branches hanging roots are proceeding, which in time will form trunks, and become parents to a future progeny.

"The *Cubeer Burr* is famed throughout Hindoostan for its prodigious extent, antiquity, and beauty. Seven thousand persons, it is said, may easily repose under its shade; and there is great reason to believe that this is the amazing tree which Arrian describes, when speaking of the Gymnosophists, in his book of Indian Affairs.

"English gentlemen, when on hunting or shooting parties, are accustomed to form extensive encampments, and to spend several weeks, under this delightful pavilion of foliage, which is generally filled with green wood-pigeons, doves, peacocks, and a variety of feathered songsters, together with monkeys, bats, &c. This tree not only affords shelter, but sustenance, to all its inhabitants, being loaded with small figs, of a rich scarlet colour, on which they regale with great delight.

"Milton's description of this tree, in the ninth book of his Paradise Lost, is equally elegant and accurate:

——"So counsell'd he, and both together went
Into the thickest of the wood; where soon they chose
The fig-tree; not that kind for fruit renown'd,
But such as at this day, to Indians known,
In Malabar or Deccan spreads her arms,
Branching so broad and long, that in the ground
The bended twigs take root, and daughters grow
About the mother-tree, a pillar'd shade,
High over-arch'd, and echoing walks between:
There oft the Indian herdsman, shunning heat,
Shelters in cool, and tends his pasturing herds
At loop-holes cut through thickest shade."

About two miles westward of Gocauk is a view of one of the finest cataracts in Asia; for, after gaining the summit of a steep winding hill, the Gutpurba river appears perpendicularly rolling from the upper to the lower country. This river, in the rainy season, is said to be a hundred and sixty-nine yards broad, and the perpendicular fall of the water is one hundred and seventy-four feet two inches. "The river," says Mr. Moor, "comes, as far as we could see, from the westward, with a considerable declivity, and rushes with such impetuosity over the edge of the precipice, that the curve of the descending torrent is so great as to carry itself quite clear of any interruption;

and, somewhat more than midway, there appears to be a shelving ledge, formed by the fall of a rocky fragment, beyond which the river pours, and where a person, except from his apprehensions, might sit or walk in safety.

"The cavern, or basin, into which the river falls, is very capacious, with ragged sides, formed entirely of rock, and of greater height than the water-fall, owing to the declivity of the river's bed above the cataract; which declivity seems to have been caused by the incessant action of such a vast body of water upon its rocky bed. The sides of the river, in that part we have called a basin, is a continued rock for several hundred yards, and ponderous fragments are seen lying beneath, which have been rent from the solid side by some cause equally lasting and violent; and that the rocky precipice, over which the river rolls, is continually wearing away, very clearly appears, for in it may be seen deep large holes, spirally and circularly formed by the friction of eddies: the edge of the precipice, also, exhibits, in some places, the incomplete remains of these friction-formed holes, whence the rock has fallen.

"It is indeed terrific," continues our author, "to look from the edge of the precipice into the cavern below, which we accomplished by laying on our bellies, and creeping until the eye just peeped over; but the strongest head could bear such a sight but a very few seconds. We had no opportunity of examining the depth of water below, but could see that, throughout the extent of the cavern, from such a violent concussion, it was always in a state of ebullition. When at the bottom, the spray is felt to a considerable distance, and the noise may be heard several miles."

Mr. Moor concludes his observations in these words: "Although we saw the cataract at a very unfavourable time, being the dryest part of a dry season, it was still sufficiently grand to convey to our minds a very exalted idea of its wonderful sublimity in the monsoon, when the river is at its plenitude; and we will venture to recommend it to any traveller, visiting these parts between the months of July and December, to make a point of seeing this cataract, as the most magnificent spectacle afforded to a contemplative eye, throughout the whole peninsula of India."

Cities, &c.] Calcutta, the chief city of Bengal, and the residence of the governor-general of India, is seated on the river Hoogly, the most westerly branch of the Ganges, at the distance of about a hundred miles from the sea; and the river is navigable up to the town.

Within these few years, Calcutta has been greatly improved, both in its appearance and in the salubrity of its air; for the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up, by which means a vast quantity of stagnant water and noxious exhalations have been removed.

The best account of this city is given by M. de Grandpré, who visited Bengal a few years ago. Many improvements, which at the time of his arrival were only in contemplation, are now completed, particularly the splendid palace of the governor, which was erected during the administration of the Marquis Wellesley.

"In this metropolis of the English empire in Asia," says our author, "the magnificence of the edifices, the luxury which has converted the banks of the river into delightful gardens, and the costliness and elegance of their decorations, all denote the opulence and power of the conquerors of India and the masters of the Ganges.

"The windings of the river conceal, in some degree, the town of Calcutta, which we do not perceive till we are within a short distance of it. Fort-William, the finest fortress that exists out of Europe, presents itself immediately to the sight, which it astonishes by its grandeur and the splendour of the buildings that are seen above its ramparts. The houses which form the first front of the tower to the end of the glacis, are so many magnificent palaces, some of them having a peristyle of twenty-four pillars. All these structures, disposed in an irregular line through a space of more than a league, form an inconceivably striking prospect, and give to the town a most noble and majestic appearance.

"Calcutta is the only European settlement of any importance on this bank of the Ganges: the other nations have fixed upon the left side, while the English alone have preferred the right. Whatever were the causes of this preference, the situation is ill-chosen. The ground is not sufficiently raised above the level of the river, and frequently, in the high tides, the esplanade, which separates the citadel from the town, if not totally inundated, is at least covered with water in different parts, so as to be impassable.

"The air of Calcutta is by no means healthy, its position, between the river and a large lake in its rear, subjecting it to the influence of unwholesome exhalations: but the European inhabitants remedy this defect by living in the country. There is, however, one inconvenience that cannot be remedied, which is the situation of its port. This stands exactly at the turn of two points, which augment the violence of the current in every state of the tide. The bar is frequently here of sufficient strength to drive the vessels from their moorings. The currents being extremely violent, particularly in July and August, the time of the melting of the snow on the mountains in the interior parts of the country, the first effect of the flood-tide at these periods is, not only to stop the course of the river, but to surmount it with so much force as to require a rapid course of its own. Bengal lies so low, that when the sea, increased by these torrents, rushes in this manner into the bed of the river, its

violence is irresistible. The ebb-current, meeting a similar obstacle, has, at first, a tendency to raise itself; but the flood, being impelled with a superior force, gains the ascendancy, and passes over it. From this shock results a very heavy and foaming surge, which the tide pushes before it with a prodigious rapidity, to the imminent danger of every boat that is not prudently kept out of its way.

"As we enter the town, a very extensive square opens before us, with a large piece of water in the middle, for the public use. The pond has a grass-plot round it, and the whole is inclosed by a wall, breast-high, with a railing on the top. The sides of this inclosure are nearly five hundred yards in length. The square itself is composed of magnificent houses, which render Calcutta not only the handsomest town in Asia, but one of the finest in the world. One side of the square consists of a range of buildings, occupied by persons in civil employments under the Company, such as writers in the public offices. Part of the side towards the river is taken up by the old fort, which was the first citadel built by the English after their establishment in Bengal. It is an indifferent square, with extremely small bastions, that can mount at most but one gun, though the sides are pierced for two. The fort is without a ditch, and is no longer used for a fortification: the ramparts are converted into gardens, and, on the bastions and in the inside of the fort, houses have been built for persons in the service of the government, particularly the officers of the custom-house, who transact their business there. These fortifications are so much reduced from the scale on which they were originally constructed, that the line of defence is now only about a hundred and fifty yards in length, and the front not more than two hundred; though this small fort is much superior to that which the English had built at first at Madras.

"There are two churches of the English establishment at Calcutta, one of which is built in a superb and regular style of architecture, with a circular range of pillars in front, of the Doric order, and beautiful in their proportion; the cornice and architrave, ornamented with triglyphs, are in the same excellent state, and the edifice, altogether, is a model of grandeur and elegance. There are, also, besides these regular establishments, a Catholic church, belonging to the Portuguese mission; another, of the Greek persuasion, in which the service is performed by monks of the order of St. Basil; an Armenian conventicle, a synagogue, several mosques, and a great number of pagodas: so that nearly all the religions in the world are assembled in this capital."

For the following additional particulars, relative to Calcutta, we are indebted to an intelligent officer, in the service of his Britannic majesty:

"The European part of the town lies next the fort, and the houses are here much more elegant than at Madras, the garden-houses excepted. The reason of this is very evident: at Fort St. George they are only used as offices or warehouses, the gentlemen invariably retiring to their garden-houses in the evening; whereas, at Calcutta, most of the merchants have their offices attached to their dwelling-houses, and, of course, both are kept in good order: for though the chunam, when kept clean and entire, rivals the Parian marble itself, yet, when it gets tarnished, or is suffered to drop off in parts, and thus discover the bricks underneath, nothing can have a more motly or beggarly appearance: and this is frequently the case at Madras, both in the Fort and in the Black-town.

"The great body of the native, or Black-town, stretches farther up, along the river-side, and is of considerable extent; abreast of this, the groves of masts that present themselves, bearing the flags of various nations, but chiefly the English, give one some idea of the commerce that must be carried on in this metropolis of India.

"Though the town itself is the residence of a great number of European gentlemen, yet the surrounding country, for some miles, is chequered, as at Madras, with handsome seats, which, from the fertility of soil, are encompassed with gardens and groves, far exceeding those of Madras in verdure and foliage.

"The governor's palace, or Government-house, as it is called, is situated on the western side of the esplanade, and is a most beautiful fabric. Over the four colossal arches that lead to it there are placed sphinxes, and various figures and emblems, that have a very good effect. The King's and Company's arms are emblazoned over the western and eastern gates. With respect to the interior of the building, it is the opinion of those who have seen it, that no adequate idea can be conveyed by words; the eye, not the ear, must be the medium of communication."

A most distressing event occurred in this city, in the year 1756, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian subah, or viceroy, having quarrelled with the Company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops, the governor, and some of the principal persons of the place, retreated, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; and those who remained for some hours bravely defended the place; but, their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The subah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwel, the governor's chief assistant, and a hundred and forty-five British subjects, into a subterraneous prison, called the Black Hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible; and, before morning, no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest having died

of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenzy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwel himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive put them once more in possession of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant, Surajah Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jaffier, one of his generals, who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master, and amply reward the English, was advanced to the subahship. In remembrance of this act of barbarity, the English erected a monument, between the old fort and the right wing of the building occupied by the civil officers of the Company, on the very spot where the deed was committed. It is a pyramid, truncated at the top, and standing upon a square pedestal, having a design in sculpture on each of its sides, and an inscription in the English and Moorish languages. It is surrounded with an iron railing, to prevent access to it, and exhibits a mournful appearance, well adapted to the event which it is designed to commemorate.

Agra is one of the largest cities, and its castle the best fortification in India. The houses are so situated, as to command an agreeable prospect of the river; and the buildings of the great men are of stone, and elegantly constructed. The grand mosque is a magnificent edifice of marble and red free-stone, with high minarets, and gilded domes. The great number of mosques, caravanseras, squares, baths, and reservoirs, intermixed with gardens, trees, and flowers, render this place extremely pleasant. The palace is an elegant structure, situated, in the form of a crescent, on the banks of the river, and surrounded with beautiful gardens and fine canals.

Delhi, the former capital of India, and the principal place belonging to the present mogul, is chiefly noted for its palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained twelve thousand horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and five hundred elephants. Here are also a spacious mosque, and a magnificent caravansera, situated in a large square, and surrounded by arches, supporting open galleries, where the Persian, Usbec, and other foreign, merchants reside, and have warehouses for their effects.

Oujein, in the province of Agimere, is about six miles in circumference, surrounded by a strong wall, with round towers; it has four mosques, and several Hindoo temples. The fort of Gwallior, to the eastward of Oujein, is worthy of notice. The insulated rock, on which it stands, is about four miles in length, but narrow; the sides are almost perpendicular, from two to three hundred feet above the surrounding plain. This fortress was taken by surprise, in 1779, by a small number of British troops.

Lahore, situated in one of the largest and finest provinces in Asia, exhibits a variety of mosques, caravanseras, baths, pagodas, palaces, &c. It is, at present, the capital of the Seiks, and was the residence of the first Mahometan conquerors, before they advanced to the more central parts. The Seiks at length found means to free themselves from the chains of despotism; and, during the calamities of the Mogul empire, their number increased considerably, by the refugees from different nations. They have in this city a temple, with an altar, on which stands their code of laws, and next to it a sceptre and a dagger.

Cassimere, the capital of one of the most pleasant provinces in India, was held in the highest estimation by the ancient emperors of Hindoostan, who frequently retired thither, when public affairs would admit of their absence, to enjoy a delightful retirement from the troublesome ceremonies of state. The houses of this city are in general two or three stories high, and 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, and also communicates a refreshing coolness in summer, when the tops of the houses, which are planted with a variety of flowers, exhibit, at a distance, a spacious view of a beautifully chequered parterre.

"The wealth and fame of the city and province of Cassimere," says a modern writer, "have been caused by the manufacture of shawls, which they hold unrivalled, and almost without participation. The wool of the shawl is not produced in the country, but brought from the districts of Tibet, lying at the distance of a month's journey to the north-east. It is originally of a dark grey colour, and is bleached in Cassimere by a certain preparation of rice-flour. The yarn of this wool is stained with such colours as are judged the best suited for sale, and, after being woven, the piece is once washed. The border, which usually displays a variety of figures and colours, is attached to the shawls after fabrication; but in so nice a manner, that the junction is not discernible. The texture of the shawl resembles that of the shaloon of Europe, to which it has probably communicated the name. The price, at the loom, of an ordinary shawl, is eight rupees; and, in proportion to the quality, it advances from fifteen to twenty. But the value of this commodity may be largely enhanced by the introduction of flowered work; and, as the sum of a hundred rupees is occasionally given for a shawl to the weaver, half of the amount may be fairly ascribed to the ornaments. The shawls usually consist of three sizes, two of which, the long and the small square one, are in common use in India; the other,

long and very narrow, with a large mixture of black colour in it, is worn as a girdle by the people of northern Asia."

Amedabad, the chief city in the province of Guzerat, is situated in a delightful plain, watered by the river Sambremetty; and is surrounded by a wall of brick and stone, flanked with round towers, forty feet high, and has twelve gates. The town, including its suburbs, is about four miles in length, and is so intermixed with gardens and groves, that it has a most pleasing and rural aspect at a distance. One of the adjacent villages is distinguished by the tombs and monuments of the ancient kings of Guzerat.

Cambaya, situated at the bottom of a gulf of the same name, is about six miles in circumference, and has very extensive suburbs; the streets are spacious, and the houses well built with brick. The English and Dutch have factories here, though great part of the trade is removed to Surat; on which account the city is but thinly inhabited. It is surrounded by a brick wall, and has a stately castle for the nabob.

Bombay belongs to the English East-India Company, and has a harbour capable of containing a thousand ships at anchor. The town is about a mile long, and indifferently built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone.

Madras, or Fort St. George, is the capital of the British dominions in this part of India, and is distant, eastward from London, about four thousand eight hundred miles. No pains have been spared by the Company in rendering the fort impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and alderman.

"Madras, properly so called," says a respectable writer, "is a very large town, surrounded by a ditch, and a sort of wall, falling in some places into ruins, but sufficient to resist a surprise, or a sudden attack of cavalry, which is no small advantage; for, in war, the light cavalry of the natives are the most audacious free-booters in the world, burning and plundering indiscriminately every place that falls in their way. Madras is thus protected from their attacks; and, in case of a siege, every thing of value is removed into the citadel.

"The fortress is separated from the town by an esplanade, outside the gates: it stands on the sea-shore, and presents six fronts towards the land. The fort, having been built at several times, is of a very irregular construction; not in regard to the polygon, but in the plan of the fronts, which are almost all different from each other. That towards the north-east is on the Italian model of Sordi. Its opposite, on the south-west, is according to the plan of the Chevalier De Ville.

"All the works are well-faced with brick, and in complete repair: the covered way is palisaded, and carefully provided with traverses; the barriers and palisadoes are well-closed, and kept in good condition; the depots of arms are spacious; and the citadel, with a good garrison, might hold out against a European army of thirty thousand men for twenty days after the trenches were opened. As this fortress is intended, in case of siege, for the retreat of all the servants of the Company, it is necessarily filled with houses, which gives it a dark and unpleasant appearance. On this account, the English do not reside in it; even the governor lives in the country; and the rest of the English follow his example. They repair in the morning to the fort, for the transaction of business, and remain there till three o'clock in the afternoon, when they return, and the place seems deserted. Even the theatre is in the country; so that the ground, to a considerable distance, presents to the view a multitude of gardens, spread over an extent so great, as to prevent persons, who reside at the opposite extremities, from visiting each other, unless on horseback, or in carriages; the palanquins in many instances would be insufficient for the purpose.

"The position of Fort St. George is equally fortunate with that of Pondicherry, and is in like manner strengthened, on the south side, by a river, that washes the extremity of the glacis. Over this river is a handsome bridge of bricks. The west side is protected by an inundation, which the fort can at any time command, by means of a sluice, situated at the beginning of the glacis, and defended by the covered way. The northern side, as at Pondicherry, is the only side open to an attack.

"The Black Town is what is properly called Madras; and even the Indians still give it the name of Madras-Patnam. This addition of patnam is applicable only to capital towns, though some of very inferior rank still retain it; which is owing to such places having declined from their ancient splendor, or to the name having been applied by the Indians at a time when they were accustomed to behold nothing superior. The Black Town exhibits only a spectacle of filth and dirt; none of the streets are paved, or even covered with sand, but have a soil of black earth, which, mixing with the water, forms large collections of mud, that engender infection, and allows a free passage only to carriages.

"The black population of Madras is very considerable. There are several pagodas in the town, some mosques, an Armenian church, and a Portuguese one, in which the

service is performed by Capuchin monks, subject to the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the bishop of St. Thomas, a small village at the distance of a league southward of Fort St. George."

SERINGAPATAM 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 out-works, magnificent palaces, and lofty mosques; for Tippoo and his father were Mahometans. 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.

COCHIN, on the coast of Malabar, is constructed on a good plan, but the buildings are very indifferent. The governor resides in an edifice scarcely better than a barn, and all the houses are proportionably mean. Its situation, however, for commerce, is admirable; as it stands on a fine river, capable of admitting very large vessels. The water, at the flood, is never less than twenty feet deep, and the harbour is sufficiently extensive for any ships, however numerous, that might trade to it. A number of small rivers and canals run into it, which facilitate the inland communication to a great distance up the country, and would give extraordinary activity to commerce. Its position, at the extremity of the peninsula, renders it easy of approach in all seasons, and diminishes the danger to which navigation is exposed, by the monsoon, from the south-west: nothing but a fine day is necessary to enable vessels to get out, and even to reach Cape Comorin, from which there is a passage to any part of India.

Laws, Government, &c.] The government of the ancient mogul emperors was formerly despotic in the highest degree; and such is that of the different native princes, to whom part of the country is still subject. The British government of Bengal and its dependencies was first vested in a governor-general, and a supreme council, consisting of a president and eleven counsellors: but, in 1773, an act of parliament was passed, by which a governor-general and four counsellors were appointed, with whom was vested the whole civil and military government of the presidency of Fort William; and the management and government of all the territorial acquisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, so long as the company should remain possessed of them. The governor-general and council, so appointed, are invested with the power of superintending and controlling the government and management of the presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the court of directors, and to correspond with them. The governor-general and counsellors are likewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William, to consist of a chief justice and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his Majesty; they are to exercise all criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction; to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and the factory at Fort William and its limits, and the factories subordinate thereto.

The people of Hindoostan are governed by written laws; and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan institutes prevail only in the great towns, and their vicinity. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands are transferred in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the sub-tenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both of which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death they revert to the emperor; but the rights of the sub-tenants, even of those lands, are indefeasible.

Military Force.] A military force is always maintained in Bengal; but, in point of numbers, varies according to the occurrence of events. Our soldiers are aided by the Sepoys, a native militia, who have a train of useless followers, so that the effective men seldom constitute more than a fourth of the nominal army. A force of twenty thousand European soldiers might engage and defeat a hundred thousand of the natives.

Literature.] Much honour is due to the late Sir William Jones, one of the three judges in the supreme court, for the institution of the Asiatic Society at Calcutta; and the late governor-general, the Marquis of Wellesley, is entitled to the highest commendation, for having founded a university in the same city, for the cultivation of science, and the improvement of the human faculties, in a region of the highest splendour and luxury.

Population.] The population of this extensive region is calculated to amount to sixty millions, of which the British possessions are now supposed to contain a quarter, especially as the numerous recent conflicts must have considerably reduced the population in many other parts of Hindoostan.

Language.] The languages and dialects spoken in India are various. The language spoken at the court of Delhi is the Persian; what is deemed the learned language is the Arabic; but not any is so generally understood as the Persian, though much corrupted. The Hindoo language is a kind of mixture of Persian and Arabic words, though the accent and dialect differ in the several

parts where it is used: the purest is said to be spoken in the province of Agra.

The Moors and Malabars have different characters. The Moorish language is derived from the Persian, of which it has taken the alphabet. This language is much used in every part of Asia, China excepted. The soldiers and sailors all speak it.

The Malabar language is that of the country; it has its particular characters. The study of it is by no means disagreeable; and it has literary works numerous enough to afford any one, who is desirous of instructing himself, sufficient opportunities.

Manufactures, Commerce, &c.] The manufactures of Hindoostan have been long and justly celebrated: particularly those of muslins, silks, and the shawls of Cassimere, already mentioned. The natives are very industrious in all the handicraft trades which they understand; and, in weaving and embroidering, they are said to do as much work with their feet as with their hands. Painting and sculpture are but very imperfectly understood; and the brightness of the tints, observable in their painted muslins and calicoes, is owing to nature rather than art. They export, in addition to their manufactures, many of the productions of their country; as diamonds, spices, drugs, aromatics, rice, sugar, raw silks, and many other articles of luxury.

Mr. Grose observes, that though the Banians, who are professed merchants, have been represented, by some authors, as a tricking artful set of people, difficult to deal with; this is so far from being true, that they are, in general, the fairest dealers in the world; and that those of Surat, especially, are famous for their simplicity and the frankness of their transactions. As an instance of this, on a ship's arrival, laden with goods, nothing more is necessary, than for the commander, or supercargo, to bring his samples on shore, together with his invoice; and these merchants resorting to him, will, if the assortment suit them, immediately strike a bargain for the whole cargo, with no other trouble than settling the per centage, upon the items of the invoice. "In this manner," says our author, "many a cargo, from five to thirty thousand pounds, and upwards, have been sold in half an hour's time, with very few words; and the amount immediately paid, either in specie or by barter, according as the buyer and seller have agreed, with at least as much probity as is ever practised by Europeans of the most established reputation. Indeed, these Banians have an advantage over our merchants, but it is such a one as we cannot reasonably complain of; this is a surprising coolness and serenity, with which they conduct all their affairs. If a trader offer them a great deal less than their goods are worth, or fly out into a passion at their undervaluing his, they will not shew the least indecent heat of temper, but suffer him to exhaust his resentment without interruption, and then calmly return to the same point.

Religion, &c.] The religion of the Hindoos, supposed to be the same with that of the ancient Gymnosophists, is all contained in the sacred books, called *Vedas*, and written in the Shanscrit language, which is now known only to the *pundits*, or learned men, among them. These books are supposed to have been the work not of the supreme God himself, but of an inferior deity, named *Brimha*. They inform us, that Brahma, the supreme god, having created the world by the word of his mouth, formed a female deity, named Bawaney, who, in an enthusiasm of joy and praise, brought forth three eggs, from which were produced three male deities, named *Brimha*, *Veeshnu*, and *Seeva*. Brimha was endowed with the power of creating all terrestrial objects, Veeshnu with that of cherishing them, and Seeva with that of restraining and correcting them. Thus Brimha became the creator of man; and, in this character, he formed the four casts from different parts of his own body; the Bramins from his mouth, the Chehterees from his arms, the Bice from his belly and thighs, and the Soodera from his feet. Hence, say they, these four different casts derive the different offices assigned them; the Bramins to teach, the Chehteree to defend and govern, the Bice to enrich by commerce, and the Soodera to labour, serve, and obey. Brahma himself endowed mankind with passions, and understanding to regulate them; while Brimha, having created the inferior beings, proceeded to write the Vedas, and delivered them to be read and explained by the Bramins.

Were it possible to obtain a sight of their sacred books, we might probably be enabled to remove the veil which envelopes their numerous mysteries; but the following anecdote, related by the Abbe Raynal, will show how little reason we have to hope for such a communication: "The Emperor Mahmoud Akbar had an inclination to make himself acquainted with the principles of all the religious sects throughout his dominions, having discarded the prepossessions of a Mahometan education, and formed the resolution of judging for himself. It was easy for him to learn the nature of those systems that are formed upon the plan of making proselytes; but he found himself disappointed in his design, when he came to treat with the Hindoos, who will not admit any person to a participation of their mysteries. Neither the authority nor promises of Akbar could prevail with the Bramins to disclose the tenets of their religion; he was, therefore, obliged to have recourse to artifice. The stratagem he made use of was to cause a boy, of the name of Feizi, to be committed to the care of these priests, as a poor orphan of the sacerdotal line, who alone could be initiated into the sacred rites of their theology.

"Feizi, having received proper instructions for the part

he was to act, was conveyed privately to Benares, and received into the house of a learned Bramin, who educated him with the same care as if he had been his own son. After the youth had spent ten years in study, Akbar was desirous of recalling him; but he was struck with the charms of his preceptor's daughter, and the old Bramin, instead of restraining the growing passion of the lovers, declared his assent to their union. The young man, divided between love and gratitude, resolved to conceal the fraud no longer, and, falling at the feet of the Bramin, discovered the imposture, and asked pardon for his offence. The priest, without reproaching him in the least, seized a poniard which hung at his girdle, and was about to plunge it in his breast; but Feizi arrested his hand, and declared himself ready to do any thing to expiate his treachery. The Bramin, bursting into tears, promised to pardon him, on condition that he should swear never to translate the sacred volumes, nor disclose to any person the symbol of the Bramin creed. Feizi readily promised all that his preceptor required—and the sacred books of the Hindoos have never been translated."

The first and most noble tribe among the Hindoos are Bramins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices. They must be regularly admitted into the presence of their prince, whenever they please, and every one who meets them on the road must give way for them. They alone are allowed to read the *Veda*, or sacred books, and to them is committed the instruction of the people; but they are not permitted to assume the sovereignty.

There are several orders of Bramins. Those who mix in society are said to be of depraved morals; nor is this to be wondered at, since they are exempt from the civil jurisdiction, and are also taught, by their religion, that the water of the Ganges will effectually wash away all their crimes. The others, who live secluded from the world, are either weak-minded men, or enthusiasts, who abandon themselves, without reserve, to indolence and superstition; and their religion, which was anciently of the allegorical and moral kind, has degenerated into extravagant and obscene superstitions, owing to their having realized those fictions, which were originally intended as mere symbols of more important matters.

The Chehteree, or second cast, are those next in rank to the Bramins, and from whom the Hindoo sovereigns are invariably chosen.

The Bice, or Banians, who constitute the third cast, are those people whose office or profession is trade and merchandise. They have no peculiar religion, unless it be, that two of the eight general precepts given by their legislator, Brahma, to the Hindoo nation, are supposed more immediately to relate to them, namely, those which enjoin veracity in words and dealings, and avoiding all practices of circumvention in buying and selling. They are the great factors by whom most of the trade of India is carried on; and are not inferior to the Jews and Armenians, either in point of skill or experience, in whatever relates to commerce. The chief agents of the East-India Company are of this nation. They also act as bankers, and can give bills of exchange for most cities in India. As they believe in a transmigration of souls, they eat no living creature, nor kill even noxious animals, but endeavour to release them when in the hands of others.

The Soodera, or fourth class, is the most numerous of all, and comprehends all the labourers and artisans of Hindoostan. These last are divided into as many classes as there are followers of different arts; all the children being invariably brought up to the profession of their forefathers.

The temples or pagodas of the Hindoos are stupendous, but disgustful, stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Bramins. To this, however, there are some exceptions; "for in proportion," says Dr. Robertson, the philosophical historian of India, "to the progress of the different countries in opulence and refinement, the structure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings, they became highly ornamented fabrics, and some of them, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taste of the people by whom they were erected."

The pagoda of Seringham, superior in sanctity to that of Chillambrum, surpasses it as much in grandeur; and, fortunately, we can convey a more perfect idea of it, by adopting the words of an elegant and accurate historian. "This pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed by the division of the great river Caveri into two channels. It is composed of seven square enclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These enclosures are three hundred and fifty feet distant from one another, and each has four large gates, with a square tower, which are placed, one in the middle of each side of the enclosure, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outer wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones, thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those which form the roof are still larger: in the inmost inclosures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Bramins live in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no wants."

There are several sects among the Hindoos; but their differences consist rather in external forms than religious

opinions. They all believe in the immortality of the soul, a state of future rewards and punishments, and transmigration. The virtues of charity and hospitality are inculcated in the strongest manner, and exist among them, both in theory and practice. "Hospitality," they say, "is commended to be exercised even towards an enemy, when he cometh into thine house; and good men extend their charity even to the vilest animals; for the tree doth not withdraw its shade even from the wood-cutter, nor doth the moon withhold her light from the chandalah." These pure doctrines, however, are intermixed with many vile superstitions; and, besides their inferior deities, they have a vast number of demi-gods, or deified heroes, who are supposed to inhabit the air, the earth, and the waters; so that every mountain, river, wood, &c. is supposed to be under the protection of one of these tutelar deities.

The Hindoos pray thrice every day, at morning, noon, and evening, turning their faces toward the east. They use many ablutions, and always wash before meals. Fruits, flowers, incense, and money, are usually offered in sacrifice to their idols; but, for the dead, they offer a particular sort of cake, called *punda*. They all seem to worship fire; or, at least, they pay an extraordinary veneration to it. Bishop Wilkins informs us, that they are enjoined to light up a fire at certain times, which must be produced by the friction of two pieces of wood, of a particular kind; and the fire thus produced is made use of for consuming their sacrifices, burning their dead, and other solemn purposes. They believe all religions to be equally acceptable to the Supreme Being, and insist, that if the Author of the universe preferred one to another, it would have been impossible for any other to have prevailed, than that which he approved. Every religion, therefore, they imagine to be adapted to the country where it is established; and they conclude that all, in their original purity, are equally acceptable.

The religion of the Hindoos particularly enforces the observance of hospitality; and, on that account, they consider a person on a journey as a sacred object. A traveller is not only received with kindness, but his wants on the road are anticipated. Chauderies, which are places nearly similar to caravanseras, are built, in which he may enter freely, lodge, dress his provisions, if he have any, and depart without paying any thing. The hospitality would certainly be greater, if the poor traveller could find also something to eat; but a gratuitous asylum, in a country where the chief want is shelter from the inclemency of the climate, is, at least, a considerable accommodation.

These chauderies are sometimes very spacious; they are attended by a man, whose business it is to sweep and keep them clean. A traveller arrives, and, without ceremony, takes possession of the house. Another comes; the first makes room for him; and the new comer, without saying a word, fixes himself wherever he pleases. The same rule is observed, till the chaudery is full. When the heat has subsided, they proceed to the next halting-place. In the evening, each lies down to sleep, without order or distinction; but, if a European be present, they leave him a little corner to himself. Independently of the chauderies in or near the villages, there are others at regular distances on the roads in the country, far from any other habitation. The traveller, parched by an ardent sun, or assailed by a storm, in the midst of an immense plain, and deprived of every other resource, thus finds an asylum from the injuries of the weather and climate. If water should not be abundant in the neighbourhood, they are careful to dig large ponds, in which men and animals may bathe, and quench their thirst.

The erection of these chauderies is not only a principle of religion, but is even a mode of atonement for sins. The rich are all anxious to have them built, wherever they suppose them to be necessary. A placeman, who has made an ill use of his authority, and acquired great riches by illicit means, expects, by building such establishments, to obtain forgiveness. To do good to travellers is to render himself agreeable to the Deity; and a man like this, loaded with crimes, will die in tranquillity, persuaded that he shall enjoy eternal felicity in the bosom of Brahma, if he have erected two or three chauderies.

There is a religious order among the Hindoos, called Faquirs: these are a kind of mendicant friars, who make vows of poverty and celibacy, and seem insensible both to pleasure and pain. To obtain the favour of Brahma, they suffer most dreadful tortures; and the austerities some of them undergo are incredible to those that have not been eye-witnesses of them; some stand for years upon one foot, with their arms tied to the beam of a house, or branch of a tree, by which means their arms settle in that posture, and ever after become useless; some sit in the sun, with their faces looking upwards, till they are incapable of altering the position of their heads; the people, in all these cases, thinking it an act of piety to cherish and support them.

The ordeal trials of melted lead, or boiling oil, as practised in India, are considered, by the Hindoos, as a standing miracle. The ceremony is performed with great solemnity. The party, who has appealed to this trial for his innocence, whether on suspicion of murder, theft, conjugal infidelity in the women, or even in denying a debt, is publicly brought to the side of a fire, on which is placed a vessel of boiling water or oil, but most commonly melted lead. The prince or magistrates of the country being present, his hand is previously clean washed, and a leaf of a particular tree, with the accusation written upon it, is girt round his waist; and then, on a solemn invocation of the deity by the Bramin, the person plunges in his hand,

scoops up the boiling fluid, and, if he draws it out unhurt, he is absolved; otherwise, he receives the punishment prescribed by the laws for the crime with which he is charged. And so firmly believed is this method of purgation on that coast, that Mr. Grose observes, even some of the Indian Christians and Moors have voluntarily submitted their cause to its decision.

Manners, Customs, &c.] The complexion of the Hindoos is black; their hair is long; their persons are straight, and well-formed; their countenances open and pleasant; and their walk, as well as their whole deportment, is extremely graceful.

The dress of the men is a white vest of silk, muslin, or cotton, girt with a sash. The sleeves are very long; and the upper part of the garment is contrived to fit, so that the wearer's shape may be seen. Under this is another, somewhat shorter. Their breeches descend so low, as to cover their legs; they wear slippers, peaked like women's shoes, into which they put their bare feet. Their hair is tied up in a roll, over which they wear a small turban.

The dress of the women is a piece of white calico, tied about the waist, which reaches to their knees, and the rest is thrown across their shoulders, covering the breasts and part of the back. Their hair, like that of the men, is tied up in a roll, and adorned with jewels, or toys in imitation of them. They have pendants in their ears, and several strings of beads round their necks. They wear rings on their fingers, and bracelets on their wrists and ancles.

The Moors, or Mahometans, in India, wear turbans of rich muslin, and their garments reach down to their feet. Their sashes are tastefully embroidered, the ends being decorated with gold and silver tissue. In their sashes they usually stick their daggers, and they wear embroidered slippers.

The Hindoos are, in general, very sober, and abstain from all animal food; the Bramins, in particular, never eat any thing that has had animal life: currees of vegetables are their common diet, the chief ingredients of which are turmeric, spices, and the pulp of the cocoa-nut. They esteem milk the purest food, and venerate the cow almost as a divinity.

In manners, the inhabitants of Hindoostan resemble the other natives of Southern Asia. They are effeminate, luxurious, and taught to affect a grave deportment. This initiates them early into the arts of dissimulation; so that they can caress those whom they hate, and even behave with the utmost affability and kindness to such as they intend to murder.

Their common salutation is, by lifting one or both hands to the head, according to the quality of the person saluted; but they never salute with the left-hand singly. The salutation of a prince is, by bowing the body very low, putting the hand to the ground, then to the breast, and afterwards raising it to the head; this is repeated twice; and some fall on their faces before a sovereign.

On visiting among friends, the master of the house never rises to receive his visitor, but requests him to sit down by him on the carpet (for their floors are spread with rich carpets); and betel and areka are offered him to chew, which, as in the neighbouring countries, they have almost continually in their mouths. They sit and chew together, but talk very little. They sometimes play at cards, but are never out of temper when they lose. They are remarkably fond of smoking: the poor roll up a leaf of tobacco, about four or five inches long, and, lighting it at one end, smoke the other till it is about half exhausted, and then throw it away.

Dancing-girls are generally engaged at public entertainments, to entertain the company with a variety of dances, and perform plays by torch-light in the open air, which they execute with great judgment. They embellish their necks with carcanets, their arms with bracelets, and their ancles with small gold or silver chains. In their noses they wear jewels; and some of them form black circles round the whites of their eyes.

The dance of these women is a cadenced movement, performed to the sound of a drum, which a black beats with his fingers, and which he accompanies with a song, that, to ears of the least delicacy, would seem barbarous. The mode of beating time is with a small bell, or cymbal, which the dancing-master holds in his hand. This bell, or cymbal, he beats against the edge of another, of the same kind, which produces a brisk vibrating sound, that animates the dancers, and gives precision to their movements. They display, however, no elegant attitudes, but are full of gesticulation; and the motion of their arms seems to occupy their whole care and attention. Sometimes, during the dance, they play with Moorish poniards, an exercise in which they appear to be very expert. "One of them, who was considered as eminently dexterous," says M. Grandpré, "was sent for, one evening, to the house of the Malabar chief, to dance in my presence. Seemingly, some one had given her a hint; for she took infinite pleasure in frightening me with her poniards, the points of which she presented to me suddenly, turning quickly round every time she passed near me, but stopping with great precision within a finger's breadth of my breast. This movement was directed and timed by a stroke of the small cymbal, which the dancing-master struck unawares at my ear, and which never failed to make me start, to the great amusement of the crowd, which this exhibition generally draws together."

M. Thevenot gives an account of some extraordinary feats of agility performed by a girl of thirteen or fourteen years of age, who diverted the company for the space

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SCENE IN THE EAST INDIES.

of two hours and upwards; and, amongst her other performances, this appeared, to our author, to be extremely difficult: She sat down upon the ground, holding in her mouth a long sharp sword, and, with her right-hand, she took hold of her left foot, brought it up to her breast, then to her left side, and, without letting go her hold, she put her head underneath her right arm, and, at the same time, brought her foot down along the small of her back, then quite under her, and this four or five times without resting, being always in apparent danger of cutting her arm or her leg with the edge of the sword. Then with her left-hand and right-foot she performed the same.

The girl, having rested a little, a hole, two feet deep, was dug in the ground, and filled with water, into which they threw a little clasp, which she was to fetch out without touching it with her hands. To this end, she placed her feet on the sides of the hole, turning herself backwards till she rested upon her hands in the same place where her feet had stood. Then, bending her arms, she let down her head into the water to search for the clasp, which she missed the first time; but, making a second attempt, and resting only on her left hand, she raised herself up again with the clasp at her nose.

After this, a man set the girl upon his head, and ran full speed with her a considerable way, the girl not tottering in the least. Then, setting her down, he took a large round earthen pitcher, and put it upon his head, with the mouth upwards; and, the girl having got on the top of the pitcher, he carried her about as before. This he did twice more, having once put the pitcher with the mouth downwards, and the other time with the mouth sideways. The man then took a basin, and placed it, bottom upwards, upon his head, with the pitcher upon it, and the girl upon that, carrying her about with equal ease and security. In the next place, he fixed in the basin a wooden truncheon, about a foot high, and as thick as one's arm, upon which he caused the girl to stand upright, and ran about with her, as he had done before. Sometimes she stood upon one foot, holding the other in her hand, and sometimes sat down upon the top of the truncheon. Then the man put into the basin four wooden pins, about four inches high, placed in a square form, with a board upon each of them, the breadth of two fingers, and upon these four other pins, with boards upon them, making, as it were, two stages above the basin. Then, the girl standing on the top of these little boards, the man carried her about with the same swiftness; and, though the wind was high, she did not appear in the least afraid of falling.

The manner of drinking among the Hindoos is remarkable. They religiously avoid touching the vessel which contains the liquor with their lips, but pour it into their mouths, holding the vessel at a distance: their idea is that they would be polluted by drinking any stagnant liquid. They will drink from a pump, or any running stream, but not out of a pool.

The most usual method of travelling is in a palanquin, which is a kind of couch, covered with an arched canopy, and furnished with cushions, a quilt, and pillows. It hangs upon a bamboo, and the person in it may either sit upright, or loll at his ease. It is commonly carried by four men, two before and two behind, by means of poles, the ends of which are placed on their shoulders.

There are in this country several other methods of carriage, one of which is the *hackree*, drawn by oxen, some of which will go as fast as horses on a full trot. These oxen, which are generally white and very large, are kept as sleek and clean as possible; and, as a contrast to the whiteness of their skins, their horns are painted with a shining black, and bells are commonly hung about their necks. The hackrees are open on three sides, covered on the top, and made to hold two people, sitting cross-legged, with a pillow at their backs, to recline upon: and, in order to conceal the ladies who may travel in them, they have either folding blinds, or painted cloth, falling down the open sides. Each hackree has its driver; but, in Bengal, the most eminent of the Hindoo merchants ride on horseback, or in a chaise, richly ornamented, and the reins adorned with silver or gold studs. The beasts commonly used for draught and carriage are oxen, which are very swift of foot, and will carry a man twenty or thirty miles a day; and there are caravans of them, which sometimes amount to eight thousand.

The houses in Hindoostan are of two kinds, those built by the Moguls, and those by the original Indians. The houses of the former are all in the Persian taste; in short, they seem to imitate the Persians in every thing; like them, they have elegant gardens, with pavilions, fountains, cascades, &c.

As the Hindoo inhabitants, throughout the country, are twenty or thirty to one of the others, most of the principal towns consist of the habitations of the former, which are, for the most part, very mean: in front of these houses are sheds, on pillars, under which the natives expose their goods to sale, and entertain their friends or acquaintance: there are no windows opening to the streets; and even the palaces of their princes have not any external elegance. The apartments in the houses of the wealthy are ornamented chiefly with looking-glasses, which are purchased of Europeans, and many of their ceilings are inlaid with mother-of-pearl and ivory. The private rooms are always in the back part of the houses, for the better security of the women.

The marriages of the Hindoos are conducted with the utmost splendor and extravagance; the little bride and bridegroom, who are frequently only three or four years

old, are, for several nights, carried through the streets, richly dressed, and adorned with the finest jewels their parents can procure, preceded by flags, music, and a multitude of lights. The astrologer having fixed on a fortunate hour, they are taken to the house, where the father of the bride lives, and, being seated opposite to each other, with a table between, they join their hands across it, and the priest covers both their heads with a kind of hood, which remains spread over them about a quarter of an hour, while he prays for their happiness, and gives them the nuptial benediction; after which their heads are uncovered, and all the company are sprinkled with rose-water and perfumes. The evening concludes with a magnificent entertainment, and sometimes the festival lasts several days.

The Hindoo women treat their husbands with extraordinary respect and tenderness: their conduct is, in general, blameless, and very few are ever known to violate the marriage-bed. They are entirely in the power of their husbands, to whom they bring no other fortune besides their clothes, and perhaps two or three female-slaves. They begin to bear children at twelve years of age, and sometimes younger; for Mr. Grose says, he has seen them pregnant in their tenth year; but they seldom have any after they are thirty years old, and frequently, before that time, they lose their bloom, and all that plumpness and delicacy, for which they are justly remarkable.

With respect to the funerals of the Hindoos, some of them bury the body, and others burn it. Mr. Grose saw both these ceremonies performed at Bombay. The first he mentions, was one who buried his wife, a young woman of about twenty years of age. Those who accompanied the husband dug a pit, in the form of a well, on one side of which was a niche for the corpse to be placed in a sitting posture, with room sufficient for a plate of raw rice, and a jar of water, by her side. The pit was no sooner ready, than she was put into it, with all her clothes and jewels, exactly as she wore them when alive; but she was no sooner placed, than her husband, who stood by, jumped into the grave, and very composedly took off all her jewels, and brought them up with him; after which the pit was filled up.

The ceremony of burning is performed in the following manner: Having washed and dressed the corpse, the relations and friends carry it on a bier to a small distance from the town. This is usually done the next day; but, if a person die in the morning, his body is always burnt the same evening; for, in these hot countries, a corpse will not keep long. The funeral-pile is usually prepared near some river or pond; and, if he be a person of wealth, great quantities of fragrant wood are mixed with the fuel. Mr. Grose was present at burning the corpse of a youth of about eighteen years of age, the son of a Banian. The funeral-pile was prepared on the beach, the father assisting at it bare-headed, and dressed in such coarse tattered garments as are usually worn on such mournful occasions. As soon as the corpse is placed on the pile, and some prayers muttered by the attending Bramin, fire is set to it at one of the corners, when it soon blazes up, and consumes the body to ashes, without any noisome smell. What particularly excited our author's attention was the behaviour of the father, who, according to the Hindoo custom, of its being always the next and dearest relation that sets fire to the pile, walked thrice round it, with a sort of desperate haste, and then, with his face averted, thrust his hand behind him, and set fire to it; after which, he rolled himself in the sand, and smote upon his aged breast, with the appearance of extreme agony.

The Bramins are represented, by ancient travellers, as having been accustomed to terminate their own lives on funeral-piles, lighted up by themselves; but to what refinement on cruelty this custom was extended to helpless females, has not appeared. This horrid practice, however, is now nearly abolished in India, and is chiefly confined to the cast of the Bramins. When an individual of this cast dies, one of his wives is bound to exhibit this dreadful proof of her affection. This lamentable sacrifice is not imposed upon them by law, for they may refuse to make it; but in that case they lose their character, are held in dishonour, and are deprived of their cast; a misfortune so intolerable, that they prefer to it the alternative of being burnt alive. Nature, however, revolts in some of these widows, and, it is probable, if left to themselves, that they would never consent to so cruel a sacrifice; but the old women and priests are incessantly importuning them, and representing, that after death the most exquisite happiness will be their lot; and, as they are commonly young, it is no difficult matter to triumph over their weakness and irresolution.

The manner in which this sacrifice is performed, varies in different places. As practised in Bengal, it is horrible. The funeral-pile of the husband is erected near a wall, with just space enough between for a single person to pass, that the widow may walk, as is the custom, three times round it. A hole is made in the wall, at the height of the pile, in which a beam, upwards of twenty feet long, is placed, with a rope fastened to the end of it, and hanging to the ground, for the purpose of making it oscillate.

When the widow has performed her ambulations, and taken off her jewels, which she distributes among her companions, she ascends the pile, and lies down, embracing the corpse of her husband. The beam is then put into motion, and falls upon her so heavily as to break her loins, or deprive her, at least, of the power of moving. The pile is then set on fire, and the music striking up,

contributes, with the shouts of the people, to drown the noise of her groans, and she is thus, in the full sense of the expression, burnt alive.

The following account of the burning of a Hindoo woman, on the funeral-pile of her deceased husband, is taken from the voyages of Stavorinus, who was an eye-witness of the ceremony.—" We found the body of the deceased lying upon a couch, covered with a piece of white cotton, and strewed with betel-leaves. The woman, who was to be the victim, sat upon the couch, with her face turned to that of the deceased. She was richly adorned, and held a little green branch in her right-hand, with which she drove away the flies from the body. She seemed like one buried in the most profound meditation, yet betrayed no signs of fear. Many of her relations attended upon her, who, at stated intervals, struck up various kinds of music.

" The pile was made by driving green bamboo-stakes into the earth, between which was first laid fire-wood, very dry and combustible; upon this was put a quantity of dry straw, or reeds, besmeared with grease; this was done alternately, till the pile was five feet in height, and the whole was then strewed with rosin, finely powdered. A white cotton sheet, which had been washed in the Ganges, was then spread over the pile, and the whole was ready for the reception of the victim.

" The widow was now admonished by a priest, that it was time to begin the rites. She was then surrounded by women, who offered her betel, and besought her to supplicate favours for them, when she joined her husband in the presence of *Ram*, or their highest god, and, above all, that she would salute their deceased friends, whom she might meet in the celestial mansions, in their names.

" In the meantime, the body of the husband was taken and washed in the river. The woman also was led to the Ganges for ablution, where she divested herself of all her ornaments. Her head was covered with a piece of silk, and a cloth was tied round her body, in which the priests put some parched rice.

" She then took a farewell of her friends, and was conducted, by two of her female relations, to the pile. When she came to it, she scattered flowers and parched rice upon the spectators, and put some into the mouth of the corpse. Two priests next led her three times round it, while she threw rice among the by-standers, who gathered it up with great eagerness. The last time she went round, she placed a little earthern burning lamp at each of the four corners of the pile; then laid herself down on the right-side, next to the body, which she embraced with both her arms; a piece of white cotton was spread over them both; they were bound together with two easy bandages, and a quantity of fire-wood, straw, and rosin, was laid upon them. In the last place, her nearest relation, to whom, on the banks of the river, she had given her nose-jewels, came with a burning torch, and set the straw on fire, and, in a moment, the whole was in a flame. The noise of the drums, and the shouts of the spectators, were such, that the shrieks of the unfortunate woman, if she uttered any, could not have been heard."

Another account of these horrid rites is given by a traveller of undoubted veracity.—" A young woman, twenty years of age, having been informed that her spouse died at two hundred leagues distance, resolved to celebrate his obsequies by burning herself alive. In vain was it represented to her, that the news was uncertain; nothing was capable of making her change the resolution she had taken. We saw her arrive at the place of her suffering, with such extraordinary gaiety and confidence, that I was persuaded she had stupified her senses with opium. At the head of the retinue, which accompanied her, was a band of the country music, consisting of hautboys and kettle-drums. After that came several virgins and married women, singing and dancing before the widow, who was dressed in her richest clothes, and whose neck, fingers, arms, and legs, were loaded with a profusion of jewels and bracelets. A troop of men, women, and children, followed, and closed the procession. She had previously washed herself in the river, that she might join her husband without any defilement. The funeral-pile was made of apricot-wood, mixed with branches of sandal and cinnamon. She beheld it afar off with contempt, and approached it with apparent composure: she took leave of her friends and relations, and distributed her ornaments amongst them. I kept myself near her, on horse-back, along with two English merchants. Judging, perhaps, by my countenance, that I was sorry for her, to comfort me, she threw me one of her bracelets, which I luckily caught hold of. When she was seated on the top of the pile, the attendants set fire to it, and she poured on her head a vessel of fragrant oil, which the [illegible] ne immediately seized on: thus she was stifled in a [illegible], without being observed to alter her countenan[illegible] [illegible] of the assistants threw in several cruses of [illegible] [illegible]se the fire, and filled the air with frightful cries [illegible] [illegible]ne was entirely consumed, her ashes were throw[illegible] [illegible]o the river."

History.] Zinghis Khan, who invaded Hindoostan in the year 1221, and compelled the emperor to forsake his capital, is said to have given the name of Mogul to India. Long before Tamerlane, descended in the female line from that conqueror, Mahometan princes had made conquests, and established themselves in India. After many revolutions, Tamerlane entered India, at the end of the year 1398, and rendered himself sovereign of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The history of the successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Hindoostan, with little interruption, more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but all writers

agree, that they were magnificent and despotic princes; that they committed their provinces to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating all his brethren, ascended the throne, and may be considered as the real founder of the empire. After his decease the empire was disputed by several of his descendants, most of whom had the imperial sway but a short time, till Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession. He was succeeded, in 1719, by a prince of the Mogul race, who assumed the name of Mahommed Shah: but having pursued measures obnoxious to his principal general, that officer invited Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Hindoostan. The invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. Nadir, however, when he had sufficiently enriched himself, reinstated Mahommed Shah; but a general defection of the provinces ensued. This circumstance was followed by an invasion from Achmet Abdallah, treasurer to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet put himself at the head of a powerful army, marched against Delhi, and being opposed by the Mogul's eldest son, Abmed Shah, a war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His son Achmet then ascended the imperial throne, and reigned about seven years.

About this time the Mogul empire may be said to have been virtually dissolved; for the Portuguese formed some settlements in India, which were followed by those of the Dutch. The French power began to predominate in 1749, but closed in 1761, with the loss of their principal settlement, Pondicherry. The English, as merchants, had long held small settlements in Hindoostan, but the expedition into Tanjore, in 1749, was the first enterprise against a native prince. Other contests followed, concerning Arcot, in the Carnatic. In 1756, the fort of Calcutta, the principal settlement of the English in the province of Bengal, was taken by the nabob, and many of our countrymen were barbarously suffered to perish in a confined prison, called the Black-hole, as already related. The battle of Plassey, fought in June, 1757, laid the foundation of the subsequent power of the English in India. Lord Clive, governor of Bengal, in 1765, obtained a grant from the nominal Mogul of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, on condition of paying him an annual tribute. In 1767, the English were engaged in a war with Hyder Ally, a military adventurer; who had dethroned the lineal sovereign of Mysore, and usurped the supreme authority, under the title of regent.

Hyder Ally, dying in 1783, was succeeded by his son, Tippoo Sultan, who, of all the native princes in India, proved the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1784, had, it was supposed, secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy which he shortly afterwards dispatched to France, afforded reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Mysore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian possessions; but this plan was happily defeated.

The increasing power of Tippoo was not less formidable to the Dutch than to the English; and the vicinity of Cochin, their most flourishing settlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aspiring monarch, made them entertain the greatest apprehensions for its safety. From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their situation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Mysore, (the rajah of Cochin,) the possession of them was a most desirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a professed intention of making himself master of it. Unable to retain the possession of the forts themselves, and fearing for a settlement of superior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negociation with the rajah of Travancore for the purchase of them. That politic people easily saw, that, by placing them in his hands, they erected a most powerful barrier, no less than the whole force of Great Britain, (who was bound by treaty to assist him,) against the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their settlement of Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon such a purchase while the title was disputed, drew down upon him the heaviest censures from the government at Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned not to proceed in the negociation. Such, however, were the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquisition, that he not only concluded the purchase with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for some adjacent territory.

Tippoo could not remain an indifferent spectator of these transactions. He insisted on the claim which he retained over these forts, in consequence of their being conquered by his father, and on the ground of a subsequent compromise. He asserted, that, according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place without his consent, as sovereign of Mysore; and, on the 29th of December, he made a direct attack, with a considerable force, upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonstrance from the British government of Fort St. George, however, he desisted, and remained perfectly quiet for nearly three months, though still asserting his claims to the feudal sovereignty of the forts.

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On the 1st of March, 1790, the rajah's troops made an offensive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place; and the British government conceived themselves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that were the object of the British administration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance existed between Great Britain and the two most powerful states of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; and both declared themselves in perfect readiness to assist in crushing the rising power of Mysore.

Three campaigns accordingly ensued: The first commenced in June, 1790, and concluded with that year. It was confined below the Ghauts. The second campaign contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the seat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of Lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May, 1791. The third commenced about that time, and terminated in March, 1792.

The following brief account of the progress and termination of this war is taken from a narrative drawn up by Major Dirom, from journals and other authentic documents.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumstances: the retreat of the two armies under General Abercrombie and Lord Cornwallis; the loss of cannon in both; an epidemic distemper among the cattle; and a dreadful scarcity of grain. "These evils, however," says our author, "vanished by degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas afforded a supply of necessaries; and arrangements were made for obtaining in future the most ample and regular provisions of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering-guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to secure the communication with the Carnatic, and reduce the power of the enemy in those parts. The British force was immediately and successfully employed to reduce Oussour, Rayacotta, and the other hill-forts commanding the Policode pass. The next object was the forts to the north-east of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army, and with the Carnatic, by that route. These being soon reduced, Nundydroog, built on the summit of a mountain, about one thousand seven hundred feet in height, a place of greater magnitude and strength, was attacked, and, after being besieged from September 22, was carried by assault on the 18th of October, in spite of obstacles which might have been deemed insurmountable.

"By means of dispositions made for that purpose, supplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kitsdagheri attacked on the 7th of November: this was almost the only enterprise that was not completely successful; the lower fort and pettah were taken; but the upper fort maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquished. It seems, that it could only have been carried by a *coup-de-main*, which unluckily failed. On the second of the same month, another instance of ill-success happened to us: the relief of Coimbetore having been prevented, that garrison was obliged to capitulate to Kummeer-ud-deen Khan, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

"Savendroog, or the Rock of Death, bore witness, in the month of December, to the ardour and perseverance of the British troops. This fortress, standing in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is a vast mountain of rock, and is reckoned to rise above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a base of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every side, and defended by cross-walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed accessible, this huge mountain had the further advantage of being divided above by a chasm, which separates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, form two citadels, capable of being maintained, independent of the lower works, and affording a secure retreat, which should encourage the garrison to hold out to the last extremity. It is not less famed for its noxious atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

"The sultan is said to have flattered himself, that, before this place, half the Europeans would die of sickness, and the other half be killed in the attack; he was, however, mistaken. The garrison trusted more to the strength of the place than to their own exertions, and, on the 21st of December, only the eleventh day of the siege, this fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by assault in less than an hour, in open day, without the loss of a man, only one private soldier having been wounded.

"Outredroog, and other forts, fell successively after this brilliant success. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the same interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long siege of Gurram-condah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta army, under Purseram Bhow, assisted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapoor, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January, 1792, the whole allied forces, excepting the Bombay army, was assembled in the vicinity of Hooleadroog.

"We now come to the operations against Seringapatam. On the 1st of February, 1792, the allies began their march, and by two o'clock on the 5th they encamped across the valley of Milgotah, only six miles from the position of Tippoo, before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the sultan, that he should receive so early an

attack as Lord Cornwallis destined for him. His camp was strongly situated, and fortified by a bound-hedge and several redoubts. Nevertheless, after causing his position to be reconnoitred in the morning of the sixth, the commander-in-chief issued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three divisions, and without cannon. The plan of attack was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army; but, like a discovery in science, which excites admiration when disclosed, it had only to be known, to meet with general applause.

"The result of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgment established on the island, in a strong position, where Lieutenant Stuart remained posted. All possible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by assault: and they were such as probably would have been crowned with full success. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under General Abercrombie, after overcoming various obstacles, joined the main army, and remained posted to the north-west of the city.

"On the 19th, it was stationed on the south side of the Caveri, in a situation that seemed to give the sultan much uneasiness. However, after attacking the advanced post of this army, on the night of the 21st, Tippoo made no further effort; and, on the 24th, when the preparations for the general assault were in great forwardness, it was announced, that preliminaries of peace were settled. The conferences for this purpose had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both sides continued till the 24th. After the cessation of arms, the conduct of Tippoo was so equivocal and suspicious, as to make it necessary, on the part of the British, to renew the preparations for the siege. Overawed, at length, by the firmness and decision of Lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the discontent of his own people, the sultan reluctantly submitted to the terms proposed; and on the 19th of March the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered, by his sons, to Lord Cornwallis and the agents of the allied princes.

"The substance of the treaty was, that Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers; that he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees; that all prisoners were to be restored; and that two of the sultan's eldest sons were to become hostages for the performance of the treaty."

The victories which had forced the sultan to sign this treaty served, for a short time, to suppress his ambition; but he still retained the same hatred of the British government, and resolved to revenge himself, whenever he should have an opportunity of resuming his arms. The war which took place between England and France, in consequence of the French revolution, seemed to present such an opportunity, and Tippoo willingly listened to the suggestions of French emissaries, that, by entering into an alliance with that republic, he might receive from it such aid and support, as should not only enable him to regain the territory he had lost, but entirely to expel the English from Asia, and share their territories with the French.

In the month of February, 1798, a proclamation was issued, by the governor-general of the Isle of France, importing that an embassy had arrived at that place, with letters from Tippoo Sultan, addressed not only to the governor of that island, but to the executive directory of France, proposing to conclude an offensive and defensive alliance with the French; and to commence against the British power in India a war of aggression, for which he declared himself to be fully prepared. The proclamation concluded, by offering encouragement to the subjects of France to enter into the service of the sultan, on terms to be fixed with his ambassadors. The circumstances attending this proclamation, on enquiry, established the fact, that Tippoo had actually concluded an alliance with the French; and it also appeared, that he had dispatched an embassy to Zemaun Shah, the sultan of the Abdalli, the object of which could be no other than to encourage that prince in the prosecution of his long-intended invasion of Hindoostan. The French expedition to Egypt, likewise, in the same year, appeared to have for its ultimate object the execution of a plan of invasion of the British settlements in India.

In consequence of these transactions, Lord Mornington, then governor-general of Bengal, addressed a letter to Tippoo Sultan, in which he expressed his surprise and concern at the intercourse he maintained, and the alliance he had formed, with the French; proposing to send to him Major Doveton, who might more fully explain the sole means which appeared effectual for removing all distrust and suspicion, and establishing peace and good understanding on the most durable foundation. His lordship, at the same time, expecting but little satisfaction from the negociation he had thus offered to open, determined promptly to assemble the armies on the coast of Coromandel and Malabar; and directed all his attention to strengthen and improve the defensive alliance concluded with the Nizam and the Paishwa of the Mahrattas. He also gave orders to the government of Fort St. George, to complete the equipment of their battering-train, and to advance it, with all practicable dispatch, to the most eligible station on the frontier of the Carnatic, with a view of proceeding towards Seringapatam, if such a movement should become necessary.

No other answer was received from Tippoo than vague professions of a wish to maintain peace and amity. The sultan, however, declined receiving Major Doveton, al-

ledging that no means more effectual could be devised than the treaties and engagements already entered into, to give stability to the foundations of friendship and harmony, or to promote the welfare and advantage of all parties.

As it was now sufficiently obvious, that the sultan only wished to gain time and increase his strength, Lord Mornington determined to avail himself of the superiority of his force, and commence hostilities immediately. Accordingly, on the 3d of February, 1799, he directed Lieutenant-General Harris to enter the territory of the Mysore, with the army assembled under his command: and, on the same day, issued orders to Lieutenant-General Stuart to be prepared to co-operate from Malabar; and signified to Rear-Admiral Rainier, and to the several allies of the company, that he now considered the British government in India to be at war with Tippoo.

The army of Bombay, under the command of Lieutenant-General Stuart, arrived at the head of the Poodicherrum-ghaut on the 25th of February, and took post at Seedapoor and Scedasere on the 2d of March. The army of Madras, under Lieutenant-General Harris, entered the territory of Mysore on the 5th of March, and commenced its operations by the reduction of several forts upon the frontier. On the 6th of March, Tippoo passed his own frontier, and attacked a detachment of the army of Bombay, under Lieutenant-General Stuart, the total strength of whose entire army did not amount to six thousand effective men. The attack of the enemy was sustained by a body not exceeding two thousand men, and the sultan's army was finally defeated and dispersed before General Stuart could collect the whole of his divided force.

In consequence of this signal defeat, Tippoo retreated to his camp, at Periapatam, and remained there until the 11th of March, without making any attempt to molest the army. He then returned to Seringapatam, whence, in a few days, he moved to meet Lieutenant-General Harris, and the army of Madras, between which and the forces of Tippoo an engagement took place on the 27th of March, in which the sultan was completely defeated, and driven from every post which he attempted to maintain. General Harris then proceeded on his march, without the least interruption, till, on the 30th, he crossed the Caveri, with his whole army, and, on the 5th of April, encamped within two miles of Seringapatam, which he resolved to besiege immediately.

On the 14th of April, the army of Bombay joined the army before Seringapatam. A large body of the enemy's cavalry had attended them closely during their march from Periapatam, but without producing any effect. On the night of the 20th, General Harris received a letter from Tippoo Sultan, expressive of a desire to open a negociation for peace To this overture the general replied by transmitting a draft of preliminaries, founded on instructions with which he had been furnished by the governor-general; and which were, in substance, that Tippoo should deliver all Frenchmen, or natives of the island of Mauritius or Bourbon, or of any other countries now subject to France, as also all Europeans, natives or subjects of countries at war with Great Britain, to be treated as prisoners of war; that he should renounce all connection with the French nation; that he should cede one half of the dominions, of which he was in possession before the war, to the allies; that he should pay two crores of rupees (above two million sterling); and that he should send, as hostages, four of his sons, and four of his principal officers, together with half the required treasure, within forty-eight hours, to the camp of the allies.—To these propositions the sultan replied, that they were weighty, and could not be brought to a conclusion without the intervention of ambassadors. General Harris, considering this as evidently intended to gain time, refused to admit any ambassadors, unless accompanied by the hostages and specie required.

The batteries began to batter in breach on the 30th of April; and, by the 3d of May, the walls were so much destroyed, that an arrangement was made for assaulting the place on the following day, when the breach was reported practicable. The troops, intended to be employed, were stationed in the trenches early in the morning of the 4th, that no extraordinary movement might lead the enemy to expect the assault, which it was determined to make in the heat of the day, as the time best calculated to insure success, since the troops of the sultan would then be least prepared to oppose the attack. Accordingly, at one o'clock, the troops began to move from the trenches, crossed the rocky bed of the Caveri, and mounted to the assault, in spite of every obstacle which the difficulty of the passage and the resistance of the enemy could oppose. Their impetuous attack was completely successful. Resistance, however, continued to be made from the palace of Tippoo, for some time after all firing had ceased from the works. Two of his sons were there, who, on assurance of safety, surrendered to the British troops; and guards were placed for the protection of the family, most of whom were in the palace. It was soon after reported, that Tippoo Sultan had fallen; and that many of his chiefs were slain. Measures were immediately adopted to stop the confusion, at first unavoidable in a city strongly garrisoned, crowded with inhabitants, with their property in ruins from the fire of a numerous artillery, and taken by assault.

The princes having been removed to the British camp, search was made for the body of the sultan; which, after much difficulty, was found in one of the gates, under a heap of slain. He had been shot through the head, and bayonetted in three parts of his body, as he attempted

to escape. The corpse was next day recognised by the family, and interred with the honours due to his rank.

Tippoo Sultan was, when he fell, about fifty years of age. He was about five feet nine inches high; his face was round, with large full eyes; and his countenance full of fire and animation. In his disposition, he was naturally cruel, passionate, and revengeful. It is probable, that his abilities have been over-rated, and that he was neither so wise a statesman, nor so able a general, as he has been represented. Though he possessed a considerable share of prudence, as not, in general, wanting either promptitude or judgment, he at last fell a victim to ill-concerted schemes, dictated by his ambition and thirst of revenge.

The death of this restless and ambitious prince has given a security to the British possessions of Hindoostan, which they never could have had during his life. His territories have been divided between the British, the Nizam, and the Paishwa of the Mahrattas, except certain districts of Mysore, which have been assigned to a descendant of the ancient Rajahs of Mysore, who is to pay an annual subsidy to the British government of seven lacks of pagodas, or seventy thousand pounds sterling.

CHAPTER IV.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

Situation, Boundaries, &c.

THIS peninsula, comprising the wide and various regions between Hindoostan and China, is situated between one and thirty degrees of north latitude, and between ninety-two and a hundred and nine degrees of east longitude. Its length is about two thousand miles; its breadth one thousand; and it is computed to contain a surface of 741,500 square miles. It is bounded by Tibet and China on the north; by China and the Chinese Sea, on the east; by the same sea and the Straits of Malacca, on the south; and by Hindoostan and the Bay of Bengal, on the west.

Divisions.] India beyond the Ganges is divided into the Birman empire, comprising Ava, Pegu, and Aracan; the kingdoms of Siam, Cochin-China, Achem, and Tonquin; and the countries of Malacca, Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa; which, for the sake of perspicuity, we shall describe under different sections.

SECTION I.

THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The climate of *Ava* is extremely salubrious; the seasons are regular; and the extremes of heat and cold seldom experienced; at least, the duration of the intense heat, which immediately precedes the commencement of the rainy season, is very short. The soil is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Sugar-canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and different tropical fruits, in perfection, are all indigenous products of this fertile country. Ava produces likewise the best teak-timber, or Indian oak, which, for ship-building, in warm climates, is superior to European oak. It abounds in mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires; it also affords amethysts, garnets, very beautiful chrysolites, jasper, loadstone, and marble.

Of quadrupeds, there are elks, elephants, and most others, both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia.

Pegu, being situated between the tropics, is flooded, when the sun is vertical; but the slime left by the waters fertilizes the low lands. The higher ground is parched with intense heat, after the rains have ceased; and the natives are obliged to water their fields by the communication of small channels from cisterns and reservoirs.

The hills of Pegu are clothed with fine wood, and the bamboos are of great utility to the natives. The country abounds with oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, pomegranates, bananas, durians, mangoes, goyvas, cocoa-nuts, tamarinds, pine-apples, &c.

The inhabitants use a great quantity of rice, and some wheat: they have plenty of garden-stuff, which is a chief part of their food. They have also pulse of various kinds, good poultry, and a variety of fish. In some of the royal parks are ponds of clear water, where tortoises, of a middle size, are kept and fed, the shells of which are a mixture of several colours.

This country produces rubies, small diamonds, and other precious stones, iron, tin, and lead, salt-petre, wood-oil, oil of earth, elephants' teeth, sugars, &c. The iron is excellent in its quality, and little inferior to steel. It is the opinion of many geographers, that the Golden Chersonesus of the ancients was the southern part of Pegu.

There are but few horses or sheep, but the people plough with oxen and buffaloes. Deer are exceedingly numerous; but though these animals are very fleshy, they are not fat. Not any place abounds more in elephants than this and the adjacent countries: they compute the strength of their armies by the number and size of these animals.

The soil of *Aracan* is very fertile, and produces all kinds of fruit, with various sorts of grain. The climate is healthful and pleasant in summer, but otherwise in winter; the inhabitants being subject to agues from the great rains that fall during that season, which continues from October to April.

Cities.] The present capital of the Birman empire is UMMERAPOORA, which, by its spires, turrets, and lofty obelisks, indicates its being the seat of royalty. It is situated between a lake on the south-east, and a large river on the north-west. The number and singularity of the boats, that are generally moored in the lake, and the surrounding amphitheatre of lofty hills, conspire to render the scene picturesque and interesting. The fort is an exact square, with public granaries and store-rooms, and there is a gilded temple at each corner. 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 seventy-seven pillars, disposed in eleven rows.

Of the ancient capital, AVA, the following description is given by Major Symes:—

"The walls of this city 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 into the new city of Ummerapoora: 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 guide 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 dilapidating by time. It is impossible to draw a more striking picture of desolation and ruin."

PEGU, formerly the capital of the country so called, is also in a ruinous state. It was rased, in 1757, by Alompra; but the temples were spared, and the vast pyramid of Shomodoo has alone been reverenced, and kept in repair. The present monarch, to conciliate the native Peguese, has permitted them to erect a new town within the spot on which their ancient city stood. It occupies about half its extent, and is the residence of the governor. It is decorated with that extraordinary edifice, the Shomodoo, situated on a double terrace. The building is composed of brick and mortar, octagonal at the base, and spiral at the top, without any cavity or aperture. Rangoon, though of recent foundation, is one of the chief ports of the Birman empire; and towards the mouth of the river Pegu stands Sirian, a place of considerable commerce, when in possession of the Portuguese. Martaban was a sea-port, much resorted to, till the harbour was clogged up, by order of the Birman monarch

ARACAN is a large and well-fortified city, situated in a valley, and fifteen miles in circumference. It is enclosed by very high stone walls, and surrounded by a ridge of steep craggy mountains, so artificially formed, as to render it almost impregnable; beside which, there is a castle within, strongly fortified. The city is well watered by a fine river, that passes through it in different streams, and at length forms two channels, which empty themselves into the Bay of Bengal. The environs are very extensive, and the adjoining countries extremely pleasant. The villages, mountains, &c. are beautifully diversified with fields of different kinds of grain, intermixed with pieces of water, and numerous flocks of cattle.

Government.] The Birman monarch, like the other oriental sovereigns, is despotic; and the prevailing characteristic of the court is pride. There are no hereditary dignities or employments in the Birman government. All honours and offices, on the demise of the possessor, revert to the crown. The titles the monarch assumes in his public acts are, "Lord of earth and air; the monarch of extensive countries; the proprietor of all kinds of precious stones; the king who performs the ten duties incumbent on all kings; the master of the white, red, and mottled elephants; whose praises are repeated far as the influence of the sun and moon extends."

But though the form of government is despotic, the monarch consults a council of ancient nobles. The *tsâloe*, or chain, is the badge of nobility, the number of strings or divisions denoting the rank of the person, being three, six, nine, or twelve, while the emperor alone wears twenty-four.

The royal establishment is arranged with great precision; princes bear the title of Praw, which is similar to that of Augustus with the Romans, and denotes sacredness and supremacy. The elder son of the monarch is styled Engy Teekien. Next in rank to the princes are the Won-

gees, or principal ministers of state, the name signifying "Bearer of the great burden." These are three or four in number, who form the ruling council of the nation, issue mandates to the viceroys of the several provinces, and, in fact, govern the empire, under the control of the monarch, whose will is absolute. There are inferior ministers and secretaries, who have their respective departments; so that the concerns of government are conducted with great order and precision.

Revenues.] The revenues of the Birman empire arise from one-tenth of all produce, and of foreign goods imported; but the amount cannot be satisfactorily ascertained. Yet, as grants are usually made in lands or offices, and as money is not issued from the royal treasury but on urgent occasions, it is reasonable to conclude, that the monarch is immensely rich.

Military and Naval Force.] Every man in the Birman 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 forty pounds sterling. The family of the soldier are detained as hostages; and, in case of cowardice or desertion, suffer death. 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 twenty thousand miserable firelocks. But the war-boats form the chief military establishment, consisting of about five hundred, formed out of the solid trunk of the teak-tree, the length from eighty to a hundred feet, but the breadth rarely exceeding eight. The prow is solid, with a flat surface, on which a piece of ordnance is mounted; the rowers are provided with swords and lances, and the soldiers are armed with muskets; and each boat is usually manned by about eighty or ninety men. The attack is impetuous, and chiefly conducted by grappling; but, the vessels lying low in the water, the greatest danger is that of being run down, by a larger boat striking the broad-side.

On the declaration of war, the heralds proclaim their sovereign's will with flaming torches in their hands; and the governors of provinces are obliged to raise such a number of troops as the state wants, in addition to the accustomed military establishment. Upon these occasions, a troop of perhaps several hundreds of elephants are seen in full march, the king seated on his throne upon the back of one of the whitest, attended by all his nobles, with trumpets, and other military music, sounding as they march to the field of battle.

Laws.] The laws of the Birman empire are founded on their leading principles of religion, and form a system of jurisprudence well adapted to the promotion of moral rectitude.

If a man be imprisoned for debt, and cannot, or will not, pay his creditor, the latter may dispose of him as a slave; and this privilege, granted to creditors, stimulates the common people to industry.

In fact, their system of laws adapts punishments to every species of crime, and subjoins precedents and decisions, to direct the inexperienced in all doubtful and difficult cases. The laws may be said to inform the prince and the magistrate of their respective duties, in manly and energetic language.

Language and Literature.] The Birman alphabet represents thirty-three simple sounds, and is written from left to right, like the European. Major Symes, who visited the country in the year 1795, says, the Birman books are more neatly executed than those of the Hindoos, and that in every *kioul*, or monastery, there is a library. He expresses surprise at the number contained in the royal library, and also at observing the books to be regularly classed, and the contents of each chest written, in gold letters, on the lid. The librarian very politely, he adds, opened two of the chests, and shewed him some very beautiful writing on their leaves of iron, the margins of which were ornamented with flowers of gold, neatly executed. The major was informed, that the books were upon various subjects; and that divinity, history, music, medicine, painting, and romance, had their separate treatises. The volumes were disposed under distinct heads, regularly numbered. He concludes this part of his account with remarking, that "if all the other chests were as well filled as those which were submitted to his 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."

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Birmans are very expert in gilding, and other ornamental manufactures. Their edifices and boats are constructed with taste and elegance; and at one of their villages is a manufacture of marble idols, the materials being remarkably fine, and almost transparent.

A very considerable trade is carried on between the capital of Ava and Unan, the nearest province of China, consisting chiefly in cotton, with amber, ivory, precious stones, and beetle-nuts; the returns being raw and wrought silks, velvets, gold-leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hardware. Some thousands of boats are employed every year in transporting rice from the lower provinces, to supply Unanratoora and the northern districts. European broad-cloths, and hardware, coarse Bengal muslins, China-ware and glass, are imported by foreigners. The Birmans, like the Chinese, have no coin; but their currency consists of silver in bullion, and lead.

Commerce derives most essential service from the two noble rivers, Burampooter and the Ganges; which, when

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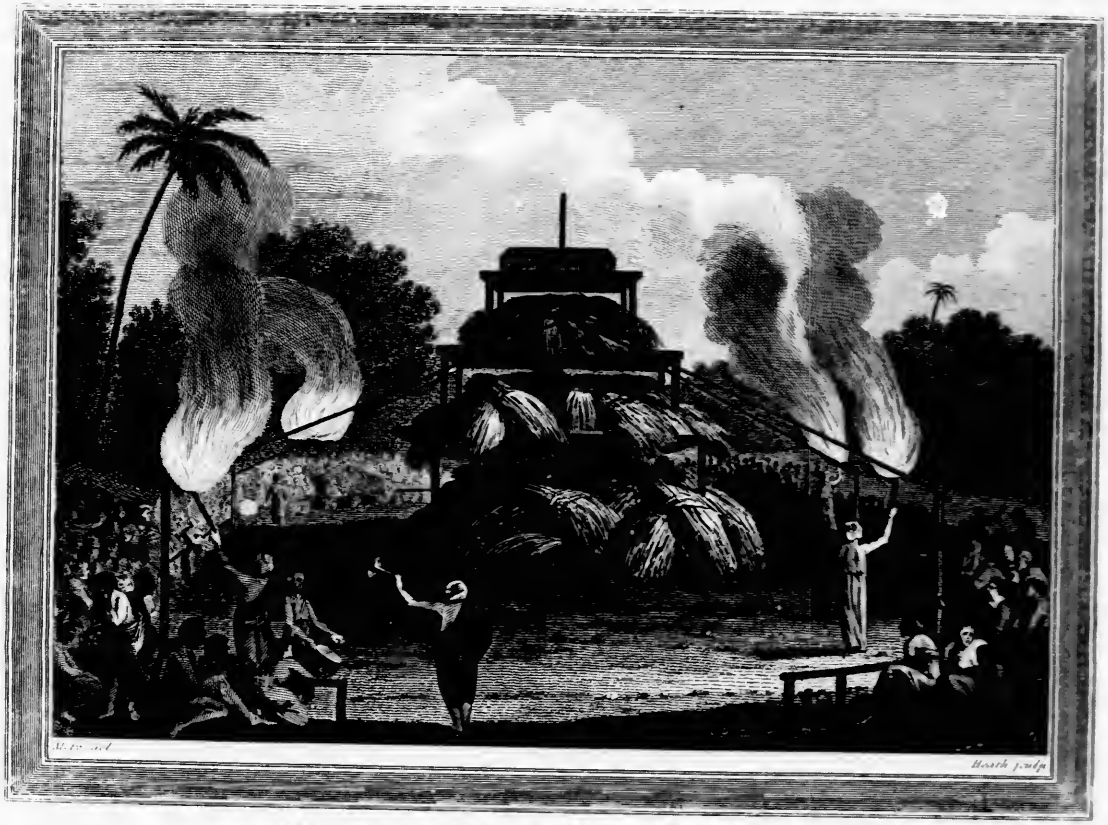

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they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude of channels, and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys, by their means, the finest inland navigation that can be imagined.

Religion.] The Birmans are not votaries of Brahma, but of Boodh, who reformed many doctrines inculcated by the former, and severely censured the sacrifice of cattle, or even depriving any creature of life. The Birmans believe in transmigration, after which the radically bad will be sentenced to lasting punishment, while the good will enjoy eternal happiness. Mercy they deem the principal attribute of the deity.

The talapoins, or priests, recommend charity and humanity, as the greatest of virtues; and, indeed, these men do honour to human nature, if the accounts given of them be correct. When the master of a vessel happens to be shipwrecked on the coast, and, by this calamity, becomes the slave of the sovereign, the talapoins humanely intercede for him, and take him under their care and protection. In their temples these men supply a distressed stranger with every thing he wants: and, as they are physicians as well as priests, they tenderly take care of sick persons, and, after their recovery, give them letters of recommendation to some other convent on the road.

The actions of these men are influenced by real charity and benevolence. They never make any enquiries about a stranger; it is sufficient that he is a human being, and that they can relieve his necessities. All religions are by them deemed good, which inculcate the moral duties and social virtues. They think that persecution, and all modes of worship which are contrary to humanity or universal philanthropy, are obnoxious to Providence; and that the Almighty delights not in being adored in various ceremonials; but that all modes of adoration should be consistent with the most refined benevolence.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Birmans are generally robust, and distinguished by remarkably broad and flat foreheads. They are so fond of this formation, that, when a child is born, they bind a plate of lead on the forehead, which they do not remove till they are satisfied it has had the desired effect. Their noses are exceedingly red, and the nostrils wide: but their eyes are small, and quick of discernment.

The men are of an olive complexion, but the women are much fairer. Both are thinly clad, and the highest orders among them wear neither shoes nor stockings. They let their hair grow long, which they tie on the top of their heads with a riband, in the form of a pyramid. When women of fashion go abroad to pay visits, they wear a frock, of cotton or silk, under which is a scarf, girded round the waist, and hanging almost to their ancles. This dress is said to have been the invention of a Birman queen, who considered it as the most graceful that could adorn the sex. Their hair is divided into locks, each of which is tied and ornamented with knots of fine cloth. The colour of the habits of the common people is generally a dark purple.

The disposition of the Birmans is strikingly contrasted with that of the natives of Hindoostan, from whom they are separated only by a narrow ridge of mountains. 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 Birmans are lively, inquisitive, irrascible and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours is precisely the reverse. The unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most oriental nations to immure their women within the walls of a harem, and surround them with guards, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this more liberal people. The wives and daughters of the Birmans are not concealed from the sight of men, but are suffered to have as free intercourse with each other, as the rules of European society admit.

The women, however, have just cause of complaint; as the law makes a degrading distinction between the sexes. The evidence of a woman is not equally valid with that of a man, nor is a female permitted to enter a court of justice, but must give her testimony on the outside. The custom of selling women to strangers is not held to be disgraceful; so that a foreigner, during his stay at any of the places within this empire, may be accommodated with a temporary companion: hence most of the foreigners who trade here take a female, and, from the account of travellers, they are, in general, very faithful to their foreign masters, and often essentially useful in transacting their business; but, when a foreigner leaves the country, he is not permitted to take his temporary wife with him; to prevent which, every ship, previous to departure, is searched by officers of the customs; and, if their vigilance should be eluded, means would be used to discover the ship in which the woman had embarked, so that it could never again put into a Birman port, without being liable to a confiscation of property, and subjecting the master to a heavy fine and imprisonment. Female children, descended from Birman mothers, are not permitted to be taken from the country. Men are at liberty to emigrate, but women are detained, as their departure would injure the common-wealth, by contracting the sources of population.

The houses of the Birmans are small, and built with branches of palm-trees, or canes, raised upon pillars, and covered with leaves of the cocoa-tree; but the better sort have more spacious buildings. All the houses are without chimnies, or any convenience for firing, so that they dress their victuals without doors, in earthen pots.

The Birmans are fond of poetry and music, and among their instruments is one called Heem, resembling the ancient pipe of Pan, formed of several reeds, neatly joined together, and sounded by a common mouth-piece, so as to produce a plaintive melody. Their principal diversions are fishing and hunting, the celebration of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

The treatment of the sick, in some parts of the empire, is so absurd and inhuman, as almost to exceed credibility. When a patient is considered incurable, he is immediately taken to the bank of some river, where he is left to be drowned, or to be devoured by beasts and birds of prey. This barbarous custom, however, is chiefly confined to the people of Aracan.

The Birman funerals are solemnized with great parade, and external demonstrations of grief. The bodies of the rich are burnt; but those of the poor are either deposited in the earth, or cast into the river. Persons of rank are embalmed after their decease, and honey is the principal ingredient used to preserve the body from corruption.

History.] 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. 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 sovereignty over Pegu till about the year 1740, when a civil war broke out, during which the British factory at Sirian was destroyed. 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 kingdom. 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 obscure birth, 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 called Rangoon, which signifies "victory achieved;" and, soon after, chastised the people of Cassy, 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 Shomodoo served as a citadel. This capital was invested in January, 1757, and, in about three months, was taken by the Birmans. Alompra then proceeded to subdue the countries to the eastward, as far as the ancient boundary between Pegu and Siam. Tavoy has been since added to the Birman possessions in this quarter.

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, which was easily taken, and was followed by the conquest of the large and populous city of Tanaserim.

The conqueror next advanced against the capital of Siam; but, two days after the siege had commenced, he was seized with a fatal disease, which saved the Siamese from destruction. He died within two days' march of Martaban, about the 15th of May, 1760, regretted by his people, who 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.

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 crown.

Shembuen, to divert the national attention, declared war against Siam, and, in 1760, two armies entered that country, from the north and south, and, being united, defeated the Siamese, about seven days' journey from their capital The Siamese monarch privately withdrew, after a blockade of two months, and the city capitulated; a governor being appointed, who swore allegiance to the Birman sovereignty, and engaged to pay an annual tribute.

Alarmed at the progress of these conquests, the Chinese advanced an army from the province of Yunen, but they were completely defeated by the Birmans. Policy spared the captives, who were invited to marry Birman wives, the Hindoo prejudices being here unknown. Shembuen re-

built 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 rajah 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.

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 Arracan, the rajah being of a supine character, and his subjects unwarlike, though they had never been reduced to pay homage to any foreign power. This project was formed in 1783, and was speedily effected.

After this conquest, the Birman arms were again turned against Siam, and, in 1785, a fleet was sent to subdue the Isle of Junkseylon, which carries on a considerable trade in ivory and tin, and is the only remaining mart of Siamese trade on this coast. Meeting with a repulse, the Birman monarch left his capital, at the head of thirty thousand men, with a train of twenty field-pieces; but was defeated by the king of Siam, who, in his turn, failed in an invasion of the viceroyalty of Martaban, which comprehends all the Birman possessions of the south. In 1793, a treaty was ratified between the Birmans and Siamese, by which the latter ceded the western maritime towns, as far south as Merghi. But, with this exception, and that of some northern provinces, the Siamese monarchy retains a considerable portion of its ancient fame.

SECTION II.

SIAM.

Extent and Boundaries.] The length of the kingdom of Siam is about ten degrees, or nearly seven hundred British miles; but of this about one half is not more than seventy miles in medial breadth. It is bounded by Pegu and Laos, on the north; by Cambodia and Cochin-China, on the east; by Malacca and the Bay of Siam, on the south; and by the ocean, on the west.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The winter here is dry, and the summer wet. Were it not that the sun draws clouds and rain, and the wind blows from one pole, when the sun is declined towards the other, the torrid zone could not be inhabited. Thus, in Siam, that luminary being to the south of the line during winter, the north winds blow continually, and cool the air. On the contrary, in the summer, while it is to the north of the line, and vertical to the Siamese, the south winds prevail, and thus either cause incessant rains, or, at least, dispose the weather to be humid. The land seems to be formed by the mud descending from the mountains; to which mud, and the overflowings of the river, the soil owes its fertility; for in the higher parts, not reached by the inundation, all is dried and burnt up by the sun, soon after the cessation of the rains.

Vegetables.] Those trees in Siam are the most profitable which produce cotton, oil, and varnish, to which may be added the bamboo, as it grows to a prodigious size, and is of great utility. In the forests is produced timber for ship-building, house-building, &c. Cinnamon-trees are natives of Siam, but not so good as those of Ceylon. The iron-wood, which grows here, furnishes anchors. There is, likewise, a wood as light as fir, and of the same colour, but more adapted for carving.

The grain principally used in Siam is rice; but wheat is sometimes sown upon the land that the inundation does not extend to. This is watered by small channels, cut through the fields. The natives rear pulse and roots in their gardens; and they have radishes, garlic, and potatoes; but no parsnips, carrots, onions, or turnips; nor have they any of the esculent herbs that are used in Europe.

In tilling their land, the Siamese employ both oxen and buffaloes. These they guide by a cord run through the gristle of the noses of the animals, with a knot on each side, that it may not slip: it also passes through a hole or ring at the head of the machine used for ploughing. Nothing can be more simple than this plough: it consists of three pieces of wood; one is a long beam, which serves for the draught-tree or pole; another is crooked, serving for the handle; the third is a strong short piece, fastened underneath at the end of the handle; and it is this which bears the share. The whole is fixed together by leathern thongs.

Of flowers, here are tuberoses, jessamins, gilly-flowers, tricolets, amaranthuses, &c.; and among the fruits may be enumerated oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, tamarinds, bananas, ananas, mangoes, &c.

Animals.] The quadrupeds here are tigers, horses, oxen, buffaloes, sheep, and goats; and there are some hares, but not any rabbits. There is great plenty of deer. The elephants of Siam are of distinguished sagacity; and those of a white colour are treated with a degree of veneration; as the Siamese, according to their ideas of transmigration, believe that the souls of such are royal.

The birds are peacocks, doves, pigeons, partridges,

snipes, parrots, sparrows, and various others. A bird, called the nooktho, is a very remarkable one; it is larger than an ostrich, and has a bill near three feet long.

The sea yields fine lobsters, delicate turtles, and small oysters, besides a variety of fish that Europeans are unacquainted with. Here are fine river-fish, particularly eels.

The insects are white ants. gnats, palmer-worms, &c. The river Meinam is, at distant intervals, infested with small poisonous serpents; and the trees on its banks are 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.

Minerals.] This country is said to have been formerly rich in minerals; and this appears correct from the great number of statues, and other cast works, that are found here, many of which are of gold. M. Vincent, a French physician, discovered a mine of very good steel, and another of crystal; also a mine of antimony, and another of emery; exclusive of a quarry of white marble, and a rich gold mine. The latter he concealed from the natives. They had plenty of tin, which is rendered hard, as well as white, by being mixed with kedmia, a mineral reduced easily to powder: and this white tin is called tutenage. There is a mountain, near the city of Louvo, which produces loadstones: and there is another, near Jonsalam, on the Malacca coast.

Rivers.] The principal rivers are the Meinam, or mother of waters, which discharges itself into the gulf of Siam; the Mecon, that passes through Laos and Cambodia, and the Tenaserim, which falls into the Bay of Bengal.

Cities.] Yuthia, or Siam, the capital of the kingdom, is situated on an isle, formed by the river Meinam; and, as it is intersected by several navigable canals, the convenience to the inhabitants is very great. The walls are thick and high. The only public edifices worthy of notice, are the temples, the pyramids, and the royal palace; but even these are greatly inferior to those of the Birmans.

Bankok, which is about eighteen leagues to the south of Siam, and twelve miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon. The Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands at the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belongs to Siam.

Government.] The government of Siam is despotic, and the sovereign, as among the Birmans, is revered with honours almost approaching to adoration. His ministers, when in council, never presume to address him, but upon their knees. He has two bodies of horse-guards, who are natives of Laos and Meen; and a third, composed of foreigners. These guards attend his majesty on all his excursions; but they are never suffered to enter the palace-gates The king, when he goes abroad, either rides upon an elephant, most superbly caparisoned, or is carried in a grand chair. Once a year, he passes through the city, with a numerous train of elephants, and bands of music. The populace, during the procession, fall prostrate at his approach, and rise, after he has passed, to gaze at him.

No officer, or other person, must ever presume to approach the king in his royal apartment, without a previous order; nor must the great officers visit each other privately; the visit must be on some public occasion; and they must always speak loud, so as to be heard; for, if they speak in a low tone of voice, they are suspected of some disloyal design.

Nobility, in Siam, does not depend on dignity of birth, or extent of possessions, but exclusively on the favour of the prince. He sometimes ennobles persons of the meanest extraction, provided they have performed any particular services. To these he gives, as a mark of distinction, either a golden or silver bousette, to hold their betel. The king has many lords, who are peculiarly attached to his person: these always live within the palace. Others are employed without, to govern affairs, and preserve good order among the people. The rank of each nobleman is distinguished, when he appears abroad, by the richness of his sword, as well as other marks of honour.

Ambassadors are considered in a very inferior light at the Siamese court, being deemed only the special messengers of the princes whom they represent. Those who come from the neighbouring sovereigns, that are dependent on, or connected with, the king of Siam, are obliged to prostrate themselves before him, and advance towards him on their hands and knees. Ambassadors from Asiatic monarchs are treated with some degree of greater respect. European ambassadors are exempted from many of the ceremonials which the others are obliged to observe.

Laws.] The laws of Siam are represented by all travellers as extremely severe; death or mutilation being punishments sometimes inflicted for trivial offences, though some are rational and equitable.

That for robbery is the being obliged to pay double the value of the effects stolen, or the suffering corporal punishment, in case the delinquent have no effects to compensate.

He who wrongfully keeps possession of another man's estate, is considered as a thief or robber; so that, when ejected by law, he is not only obliged to restore the inheritance to its right owner, but also to pay, exclusively, the full value of such estate; half of which goes to the injured party, and the other half to the judge who tries the cause.

Those convicted of treason or murder are trampled to death by elephants. Omissions, in a general execution of orders, are punished by cutting the head with a sword, called pricking the head, as if to punish the memory.

The bastinado is sometimes exercised in a very rigorous manner. Almost the smallest appearance of guilt confirms the crime; and to be accused is nearly sufficient to render a man culpable.

Revenue.] The revenues of the king arise from cultivated lands, exports and imports, vessels, gardens, fruits, fines, confiscations, &c. The sovereign claims six months' labour from all his male subjects; if he be at war, they are enrolled as soldiers; but, in time of peace, they are employed in agriculture, mining, building, fishing, rowing, &c. They are divided into bands, each of which is under the direction of a proper officer, who frequently supplies their necessities, by lending them money, or paying their creditors; but this often turns out to his own advantage, as all who are insolvent become his slaves.

Army and Navy.] The latest travellers that have visited this country estimate the army that might be occasionally raised at sixty thousand, with not less than three or four thousand elephants. During a war, the officers under the king raise one recruit from every two, three, or four houses, which otherwise pay a fine of about forty pounds sterling.

The Siamese navy consists of about half a dozen capital ships, the crews of which are foreigners: there are, however, exclusive of these, about sixty gallies of war; but they are small, with only one man to an oar, who is obliged to row standing, the oar being so short, that, if not held perpendicularly, it would not touch the water. The king, in his naval expeditions, only makes reprisals on such of his neighbours as injure him in his commerce. His royal balons, or pleasure-barges, consist of about a hundred and fifty, and are very magnificent.

Language and Literature.] In this country there are two languages spoken, the Siamese and the Bali. The words chiefly consist of monosyllables, like the Chinese. In literature, the higher orders make considerable progress, as they are placed at an early age under the tuition of the talapoins, or priests, by whom they are instructed in such branches of learning as are necessary to qualify them for the respective departments in life for which they are intended.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The despotism of the Siamese government is a great restraint upon manufacture, and particularly the custom of devoting the service of six months, by every subject, to the king. Though these people are not much skilled in the fabrication of iron and steel, they are said to excel in that of gold. They import some jewels from Hindoostan, and export rice, in great quantities, to the Asiatic islands, and carry on an extensive trade in deer-skins with the Japanese.

Religion.] The talapoins teach the doctrine of transmigration, and inculcate many tenets equally absurd and paradoxical: but they tolerate the free exercise of all other religions.

The principles of the Siamese morals are reduced to five negative precepts: The first, "kill nothing," is extended to vegetables and seeds, as well as animals; because they believe the seed contains the plant, or is only the plant itself, under a cover. The person, therefore, who keeps the precept inviolate, must live solely upon fruit, which they consider only as part of a thing that has life, and which does not suffer by having its fruit plucked from it; but, in eating the fruit, the kernel must be preserved, as being a seed. The precept even forbids the destruction of any thing in nature; they believe, that, to break a branch of a tree is like breaking the arm of an innocent man, and offends the soul of the tree; but, when once the soul has been dislodged from any body, they think there is no crime in feeding upon the latter. They have methods of evading many of the rules ordained by their religion.

The second precept, "steal nothing," is most religiously observed; as is the third, generally, "commit no impurity." The fourth, "lie not, nor slander," is enforced with great zeal by the talapoins, and observed, as much as the frailty of the human heart will admit, by their disciples. The fifth and last precept, "drink no intoxicating liquors," prohibits not only the drinking strong liquors to excess, but even the tasting them at all.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives of Siam are of small stature, but well-proportioned: their complexions are tawny, and both sexes have broad faces: their eyes are small, their mouths large, their lips thick, their noses short, and their jaws hollow. Their hair is black and thick, and each sex has it cut so short as to reach only to the top of their ears, which are particularly large. Both men and women dye their teeth black.

The dress of the Siamese is very light, the warmth of the climate rendering clothes almost unnecessary. A muslin shirt, with wide sleeves, and a kind of loose drawers, are the principal garments of the rich, a mantle being added in the winter. A high conical cap covers the head. The women do not use the shirt, but a scarf, and the petticoat is of painted calico. From the Mahometans rose the use of popushes, a kind of pointed shoe, without either quarter or heel, which they leave at the doors of the houses they enter, to avoid soiling the rooms.

Their houses are small, constructed of bamboos, and raised upon pillars, to guard against inundations. Those of the higher orders only differ in extent and ornaments.

The principal pieces of furniture are, a small couch, covered with a mat, which serves for a seat by day, and a bed by night; but, when they retire to rest, a mattress, stuffed with cotton, is added, in lieu of a bed; many have likewise a sheet, a quilt, and a pillow; the rest of the fur-

niture consists of lacquered tables, cabinets with drawers, copper and earthen vessels, china-ware, &c. Besides which, every family has a chest of working-tools.

Rice and fish are their chief articles of food; but they also eat lizards, rats, and several kinds of insects. The value of about a penny sterling will procure a poor man his daily pound of rice, with some dried fish, and arrack. The buffaloes yield rich milk, but butter, in this climate, would soon melt and become rancid, and cheese is unknown. Little animal-food is used here, mutton and beef being extremely bad. The higher orders have a favourite dish, called balachaun, made of small fish, reduced to a mash; and luxuries are introduced at stated festivals.

The Siamese have very clear ideas, and are extremely engaging in conversation. They are naturally kind and complaisant, though rather haughty when too much submission is shewn them. They abhor drunkenness; and a sincere affection subsists between men and their wives, who teach their offspring to be temperate, modest, obliging, and affectionate. They are partial to the customs of their ancestors, and little admire the curiosities of foreign countries.

Great subordination is observed here. Servants and slaves, when in the presence of their superiors, must either kneel, or sit on their heels, with their heads inclined, and their hands raised to their foreheads. When persons of inferior rank pass their superiors in the street, they bow the body, join their hands, and raise them to their heads. In visits, an inferior prostrates himself, and never speaks till he is addressed by the person to whom he makes the visit. The visited offers his place to the visitant, and presents him with fruit, betel, &c. The right-hand is looked upon as more honourable than the left; and that part of a room opposite the door is always offered to a visitor. If there be many guests present, they are all seated according to their respective ranks.

The fair sex, in this country, are not under much restraint, and are, in general, married at a very early age. The espousals are concluded by female negociators, and, as wealth is carefully concealed, for fear of extortion from the prince or magistrate, a magician is consulted respecting the propriety of the marriage. If his opinion be favourable, the lover makes three formal visits to his mistress. On the third visit, the relations of the parties meet, when the bride's portion is paid, and the marriage is considered as fully completed, without further ceremony. But, a few days afterwards, the new-married couple are sprinkled with water, appropriated for that purpose, and prayers are offered to heaven for their felicity. The wedding is then celebrated with feasting, dancing, and music, at the house of the bride's father. Although the men are permitted to marry several wives, very few, except the higher classes, have more than one; and this is done rather for grandeur, than from motives of either convenience or regard. Amongst the ordinary class, women work for their husbands, and maintain them during the whole time they are in the service of the prince, which is about six months in the year. They till the land, buy and sell goods, and do other necessary business. Divorce is here tolerated, on condition that the husband restores to his wife the portion she brought him. In this case, the children are divided equally between the disunited parties, who are at liberty to marry again as soon as they please.

The method of travelling in Siam, is riding on the buffalo, the ox, and the elephant. Every person has an unlimited privilege to hunt and take a wild elephant, but he must not kill him. The female is employed in common uses, and the male is trained for war. Persons of rank ride in chairs, or sedans, which are square, with flat seats, placed on biers, and carried on mens' shoulders. To some there are eight men, to others four. The Europeans have the privilege of riding in palanquins, or canopied coaches, carried on mens' shoulders. Umbrellas are not allowed, but to such natives as have the royal sanction. The Siamese amusements consist of theatrical entertainments, taken from their mythology, interspersed with pantomime and dancing. They have, also, ox-races, boat-races, tumbling, wrestling, rope-dancing, and exhibitions of fire-works: and, as the men are extremely indolent, they are much addicted to games of chance.

The funeral-ceremonies of the Siamese resemble, in many instances, those of the Chinese. Their dead are deposited in lacquered coffins, which are placed upon a table, till every necessary preparation is made for the funeral. In the meantime, they light up tapers, and burn perfumes. The talapoins, or priests, assemble, and sing stanzas, for which they are well requited by the relations of the deceased. The corpse, in proper time, is taken into the fields to be burnt. The pile is made near some temple, in a square spot of ground, fenced with bamboo. The body is decorated with gilt and stained papers, representative of birds, flowers, fruits, &c. which are for the use of the deceased in the other world, where such emblems are supposed to be animated and realized. Various instruments of solemn music attend the procession to the funeral-pile, and the mourners are all dressed in white.

When they arrive at the place of interment, the body is taken out of the coffin, and laid on the pile; then the priests sing, and a fire-work is played off. About noon (for it is in the morning the dead are thus carried) the pile is kindled, and the ashes of the deceased are afterwards deposited in some part of the temple. The poorer sort do not burn the bodies of their deceased relations, but

other privately inter them, or else expose them on a scaffold in an open field, where they are devoured by birds of prey.

History.] By Loubere's account, the first king of Siam began to reign in the year 1300 of their epoch, or about 756 years after the Christian era. In 1568, the Pegu monarch 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 the year 1620, Rajah Hapi delivered his crown from this servitude. In 1680, Phalcon, a Greek adventurer, being 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, in consequence, ceased. The latter events of Siamese history are similar to, and coeval with, those of the Birman Empire.

Turpin asserts, that the first king began to reign about 1444 years before Christ, and that he had forty successors before the epoch of the Portuguese discovery, in 1546, many of whom were precipitated from their thrones, on account of their despotism. He says, that all these kings were of different families; and it is, therefore, 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 Birman monarch, ended in the subjugation of Siam; but the time when this happened is not known. Repeated cruelties sully the page of Siamese history; and one of the monarchs made the following ingenious apology for his own despotism.

"A Sancrit, 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 Sancrit 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 his 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 reward merit and virtue."

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 two hundred tons of elephants' teeth.

In 1760, a remarkable revolution happened in Siam, preceded by violent civil wars between two rival princes. According to Forbin, in 1754, the Birmans, or people of the kingdom of Ava, had already languished five years under the Pegu domination, and had beheld the death of their king, their queen, and the greater part of their princes. The remembrance of their past misfortunes, and the acute sense of their humiliating servitude, 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, though 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 Birmans 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 conquest. He then dispatched thirty ships to pillage the cities of Merghi and Tanaserim; and was persuaded, that he should easily subdue the whole kingdom of Siam.

Upon the first tidings of this irruption, the Siamese monarch sent to the bishop of Tabraca, to request the assistance of the Christians; who, though only amounting to one hundred, behaved with great bravery. The Birman sovereign was only at a distance of three days' march from the capital, when he was attacked with an abscess, which proved mortal. Nevertheless, the suburbs of the Dutch quarter were ravaged and burnt; and the surrounding country exposed to the greatest cruelties. The death of Manlong, however, delivered the capital; the youngest of his sons, having assumed the sceptre, found himself under the necessity of returning to his own kingdom, in order to stifle any revolt.

The king of Siam was forced, soon after, to abdicate the

throne, having rashly pronounced a sentence of death against the favourite of his brother. He became a Talapoin, or priest, in May, 1762, and his example was followed by many nobles. Siam remained in a state of security, upon the report that the Birman prince had been dethroned upon his return to Ava; and that his elder brother, who had succeeded, had no wish to make conquests. The pacific monarch, however, having died suddenly, and a pretence of war being afforded by the assistance lent by the Siamese to a rebel Birman governor, on the 10th of January, 1765, in the dusk of the evening, a confused noise of a multitude, who filled the air with lamentations, was suddenly heard along the river of Merghi. This tumult occasioned a conjecture, that the enemy were about to appear. In fact, the Birmans were only three or four leagues from the town, and a pilot had perceived ten of their vessels. Yet, the reports being various, a momentary calm succeeded. But, about four o'clock in the morning, the sound of cannon announced the arrival of the enemy. Their conduct, though cruel, was not so atrocious as in the war of 1760.

After the capture of Merghi, a Birman general conducted the greater part of their army to the city of Tanaserim, which was reduced to ashes; but the victorious army, more intent on pillage than anxious to establish 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. The provinces on the north-west of the royal city were ravaged, the inhabitants only saving themselves by their dispersion into forests. The fire, which devoured the towns and villages, threw terror into the capital, and the Siamese, threatened with destruction, reunited their forces. They tried the fate of a battle, and fought with unusual ardour; but their sanguinary defeat left their country in the power of the conqueror. The fields, ravaged by the consuming flames, presented nothing but ashes; and famine became then more terrible than war. The Birmans built, at the confluence of two rivers, a fortified station, which they called Michong. 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; and, after some conference with the ministers, prepared 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 this dastardly court, on the demand of the captain for more ammunition, became afraid that he would, with his single ship, conquer this ancient monarchy. The Englishman, 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 this retreat, the Birmans, finding no opposition, spread universal desolation; and even the temples were destroyed by fire. The superstitious monarch and his ministers placed all their confidence in their magicians. Even the officers and the soldiers, instead of military exercise, were solely occupied in the study of charms, supposed to render the wearers invisible. A Siamese prince, who had been banished to Ceylon, found means to raise a little army, and return to the assistance of his country: but 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 Birmans, who, on the 7th of September, 1766, advanced within a quarter of a mile of the city, and, seizing on a high tower, raised a battery of cannon, which rendered them masters of the river. The danger becoming urgent, six thousand Chinese were charged with the defence of the Dutch factory, and of an adjacent temple. After some skirmishes, the Birmans made an assault, and seized on five considerable temples, which they changed into fortresses, opening a heavy cannonade. But, in an assault, on the 8th of December, they were obliged to retire. The Siamese officers, however, 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 completed the horrid scene. During six months, the dead bodies in the streets were devoured by 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 their own officers, or, at least, a speedy death, more agreeable than the horrors of a lingering dissolution. The Dutch factory was in vain defended by the Portuguese and the Chinese; and, after a siege of eight days, it was taken and reduced to ashes. The whole Christian quarter of the city shared a similar fate; and the virgins were obliged to marry the first young men that presented themselves, the Birmans always reverencing the matrimonial tie.

After an ineffectual negociation, in which the Birmans insisted upon an unconditional surrender, the city was taken by assault, on the 28th of April, 1767. The wealth of the palace and temples was consumed, and the golden idols melted, by which the avaricious designs of the victors were frustrated. Scenes of violation and cruelty fol-

lowed their disappointment. The great officers of the kingdom were loaded with irons, and condemned to the gallies: the king was massacred at the gate of his palace, in attempting to escape. 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 missionaries and Christians fled, by the sea, to the port of Kançoa, in Cochin-China. On the 16th of June, the Birmans quitted Siam, after having burnt the town of Michong, a short time after its construction.

After the invaders had thus evacuated their conquest, the Siamese issued from their forests; and their first rage was directed against their gods, whom they accused of being idle and negligent of their duties, in thus abandoning them to a destructive enemy. Several of the statues, which remained, were known by the natives to contain 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-Thac, an officer of acknowledged ability. The new prince displayed considerable clemency and talents; and, in the year 1768, suppressed a rebellion, which was instigated against him; since which, the Birmans have in vain attempted to repeat their incursions into the Siamese territory.

SECTION III.

COCHIN-CHINA.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] Cochin-China extends from about the twentieth degree of north latitude to Pulo Condore, which lies in eight degrees forty minutes. It is bounded by the kingdom of Tonquin, on the north; by Laos, and a range of mountains, which divides it from Cambodia, on the west; and by the Chinese Sea, on the south and east.

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 farther than a degree from east to west, some less than twenty miles.

Climate, &c.] 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 rainy season: 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 frequent rains, brought by cold northerly winds, which distinguish this country by a winter different from any other in the East. The inundations have the same effect here as the overflowing of the Nile in Egypt, and render the country particularly fruitful.

Vegetables.] The principal object of cultivation is rice, of which there are two kinds, one requiring a wet, the other a dry, soil. But, besides this, silk, cotton, pepper, cinnamon, coffee, beetle, and tobacco, are also cultivated. The vine is said to grow spontaneously upon the mountains; but the juice of the grape is not made into wine. There are also yams, sweet potatoes, greens, melons, and pumkins.

Animals.] The quadrupeds of this country are horses, mules, asses, elephants, tigers, goats, and monkeys. The pelican was seen here by some person belonging to the embassy; and Mr. Pennant, the eminent naturalist, observes, that the edible birds' nests, esteemed a luxury in China, are chiefly found in this country. They are formed by a species of swallow, from some unknown viscous substance. Ducks, and poultry in general, abound here; and the harbour of Turon is plentifully supplied with fish.

Minerals.] Besides the gold that is found in the rivers, there are several mines of the richest ore, and, from the pure nature in which it is obtained, the gold may be extracted by the simple action of fire. The natives form it into ingots, of about four ounces, and make their payments with it to foreign merchants. It is also used as an ornament to their dress and furniture, and sometimes as an embellishment to their swords and scabbards. Prior to the troubles in Cochin-China, not only gold-dust, but also wax, honey, and ivory, were brought down from the mountains, and exchanged with the low-landers, for cloth, cotton, rice, and iron. Silver-mines were formerly either so rare, or the art of refining was so little understood, that silver used to be imported from abroad, and bartered for gold, to the advantage of the importers; but, lately, either new mines of silver have been explored, or a more facile mode of purifying it has been discovered; for it is now the chief medium of exchange for foreign goods, and is made up, for that purpose, in bars of about twelve ounces.

Chief City.] Turon, the capital of Cochin-China, is situated about a mile above the river; the adjoining land has a gradual slope to the water's edge. The bay of Turon might, with more propriety, be called a harbour. It is very capacious, has good holding ground; and ships may anchor securely from every wind. The sea-breeze commences about three or four in the morning, and continues about twelve hours; to this succeeds the land-breeze, which lasts nearly as long, and is not contaminated by passing over swamps or marshes. In common

weather, ships may be so placed as to take advantage of both. The sea is smooth throughout the harbour, and there is a convenient place for ships to be hove-down or refitted. The distance betwixt this and China is very short: a passage, with a fair monsoon, may be made in four or five days. If, therefore, the impediments and restrictions, which impede a free intercourse with China, could be removed, a settlement at Cochin-China would be of great advantage to England; because, independent of this new channel for the consumption of its own manufactures, it would secure to the British settlements of Hindoostan an important demand for their productions.

Manufactures, Arts, Sciences, &c.] The Cochin-Chinese, though little assisted by the fostering hand of science, have brought some of the arts to a considerable degree of perfection. Prompted by necessity, they have shewn themselves sufficiently dexterous in making experiments on substances, of which the result promised to contribute either to their wants or their comfort. The few articles manufactured among them are such as would not disgrace a more enlightened nation. Their earthen utensils are neatly made. They understand the cultivating of land; and in the art of refining sugar they seem to excel Europeans. Their method is this:—After the gross syrup has been drained off, and it becomes granulated and solid, it is placed in layers, of about one inch in thickness, and ten inches in diameter; under layers of equal dimensions of the herbaceous part of the plantain-tree; the aqueous juices, which exude from this, filter through the sugar, carrying along with it all the feculencies which have been boiled up with it, and leaving the sugar pure and crystallized. In this state it is light, and as porous as a honey-comb; and, when dissolved, leaves no impurities at the bottom. This is supposed to be an improvement on the mode practised elsewhere, which consists in pouring the sugar, when granulated, into vertical conical vessels, and placing a layer of wet earth upon the upper surface of the sugar.

The art of smelting ore scientifically is not known in Cochin-China; but the inhabitants have found out the means of making good iron, and of manufacturing of it afterwards into match-locks, spears, and other articles.

Painting and sculpture are entirely unknown in this country; but the science of harmony has not been unsuccessfully cultivated. Their instruments of music are rude, but their general principles and intentions are the same as in Europe. In performing, they keep excellent time, and measure the bars by a regular movement.

Commerce.] The principal trade of the Cochin-Chinese is with the Portuguese at Macao, who supply them with goods, of an inferior quality, from the Canton market; and who, in their dealings, experience many exactions from the executive government. Formerly they had an extensive intercourse with several commercial nations, and were accustomed to barter British manufactures for their valuable productions, in which the precious metals were included. But the devastations caused by intestine broils has turned the current of commerce; and now, except a few Chinese junks, nothing but their own galleys, and sometimes a few Portuguese vessels, are seen in their harbours. Other circumstances have hastened the destruction of the commerce of the country; permission to trade was only to be obtained by purchase; high duties were levied on goods for sale, and presents demanded by those in power; and, to complete the whole, perfidy has been sometimes practised to cut off both ship and cargo.

Government, &c.] As in most of the oriental countries, the king of Cochin-China is despotic, and aspires to honours almost divine. Though the country has been much depopulated by a protracted civil war, thirty thousand men, exercised daily, were said to be in garrison at Huefoo, the capital of the kingdom, about forty miles to the northward of Turon. Their generals have much reliance on the havoc made by their war-elephants, which are likewise occasionally exercised, and are obedient to command. Figures of soldiers are placed in ranks before these animals, which they assail most furiously, grasping them with their trunks, throwing some into the air, and trampling others under foot.

The constitution is entirely military, but the chief employments 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, interwoven with gold or silver. There are military schools, where children are educated at the expence of the public treasury. Emulation is excited by recompences, 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 examples.

Religion.] The religion of this country is paganism, and the natives are given up to all the idolatry and superstition that prevail in most of the adjacent nations.

Laws.] The laws of this country are exceedingly rigid in cases of treason and rebellion, which crimes are not only punished with the most dreadful tortures, but very severe penalties are likewise inflicted on all the relations of the traitors. Other offences, that are in any degree heinous, are punished with death, or the loss of a limb.

They have a capitation-tax, amounting to about twelve shillings sterling, upon each male, from the age of eighteen to that of sixty, and each subject is also obliged to labour for the sovereign during eight months of the year. Property is little respected, the king commonly seizing upon estates at the death of the possessors, and leaving nothing to the children, except the money and moveables.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives of Cochin-China, who inhabit the mountains, are said to be a rude and bar-

barous people, with coarse features and black complexion, but the colour of the lowlanders is less dark; and, before the overthrow of the ancient government, they were considered a civil, affable, and harmless race.

The exterior dress of these people is hardly sufficient to discriminate the sexes; both wear a loose robe, with long sleeves, which cover their hands; but persons of rank, particularly the ladies, put on three gowns, of different colours, one over the other; the undermost touches the ground, the next is somewhat shorter, and the uppermost the shortest of all. Small collars are put round the neck of the robe, and this is sufficiently full to fold over the breast. They use no linen, but wear, next the skin, vests and trowsers of silk or cotton. To complete their dress, every lady puts on a girdle, from which hangs a silk bag, having three partitions, to contain tobacco, areca-nut, and beetle-leaf; and the gentlemen have an ornamental riband thrown over the shoulder, like a belt, having affixed to it a small case, or purse, for their areca-nut and beetle. A few of the women appear in hats, but never with caps; and some of the men wear turbans.

Smoking is a custom very prevalent in both sexes of the Cochin-Chinese, but the women smoke less than the men. They have no wine, but indulge freely in the use of spirituous liquors, as well as in that of tobacco, and are very fond of chewing the areca-nut and beetle-leaf, kneaded into a sort of paste, with lime and water. The men are extremely indolent, the smoking of tobacco being their chief employment; but the women are remarkably industrious, both in domestic affairs and in cultivating the land. In towns, they often act as agents and brokers for foreign merchants, and are said to act with fidelity. Concubinage is not here accounted dishonourable. The lower class of the people transfer their wives and daughters, on moderate terms, without the least scruple, and treat all affairs of gallantry with perfect indifference.

The following particulars, extracted from the account of the embassy, will give a just and lively representation of the entertainments and amusements peculiar to these people.

"The chief of Turon gave an entertainment to a party from the ships. The table was spread with about a hundred dishes, or rather bowls, consisting of pork and beef, cut into small square pieces, served up with various kinds of savoury sauces. In others, were stewed fish, fowls, and ducks; the rest were loaded with fruits and sweetmeats. In lieu of bread, boiled rice was placed before each guest; two porcupine-quills supplied the want of a knife and fork; and their spoons, in form of shovels, were made of porcelain. After dinner, an ardent spirit, obtained from rice, something like whiskey, was served round in cups, and the host, by way of example, filled a bumper; and, when he had drank it, turned it up, to shew that none was left in the bottom. He afterwards walked a short distance with the party, and took them to a kind of theatre, where a comedy was represented. The principal characters were a peevish old man and a humorous clown; and they were tolerably well supported. Not only the theatre, but all the adjoining trees, were crowded with spectators, who were more inquisitive to gaze at the strangers than to see the actors.

"On the return of the party from the entertainment, a messenger was dispatched to request them to stop till an elderly lady, who was on the way from her house, should come up with them. Approaching with wonder and surprise, she apologized, in the language of nature, for the liberty she had taken. She gazed at them with uncommon attention; and, shortly after, testifying her thanks for their politeness, retired, exulting in the gratification of an ardent curiosity. The attention of the party was arrested, in their turn, by a singular instance of oriental agility. A number of Cochin-Chinese young men were collected together, playing at shuttlecock. They had no battledore, neither did they use the hand at all; but, after running a short distance, met the descending shuttlecock, and struck it with the foot, so forcibly, as to drive it up high in the air.

"But sportive games are not the only instances in which these active and ingenious people use the feet, as others do their hands. The lower orders, and many of other ranks, are accustomed to go bare-footed. By this, the muscles of the toes have free motion, and acquire a strong contractile power, so as to render the foot an useful auxiliary to the hand, in the exercise of several mechanical trades, but more particularly in that of boat-building."

The boats in common use among them, consist of five planks only, united together by ribs or timbers. These planks are rendered flexible, by being exposed some time to a flame, and are then brought to the desired degree of inflection. The ends, being thus connected together in a line, the edges are joined, and fixed by wooden pins, and stitched with flexible threads of bamboo. The seams are afterwards paid with paste, made by mixing water with quick-lime from sea-shells. Other boats are made with wicker-work, the interstices of which are filled up with the same composition as is used for the former; and this luting, as it may be styled, renders them water-tight. They are remarked for withstanding the violence of the waves, for being stiff upon the water, and for sailing with expedition.

The boat, which belonged to the chief of the district, was built after the above method, but on a larger scale. It had a carved and gilt head, not much unlike that of a tiger, and a stern decorated with sculpture, of various designs, painted in vivid colours.

SECTION IV.

MALACCA.

Extent, Boundaries, &c.] Malacca is about five hundred and sixty British miles in length, and about one hundred and fifty in breadth, a territory sufficiently ample for a powerful monarchy, had its native productions corresponded with its extent. It is bounded, on the north, by the river Rindung, which runs by Ligore to the east, and by a small range of hills, dividing it from the kingdom of Siam, and contains five provinces, receiving their denominations from their respective capitals. On the eastern coast, are those of Patani and Pahang, followed by the most southern kingdom of 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.

Products.] The inland part of the peninsula appears full of extensive forests; nor do the ancient or modern maps indicate any towns or villages in these parts. The indolence of the inhabitants have 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 is very modern and temporary. It has lately been observed rolling down in small particles, with a stream that issues from a mountain towards the north-east.

There is a variety of culinary vegetables and fruits, particularly the mangostan, which is very delicious, and pines, of most exquisite flavour. Sheep and oxen are scarce here; but swine, fowl, and fish, are plentiful. The wild animals of the country are elephants, tigers, wolves, &c.

Chief City.] The city of Malacca is said to have been founded upwards of two hundred years before the arrival of the Portuguese, in 1509; and, in the year 1511, Alphonso Albuquerque subdued it, after a most vigorous defence. He plundered it of immense treasures, vast magazines, and whatever could contribute to the elegancies and pleasures of life, and then put the prince to death. The king of Siam, enraged at this cruelty, took the city by storm, assisted by other princes, equally incensed against the murderer. But the Portuguese retook it, and built churches, monasteries, a castle, and a college for the Jesuits. In the year 1606, the Dutch, in conjunction with the king of Johor, began to be very troublesome to the Portuguese, and, after a series of hostilities for the space of thirty-five years, deprived them of it in 1641, by the following means:—Finding that considerable disputes had subsisted between the king of Johor and the Portuguese inhabitants, the Dutch formed a design of reducing the place. Accordingly, they fitted out a formidable squadron of ships at Batavia, and entered into an alliance with the king of Johor, who attacked the city by land, while the Dutch invested it by sea: but the invaders, finding there was no possibility of reducing it, and hearing that the governor was a very sordid man, the Dutch, by letters secretly conveyed to him, offered him a considerable premium, if he would facilitate the surrender of the fort. The bribe was accepted; the Dutch soon entered the place; and, to save the payment of the premium, caused the governor to be assassinated.

Malacca is an extensive and populous city, surrounded with a stone wall and bastions. Many of the streets are spacious, and shaded with trees on both sides. The houses stand pretty close to each other, and are built chiefly of bamboos, though some of them are of stone. The governor's house is commodious, situated in the fort, and garrisoned by two hundred Europeans. The harbour is one of the best and safest in that part of the globe, and receives vessels from most part of the Indies. When possessed by the Portuguese, the city was remarkably opulent, being the principal mart for precious stones and gold; and, before the Dutch made Batavia the chief place of their commerce, it had all the rich commodities of Pegu, Coromandel, and other countries; but, at present, its commerce is very trifling.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Malays are generally well made, though rather below the middle stature; their limbs are well shaped, but small, and particularly slender at the wrist and ancles. Their complexion is tawny, their eyes large, their noses seem rather flattened by art than nature; and their hair is long, black, and shining. The greater part of the men go naked, except having a piece of cloth round the waist. The women of Malacca, of the higher orders, wear a loose garment.

It has been observed by a modern writer, that, "while nature has done every thing in favour of the Malays, in their pristine state, society has done them every possible injury; for such has been the influence of an arbitrary government, that the natives of the most happy country on the globe have become remarkably ferocious in their manners. The feudal system, which was first concerted among the woods and rocks of the north, has reached the serene regions of the equator. The Malays are governed by despotic princes. This scene of arbitrary domain occasioned a general ferocity of manners. In vain did bounteous heaven bestow her rich blessings on the Malays: these celestial gifts served only to make the people ungrateful and discontented. Masters let out their servants, or rather those of their dependants, to the highest bidders, heedless of the loss which husbandry would suffer in the want of labourers.

"When the Portuguese took possession of the chief city of the peninsula, the inhabitants, ill brooking a submission to their new masters, either retired into the inland

parts, or dispersed themselves along the coast. Having lost the spirit of commerce, they imbibed that of conquest, and subdued a large archipelago on their coast, while the Portuguese rendered Malacca the most considerable market in India. Lost to all commerce, they fell into every excess of fierceness and barbarity, and committed murder, when harm was least expected This ferocity is so well known to European companies who have settlements in the Indies, that they have universally agreed in prohibiting masters of their vessels, who may put into Malacca, from taking on board any seamen of that nation, except in the greatest distress; and not, on any account, to exceed two or three. The Malays, who are not slaves, always go armed: they would think themselves disgraced, if they went abroad without their poniards; and it is remarkable, that they excel in the fabrication of these destructive weapons.

SECTION V.

AZEM—TONQUIN—LAOS—CAMBODIA—AND SIAMPA.

AZEM.

This country is bounded by part of Independent Tartary, on the north; by China, on the east; by Tipra, on the south; and by Hindoostan, on the west. In the reign of Aurengzebe, it was conquered by the Moguls, who discovered it by navigating the river Lacquia, which has its source in the lake Chiamay, and discharges itself into the Ganges.

Besides being luxuriantly fertile, this country is rich in mines, which produce the most valuable and useful metals, as gold, silver, steel, iron, lead, &c. There is plenty of the most delicious animal-food, but dog's flesh is deemed the greatest dainty. They make no wine, though they have excellent grapes, which, when dried, are used in making brandy. The lakes of this country are of a saline quality, and the scum, which rises to their surface, is converted into salt. Another kind of salt is extracted from the leaves of what is called Adam's fig-tree: and a ley is made, which renders their silks admirably white.

No taxes are paid to government, the king contenting himself with the sole possession of the valuable mines which his country contains. Nor are those mines worked by the natives, but by slaves, which he purchases of his neighbours. To every subject is allotted a house, a large piece of ground contiguous, and an elephant to carry his wives, of whom he is permitted to have four. Previous to marriage, the Azemians inform the women minutely of what they expect them to do. The females, being thus precisely instructed in their duty, seldom disoblige their husbands. The inhabitants, towards the north, have good complexions; but those who dwell southerly are rather swarthy. All have very large holes bored in their ears, from which descend heavy pendants of gold and silver. They wear their hair long, have a cap upon their heads, and go naked, except about their middles. They adorn their arms with bracelets, which are buried with them when they die. Their gold is current in ingots; but they have pieces of silver coin, each two shillings in value.

The residence of the king is in the metropolis, named Ghergong, or Kirgan. The city of Azoo is the royal burial-place. When any king is buried in the grand temple, his favourite idol is buried with him. This always being of gold or silver, the vaults are filled with immense treasures. The people imagine that the righteous have, in the other world, plenty of what they desire; but that the wicked suffer all the miseries of hunger and thirst. From this opinion, and not entertaining any very high idea of the morality or piety of their monarchs, they bury with them all kinds of eatables, great riches, several of their wives, officers, elephants, slaves, &c. lest they should fare worse in the other world than they did in this.

TONQUIN.

This kingdom, as well as others adjacent, formerly constituted a part of the Chinese empire; but the Chinese governor of the southern peninsula, containing Tonquin, to the northward, Cambodia and Siampa, to the southward, and Cochin-China, seized an opportunity, and erected the standard of independence, at the time of the Mogul invasion of China from Tartary. He and his posterity had their residence at Tonquin. In course of time, the Tonquinese governor erected also his government into a kingdom: but both acknowledged a nominal vassalage to the Chinese empire, and did homage at the Court of Pekin. An observant voyager relates, that, in the gulf of Tonquin and the adjacent Chinese sea, the typhons are tremendous. "They are preceded," he says, "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 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."

Cachao, the capital, is situated near the centre of the country, and is said to be built after the Chinese manner.

The bua's palace is a large edifice, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing factory on the north side of the city.

The government of Tonquin is particular. The Tonquinese, as before observed, had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at length took place, between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the title of chouah, while the bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be allowed some inconsiderable civil prerogatives, within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir, without permission of the chouah.

The Tonquinese are active and ingenious; friends to science, and courteous to foreigners, especially to commercial men. Their grandees are proud; their soldiers insolent; and the lower classes much addicted to pilfering, although they are severely punished, when detected. They are excellent mechanics, and fair traders, but are greatly oppressed by their king and his nobles.

The name of Confucius is held in the highest respect at Tonquin; but the natives pay adoration to images, to the horse, and the elephant. Their temples and pagodas are often no larger than may be necessary to accommodate the idol. Around those buildings are the cells of the priests, that attend to offer up the prayers of the devotees. The petition being delivered in writing, it is read aloud by the priest, before the idol, while the petitioner lies prostrate on the ground, in the attitude of the most humble supplication. The rich, however, seldom come to the pagoda, but perform their devotions in a part of their own houses, where one of their domestics officiates instead of the priest. When the petition has been read, it is burnt in a pan of incense, and the poor neighbours and dependants are called in, to partake of the entertainment which the master has provided for them; the practice of this hospitality being considered necessary to the procuring an auspicious regard to the prayers which have been offered.

They never undertake any thing of consequence without consulting an astrologer, and have their lucky and unlucky days. Every hour in the twenty-four is distinguished by the name of some animal; and the beast which marks the hour of a man's birth is always avoided by him.

Polygamy is allowed in Tonquin; and the husband may claim a divorce on the most trifling occasion; but he must restore the effects which the wife possessed at the time of marriage. The same indulgence is not allowed to the woman. A female, convicted of adultery, is thrown to an elephant, bred for the purpose, who, taking her up with his trunk, tosses her in the air, and, when she falls, tramples her under his feet, and crushes her to pieces. A man may sell his wives and children, which, in times of scarcity, the poor make no scruple of doing.

The funerals resemble those of the Chinese, in respect to the procession and mourning; but here they burn the corpse, and deposit the ashes in an urn. Over the tombs of the rich they erect a lofty wooden tower, and the priest, ascending to the top of it, pronounces a funeral-oration, in praise of the deceased. This being concluded, he comes down, and sets the structure on fire, while the people, who attend the ceremony, are entertained, on the spot, with a feast provided for the occasion.

When a king dies, the royal corpse lies in state sixty-five days, during which his table continues to be served as when he was alive, the meat being distributed, every evening, among the priests and poor people. A splendid procession then commences, towards the burying-place of his ancestors, which, though but two days' journey distant, is seldom performed, on these occasions, in less than seventeen. The great officers are obliged to mourn three years, the gentry six months, and the common people three; and no public diversions are permitted for three years after the funeral.

LAOS.

Few particulars are known respecting this state; as it is surrounded with forests and deserts, and difficult of access by water; but, by the newly-discovered river of Auan, the passage from Siam may probably be expedited. The soil is represented as fertile in rice; and Laos furnishes the merchants of Cambodia with the best benzoin and lacca. Exquisite musk is also brought from Laos, with some gold and rubies; and the rivers produce the fresh-water mya, which yields pearls. The chief towns are Landjam and Tsiamaja. Sandepora is likewise added, in modern maps.

Du Halde has published a route from China to Siam, by land, in which some account is given of Laos. He describes the capital, called Mohang, to be of considerable extent, but only enclosed with a palisade.

The most recent account of this country seems to be that given by M. Turpin. He says, 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 salubrious, that men sometimes live to the age of a hundred years, in full health and vigour. The flat part of the country nearly resembles Siam; but the eastern bank of the river is more fertile than the western.

The ivory is beautiful; but the horn of the rhinoceros is preferred, and is preserved with superstitious attention, as it is thought to insure the happiness of the possessor. The fields supply food to numerous swarms of bees, and the wax and honey are excellent. 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.

The people of Laos, in their personal appearance, resem-

ble the southern Chinese. They are said to be celebrated for the rectitude of their conduct, and fidelity to their promise; 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 addicted to the study of magic.

The military force is said to consist of five hundred thousand men; and it has been observed, 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 keep 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 short period.

The commerce of this country was formerly confined to Siam; and, after the irruption of the Birmans, it passed to Pegu, and has since been transferred to Cambodia. The Laosians boast, that they taught the Siamese the art of writing on the leaves of the palm-tree. The language and characters are said to be the same; but a Laosian 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 or ceremonies; but the commerce with China corrupted this purity of faith. They believe in regular renovations of the universe; and that our earth has attained the age of eighteen thousand years. Some of their ceremonies are like those of Tibet, and may have passed from the Nestorian Christians. They even sell dispensations and pardons to the rich, while the poor are condemned to perpetual misery.

CAMBODIA.

This country, which is also called Camboge, is inclosed by mountains, on the east and west, and fertilized by a grand river, the Maykaung, or Makon, erroneously called the Japanese river. It is said, that this river begins to inundate the country in June. Near its mouth, it is full of low isles and sand-banks, so that the navigation is impeded, and there is no port nor town. The country is thinly peopled, and the capital, called Cambodia, consists only of one 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 the country is fertile in rice and animal food. There are many Japanese settlers, with Chinese and Malays; the latter of whom can scarcely be distinguished from the natives, who are of a dark yellow complexion, with long black hair.

The mountains produce fine rock-crystal, amethysts, jacinths, rubies, and topazes. Silk and ivory are common; and an ox, weighing five hundred pounds, does not cost above three shillings, while a hundred and forty pounds of rice may be had for the value of four pence.

The Cambodians are very expert in making white or painted dimities; and they have excellent carpets, besides a sort for the common people, which they call bancales, not unlike the plaids worn by the Highlanders of Scotland. They likewise weave, and work with the needle, rich hangings, coverings for the low chairs used by women of quality, and for their palanquins or litters; some of which are adorned with ivory and tortoise-shell, as are also their chess-boards, and other playing-tables. They also make beads, little idols, bracelets, necklaces, and other toys, of a very transparent crystal, which is found in their mountains.

The coasts, which extend about a hundred and forty leagues, only contain about five or six ports, where vessels can anchor with safety. The most celebrated one 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 modesty 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; and the right of inheritance is violated by his caprice.

SIAMPA.

This small maritime tract is situate to the south-east of Cambodia, from which it is separated by a ridge of mountains. Mr. Pennant says, the people of this country are called Loyes; and are large, muscular, and well-made, with a reddish complexion, nose rather flat, and long black hair. The king resides at Feneri, the capital, and is tributary to Cochin-China. 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: but the pretended followers of the Koran devour pork, and lend their concubines to strangers. The Chinese arrive annually with tea, porcelain, silk, and other articles, which they exchange for odoriferous woods and gold. The chief productions of the country are cotton and indigo.

CHAPTER V.

PERSIA.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.

PERSIA is situated between forty-five and sixty-seven degrees of east longitude, and between twenty-five and forty-five degrees of north latitude. Its greatest length, from east to west, is about one thousand two hundred and eighty miles; and its greatest breadth, from north to south, is about one thousand one hundred and forty miles. It is bounded by Circassia, the Caspian Sea, and Usbec Tartary, on the north; by India, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, and the Gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the west.

Divisions.] The following are the provinces into which Persia is divided; together with their ancient names and principal towns:

Provinces.	Ancient Names.	Chief Towns.
Farsistan	Persis, or Persia Propria	Shirauz
Irac Agemi	Media	Ispahan
Aderbeitzan	Media Atropatena	Taurus
Khusistan	Susiana	Suster
Mazanderan	Margiana	Ferabad
Khorasan	Margiana and Aria	Herat
Ghilan	Gela	Reshd
Sablestan	Bactriana	Bost
Schhirvan	Albania	Schamakie
Segestan	Arachosia	Zareng
Mekran	Gedrosia	Kidge
Laristan		Lar
Kerman	Caramania	Kerman

Climate and Soil.] Those parts of the country which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian Sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of those mountains, which are commonly covered with snow. The air, in the midland provinces, is serene, pure, and exhilirating; but, in the southern parts, it is hot; and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the interior.

The soil, in some parts, appears to be barren; and Chardin supposes, that not above one-tenth part was cultivated, even in his time. He adds, that the mountains are extremely arid, being mostly rocks, without wood or plants. They are, however, interspersed with valleys, 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. The fertile climate of Shirauz, in the province of Farsistan, is one of the most agreeable in the world, the extremes of heat and cold being seldom felt. During the spring, the uncommonly beautiful flowers, of which they have a great variety, of the brightest hues and fragrancy, perfume the natural mildness of the air. The beauties of nature are here depicted in their fullest extent, and the natural historian and botanist meet with ample scope for their favourite investigations; so that the inhabitants of Shirauz confidently assert the pre-eminence of their own city to any other in the world. In summer, the thermometer seldom rises above seventy-three degrees in the daytime, and at night generally sinks to sixty-two. Their autumn is the worst season of the year, the rains then beginning to fall, and the air being reckoned unhealthy.

Rivers and Lakes.] 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 enters the Tigris, above its junction with the Euphrates, while the main stream flows into the estuary of these united rivers. This seems to be the Gyndes of Herodotus, now 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 four hundred British miles.

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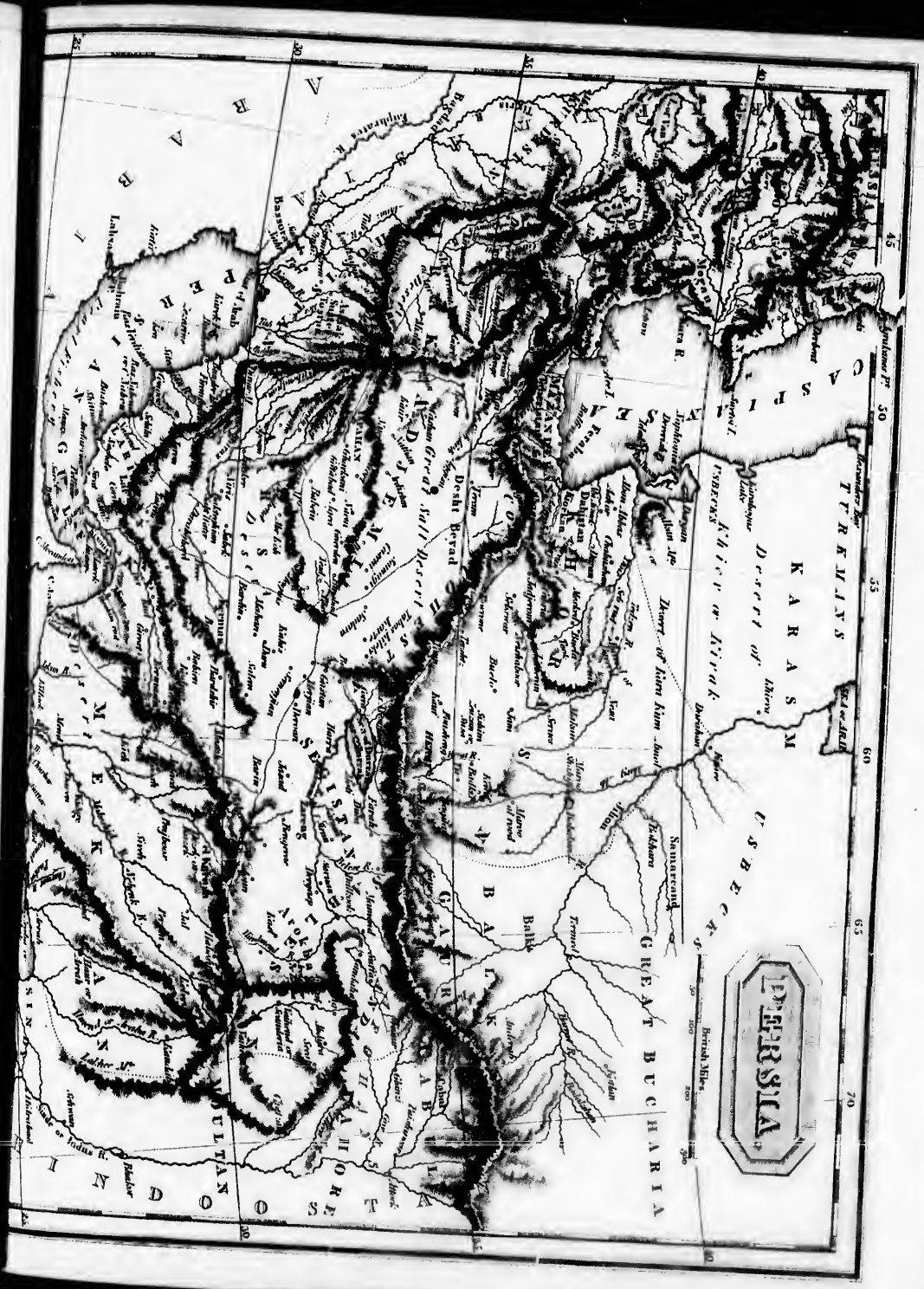

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From the range of mountains on the north-east, several rivers, of short course, fall into the Persian Gulf, one of the most considerable being the Divrud, which joins the mouth of that gulf. The rivers of Mekran are of more considerable course, as the Krenk and Mekshid, which, when united, form the river Mend, so called from a town by which it passes. The Haur and the Araba are of trivial consequence.

To the west, the river of Tedjen, the ancient Ochus, flows into the Caspian; which also receives many small streams from the mountains of Mazanderan. D'Anville assigns a very considerable course to the river of Kizil Ozen, which he derives from the mountain of Elwend, not far to the north 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, rising on the confines of Turkey, and falling into the sea below Langorod.

Farther to the north, the large river Aras, the ancient Araxes, falls into the Kur, both rising in the Caucasian mountains, and pursuing a course of extreme rapidity.

Of the rivers in the central part of Persia, the most important is that which passes between Shirauz and Istaker, called the Bundamir. This celebrated river flows into a salt lake, called Baktegan, and which also receives a considerable stream from the north-east, called the Kuren. Between these two rivers a branch of the mountains of Elwend extends south-east; on the western side of which stand the ruins of Persepolis.

Among the lakes of Persia, the most considerable is the Aria Palus of antiquity. This large lake is in the western part of the province of Segestan, 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; the length is thirty leagues, by a day's journey in breadth; and the water is fresh, and abounds with fish.

On the north-west appears the lake of Urmia, so called from a town near its southern extremity. This lake is represented as about fifty miles in length, by about half the breadth, and is considerably impregnated with salt. The lake of Erivan, about one hundred and twenty miles to the north, 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.

Mountains.] From the accurate description of Gmelin, it appears, that the Caucasian ridge of mountains extends to the west of Ghilan, and south of Mazanderan, till it expires in Corasan, on the south-east of the Caspian Sea. The southernmost chain, of great height, is described, by Mr. Franklin, as running parallel with the Persian Gulf, north-west and south east, at about the distance of fifty miles.

A third range of mountains, of very great height, seems to continue, in the same direction with this last, to the south of the lake of Urmia, where it is connected with the Caucasian ridge.

A parallel ridge, on the west, 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.

Hetzardara, or the thousand mountains, form a branch on the north of Farsistan, and one part of it, which gives rise to the river of Ispahan, is called Koh Zerdeh, or the yellow mountain.

A low range, called Meder, by D'Anville, passes north-east, 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 Hindoostan being called, by Rochette, the Lakhee Mountains.

Farther to the north, the mountains of Wulli extend from the neighbourhood of Shatzan, across to the lake of Vachind, and may thus be considered as forming one range with that on the north of Mekran, called Gebelabad, by La Rochette. This range, however, expires in the great desert to the south of Zarang.

Vegetables.] Rice, wheat, and barley, are almost the only kinds of grain growing in Persia. Their seasons are not the same in the north as in the south; for, when they are sowing in one part of the country, they are reaping in another; and, in some places, not more than three months elapse between seed-time and harvest. Their kitchen-gardens are well stocked with most of the roots and herbs known in Europe. They have not less than twenty sorts of melons; some of which are said to weigh eight or ten pounds. At the tables of persons of quality, they have them all the year, having a method of preserving them under ground. Cucumbers are much eaten by the common people. One sort has scarcely any seeds in it, and is eaten without paring or dressing, and not reckoned unwholesome. Of grapes they have several kinds, and some of these so large, that a single grape is a mouthful. The celebrated wine of Shirauz is made of a small black grape, without stones. Cherries here are but indifferent; but apples, pears, peaches, quinces, apricots, nectarines, and green-gages, are all very good, and in great plenty. The dates and pomegranates are also very delicious.

On the mountainous ridges are found the cypress, the cedar, and several other kinds of pines; while the lower hills and rocks are adorned with lime-trees, oaks, acacias

and chesnuts; the sumach, whose astringent wood is so essential to the arts of dying and tanning, grows here in vast abundance; and the manna ash-tree is not less common. The cotton-tree is common all over Persia; and they have another small tree, which yields a kind of silken down, used for quilting and stuffing of pillows. 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, superior to that in any other region; these are the jessamin, and the blue and scarlet anemone, in the thickets; and the tulip and ranunculus, in the pastures.

The Persian poppies are in great esteem, from the quantity and strength of the juice which they yield. They grow four feet high, in some places, and have white leaves. The juice is extracted from them, when they are ripe, by making little incisions in the head of the poppy. It is said to have such an effect on those who collect it, that they look as if they had been buried and taken up again, and their limbs tremble as if they had the palsy. The liquor thus drawn from them, in a little time, grows thick, and is made up into pills, which we call opium. The Persian bakers strew poppy-seed upon their bread, which inclines those who eat it to sleep, and is not reckoned unwholesome after their meals. The common people eat the seed almost at any time. Saffron gro plentifully in Persia; and assa-fœtida, which to us is the most offensive of all smells, is to the natives a refreshing perfume.

Animals.] As there is but little cover in the southern part of Persia, wild beasts are not numerous. In the woody parts there are lions, tigers, leopards, wild hogs, and jackalls; but the latter are so tame, that, Mr. Hanway says, whenever he encamped, they would run over his bed in the night, and, being fond of leather, he was afraid they would run away with his accoutrements; and they made such a barking and howling in the woods, that he could not rest for them.

Here are horses, mules, asses, oxen, buffaloes, and camels; but the latter, as beasts of burden, much excel all the rest, whether we consider the weight they carry, the dispatch they make, or the expence of keeping them. Of these camels there are several kinds: some have two bunches upon their backs, and others but one; and there is a third sort, engendered between a dromedary, which is a camel with two bunches, and a female with one, which are most esteemed, for they seldom tire, and will carry a prodigious weight. Those which travel between the Persian Gulf and Ispahan are of a smaller size, but they are almost as serviceable as the other, being swifter of foot, and will gallop like a horse, whereas the other seldom go beyond a foot-pace. These swift camels are kept by the king and his nobles, to convey their women from place to place, and carry their baggage. They are usually adorned with embroidered cloths, and silver bells about their necks. A string of six or seven of them are tied together when they travel, and governed by one man. Neither bridle nor halter is used to hold them in, nor whips to drive them; but they are governed by the driver's voice, who usually sings to them as they travel. It is in vain to beat them, if they tire; they never go the better for it. When they are to take up their burden, the driver touches their knees, on which they lie down on their bellies, till they are loaded, groaning, however, and giving signs of uneasiness, under a sense of the fatigue which they are about to undergo. In travelling, they graze on the road-side, on weeds and thistles, with their burdens on their backs, and are sometimes fed with balls of barley-meal and chaff, made into a paste.

Oxen, asses, and mules, are also used indifferently for carrying passengers or burdens; and the land being ploughed by buffaloes or oxen, these beasts are seldom killed for food. The asses of Persia are much larger and swifter than those of Europe, and will perform a journey very well. The horses have fine foreheads, and are well-proportioned, light, and sprightly; but only used for the saddle. Though they are beautiful creatures to look on, they are neither so swift as the Arabian horses, nor so hardy as the Tartars; and the king has always a stud of the Arabian breed.

The sheep at Shirauz are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in that neighbourhood, and are remarkable for the fineness of their fleece. They have broad flat tails, as in Tartary and some other places, so large, that, Mr. Franklin says, he has seen some that weighed more than thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven pounds. They are remarkable, also, in some parts of Persia, for having several horns. "I have seen some," says Chardin, "with six or seven horns, some standing straight out of their forheads; so that, when the rams engage, there is usually a great deal of blood spilt in the battle." The flesh of the Persian goats is very good; and their wool or hair is so fine, that great quantities of it are exported.

Tame and wild fowl in Persia are almost as numerous as in Europe. Turkies have been imported into Ispahan, but do not thrive there. Pigeons they take the utmost care to increase, on account of their dung, with which they raise their melons. Their dove-cots are very large, of a round form, and handsomely built of brick; and of these, it is said, there are not less than three thousand in the city of Ispahan alone. Chardin observes, that the partridges are the largest and most excellent he ever

saw. The boolbul, or oriental nightingale, enlivens the spring with its varied song. As to eagles, hawks, falcons, and other birds of prey, there is no country where they have more, or where they are better instructed to take the prey, than in Persia.

River-fish is scarce, and seldom eaten; but the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf furnish plenty of sea-fish, of almost every kind.

The interior of Persia is not much infested with insects, unless it be with swarms of locusts, which sometimes visit it: these fly in such numbers, as to look like a cloud, and darken the sky; and, wherever they alight, they destroy the fruits of the earth; but Providence has so ordained it, that there are certain birds, which, generally visiting the country about the same time, eat up the locusts, and so prevent the entire ruin of the crops.

Minerals.] The mineralogy of this extensive country seems neither various nor important, though the numerous mountains probably abound with unexplored treasures. The lead-mines of Kerman and Yezd produce the usual mixture of silver. In the northern provinces there are several mines of iron, but the metal is harsh and brittle. Copper is chiefly found in the mountains of Mazanderan, and near Casbin; but it is brittle, and requires to be mixed with that of Japan or Sweden.

There are two mines of turquoises; one at Nishapour, in Corasan, and another about four days' journey to the south of the Caspian, in the mountain called Feruzkoh. Pearls abound in the Persian Gulf, especially near the isles of Bahrin, on the Arabian side.

Chardin adds, that sulphur and nitre are found in the mountain of Demavend, which he places on the south of Hyrcania, or Mazanderan. Sometimes whole deserts are covered with sulphur, and others with salt, which, near Cashan, is remarkably pure.

Medicinal Springs, Everlasting Fire, &c.] The most celebrated mineral-waters are those of Baringe, about half a league from Tauris; and those of Seid Kent, about six leagues from the same city. These waters are sulphureous, and some of them boiling hot, whilst others are remarkably cold.

About ten miles from Assur, at the foot of a high mountain, on the north of Gambroon, there are several springs, both hot and cold, which are much resorted to, for the cure of rheumatic pains and cutaneous distempers; but they are only used for bathing, as the water, taken internally, operates as a powerful emetic. No person resides near these baths; but a few sheds have been erected in the neighbourhood, for the accommodation of invalids, who take care to furnish themselves with all other conveniences.

On the first Circassian mountain, lying on the south of the river Tereck, there is a well, about forty fathoms deep, from which a stream of boiling water falls into a stone basin, and afterwards rushes down a precipice, near thirty fathoms, into the Tereck, in sufficient quantities to turn the wheel of a mill. Near this hill are seven springs of the same kind of water, and one which appears impregnated with alum, being so extremely acid and astringent, that it cannot be held long in the mouth. At a small distance are several pits, dug in the earth, containing salt, of the utmost purity and brightness, which dissolves instantaneously in the mouth, and leaves a very pungent sensation. Even in cold weather, the warmth of these wells produce the verdure and flowers of spring, near their borders.

The phenomenon called the *everlasting fire*, to which a sect of Indians and Persians, called Gaurs, pay religious worship, has been thus described by an intelligent writer

"It is situated about ten miles from the city of Baku, in the province of Shirvan, on a dry rocky spot of ground. Here are several ancient temples, built with stone, and supposed to have been all dedicated to fire; and, among the others; there is a little temple, in which the Gaurs now worship. Near the altar is a large hollow cane, from the end of which issues a blue flame, in colour and gentleness resembling a lamp, but seemingly more pure. The Indians affirm, that this flame has continued ever since the flood; and they believe that, if it were resisted or suppressed in that place, it would break out and rise in some other.

"At a short distance from this temple is a low cliff of a rock, in which there is a horizontal gap, two feet from the ground, near six feet long, and about three feet broad, out of which issues a constant flame, of the colour and nature already described. When the wind blows, it sometimes rises to the height of eight feet, but is much lower in calm weather.

"The earth round this place, for more than two miles, has this extraordinary property, that, by taking up two or three inches of the surface, and applying a live coal to it, the part 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.

"If a cane, or tube of paper, be set about two inches in the ground, closed with earth below, and the top of it touched with a live coal, a flame will immediately issue out, without consuming the tube, provided the edges be covered with clay. Three or four of these lighted canes will boil water in a pot, and are sometimes used to cook victuals. The flame may be extinguished in the same manner as that of spirits of wine. It smells sulphureous, like naptha, but is not very offensive."

Antiquities.] The principal remains of antiquity in Persia, are the famous ruins of Persepolis, a city which was the residence of the ancient kings of Persia, and was

scarcely inferior to any city in the world in splendour and magnificence. The place is now called Chilmanar, or the forty pillars. It is situated about fifty miles north-east of Shirauz, at the north-east end of that spacious plain, where Persepolis once stood, and is generally supposed to be a part of the palace of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander the Great. It stands on a rising ground; and the adjoining mountains encircle it, in form of an amphitheatre. The ascent to the pillars is by a grand flight of steps, of blue stone, a hundred and four in number, thirty feet in length, and twenty inches broad; so that a horse may easily go up or down them. Mr. Herbert says, it was built upon a mountain of dark-coloured marble, and the steps hewn out of the solid rock; but those who have viewed it more accurately since, observe, that the steps are composed of large stones, fifteen or sixteen feet long, and of such a thickness, that six or seven steps are cut out of one stone; the whole being so artificially joined, that they appear to be but one piece.

The stair-case divides as you ascend, one flight winding to the right, and the other to the left, having a wall on each side, and a balustrade on the other. Afterwards both flights, or branches, turn again, and end at a square landing-place, whence you go into a portico of white marble, twenty feet wide. On it are carved, in bas-relief, two beasts, as large as elephants, but their bodies like horses, with the feet and tails of oxen. Ten feet farther stand two fluted columns, of whitish stone, about six feet high, besides their capitals and bases, and as thick as three men can fathom round. A little farther stand two pilasters, embellished with two sphinxes, of an immense size, ornamented with a profusion of bead-work. On the sides above are inscriptions, of an ancient character, which no one yet has been able to decipher. Beyond this portal is another flight of steps, leading to the grand hall of columns; on its sides are a variety of figures, in bas-relief, a kind of triumph, consisting of a great train of people, in distinct companies, some carrying banners, others offerings; after all is a car, drawn by several horses, with a little altar on it, from which fire seems to ascend. At the head of the stair-case is another bas-relief, representing a lion, seizing a bull, cut with great exactness; and close to this are other inscriptions, in ancient characters. On the top of the second stair-case is a square place, which has been surrounded with columns, to which the name of the forty pillars has been given. Although many ages have elapsed since the foundation of this building, fifteen of the columns yet remain entire; they are from seventy to eighty feet in height, and are masterly pieces of masonry; their pedestals are curiously wrought, and appear little injured by the hand of time; the shafts are fluted to the top, and the capitals are adorned with a profusion of frieze-work.

From this hall we proceed eastward, till we arrive at the remains of a large square building, the entrance to which is through a door of granite. Most of the doors and windows of this apartment are still standing; they are of black marble, and polished like a mirror: on the sides of the entrance are bas-reliefs of two figures, representing a man stabbing a goat: over another door is the representation of two men, at full length; behind stands a domestic, holding a spread umbrella. At the south entrance of this room are two large pillars, on which are cut four figures, dressed in long garments, holding in their hands spears, ten feet in length. Vast numbers of broken pillars, shafts, and capitals, are scattered over a considerable extent of ground, some of them of enormous dimensions. Indeed, every part of these ruins indicate their former grandeur, and, whilst viewing them, the mind becomes impressed with an awful solemnity.

There are the remains of other buildings, reaching up the sides of the mountain, equally magnificent and beautiful, with human figures cut on the walls, carrying bows and arrows, and spears in their hands, all of them with caps, in the form of turrets, which was the mode of head-dress among the ancient Medes. Sir John Chardin and M. Le Brun have given it as their opinion, that this was the burial-place of the ancient kings of Persia. The modern natives call this place the Assembly of King Gemsheed, and say, that prince used to visit it, with the nobles and great men of his court, in order to enjoy a delightful view of the adjacent country. In another place, nearly adjoining, a stone stair-case leads into a magnificent court, of a quadrangular form; several pedestals of pillars, and the remains of two grand portals, all of granite, are still visible, and the cornices of the portals are perfect. On many of the broken pieces of the pillars are ancient inscriptions. In several parts of this palace are stone aqueducts, cut under ground, eighty feet deep, and forty broad, to carry off the water that descends from the mountains.

The materials of which the ruins consist, are chiefly hard blue stone; but the doors and windows of the apartments are all of black marble, highly polished. One of the principal things, worthy admiration, is the immense strength of the foundation. The whole of the palace takes in a circumference of fourteen hundred square yards. The front is six hundred paces from north to south, and three hundred and ninety from east to west. The height of the foundation, in front, is, in several parts, from forty to fifty feet, and consists of two immense stones, laid together. It is much to be feared, that, in the course of a few centuries, earthquakes may destroy the columns and remaining apartments; but, whatever may be their fate, the foundation must endure, until the rock on which it is built shall be destroyed.

Cities, Towns. &c.] ISPAHAN, the capital of Persia is

situated in a delightful plain, and almost surrounded by mountains. The streets are generally narrow and crooked, and either exceedingly dirty or dusty, not being paved. There are, however, some fine squares in the town, particularly the Meydan, or Royal Square, into which open two of the palace-gates. On the sides of this square, which is one-third of a mile in length, and more than half as broad, are buildings, much like those of Exeter Change, in London, a covered way, with shops on both sides, where every particular trade has a quarter assigned; and there is a second story, where mechanics have their working shops. There seems to be little difference between these Exchanges and ours, except that those of Ispahan have no windows, but large openings, at proper distances, to let in the light, and people ride through them, as along the streets. In the middle of the square there is a market for horses and cattle; and all manner of goods and eatables are exposed for sale. On that side of the square next the palace there is a handsome basin of water, shaded with trees; and some brass guns, taken from the Portuguese at Ormus, serve to make a show. At the south end of the square is a great mosque, and another on the east side, over against the principal gate of the palace. Several streets are arched over, which makes them dark, and this seems to be peculiar to the Persian towns; as is also, that their houses are at some distance from their shops. It is a common thing for a tradesman to go half a mile in a morning to the bazar, or market-place, where his shop is; and at night he locks up his valuable goods in chests and counters, and the rest are left packed up in the open square; and seldom is any thing lost, so careful are the watch appointed to guard the market-place, and so little is theft practised in this part of the world.

Foreign merchants lodge their goods in the public cäravanseras, of which there are not less than fifteen hundred in the city of Ispahan. These are large buildings, erected by charitable persons, for the use of strangers, which serve them also instead of inns, for lodging and diet; but there is this difference between an inn and a caravansera, that in the last every one finds his own bedding and cookery, whereas in the first they have not that trouble. There are two things, however, that render a caravansera preferable to an inn: one is, that a person is not subject to extortion, but buys his provision at the best hand; and the other, that, let the merchant take up ever so many rooms, he is not disturbed in them, and pays but a trifle for warehouse and lodging, and, on the road, he pays nothing. Most of them are built on the same plan, and differ only in dimensions.

There are no taverns in Ispahan, but there are handsome coffee-houses in the principal parts of the town, where people meet, and converse on political subjects, though they have no printed newspapers. In such places are amusements peculiar to the country, as the harangues of poets, priests, and historians, who hold forth, and get a crowd about them.

The palace, with the gardens belonging to it, takes up above three miles in compass. Over the two gates, which come up to the royal square, is a gallery, where the sophi, or king, used to sit, and see martial exercises performed on horseback. No part of the palace, where the court resides, reaches this square; but, having entered the principal gate, there is a hall, or court-room, on the left-hand, where the vizier and other judges administer justice on certain days; and, on the right, are rooms, where offenders are allowed to take sanctuary. From hence to the hall, where the king usually gives audience, is a handsome covered walk. It is a long room, beautifully painted, and supported by forty pillars, divided into three parts, one step higher than the other, on which the great officers stand, according to their rank. On the third ascent is the royal throne, raised about a foot and a half from the floor, and about eight feet square, on which is spread a rich carpet. Here the king sits, cross-legged, upon solemn occasions.

"Many fanciful things," says a respectable traveller, "have been related respecting the harem, or women's apartments, which travellers have never been admitted to see: some particulars, however, have been learned from the eunuchs and women, who frequent those apartments, and furnish the ladies with toys. From these we understand, that the women's quarter of the palace is the most magnificent, and the best furnished of the whole, the prince spending the greater part of his time here. It is said, also, that the economy of this inward palace is much the same with the outer; and that the women have their several posts and employments here, as the men have in the other; that there are stewards, secretaries, treasurers, guards, &c. all of the fair sex; whose cabals frequently embarrass and frustrate the best-concerted designs of the ministers without.

"In the harem there are three ranks of women; first, princesses born there; secondly, those by whom the king has any children, or who are his mistresses; and, thirdly, those whom he has never taken to his embraces, and many of whom he scarcely knows.

"In the royal harem are several distinct buildings, which have no communication with each other. When a king dies, those ladies, with whom he has conversed as wives, are shut up in a quarter by themselves, whence they are not permitted to stir out as long as they live, unless it be the mother of the succeeding prince, who has generally great influence in affairs, and almost a sovereign authority within the limits of the harem.

"The guards of the harem are composed of three different bodies. 1. The white eunuchs, who guard the

outer gate. These never come within sight of the women. 2. The black eunuchs. These are generally from the coast of Malabar. Their station is in the second court; and the oldest and most deformed of these are selected to attend the ladies, and carry messages; the rest are employed either in the gardens, kitchens, or other places, remote from the women's apartments. 3. The innermost guard is composed of women, commanded by some antiquated matron, who receives orders from the prince himself, and conveys his majesty's commands, by the eunuchs who attend, to the guards without.

"The ladies of one apartment are not suffered to visit those of another, without permission. This is to prevent quarrels among rival mistresses. Those who delight the king most with their singing, their dancing, or their wit, are sure to excite envy; and the king is not a little troubled, sometimes, with their contrivances to betray and supplant each other. When he is provoked, he will order one to be confined, another to be beaten, and a third, perhaps, to be degraded to the rank of a common slave. It is reported, also, that the greatest part of the royal infants are put to death as soon as born, to prevent their being too numerous. The king's mother has the direction of these matters; and her orders are executed without the least remorse. She is, as it were, the governess of all her son's mistresses and favourites: their fortune, and that of their children, seems to be entirely in her hands; and it is not easy for them, without her, to preserve the king's affection. The king is never formally married to any of his mistresses; but takes which of the ladies he pleases to his bed, without any ceremony. Those he is intimate with are but a small number. The others, indeed, sing, dance, and play before him, and contribute to his pleasures in another manner; but, from the distractions he meets with in a variety of consorts, he frequently fixes upon some one, who may properly enough be styled the queen of the harem.

"The ladies of the harem never visit out of the palace, but receive the visits of their female relations: and it is observed, in general, throughout Persia, that those of the greatest quality of that sex stir the least from home, scarcely ever going abroad, but on some extraordinary occasion. But, when they do go, their visits usually last seven or eight hours. They take with them their female slaves and eunuchs; and the husband usually sends a governante and eunuch of his own, to observe their conduct.

"As the ladies follow the king to his other palaces, or to camp, in time of war, they always travel in the night. A troop of cavalry usually marches a hundred paces before them, and another troop in the rear, uttering a cry, by which every male, more than seven years of age, understands he is to retire to a certain distance. The eunuchs, with their batons, also on horseback, march between the guards and the women; and, if any man is found in the way, or within the limits prohibited, he is put to death. If they march through a city, the men, in the streets through which they pass, and those adjoining, are all obliged to leave their houses, and fly to some other part of the town, as those of the villages are, for a league together, on the right and left of the road through which they are to march; and a detachment of dragoons is usually sent, half a day before, to drive them away. Muskets are fired, at short intervals, to give notice of their approach, and all who hear the report retire as fast as they can."

There are upwards of a hundred and fifty Mahometan mosques in Ispahan, covered with domes or cupolas, which, appearing through the trees, that are planted almost all over the town, afford an agreeable prospect: but the common buildings are so low, as scarcely to be discernable by one who takes a view of the town from without.

As no Christian is admitted within their mosques, it is not easy to meet with a particular description of them. Those who have seen the great mosque of Ispahan, in disguise, tell us, there is a gate leading to it, covered with silver plates. Through this there is a quadrangle, with a piazza on each side, where the priests lodge who belong to the mosque. In the centre is a large basin of water, where the people wash themselves before they enter the temple. In this square, opposite the great gate, are three large doors, which open into it. The whole building consists of five aisles, beautified with gold and azure. In the middle is the cupola, supported by four square pillars. The aisles on the sides are lower than the middle one, and borne up by thick columns of free-stone. Two great windows, towards the top of the middle aisle, give light to the whole mosque. On the left, towards the middle, stands a kind of pulpit, with stone steps to go up to it. There are no seats or pews, as in Christian churches, or any kind of imagery or pictures; but the floor is carpeted, and all persons put off their shoes on entering. The walls within are lined with white polished marble, to the height of fifteen feet. The building without is of stone, but painted with varnish-colours; and on the cupola is a tower, where the priests go up to summon the people to their devotion.

There are here a number of hummums, or bagnios; some of these are square buildings, but most of them round, built with white polished stone, and covered with painted tiles. The interior is divided into several recesses or chambers, some for pleasure, and others for sweating; and the floors are laid with black and white marble.

But what is particularly admired by foreigners, is the Charbag. This is a walk, about a hundred yards wide, and a mile long, extending from the city to the river. On

each side are planted double rows of trees; and, in the middle, runs a canal, not continued on a level; but, at the distance of every furlong, the water falls into a large basin, forming a cascade. The sides, both of the canal and basins, are lined with hewn stone, broad enough for several persons to walk a-breast. On each side of this walk are the royal gardens, and those of the grandees, with pleasure-houses at a small distance; and the whole, together, forms as agreeable a prospect as can be conceived.

This capital is said formerly to have contained a population of six hundred and fifty thousand souls; but it was often depopulated by Kouli Khan, during his wars; and when Mr. Hanway was there, in 1744, not above five thousand of its houses were inhabited.

SHIRAUZ lies about two hundred and twenty-five miles to the south of Ispahan. It is situated in a fertile valley, which is twenty-six miles long, and twelve broad, and is surrounded on all sides by mountains.

The city has six gates, each guarded by a hundred men, and four officers, who every morning and evening attend at the citadel, to pay their compliments to the khan, or king, or, in his absence, to the beglerbeg, or person next in rank. It is the duty of these guards to prevent all persons leaving the city without a pass; and, if any person, obnoxious to government, escapes, the officer's head answers for it. The gates are shut at sun-set, and opened at sun-rise, before which time no one can go out, or come in.

At the upper end of the city stands the citadel, built of burnt bricks, a square of eighty yards circumference, flanked with round towers, and encompassed with a dry fosse, of the same breadth and depth as that of the city. It is the royal residence, and serves, occasionally, as a state prison. Opposite to the citadel, in a large handsome square, is a gallery, where the khan's music, consisting of trumpets, kettle-drums, and other instruments, play regularly at sun-rise and sun-set. One side of this square leads to the great mosque, and the other to the Dewàn Khàna, or chamber of audience, a very handsome building, situated at the upper end of a large garden, to which you are conducted through an avenue, planted on each side with a species of the sycamore-tree. The room is of an oblong form, with an open front, the inside, about one-third up the wall, lined with white marble, and the ceiling and other parts ornamented with a beautiful gold enamelled work, in imitation of lapis lazuli. There are several portraits in it, tolerably well executed. In front, there are three handsome fountains, with stone basins, constantly playing. In the great square, before the citadel, is the park of artillery, consisting of several pieces of cannon, mounted on bad carriages. Most of the guns (which are Spanish and Portuguese, excepting two English twenty-pounders) are so dreadfully honey-combed, that they would certainly burst on the first discharge.

The great market is a covered street, about a quarter of a mile long, built entirely of brick, and roofed something in the style of the Piazzas, in Covent Garden. On each side are shops, in which a variety of goods are exposed to sale. There are also separate bazars, in Shirauz, for different companies of artificers, such as goldsmiths, workers of tin, dyers, carpenters, joiners, hatters, and shoemakers.

One quarter of the town is allotted to the Jews, who pay a heavy tax to government, and are obliged to make considerable presents. These people are more odious to the Persians, than those of any other religion; and every opportunity is taken to oppress, and extort money from them; the very boys in the street being accustomed to beat and insult them with impunity. The Indians have a caravansera allowed them in another quarter of the city, for which they are also under contributions.

Mr. Franklin, who got admission, in disguise, into the principal mosque, has given the following description of it: "It is of a square form: in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, for performing ablutions, previous to prayer. On the four sides of the building are arched apartments, allotted for devotion; some of the fronts of which are covered with china-tiles, others with a blue and white enamelled work. Within these recesses, on the walls on each side, are various sentences engraved from the Koran; and at the upper end of the square is a large dome, with a cupola at the top. It is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three silver lamps suspended from the centre of the dome. Here priests are constantly employed in reading the Koran. This mosque has detached apartments, with places for ablutions and other religious ceremonies; and, at a little distance, on the outside, are a range of handsome buildings, inhabited by mullahs, dervises, and other religious men."

In the centre of the city is a large building, called, by the Persians, Shah Cherauz, or the King Camp, and is considered as a place of great sanctity, being the mausoleum of the mother of one of their Imaums, or heads of their faith. It is a place of high antiquity; but the exact date of its foundation cannot be ascertained. The tomb of the celebrated poet Hafiz, about two miles from Shirauz, is of fine white marble. On the top and sides are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in Persian characters. During the spring and summer season, the inhabitants visit this spot, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess, and other games, reading also the works of Hafiz, whom they esteem more than any of their poets, and whom they venerate almost to adoration. A most elegant copy of his works is kept

upon the tomb, for the inspection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city assemble here, and shew every possible mark of respect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory.

Not far from this tomb is a magnificent building, called Heft Tun, or Seven Bodies, erected in commemoration of seven dervises, who came from a great distance to reside in Persia, and took up their abode on this spot, and there continued till they all died, each burying the other successively, until the last was buried by the neighbours. This hall is lined one-third of the height with white Tauris marble, and the ceiling is ornamented with blue and gold enamel. It has some tolerable paintings, executed in the Persian style.

The tomb of Sadi, another of their famous poets, who flourished about six centuries ago, is also in being, though out of repair. It is situated at the foot of the mountains that border the valley of Shirauz. It is a large square building, at the upper end of which are two alcoves, or recesses in the wall. That on the right is the tomb of Sadi, just in the state it was in when he was buried: it is built of stone, ten feet long, and two and a half broad. On the sides are engraved many sentences in the old Nuskhi character, relating to the poet and his works. On the tomb is placed, for the inspection of all who visit it, a manuscript copy of his works, most elegantly transcribed. This place the people of Shirauz visit occasionally, as they do the tomb of Hafiz.

With respect to the present state of this city, we have the following account, in a quarto volume, recently published by Major Waring:

"Shirauz, I am apt to believe, will disappoint those who have imagined it a populous and noble city. It is worth seeing, but not worth going to see. The town is by no means so large as is reported: it is surrounded by a wall, tenable against cavalry, and has six gate-ways. Many of the streets are so narrow, that an ass, loaded with wood, stops your way, if you are on horseback; and the houses are generally mean and dirty. But we now see Shirauz to great disadvantage, the late king having destroyed an excellent stone wall, with very strong bastions, which was deemed, by the Persians, almost impregnable, and several of the best houses in the place; in his time, it was surrounded by a broad and deep ditch, which he filled up, on destroying the fort.

"Travellers, who visited Persia long before the ravages of time could have entirely defaced the marks of sumptuous edifices, speak neither of the extensive ruins nor splendid monuments of Shirauz. Olearius, who was in Persia in the year 1636, says, that it did not contain more than ten thousand houses; but that its ruins extended two miles. Herbert, who accompanied Sir Thomas Sherley into Persia, in the year 1625, remarks, that the circumference was eight or nine miles; that there were fifteen mosques, one of which had two pillars, as high as St. Paul's. Dr. Fryer speaks of it, as containing some fine markets. Thevenot informs us, that its circumference is two hours' walk; and Tavernier calls it a mean, dirty place, which was once surrounded by a wall of mud, then fallen down.

"I should suppose the town to be about five miles in circumference, as it took me a little more than an hour to walk my horse round it. They have here a glass-house and a foundry, both worth seeing. The bottoms, which they blow, of glass, have a curious appearance to a stranger; they are ornamented in the inside with representations of trees, flowers, &c. and sometimes with small medallions. When the glass is just blown, they fix them in the bottom with small pincers; and so neatly are the pieces joined together, as to escape observation. Some of the artificers are ingenious able men; but their qualifications are actually misfortunes, as they are compelled to work for the principal people in the city, without the smallest hope of being recompensed for their labour, or being repaid for the expences they have incurred. This was really the situation of a very able gunsmith, who made pistols nearly equal to those in Europe.

"The Vakeel's bazar is a most noble work; it is built of brick, arched, and covered in, like Exeter-Change. It probably extends half a mile, and is, I should suppose, fifty feet wide. They have a story, that Kureem Khan, riding through it, soon after the work was completed, saw a nail driven into the wall, and, detecting the offender, caused his head to be struck off."

There are places in this city distinguished by the name of *Zoòr Khàna*, the house of strength, to which the Persians resort for the sake of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with a floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth; and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of several small apertures, perforated in the dome. In the centre, is a large square terrace, or platform, of earth, well beaten down, smooth, and even; and on each side are small alcoves, raised about two feet above the platform, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning, at day-break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist, on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hand two wooden clubs, about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest on each shoulder, and, the music striking up, they move them backward and forward with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve, till they produce a very profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an

nour, the master of the house, who is always one of them, and is distinguished by the appellation of *pehlwaun*, or wrestler, makes a signal, on which they all leave off, quit their clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly, in time with the music, which is all the time playing a lively tune. Having continued this for a considerable time, they commence wrestling; but, before this trial of skill begins, the master of the house addresses the company in a set speech, in which he tells the candidates, that, as they are all met in good fellowship, so ought they to depart; and that, in the contest they are about entering into, they should have no malice or ill-will in their hearts, it being only an honourable emulation, and trial of strength, in which they are going to exert themselves, and not a contentious brawl: he, therefore, cautions them to proceed in good humour and concord. This speech is loudly applauded, and the wrestling begins. The master of the house is always the challenger; and, being accustomed to the exercise, is generally the conqueror, by throwing each of the company two or three times successively. The spectators each pay a sum equal to three-pence English, for which they are refreshed with a pipe of tobacco, and coffee.

Derbend, the capital of Shirvan, is a city of great antiquity, and the only place now standing on the shores of the Caspian Sea, which has any thing to boast of. It is about three English miles long, but not more than half a mile broad, extending from the verge of the shore, due west, up to the foot of a lofty mountain, the whole on a declivity; and its natural situation is such, as to form, in strict propriety, the gate of Persia, on this side; for there is no passage to the westward, without going deep into the mountains, which are guarded by their proper inhabitants, who have not submitted to the Persian yoke. Here is a citadel, that mounts forty pieces of cannon. This city is divided into three parts, each part having its distinct wall; the upper town, which is half a mile square, constitutes the citadel; and no person can enter it but the soldiers of the garrison.

The walls of the middle town are about thirty feet high, twenty feet thick at the base, and from twelve to fifteen at top, having a breast-work, with port-holes, of considerable thickness. It is defended also by about six flanking bastions.

The city-gates are very strong, and have well-made arches, with sliding holes, to shoot arrows or throw down stones from. The streets are not regular, nor were they paved in 1746, though they had been so formerly. It was in this year that the Russian embassador made his entry into Persia: and Mr. Van Microp, who accompanied him, tells us, that, though many of the houses were supported on one side by the hills, numbers were fallen down; and the greatest part in ruins.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Persians equal, if they do not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world, in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. In the fabrication of these articles, they unite fancy, taste, and elegance, with richness and neatness; and yet they are ignorant of painting; and their drawings are very rude. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse-furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber in Persia. Their jewellers and gold-smiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses.

The commerce of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other nations, by the Gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most lucrative they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. As the manufactures and silk of Ghilan are esteemed the best in Persia, Resched, on the Caspian, is one of the first commercial towns in this part of Asia, and supplies the bordering provinces with European merchandise.

Religion.] The Persians are Mahometans, of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things, more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but, in many points, it is mingled with some Bramin superstitions. A comparison may be made between the Bramins and the Persian Gaurs, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaster. Both of them are said to have held, originally, pure and simple ideas of a supreme Being: but the Indian Bramins and Persees accuse the Gaurs, who still worship the fire, of having sensualised those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day many sects are found, that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Soussees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabean Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian Gulf.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan, (the ninth month of the Mahometan year,) with great strictness. About an hour before day-light, they eat a meal, which is called *sehre*, and from that time, un-

til the next evening at sun-set, they neither eat nor drink any thing. If, in the course of the day, the smoke of a pipe, or the smallest drop of water, should reach their lips, the fast is deemed broken, and of no avail. From sun-set until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of summer, is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged, by their occupations, to go about during the day-time; and is rendered still more so, as there are also several nights, during its continuance, which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that on which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an assassin three days before; which night is the twenty-first of Ramazan, the day of which is called, by the natives, the Day of Murder. The other is the night of the twenty-third, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from Heaven, by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomet; for which reason it is denominated the Night of Power.

Military Force.] The Persian army consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of the last century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought into the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed sixty thousand; but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited, in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built some armed vessels; but, since his death, we hear no more of their fleet.

Revenues.] The king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits, of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition exempts the natives of this country from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them, for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, the king's household, and the great officers of state. The water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

Government, Laws, &c.] The government of Persia is monarchical, and, in every branch of it, completely despotic.

The usual title of the king is *shah*, which is equivalent to that of emperor, in Europe. They add, also, to the king's titles, those of sultan and *cham*, which is that of the Tartar sovereign. To acts of state, the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but oftentimes, in his patents, enumerates the several kingdoms or provinces under his dominion. His subjects address him as the most renowned of all men; the source of power, majesty, and glory; equal to the sun; Substitute of Heaven; Object of all men's vows; Head of the most excellent religion; Prince of the faithful; Shadow of the Almighty; Father of victory; Lord of the revolutions of the world; Disposer of thrones and crowns. With these, or such like titles, petitions are given to the throne; but, when they speak to the king, they usually style him, The Lieutenant of God, or the "Prince through whom God dispenses his grace and favour to men." Those of the blood royal are styled *mizza*, which signifies the Son of a Prince. The second post in the government is that of the *divan bey*, whose office may be compared to that of our lord chief justice, and sometimes to that of our lord chancellor; but the administration of justice is committed to a *divan*, or council, which decides on all causes, civil and military, except when the king in person sits in judgment. The Divan Bey, or Lord, can command any cause to be removed to his tribunal, from any court in the kingdom. In the third rank, come the generals; and next the secretary of state, who registers the public acts, and has the care of the records. He appoints also a deputy, in every province of the empire, who transmits all affairs of consequence, to be laid before the ministry. The last great officer is the *mirab*, or lord of the water, who superintends the aqueducts. Every province has its mirab; for, in so dry a country, it is necessary all should have an equal share of water.

In every province of Persia there is a governor, who is often as despotic as a sovereign prince. Military causes are always tried by these governors, who, though they are accountable for all their actions, and have often their ears cut off, their noses slit, their backs beaten, or their feet bastinadoed, till the nails come off, seldom abstain from acts of violence and oppression.

The civil and canon laws of the Persians are blended together. Mahomet contrived this, in imitation of the Jewish law, especially the book of Leviticus, where the civil law and religious ceremonies are mingled together. According to the principle of the Mahometans, the same person bears the spiritual and temporal sword, and is both high-priest and king; he commands in war, and administers justice, explains the articles of faith, and regulates the ecclesiastical discipline, as the patriarchs did among the Jews. Justice is administered in Persia in a very summary manner, the sentence being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of the nose and ears; and highway-robbery, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet, in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment. The other punishments, in this country, are so varied and cruel, that humanity shudders at them.

Language and Literature.] The Turkish language is the most common in Persia, and prevails on the southern

parts of the Caspian, as well as in those provinces which were formerly conquered by the Turks. The pure Persic is but little known, except in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian Gulf, and the confines of Arabia, and particularly at Ispahan. Literary characters use the Arabic, in which is deposited the greatest part of that knowledge, for which the Persians were once distinguished.

The Persians write, like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts is incredible.

There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him nearly thirty years, and which have been styled "a glorious monument of eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shiraaz, who flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many elegant pieces, both in prose and in verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhsheb wrote, in Persian, a book called the "Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford, in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the vicissitudes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several pieces of poetry.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shiraaz, the name and character are sufficiently known to Orientalists. The English reader, however, may be gratified by hearing that the poet Hafiz, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verses; that the most powerful monarchs of the east sought, in vain, to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his muse, by all the honours and splendor of a court; and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious; and the oracle which determined the councils of the wise, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states.

At present, however, learning is at a low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them, is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer; which often defeats the end of the prescriptions.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Persians, of both sexes, have, in general, good features, and a tolerably fair complexion, slightly tinged with olive; but those in the south, about Shiraaz, and the provinces towards India, are of a dark brown. They are generally corpulent; with black hair, high forehead, aquiline nose, full cheeks, and a large chin, the form of the countenance being frequently oval. A Persian beauty is most esteemed when of middle stature, with long black hair, black eyes and eyebrows, long eye-lashes, fair complexion, with very little red, small nose, mouth, and chin, white teeth, long neck, small feet and hands, slender shape, and skin extremely smooth. The females, in the neighbourhood of Shiraaz, are tall and well-shaped, and celebrated for their bright and sparkling eyes. This, however, is, in a great measure, owing to art; for they rub their eye-brows and eyelids with the black flour of antimony, which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre. The men are strong and robust, and inclined to martial exercises, but they are particularly subject to disorders of the eyes. They generally shave the head; but the beard is sacred, and attended with great care.

In their dispositions, the Persians are quick, fiery, and very sensible of affronts; but they are not vindictive. They are of a sedentary turn, and delight in sitting still, and musing.

The better order of people, in Persia, are divided into two classes, the military and officers of state, and the merchants. The former, who receive a certain annual sum, which they are accustomed to expend, are very liberal, and seldom think of amassing any wealth for their posterity. The merchants, however, are always intent upon gain; it is the only subject which occupies their thoughts; and such is the ascendancy their penurious habits have gained over them, that they cannot forego an opportunity of the slightest advantage, though attended with disgrace and infamy. They have, in general, raised themselves to opulence, from a very small beginning; and the consequence is, that their penury has proportioned itself to their property. The military men are rapacious, and guilty of excessive meanness in their pursuit after money: but it must be confessed they are pleasing and entertaining companions; though not the least reliance is to be placed on their words or protestations. It is necessary to be guarded against their insidious offers; and, to be so, it is necessary to distrust all their declarations. They conceive it their duty to please; and, to effect this, they forget all sentiments of honour and good faith. They have but a faint notion of gratitude; for they cannot conceive that any one would perform an act of generosity without some sinister motive.

"The Persian dress," says Major Waring, "is admirably calculated either for a cold or hot climate. Their

limbs are under no restraint, and their clothes may be put on or thrown off in five minutes. The Persians are generally too poor to be fashionable; their dress, therefore, seldom varies, except in the colour of the robes. The Qajjars, however, preside over fashion; and every thing which is supposed to be neat or elegant, is called à la Qajjar. Their clothes may be easily described. The Zeer Janus are very light trowsers, made of silk; those worn in the hot weather, sometimes of flax; the shirt comes over the trowsers, and then the Urkbaliq, which is made of chintz, or fine shawls. The outside robe is made of various kind of cloths, some of which are very magnificent and expensive; the cap is made of the skin of the sheep of Tartary, which is very fine, and beautifully black. The merchants are prohibited from wearing either scarlet or crimson cloths, and also from using silver or gold buttons to their robes. The wearing of silks is interdicted by the Mahometan law, but they evade this, by mixing a very little cotton with them.

Although the Persians bathe frequently, they are a very dirty people. They rarely change their garments, and seldom before it is dangerous to come near them. "The Persian who accompanied me," says Major W. "slept in his clothes until we reached Kazroon, although it was the hottest season of the year; and I believe then was only induced to change his dress at my recommendation. It is thought nothing in Persia to wear a shirt a month, or a pair of trowsers half a year.

"A Persian soldier, armed cap-à-pie, is, of all figures, the most ridiculous. It is really laughable to see how they encumber themselves with weapons: their horses groan under the weight of their arms. These consist of a pair of pistols in their holsters, a single one slung round their waist, a carbine, or a long Turkish gun, a sword, a dagger, and an uncommonly long spear; for all their firearms they have separate ram-rods, tied about their persons, powder-horns for loading, others for priming, and a variety of cartouch-boxes, filled with different sized cartridges. If they are advancing, they may be heard a long way off. I should really suppose that their saddle and arms would weigh about eighty pounds, an enormous addition to the horse's burthen. Yet they consider themselves as light-armed troops, ridiculing the Turkish cavalry, who, they say, can take care of little else than their big boots and cap. The arms of the Persians are very good, particularly their swords, which are highly prized by the Turks."

The Persians are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress, upon the whole, is far better adapted for the purpose both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans, out of respect, even to the king. Some girls wear a stiffened cap upon their heads, turned up before, like a hunting-cap, with a heron's feather in it. Neither men nor women wear gloves, but their fingers are full of rings, as their arms are of bracelets. They wear necklaces of gold, or pearl, hanging down on the bosom, with a locket full of perfume.

When the women leave the house, they put on a cloak, which descends from the head to their feet, and their faces are concealed with oriental scrupulosity. The veil which they wear is sometimes worked like a net, or else two holes are made in the cloak for their eyes. It is curious to see a number of tall and elegant formed figures, walking in the streets, and presenting nothing to your view but a pair of sparkling black eyes, which seem to enjoy the curiosity they excite. The veil appears to be essential to their virtue; for, as long as they can conceal their face, they care not how much they expose the rest of their person.

In one point of dress, the Persians differ remarkably from the Turks; for, in Turkey, any person, who is not a descendant of the prophet, wearing the least green upon his garments, would, most probably, be stoned: whereas, in Persia, green is the general and favourite colour, even to their shoes.

The houses of persons of quality are generally built in the middle of a fine garden, and make little or no appearance in the streets. Nothing appears but a dead wall, with a great gate in the middle, and perhaps a screen, or wall, within the gate, to prevent persons looking in.

Their houses have but one floor, laid out as fellows: in the front of the house stands the verandah, being a little piazza, open before, where they sit and transact their common affairs; beyond this is a large hall, eighteen or twenty feet high, used at great entertainments, or on any solemn occasions. On the farther side of the house is another verandah, with a fountain of water before it; beyond which runs a walk of fine trees, as there does also from the street to the house. At each corner of the hall is a parlour, or lodging-room, for it serves both purposes occasionally. Between these parlours, on the sides, there are doors out of the hall into an open square space, as large as the rooms are at the corners. In some palaces there is a handsome basin, and a fountain playing, in the middle of the hall, which contributes still more to its coolness. The walls of the houses are of considerable thickness, and the roof of the great hall is arched, and five or six feet higher than the other rooms about it. The roofs of the buildings, on every side of the hall, are flat, with a balustrade round them; and there is a pair of stairs

up to the top, where the family walk in the cool of the day; sometimes they carry up a mattress, and lie there all night. The kitchens, and other offices, are at a distance, on the right and left, and all the rooms, except the hall, stand detached from each other, having no passage from one to another, except from the hall. There are some few chimneys, but, in general, instead of a chimney, the rooms have a round aperture, about four or five feet diameter, and a foot and a half deep, in the middle of the room, in which a charcoal fire is made, and the place covered with a thick board, or table, about a foot high, so close, that no smoke can get out; and over this table is thrown a large carpet, under which they put their legs in cold weather, and sit round, there being a passage for the smoke, by pipes under the floor. Their furniture consists only of carpets spread on the floor, with cushions and pillows to lean on; and at night a mattress is brought to sleep on, and a quilt or two to cover them, but very seldom any sheets. The Persians lie in their under garments. Servants lie about in any passage, on mats, and take up but little room. The floors are either paved or made up of a hard cement, on which they put a coarse cloth, and over that a carpet. The sides of the rooms are lined, about three feet high, with fine tiles, not unlike the Dutch tiles, and the rest of the wall painted, or hung with pictures. The houses of the inferior people are built on the same plan, as much like those described as they can afford.

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; for as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of food, after it is dressed, their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. The meal is enlarged with pot-herbs, roots and fruits, cakes, hard eggs, and sweetmeats. They speak little, and the repast never exceeds an hour.

In their conversation, the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating passages from the works of their most favourite poets, a practice universally prevalent, from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading or writing, or the other benefits arising from education, are always ready, by the help of a retentive memory, to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other, which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony.

When a person makes an entertainment, it is usually a supper; notwithstanding which, the guests generally come at nine or ten in the morning, and spend the whole day. They discourse, they smoke, eat sweetmeats, and pass away the time in various amusements. Women are occasionally introduced, who sing, dance, and play, to divert the company. They have no wine. Their usual beverage is sherbet and water, cooled, in summer-time, with ice. The officers of the army will indulge with wine; and other persons drink, under a pretence of doing it for their health; but the chief of what is here made is drank by the Christians, or sent to the neighbouring countries. If a Persian receive a visit from a superior, he acts differently from the English custom of placing him on the right-hand, it being a mark of respect, in Persia, to place the visitor on the left-hand.

The following is a well-authenticated account of a Persian supper:

"When supper was brought in, a servant, with a bottle of water, and a napkin over his shoulder, went round to all the company, and poured water on each person's hands. The room of entertainment was supplied with light by one large candle or lamp, which burnt in the court-yard, and a single wax-light on the floor of the room, which was frequently snuffed with scissars into a small cup of water. A large salver and plate were set before each person, with minced meat, fruits, spices, and comfits; and China basins, filled with sherbet, both sweet and sour; also cakes, sprinkled with the seeds of poppies. As soon as the several dishes were served up, they all began without ceremony, and devoured the food with expedition. After supper, warm water was brought for each to wash in; and, when the conversation began, it was observed, that, when the oldest man in the room began to speak, though he appeared poor, every person regarded him with the greatest attention."

On occasions of congratulation or condolence, the Persians visit each other with great attention, which is a tribute of duty always expected from persons of inferior condition, especially if they are dependant. The guests are ushered into a large room, and served with coffee and tobacco: after some time, the master of the house enters, and his visitors, rising to receive him, continue standing, till he has passed through the whole company, and paid his respects to each; he then takes his seat, and, by signs, permits them to be also seated. If any visitor arrive after this ceremony is over, he creeps softly in, and remains standing with his feet close together, and his hands folded, till the master invites him, by a sign, to sit down. When the superior is the visitor, the ceremony is different: the host, in that case, goes to meet him at the threshold, and does not attempt to sit down, till he has seated his visitor on his left-hand.

Jealousy, which generally prevails in warm climates, is not unknown to the Persians; but, as these people believe that women were only created for their pleasure, and for the continuance of the species, and that there is no manner of occasion for them in the management of the

affairs of the world, or in business of any kind whatever, they suffer them to pass their lives in indolence and luxury. Accordingly, they are seen, almost all the day, lolling on carpets, with their little slaves rubbing and chafing them, which is the common amusement in the east. Sometimes they take opium, or smoke the Persian tobacco, which is so mild, that it may be taken several hours without creating the head-ache.

The Persians are not much addicted to gaming: indeed, many of them consider all games of chance to be unlawful; but there are those who play at cards, dice, tables, chess, and other games not in use among Europeans. The king, and persons of rank, occasionally divert themselves with the fights of wild beasts, as in India; and the common people are amused, at times, with tumblers, rope-dancers, and jugglers. They have, also, martial and rural amusements, of which hunting, coursing, and hawking, form a considerable part.

They have horse-races at Shirauz. The horses start, at least, at the distance of fifteen miles, and pursue a direct course to the post. No care is taken to level the ground; and, as it very often happens that more than twenty horses start together, accidents frequently occur. Purses of gold are given to the owners of the first, second, and third, horses.

When the sovereign and his nobles take the diversion of hunting, the country-people, for ten or fifteen leagues round, are ordered to drive all the wild beasts, and game, into a certain place, surrounded with strong nets, or fences; and, when thus inclosed, every one of the company shoots at which he pleases. They usually wait, however, till the men of the greatest rank come up, and discharge an arrow, after which every one shoots as fast as he can, there being a strange medley of deer, antelopes, wild hogs, wolves, foxes, and hares, all driven in a crowd together. But they know nothing of hounds, and hunting by scent; indeed, their country seems too dry for this kind of sport, even had they proper dogs. They frequently, however, train up panthers and leopards to hunt the game, or rather to surprise it: for these animals creep from one cover to another, till they can jump upon their prey.

Both singing and dancing are considered, in Persia, as disgraceful. People of rank will not suffer their children to learn either the one or the other; but they are left, almost entirely, to females of loose character. It is reckoned an indecency, in people of reputation, to sing, and a man, who should attempt it in company, would render himself contemptible.

There are no general posts in Persia; but, when any person has letters to send, he dispatches a shater, or running footman, who will travel a thousand miles in eighteen or twenty days, and not require more than two shillings a-day for his trouble. These persons carry with them a bottle of water, and a little bag of provisions, and this serves them for thirty or forty hours. They generally leave the high-road, and cross the country the nearest way There are families, which make this their only employment, and breed their children up to it, practising them to run from their infancy. The king, and all the nobility, have several of these shaters in their retinue; but, before a man can be admitted into the royal service, he must give sufficient proof of his ability, for he must run from the great gate of the palace to a place a league and a half from the city, twelve times in one day, and, each time, bring an arrow, which is delivered to him by those who stand at the end of the race, to shew he has run the whole course.

When the parents of a young man wish him to enter into the conjugal state, they look out amongst their acquaintance for a suitable match; they then go to the house where the female lives, whom they intend to demand. If the father of the woman approve, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which is considered as a direct sign of compliance. After this, the usual presents, on the part of the bridegroom, are made, which, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel, of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready-money, which is to provide for the wife in case of a divorce. A quantity of household goods is also purchased, consisting of carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. The contract is witnessed by the cadi, or magistrate. On the wedding-night the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot with a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent expressly by the bridegroom; and, when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her, by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition, that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin. A numerous procession follows; and the rejoicings upon this occasion generally continue eight or ten days. Men marry either for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the cadi, or judge, for a wife during the time of their residence. The cadi, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be healthy; and he becomes surety for their honesty.

The ceremony of circumcision is generally performed within forty days from the birth of the child. With persons of rank this ceremony is uncommonly splendid. Mr. Franklin tells us, he was an eye-witness of the rejoicings made at Shirauz, in honour of the king of Persia's son, who was circumcised on the 27th of April, 1787.

"On the 20th," says our author, "the bazars, or co

vered market-places, were splendidly illuminated, particularly the grand bazar, which was adorned throughout with lustres of party-coloured lamps, suspended from the roof. The shops of the merchants, on each side, were decorated with silver paper, rich hangings, &c.; and the walls, to a considerable height, were covered with tapestry, looking-glasses, and paintings of the ancient kings of Persia and India, in the dresses of their respective countries. Bands of music and dancing-women were also constantly performing, throughout the different bazars, on scaffoldings erected for that purpose; and the whole was a scene of festivity for seven days and as many nights.

"Among several ingenious things observable on this occasion, the sight presented at the arsenal was most worthy of attention. In the centre of this building, the armourers had suspended a brass mortar, of eight hundred pounds weight, by some hidden means, as nothing appeared to support it, except a number of coloured bottles, sticking to it, which seemed to keep it buoyant in the atmosphere. This was said to be effected by means of a wire passed from the roof of the arsenal to the mouth of the mortar; but, not being visible to the spectators, it produced a very agreeable effect. The decorations on this occasion cost the shop-keepers and tradesmen very considerable sums; as, besides the illuminations, they were obliged to make a handsome present to their sovereign, who gave a grand entertainment in the citadel; and the whole was concluded by a magnificent display of fireworks."

When a Persian of rank is declared, by his physicians, to be in extreme danger, a priest is summoned, who exhorts him to repentance and confession, and, at the approach of the last agonies, he reads some chapters from the Koran, and pronounces a few prayers: the neighbours and passengers are informed, by lamps or fires made in the terrace of the dying man's house, that their prayers are required for a departing soul. The moment he expires, the event is proclaimed by the loud cries and lamentations of his friends, who beat their breasts, rend their clothes, and tear their hair, at the same time making the most tender addresses to the dead corpse.

The magistrate is then informed of the death, who appoints proper persons, of the same sex as the deceased, to prepare the body for interment, which is performed by frequent ablutions; the operators taking the garments of the dead as a fee for their trouble.

The body being perfectly cleaned, the mouth, nose, and other passages, are stopped with cotton, and then it is wrapped in a sheet of the same, on which are written certain passages of the Koran, relating to the mortality of the body, and the immortality of the soul: the body is afterwards carried to the grave, with great parade, if it be a person of distinction: the face is uncovered, and turned to the city of Mecca, and that side of the grave left hollow, from an opinion that, after interment, the body is reanimated, and undergoes a strict examination of angels, whose report is to determine its future destiny.

The relatives mourn only forty days; and, during the first ten, they visit the grave daily, carrying sweetmeats, fruits, and other provisions, which they leave for the use of the angels, who are supposed to attend the corpse. The relatives rend the air with renewed lamentations, and expostulate with the deceased on his premature departure; whilst the acquaintance employ themselves in offering consolation, and endeavouring to moderate their grief, by reminding them of the virtues of the friend they have lost, and the certainty of his enjoying infinite happiness in the regions of departed souls.

These visits are repeated on certain festivals, such as the anniversary of the birth-day of the deceased; and the ceremony, in some cases, is continued for several years. The mourning for a relation or a friend is denoted by a total negligence of dress, without any regard to the colour; during forty days they do not shave, and refuse to change their clothes. Widows generally extend the term of mourning; and though they are not prohibited from marrying again, it seldom happens that they take a second husband.

History.] The Persian empire was founded by Cyrus, about five hundred and fifty-six years before Christ, and ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander the Great. Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, whose descendants, in less than three centuries, were conquered by the Romans. The latter, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, from Arsaces, called Arsacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet. His successors, from him sometimes called Sophis, proved, in general, to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence; which brought them into such disrepute with their subjects, that Hussein, a prince of the Sophi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor of the famous Miriweis, as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Thamas, the representative of the Sophi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars, during their late rebellions. At last, the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and, after assuming the name of Tha-

mas Konli Khan, pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards ascended the throne, under the title of Nadir Shah. He made an expedition into Hindoostan, and carried off an amazing booty, in money, precious stones, and other valuables; but, it has been remarked that, he brought back an inconsiderable part of his plunder, losing great part of it, upon his return, by the Mahrattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He vanquished the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was, to strike terror into all his subjects, by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, and strangling the chief priests who resisted, that he was considered insane, and he was assassinated in his own tent, by his chief officers, in the year 1747. From the death of Nadir till the settlement of Kerim Khan, the whole empire was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties, in different provinces, struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himself independent of the other, torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes were committed with impunity.

Kerim Khan Zund was a most favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and, at the time of his death, was in the southern provinces; Shiraz and other places had declared for him; and he found means, at last, after various encounters, with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals; and, finally, to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He was in power about thirty years; the latter part of which he governed under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent, for he never would receive the title of Shah: he made Shiraz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants, and those of the southern provinces. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia. His character is deservedly celebrated, for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained, so that, during his whole reign, there was not in Shiraz a single riot productive of bloodshed: besides these merits, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his toleration of different religions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities and personal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own subjects, but highly respected by foreign powers.

After the decease of Kerim Khan, his relation Zikea seized the throne; but his cruelties rendered him so odious, that he was soon murdered by the soldiers, who bestowed the sovereignty on Futtah, the son of Kerim. He was, soon afterwards, deposed by his uncle Sadick; who, in his turn, was taken prisoner and put to death by Ali Murad, another kinsman of Kerim Khan.

On the death of the conqueror, who was killed by a fall from his horse, Jaaffar Khan assumed the crown, but, being defeated by Akan, the latter retained possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, together with the cities of Ispahan and Tauris; while Jaaffar Khan held the city of Shiraz, and some of the neighbouring provinces.

In 1792, Akan Mahomed Khan assembled an army, and marched against Jaaffer, who was slain at Shiraz, in an insurrection; after which Akan became sole sovereign of Persia, except that part of the west included in the dominions of the Afghan sovereign of Cabrel and Candahar.

CHAPTER VI.

ARABIA.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.

ARABIA is situated between twelve and thirty-two degrees of north latitude, and between thirty-five and sixty degrees of east longitude; and is about fourteen hundred miles in length, and twelve hundred and sixty in breadth. It is bounded by Asiatic Turkey, on the north; by the Euphrates, the Persian Gulf, and the Bay of Ormus, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, on the south; and by the Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea, on the west.

Divisions.] By the ancients, Arabia was simply divided into three parts: *Arabia Petræa*, or the Stony, a small province on the north of the Red Sea, between Egypt and Palestine, so called from its granitic rocks and mountains; *Arabia Deserta*, or the Desert, was the eastern part, so far as known to the ancients; and *Arabia Felix*, or the Happy, comprised the south-west, on the shores of the Red Sea. The modern divisions and subdivisions are as follow:

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, W.		
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	Neged	
3. Arabia Felix, S.W. and S.E.	Neged Proper	Imama Salemia
	Hedjaz	MECCA, E. lon. 41° 0′ N. lat. 21° 40′ Medina
	Hadramaut	Hadramant Dofar
	Yemen	SAANA, E. lon. 46° 35′ N. lat. 17° 28′ Mocha, E. lon. 44° 25′ N. lat. 14° 0′
	Oman	Rostak Muscat
	Lachsa, Hadjar, or Bahrein	Lachsa

Climate, Soil, &c.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is extremely sultry, and the country is subject to hot pestilential winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal to travellers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracts, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly by night. "Here," says Mr. Shaw, "are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor valleys standing thick with corn; here are no vine-yards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no otherways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile."

Seas, Rivers, &c.] Some writers are of opinion, that the Red Sea received its appellation from a kind of refulgence peculiar to its waters, being tinged with a red mineral earth, as also from its having red sands on its shores. Mariners have declared, that, through the turbulence of the waters, occasioned by the flux and reflux of the sea, the sand has been so agitated, as to appear of a red colour, of the strongest dye. The agitation prevented its subsiding to the bottom, which, of course, it must have done in still water. There are few rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which forms a boundary on the north-east.

Mountains.] The principal mountains of Arabia are Sinai and Horeb, lying to the east of the Red Sea, and those called Gabel-el-Ared, to the southward. What is called the Desert of Sinai is a beautiful plain, near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but, to the southward, is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain, as to divide it into two parts. From Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning-bush. On those mountains are many chapels and cells, occupied by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like their brethren at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction, recorded in scripture, happened.

Near this spot is erected the convent of St. Catherine, which belongs to the Greeks, and which the monks hold in great veneration. This convent is built on a descent. The walls and the arches, with the church, are the only ancient buildings. The latter is of coarse red granite. The walls are six feet thick, but some parts of them are in a ruinous state. The structure, upon the whole, is irregular, and composed of unburnt brick.

Vegetables.] As Arabia partakes of the joint advantages of hot and temperat climates, it produces the plants common to each. Some of the most beautiful flowering plants are the ipomœa pancratieum, or sea-daffodil, a flower of the finest white, and hibiscus, with a flower of the brightest red, and singularly large. Among the œconomical plants of Arabia are orache, which is used instead of soap; a particular kind of rush, wove into fine

carpets; the indigo shrub; the common kali; and many others.

The sandy plains of Arabia are almost destitute of trees, only a few palms, scattered here and there, relieve the eye in those extensive tracts. The hills, however, in some places, are covered with wood, and many of the trees are of a species unknown in Europe. The Arabs cultivate many of our fruits, which arrive at great perfection. They have several varieties of lemons and oranges; and many kinds of grapes, though they do not make them into wine. Several valuable fruit-trees have been likewise introduced from India, which are now naturalized in Arabia.

An Arabian tree, famous from the most remote antiquity, and yet little known, is that which produces the balsam of Mecca. This tree has no external beauty; and, what is most singular, its value is not known among the inhabitants of Yemen: they only burn its wood as a perfume. The Arabs, however, in the remote parts of the province of Hedjaz, collect the balsam, and bring it to Mecca, whence it is distributed over the Ottoman empire.

The Alhenna Lausonia inermis, of Linnæus, the leaves of which are so famous as a cosmetic, throughout the east, is a native of Arabia. With this the women stain their hands and feet, or at least their nails, and think that it increases their beauty.

Of the sensitive plant, there are several species in Arabia. One of them drops its branches whenever any person approaches, and seems as if it saluted those who courted its shade. This mute hospitality has so endeared the tree to the Arabs, that it is reckoned criminal to injure or cut it down. Another species preserves camels' milk from becoming sour, for several days; and the smoke of its wood destroys a worm, which fixes itself in the flesh of the human neck, and produces epileptic fits.

Animals.] The most useful quadrupeds in Arabia are camels and dromedaries, which are admirably adapted by Providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this country. But, of all the animals, it is well known that the Arabians put the greatest value on their horses. Of these they have two great branches, the Kadtschi, whose descent is unknown, and the Kochlani, of which a written genealogy has been kept for a great number of years.

The Kadtschi are not in higher estimation than our common European horses, and are used as beasts of burden; but the Kochlani are kept exclusively for riding, and are highly esteemed. They are certainly animals of great metal and perseverance; and they are amazingly swift, which constitutes their chief value with the Arabs.

These Kochlani are bred chiefly by the Bedouins, settled on the confines of Basra, Merdin, and Syria, in which countries the grandees will not condescend to ride horses of any other race. The utmost care is taken to keep the blood pure and uncontaminated; and the legitimacy of the progeny must be ascertained before sworn witnesses, who would think it the most heinous crime to prevaricate in respect to the descent of a horse.

The tender attachment which the Arabs feel towards these animals is strikingly illustrated in the following anecdote, extracted from the Rev. T. Smith's Naturalist's Cabinet:—

"The whole stock of a poor Arab of the desert consisted of a beautiful mare; this the French consul at Said offered to purchase, with an intention of sending her to Louis XIV. The Arab, pressed by want, hesitated a long time, but at length consented, on condition of receiving a very considerable sum of money, which he named. The consul wrote to France, for permission to close the bargain, and, having obtained it, sent the information immediately to the Arab. The man, so indigent as to possess only a miserable rag, a covering for his body, arrived with his magnificent courser; he dismounted, and, looking first at the gold and then stedfastly at his mare, heaved a deep sigh. 'To whom is it,' he exclaimed, 'that I am going to yield thee up? To Europeans! who will tie thee up close, who will beat thee, who will render thee miserable! Return with me, my beauty, my jewel! and rejoice the hearts of my children.' As he pronounced the last words, he sprang upon her back, and was out of sight almost in a moment."

There are two breeds of asses in Arabia: the one small and sluggish; the other large and spirited, and consequently highly valued.

Arabia contains abundance of domestic animals; as oxen, buffaloes, sheep, and goats; as well as those of the wild and savage kind; of which there are the rock-goat, the jackall, the hyæna, the jerboa, and the panther, with wolves, foxes, and wild boars; but the most common carnivorous animal is a species of wild dog, somewhat resembling the fox, which the natives call El Vavi.

With respect to birds, tame fowls are plentiful in the fertile districts, and all sorts of poultry are bred in abundance. The pintado is not domestic, though very numerous in the woods. The pheasant is a native of Arabia, and abounds in the forest of Yemen. There are several species of pigeons; and grey partridges are found in the plains.

The aridity of the country is unfavourable for aquatic birds; however, there are plovers and some storks. Fowls that live on fish are pretty numerous on the coasts of the Red Sea; among the rest are pelicans, whose eggs are as large as those of a goose. The ostrich is sometimes seen in Arabia. Eagles, falcons, sparrow-hawks, and the Egyptian vulture, are among the rapacious birds of this country. The last is extremely serviceable, by clearing the country of the carcases, which would soon become noisome and infectious in such a warm climate.

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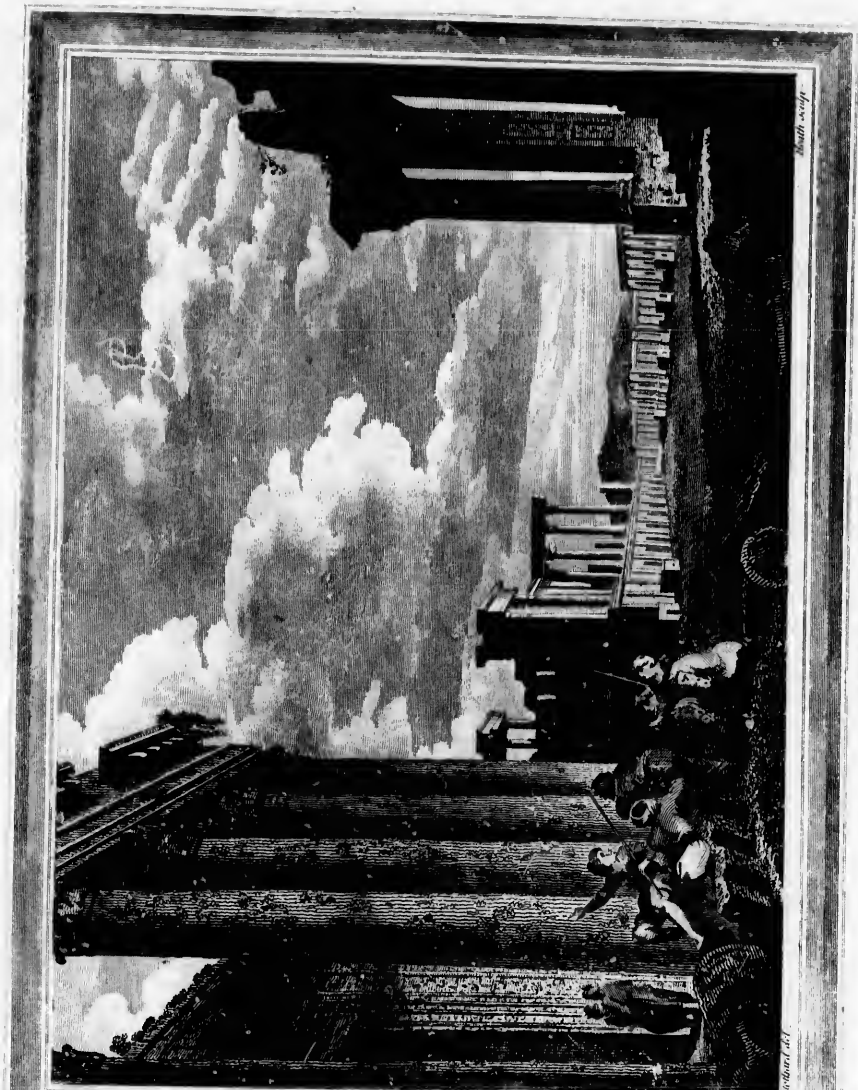

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Among the reptiles is a little slender serpent, called the baltan, spotted with black and white, which is remarkably poisonous, the bite being deemed fatal, by the natives; but, from an account of an officer belonging to the East-India Company, who visited this country in 1790, it appears to have been cured by an English practitioner. He says, that one of the Arabs, who attended them on a journey, was bitten by a snake, which caused his leg to swell prodigiously; and, as the poison seemed to be rapidly mounting upwards, and the poor fellow was in great agony, the Arabs were apprehensive it would be attended with fatal consequences; but, luckily, one of the party, having practised physic in India, had the presence of mind to heat an iron ramrod, (having no proper surgical instrument,) and burnt the wounded part, quite to the bone, which prevented the direful effects of the poison, and, in a short time, with the assistance of medicine, effected a perfect cure.

Minerals.] Arabia contains mines of lead and iron, but the metal is brittle. There are also a variety of precious stones, as agates, cornelians, onyxes, and what is called the sardonyx. Niebuhr also observed pentagonal pillars of basaltes, with bluish alabaster, selenite, and various spars. In a district of the province of Yemen there is a warm spring of mineral water.

Antiquities.] The principal antiquities in this country are the ruins of the city of Palmyra, situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined, as it were, with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The Temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns, of white marble. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade, extending four thousand feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible, from them, to form an idea of the whole, when perfect.

"Nothing but ocular proof," says a respectable writer, "could convince any man that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride, as well as the emporium, of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandise and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its origin to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history, it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus: Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned, in great glory, for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Unwilling to submit to the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and slew her principal nobility, and, among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants. None of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian era, though there can be no doubt but the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendour, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its present wretched state.

Cities and Towns.] "Arabia," says a modern geographer, "has been compared to a cloak 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 infidels are not permitted to approach; and we are obliged to trust to the inaccuracy and exaggeration of oriental writers.

"MECCA was known to the Greeks under the name of Macoraba, and has not, in the most flourishing period, exceeded the size and populousness of Marseilles. 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 brackish; and the pastures are remote from the city. The fame and spirit of the Koreishites, who reigned in Mecca, were conspicuous among the Arabian tribes; but their ungrateful soil refused the labours of agriculture, and their position was favourable to the enterprises of trade. By the sea-port of Gedda, at the distance only of forty miles, they maintained an easy correspondence with Abyssinia. 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. 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 Bostra 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 merchandise."

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.

At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a mosque, the most magnificent of any in the Turkish dominions; its roof being elevated in the form of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, which make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a considerable distance. The mosque has a hundred gates, with a window over each, and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims, who annually visit this place, is almost incredible.

A merchant of Mecca made an observation on those saints, which, Niebuhr says, he was surprised to hear from the lips of a Mahometan. "The vulgar," said he, "must always have a visible object of fear and honour. Thus, at Mecca, oaths are addressed to Mahomet, instead of God: and, at Mocha, I would not trust a man who took the Supreme to witness the truth of what he was asserting; but I might the more safely depend on him who would swear by Schœdeli, whose mosque and tomb are before his eyes."

At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the way to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by four hundred pillars, and furnished with three hundred silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "*Most Holy*," by the Turks, because it contains the coffin of their prophet, covered with a cloth of gold, over a canopy of silver tissue, which, by order of the grand signior, is annually renewed. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

Mocha, in the province of Yemen, is a large and populous city and sea-port, situated at the entrance of the Red Sea. The inhabitants are mostly Mahometans, but there are also great numbers of Jews, who reside in the suburbs. The city, which is surrounded by a wall, has four gates, and several towers, some of them mounted with cannon, and garrisoned by soldiers. The streets are spacious, and the houses, built of brick or stone, consisting of two stories, with terraces on the tops. The shops are judiciously built for trade, and stored with all sorts of commodities. Here arrives, annually, the great ship Mansouri, sent by the grand signior, laden with the richest merchandise, and carrying back spices, silks, calicoes, and other valuable articles: caravans also arrive, every year, from Turkey and Egypt. The port of Mocha is formed by two slips of land, on each point of which is a fortress, at a distance of about three miles from each other.

Aden is a considerable city, situated between the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. The Arabs say, Aden is so called from its founder, the son of Saba, and grandson of Abraham. It is surrounded by mountains, the summits of which are fortified with cannon, and from which an aqueduct conveys water into a capacious reservoir, about half a mile from the city. Here are many handsome houses, with terraces on their tops, and the place is well secured by its advantageous situation and fortifications.

Sana is situated at the foot of Mount Nikkum, on which are still some ruins of a castle, which the Arabs suppose to have been erected by Shem, the son of Noah. The city-walls are built of brick, and have seven gates. Here are a number of mosques, and several palaces. Except in one palace, near the citadel, no glass windows are seen in this place; the houses, in general, have only shutters, which are opened or closed according to the state of the weather.

The Jews carry on a considerable trade here, and are the chief artisans. At one time they had fourteen synagogues at Sana, but one of them, who had been comptroller of the customs, falling into disgrace, drew a degree of persecution on his brethren. The Banians are not very numerous. They pay three hundred crowns a month for permission to live in the city, and, if they leave no immediate heirs, the whole of their property devolves to the imaum.

Government.] Arabia is divided among numerous Imaums and Sheiks, an idea of whose government may be drawn from that of Yemen, which is thus described by Niebuhr. "The title of *Imaum*, implying Vicar of Mahomet, is ecclesiastic; and, among the Turks, implies a common priest, while the Mulla presides in a court of justice. But, among the Persians and Arabs, the title Imaum is of superior dignity, as the twelve Imaums, or genuine successors of the prophet, in Persia; while, in Arabia, the word is considered as synonymous with *Caliph* and *Emir El Mumenin*, or Prince of the Faithful. The inferior governments are conducted by Sheiks, a term merely implying old or venerable men."

The throne of Yemen is hereditary; and the Imaum, or Emir, is completely independent, acknowledging no superior in spiritual or temporal affairs. 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 denote gentlemen. The governors of districts are called Dolas; or, if superior in birth, Walis. The Dola, in some degree, corresponds with the Turkish Pacha. 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. In each district there is also a Cadi; who, like those in Turkey, are judges of ecclesiastic and civil affairs; but, in Arabia, the prince himself is the high-priest. His army, in peace, is computed at four thousand infantry and one thousand cavalry; the soldiers being, as usual in the east, without uniforms. There is no navy, and the vessels, in general, are very rudely constructed.

Manufactures, Commerce, &c.] The manufactures of Arabia are of small importance, though the people are naturally ingenious and industrious. In all Arabia there are neither windmills nor watermills. 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 coarse linen manufactures.

The Arabian intercourse with Hindoostan has greatly declined since the discovery of the Portuguese, whose superior skill and maritime force eclipsed the small vessels of the Arabs. From Yemen are exported coffee, aloes, myrrh, frankincense, senna, ivory, and gold, from Abyssinia. The European imports are iron, steel, tin, and lead.

Language and Literature.] The language commonly spoken is the Arabic, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are amongst Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship; for, as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other; they believe it to have been the language of paradise, and think no man can be a master of it without a miracle, as it consists of several millions of words.

Though it cannot be supposed that literature has made any very considerable progress in a country where manners are so simple, and emulation so rare, the Arabs are great admirers of poetry. Their early history records many instances of the estimation in which they held this art, even before the days of Mahomet; and their modern poets still cultivate this science, and are rewarded for excellence in it.

The best poets are among the Bedouins of Dsjof. A sheik of that country was, some years since, imprisoned at Sana, who, observing a bird on the roof of a house, recollected the opinion of those pious Mussulmen, who think it meritorious to deliver a bird from a cage. He deemed himself equally entitled to liberty as the bird, and expressed this idea in a poem, which his guards learned by heart, and which, becoming generally known, at length reached the monarch's ears, who was so charmed with it, that he set the composer at liberty, though he had been guilty of various acts of robbery.

Education is not wholly neglected, and many of the common people can read and write, while those of rank employ preceptors to teach their children and young slaves. Near every mosque 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 middling class send their sons, who are taught to read, write, and cast accounts. The girls are instructed apart, by women.

In the chief cities are colleges for astronomy, astrology, philosophy, and medicine.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Arabians are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. Their dress is loose, long, and broad; they wrap it round them, and gird it with a sash: at night, amongst the common people, it serves them for a bed and coverlet. Their upper garment is generally wove in one piece: it has a cap for the head, is tight about the neck, and enlarges towards the bottom. This dress is only worn in cold and rainy weather; and under it and the garb that wraps entirely over the whole, some of them wear a long close-bodied waistcoat, without sleeves. Their sash, or girdle, is of worsted, and in it they stick their poniards, ink-horns, or badges of their rank. Their head-dress consists of several bonnets, either of cotton or woollen, round which is wrapped a large piece of muslin, with fringes of silk, and sometimes gold, hanging behind. The women wear a kind of short waistcoat and drawers, but sometimes they have only a piece of cloth wrapped round their loins. When they go out, they cover themselves with the same kind of garb as is worn by the men, so that there is very little to be seen of their faces. Some of the men go almost naked, in hot weather; others wear drawers and slippers, but no stockings. The women, in some parts, wear large veils, with rings, bracelets, and necklaces of false pearls, and sometimes, in addition to ear-rings, have a nose-ring. Their nails are stained red, and the feet and hands of a yellowish brown, with the herb called henna; the eye-lashes are darkened with antimony, and every art is exerted to render the eye-brows large and black.

The Arabs are moderate in their food, the common people having only a repast of bad bread, made from doura, a kind of millet, mixed with camel's milk, oil, or grease. Meat is little used, even by the rich, who deem it unhealthy in a

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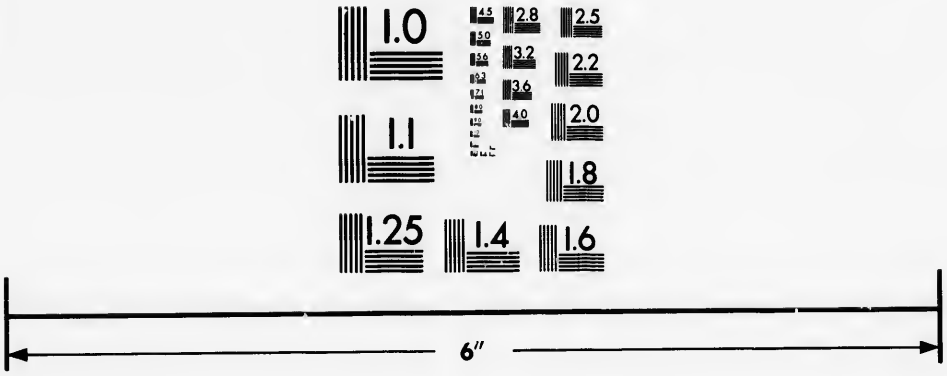

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hot climate. Their favourite beverage is water or coffee, which they prepare like the Turks, by burning it in an open pan, and then bruising it in a stone or wooden mortar, which gives it a superior flavour to the common mode of grinding in a mill. In Yemen, however, it is rarely used, as it is supposed to heat 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 earthen-ware. Spirituous liquors, though forbidden, are not unknown; and they sometimes smoke a plant, resembling hemp, which produces intoxication; tobacco is also smoked, either in the Turkish or Persian manner.

The Arabs retain several of the customs and manners mentioned in sacred and profane history. Upon meeting each other, they still use the primitive salutation of "Peace be unto you." Before the Mahometan conquest, the expression was, "God prolong your life." The inferiors, out of respect and deference, kiss the feet, knees, or garments, of their superiors; whilst the children and other kindred pay the same respect to their relations. The posture they observe in giving one another the salute, is laying the right-hand upon the breast; while others, who are, perhaps, more intimately acquainted, or of equal age and dignity, kiss the hand, head, or shoulder, of each other. At the feast of their Bayram, and other great solemnities, the wife compliments the husband by kissing his hand.

The vivacity of the Arabians makes them fond of company, notwithstanding their disposition to thoughtfulness. They frequent public coffee-houses and markets, and, when the villages lie at too great a distance, the country people meet in the open fields, some to buy or sell, and others to converse, or amuse themselves as spectators of the busy scene.

The Arabs are not quarrelsome, but, when any dispute happens to arise among them, they make a great deal of noise. They are, however, soon appeased, and a reconciliation is at all times instantly effected, if an indifferent person call upon the disputants to think of God and his prophet. The inhabitants of the east, in general, strive to master their anger. A boatman, in a passion, complained to the governor of the city of a merchant, who would not pay a freight due for the carriage of his goods. The governor always put off hearing him till some other time. At length he came and told his case coolly, and the governor immediately did him justice, saying, *I refused to hear you before, because you were intoxicated with anger, the most dangerous of all intoxications.*

The Bedouins, or Arabs of the Desert, are meagre, small, and of a tawny complexion; but it has been observed, that the sheiks and their attendants are taller, and more corpulent, than the common class. This difference must be attributed to their food, with which the former are supplied more abundantly than the latter.

The inferior classes of these Arabs live in a state of habitual famine; for the usual quantity of food consumed by each individual does not exceed six ounces a day. A few dates, soaked in melted butter, with a little milk or curds, constitute their common food; to which they sometimes add a small quantity of coarse flour, or a little ball of rice. Meat is reserved for grand festivals; and they never kill a kid, but for a marriage or a funeral. In times of dearth, the poorer class do not disdain the most wretched kinds of food; but greedily devour locusts, lizards, rats, and serpents, broiled on a few briars.

The principal sheik in every tribe defrays the expences of all who arrive at or quit his camp. Adjoining to his tent is a large pavilion, in which are held frequent assemblies of the Bedouin chiefs, to determine on encampments and removals, on peace and war, on the disputes with the Turkish governors, and the quarrels and litigations of individuals.

The poverty of the lower class is proportionate to that of their chiefs. All the wealth of a family consists of a few camels, some goats, and poultry, a mare, and her bridle and saddle, a tent, a lance, sixteen feet long, a crooked sabre, a rusty musket, a pipe, a portable mill, a leathern bucket, a small coffee-roaster, a pot for cooking, some clothes, a woollen mantle, and some glass or silver rings, with which the women decorate their legs and arms. If none of these be wanting, their furniture is complete.

Thus confined to the mere necessaries of life, the Bedouins have as little industry as their wants are few. All their arts consist in weaving their clumsy tents, and in making mats and butter; their whole commerce is confined to the exchanging camels, horses, kids, and milk, for arms, clothing, rice, or corn, and money, which they hide in the earth; they have not a single idea of any science; and nothing is so uncommon, even among the sheiks, as to know how to read.

They are extremely fond, however, of reciting tales and histories, in the manner of the Arabian Nights' Entertainments.—In the evening they seat themselves at the threshold of their tents, with pipes in their mouths, and their legs crossed, and there sit in silent meditation, till one of them suddenly breaks forth with, "Once upon a time"——and continues to recite the adventures of some young sheik and female Bedouin: he relates in what manner the youth got a secret glimpse of his mistress, and became deeply enamoured; he minutely describes the lovely fair; boasts her black eyes, as large and soft as those of the gazelle; her arched eye-brows, resembling two bows of ebony; and her waist, strait and supple as a lance; he expatiates on her steps, light as those of the young filley, her eye-lashes blackened with antimony, her lips painted blue, and he

nails tinged with the golden-coloured henna. He recounts the sufferings of the young lover, so wasted with desire, that his body no longer yields any shadow. And, at length, after detailing his attempts to see his mistress, the obstacles of the parents, the invasion of the enemy, and the captivity of the young lovers, he terminates his tale by restoring them, united and happy, to the paternal tent.

The freedom enjoyed by the Bedouins extends even to their religion; for, although some of them, from policy, preserve the appearance of Mahometanism, their observance of its ceremonies is so relaxed, and their devotion has so little fervour, that they are generally considered as infidels, who have neither law nor prophets. They even make no difficulty of asserting, that the religion of Mahomet was not intended for them. "For," say they, "how must we make ablutions who have no water? How can we bestow alms who are not rich? Why should we fast in the Ramadan, since the whole year with us is one continual fast? And what necessity is there for us to make a pilgrimage to Mecca, if God be present every where?" In short, every individual acts and thinks as he pleases.

To this account we shall subjoin some additional observations on the manners and customs of the Arabs, for which we are indebted to the travels of the Abbé Poiret, through some parts of Arabia.

"How shall I describe," says our author, "the confused and contradictory ideas which arose in my mind, on the first view of these Arab hordes! I had approached within a short distance of thirty tents, and was preparing to go up to them, when I was informed that the plague had just made its appearance among them. The spot where I then stood was on the brink of a cool and limpid rivulet; bushes of laurel, myrtle, and roses, formed around me an agreeable shade; and the landscape, bounded by verdant hills, was animated with numerous herds, grazing at a distance. Whilst contemplating the beauties of this scene, about a dozen of the Arabs advanced suddenly towards me; and, I must confess, that their ferocious countenances excited an emotion of fear in my breast, that instantly dispelled all those ideas with which I had been so agreeably entertained; but my companions assured me there was no danger. As soon as they were near enough, I saluted them, after the oriental manner, and bade my interpreters request them to keep at a certain distance, on account of the contagion. With this they readily complied, and squatted down in a circle round us. They then asked, if I would have any milk, and, on my answering in the affirmative, two of them set out, and returned soon after, with each a basin full of it. I drank some of it, and, notwithstanding their fierce air, was sensible they gave me a kind reception. I therefore expressed my gratitude by signs, and distributed among them a small quantity of powder and shot, which they requested.

"Forgetting the picture which had been drawn to me of their manners, I now endeavoured to persuade myself, that the nearer a man approaches to nature, the better he ought to be. I perceived, in these men, the patriarchs of antiquity, devoted entirely to the care of their flocks, and free from those numerous wants which have been created by luxury. I beheld men, to whom I was indebted for their hospitality; and, if I did not find in them the affected politeness of a European, I observed, at least, that rustic sincerity, which ought to reside in the man of nature.

"When I prepared to resume my journey, they accompanied me near half a mile; and, at parting, they wished me peace and happiness. Being informed of the meaning of these expressions, I repeated them very affectionately, and congratulated myself, that the first Arabic words I had pronounced served to express my gratitude."

Though half savage in appearance, the Arabs have certain signs, in all their tribes, to express friendship and respect. The most usual mode of salutation is, to put the right-hand on the breast, and to incline the head: in this posture two Arabs, on meeting, wish each other a good day, and enquire respecting the health and safety of their relations, flocks, &c. If they are particularly acquainted, they embrace reciprocally, and kiss each other's face and shoulders. When they accost any person of high rank, they kiss their hand in the most respectful manner, and sometimes kiss his clothes, placing one knee upon the earth.

In conversation, their gestures are graceful and expressive, their accent strong and sharp, and their voice particularly loud and sonorous. This custom of speaking loud may be easily accounted for, when we recollect that they have been habituated from their infancy to live in the open air, and to speak to one another at a great distance.

When they are unemployed, they usually sit squatting on the ground, with their fusee upright between their knees; for they never lay aside their arms, except when in their tents; and a fusee is considered as the most valuable inheritance that a father can leave to his son. In this manner they pass whole days, and consider themselves peculiarly happy, when they can thus abandon themselves to idleness.

Notwithstanding this aptitude to indolence, however, the Arabs are possessed of quick and violent passions, which often induce them to carry the desire of vengeance for injuries to its highest excess. Some tribes, in particular, are so extremely irritable, and jealous of their honour, that, if one chief says to another, with a serious air "Thy bonnet is dirty;" or, "The wrong side of thy turban is out," nothing but blood can wash away the reproach; and not only the offender, but all the males of his family, must expect to be sacrificed on such an account.

Mr. Niebuhr relates a tragical instance of this vindic-

tive spirit, which happened in the vicinity of Barra, about twelve years before he commenced his travels in Arabia.—"A man of eminence had given his daughter in marriage to an Arab of another tribe. Shortly after the celebration of the nuptials, a sheik of an inferior tribe asked him, in a coffee-house, whether he were father to the handsome young wife of such an one, whom he named. The father, supposing his daughter's honour ruined, immediately quitted the company to *stab* her! At his return from the perpetration of this unnatural deed, he who had so indiscreetly put the question was gone. The exasperated Arab instantly went in search of him, and killed several of his relations, without sparing either his servants or cattle. Hereupon the offender offered a great sum to the governor to rid him of so furious an adversary; but both the threats and persuasions of the governor proved ineffectual with the man who had been offended, till, at length, it was agreed, that the offender should give him his daughter in marriage, together with a handsome portion: and, even after this agreement, the first aggressor durst never appear before his son-in-law."

The thirst for vengeance, likewise, discovers itself in the peculiar manner in which murder is prosecuted in several districts of Arabia: for here the relations of the deceased are at liberty either to accept a pecuniary compensation, or to require the murderer to surrender himself to justice, or to wreak their vengeance upon his whole family. In some places, indeed, it is deemed unlawful to accept money as an atonement for murder, which, by the laws of Arabian honour, can only be expiated by blood. They think little of delivering an assassin into the hands of justice; for this, they say, would be to deliver a family from an unworthy member, who merited no such favour at their hands. For these reasons, they rather revenge themselves upon the family of the murderer, and seek an opportunity of slaying its chief, whom they regard as being properly the person guilty of the crime, because it must have resulted from his negligence with respect to the conduct of those under his inspection. In the mean time, the judges secure the assassin, till he has paid a heavy fine; and, from this time, the two families are in continual apprehension; for no reconciliation can be effected: and there have been instances of such quarrels being occasionally renewed for upwards of forty years.

"An Arab of distinction," says Mr. Niebuhr, "who often visited us at Loheya, always wore both his poniard and a small lance; because, he told us, a man of his family had been murdered, and he was compelled to avenge the murder upon a man of the inimical family, who was then actually in the city, and carried just such another lance. He acknowledged to us, that the fear of meeting his enemy, and fighting with him, often disturbed his repose."

Marriage, among the Arabs, is simply a bargain concluded between the parents of the woman and the man who intends to espouse her. In order to obtain her, he has no occasion to win her affections, or merit her preference; for, if he presents a couple of fine cows, he is sure of a favourable reception. The parents take the cows, and deliver over their daughter to the suitor, who may keep her as long as he pleases, and afterwards dismiss her without any formality.

The grinding of corn, churning of butter, preparing the couscousan, &c. all belong to the women, but this is the easiest part of their employments; for, while their husbands pass the greatest part of their time in indolence, they are obliged to till and sow the earth, to cut wood, and frequently to carry both their tent and kitchen-furniture on their shoulders.

The following observations of Poiret, respecting the education of the Arabs, may, probably, be deemed amusing:—"I was much surprised," says this gentleman, "to find a public school in one of their *douares;* and my astonishment increased on finding it under the direction of a person who was blind. This Arab had collected in his tent about a dozen children, of both sexes, whom he taught to read and write. I remarked, that the countenances of the pupils bore no marks of weariness or disgust, which are too common in European seminaries; but, on the contrary, labour appeared to them like amusement. Their only book was the koran, which the master knew by heart, and, on that account, he was able to follow his scholars, and to point out their errors. They chaunted their lessons with good humour, and in a variety of tones; but, though this music was not very engaging, I saw with pleasure, that among these savage hordes, the infancy of man is not abandoned to merciless tyrants, who often destroy the expanding flowers of genius.

"Those who were most advanced, taught the younger pupils to write, under the direction of the master. Instead of paper, they had pieces of board, covered over with a kind of varnish, and a bit of reed, cut in a very rude manner, supplied the place of a pen; yet they wrote tolerably well, and with great expedition. When they had thoroughly learned their task, they washed their tablets, and received a fresh sentence from the koran.

"As soon as the usual time of their studies was expired, each of the children embraced the master, and retired, with many acknowledgments of his kind attention."

The children of the Arabs are almost entirely abandoned to nature: they are seldom caressed, and never beaten. Left to themselves, they engage in exercises suited to their age, gradually become inured to every species of hardness, and acquire the vigour and agility of their fathers. Familiar with every animal, they caress the sheep, play with the goat, and closely pursue the heifer,

which runs from them. The most ardent heat does not overpower them; and neither dampness nor cold seem to affect their constitutions. When scarcely able to walk, they accompany their parents to watch their flocks, mount on the back of the fiercest bull, and learn to manage the most untractable courser, without either spurs or bridle.

One of the first prejudices instilled into the breast of an Arabian child is an inveterate hatred against all Christians; and this becomes so strengthened by age, that there are few individuals, who would not consider the assassination of a Christian as a meritorious action. "I have been," says Poiret, "greatly harassed by the children, who flocked round me, as I approached the tents; and I was even obliged to put up with the grossest insults; for, if I had attempted to chastise any of them, their fathers would infallibly have taken their part, and have revenged an injury done by *a dog* to a servant of Mahomet."

"I have many times," adds the same writer, "seen some of the women, who had never met a Christian, shudder when I appeared, and run from me, as if I had been a monster. By means of some little present, however, I always rendered them more tractable; and, when they became a little familiarised, they appeared utterly astonished at finding me like another man. They particularly examined my gloves, which were green, supposing that to be the colour of my skin; and, when I pulled them off, they were in the utmost amazement. Every attempt to explain their utility was in vain; for as these people are acquainted only with the absolute necessaries of life, they laugh at all superfluities."

The Arabs profess the faith of Mahomet; but they intermix it with many of their own superstitious ceremonies, and seem to be utterly ignorant of its real spirit. They are tolerably strict in the observance of the enjoined fasts, prayers, &c.; but few of them abstain wholly from the tempting juice of the grape.

Those who are distinguished by the appellation of *papas*, usually preside at marriages, funerals, &c.; and have chaplets of large beads, which they employ, like the Roman catholics, to count the number of their prayers; and every time they drop a bead from their fingers they exclaim, "How great is God! There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet." They pronounce these words with a strong emphasis, as if struck with an awful sense of the majesty of the Deity; but their manners too often form a striking contrast with such ideas.

During the Ramadan, which continues one moon, they abstain from food, water, and smoking, till after sun-set. They also suffer their hair and beards to grow, and even affect to appear covered with filth and dirt.

On the succeeding festival of the Beiram, they dress themselves in their best apparel, shave their beards, and devote several days to diversions, feasting, and reciprocal visits. The return of the new year is, also, a grand festival, ushered in with entertainments, and consecrated to pleasure and hilarity.

Upon these occasions, the Arabs indulge themselves in a variety of extravagant follies, which have some resemblance to a carnival. The most popular amusement consists in spreading the skin of a lion, or camel, over the shoulders of four men, who are concealed under a large carpet. This supposed animal is led along by a chain, while several persons play on a tabor and flute; and others perform very grotesque dances. In this state they enter every house to which they can find admittance, followed by a concourse of children, who bear in their hands the figures of a lion and a camel.

The Arabs are, at present, unacquainted with any other physician than nature, or with any other remedies than those presented by ignorance and superstition; although this nation formerly gave birth to so many able men, who have been accounted the fathers of medicine. The European physicians, however, who sometimes visit them, are well received; and this character is the only one that can secure the life of a Christian.

It is a singular fact that these men, who are often insensible of a real indisposition, generally imagine themselves unwell, when they see a physician. Eager to receive assistance, and fearing to miss the opportunity, they examine their health so scrupulously, that there are few of them who do not express a wish for some physic, if it be only by way of a preventative. They have so much confidence in phlebotomy, that they consider it as a universal remedy; and, for want of a surgeon, they often bleed themselves, in the following manner:

The person, who is chosen to perform the operation, begins with binding a bandage round the neck of his patient till he is almost strangled; and, when the veins of the forehead appear swelled, he makes four or five incisions with a razor, and assists the effusion of the blood, by rolling a cylindrical piece of wood over the incisions. When the operation is finished, he washes the wounds, applies to them a little argillaceous earth, softened in water, and binds them up with a handkerchief. When an Arab is dangerously ill, he walks about as long as he can move; and, when his strength is utterly exhausted, he stretches himself on the earth, without taking off his clothes. Should he perceive his approaching dissolution, he turns his face toward the east, and calmly recommends his spirit into the hands of Mahomet.

When an Arab of distinction dies, his body is carefully washed, and wrapped in a winding sheet, of white cloth, which has been blessed by the principal man at Mecca: it is then placed upon a kind of litter, and carried to the place of sepulture by the friends and relations of the deceased. While the men are employed in digging the

grave, the women sit down in a circle round the corpse, asking it various questions, and beseeching it to return and take up its abode among them. "Why," say they, "hast thou forsaken us? Did we not prepare thy courcousan well? Alas! shall thy children behold thee no more? Ah! return again, and nothing shall be wanting to thee: but thou hearest no more, nor any longer canst return an answer to our words." These lamentations are extremely affecting; but a stranger is disgusted on seeing the mourners, a moment after, throw aside all appearance of grief, and talk or laugh together with the utmost indifference.

When the grave is finished, the body is deposited in it, on its side, with the face turned towards the east; and a kind of arch is formed over it with brambles, to prevent the earth from touching it. The grave is then filled up, and a quantity of large stones laid over it, to prevent savage animals from digging up the body; a kind of funeral flag is erected in the middle of these stones, and thus the ceremony concludes.

The nearest relatives and friends of the deceased go, at certain times, to visit the tomb, and partly uncover the body, in order to convince themselves, that the person has not returned to life; and, when they discover any sign of putrefaction, they renew their wailings and lamentations.

History.] The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for, as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests, or independence. They are supposed to have descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hand against their's." They are, at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divine truth of this prediction. Towards the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes, in the southern and inland parts, acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, from the luxuriancy of its soil and the happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the most delightful region of the world, and distinguished by the epithet of Arabia the Happy.

Mahomet was born in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, indigent, and illiterate, he was endued with a subtile genius, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition far beyond his station. In the early part of his life he had been employed by his uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Khadija, and, by her means, came to be possessed of considerable property and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the east, he had observed the vast variety of religious sects, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while, at the same time, there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully took advantage of these; by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which had hitherto been established. In this design he was assisted by Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had caused him to forsake his cloister, and engage in the service of Khadija, with whom he remained as a domestic, when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly well qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and, for this purpose, Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. Being often subject to epileptic fits, he gave out, that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by the Almighty, whose will he was instructed to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. And, when he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the number and enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

Mahomet did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow, as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the heresy of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecutions of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of

that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in sensual gratifications, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. The system of Mahomet was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world, and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world, to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent: but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had, therefore, now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to obey them; and, for this end, to establish a kingdom upon earth, which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had denounced utter ruin and destruction against those who should refuse to submit to him; but, to his faithful followers, he had promised the spoils and possession of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith would be peculiarly transcendent. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors, and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published, than a great number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. The apostate monk transcribed them, and composed a book, called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the book. The person of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet, getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greater at a distance; and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time; and the era is called, in Arabic, Hegira, or the flight.

By the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others, whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, Mahomet brought over all his countrymen to an acquiescence in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the east, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king, at Medina, in the year 627; and, after subduing great part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt; under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the east, and made conquest of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens, or Moors, reduced the greater part of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a considerable portion of mankind.

CHAPTER VII.

TARTARY.

THIS extensive region, formerly known by the name of Scythia, was once the seat of an empire more powerful than that of Greece or Rome; but its inhabitants have sunk into degeneracy, and some of those provinces, where learning and the arts flourished, are now the scenes of complete barbarity. The country is, at present, divided into Chinese Tartary—Tibet—Independent Tartary—and Asiatic Russia; each of which, for the sake of perspicuity, will be described under a distinct section

SECTION I.

CHINESE TARTARY.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] Chinese Tartary, which has frequently sent forth its hordes to overrun the

arts and civilization of Europe, is situate between seventy-two and one hundred and forty-five degrees of east longitude, and between eighty-five and fifty-three degrees of north latitude; being about three thousand miles in breadth, and one thousand and eighty in length. It is bounded, on the north, by Asiatic Russia; on the east, by the Sea of Japan, and the Channel of Tartary; on the south, by China and Tibet; and, on the west, by Independent Tartary.

Division.] The only division of this country arises from the different tribes by which it is inhabited: of these, the principal are the Mandshurs, in the east; the Monguls, in the middle; and the Kalmucs, in the west. The country of the Mandshur Tartars, who are more immediately under the authority of China, has been divided into three great governments, Chin-yang, Kirin-oula, and Tsitchicar: which take their names from those of their chief towns. The Russians call the latter Daouria; from the Tajouri, who inhabit a great part of this district. To these may be added the peninsula of Korea, which has been for several centuries under the dominion of the Chinese.

Face of the Country.] A great part of this extensive country is a vast elevated plain, supported, like a table, by the mountains of Tibet on the south, and the Altaian on the north. This elevated level is intersected by several chains of mountains, and by the vast deserts of Cobi and Shamo, which have been supposed to be the same, the former being the Tartarian, and the latter the Chinese, name. To the west of this great country are the mountains of Belur Tag, the Imaus of the ancients, which separate the Chinese empire from Balk and great Bucharia, and the Kalmucs, subject to China, from the Kirguses of Independent Tartary.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil of so extensive a country must be various; but it is most generally composed of black sand. Though the Mandshurs are, in general, averse from agriculture, the land does not appear wholly in an uncultivated state; and, from the accounts of some travellers, the industry of those who exert themselves in this useful employ is rewarded by a tolerable harvest of grain.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] The Amur is among the largest rivers, pursuing an easterly course of about eighteen hundred and fifty British miles. It is the grand receptacle of the Mandshur streams, among which the most considerable is the Songari, which itself receives the large river Nonni. The Ili, which falls into the lake of Balkash, is noted in Tartaric history. The lakes of Balkash, or Tengis, and Zaizan, are of great extent, each about a hundred and fifty 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.

Vegetables.] Little information has yet been obtained of the vegetable productions of that part of Asia, including the extensive territories of Chinese Tartary. Neither variety nor abundance can be expected in these climates, the products of which are represented, by the few travellers who have visited them, as similar to those of the most northern parts of Germany, intermixed with some species that are found in Siberia.

Minerals.] 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 Chinese territory, if similar skill and industry were exerted in their detection. The mineral waters, and uncommon appearances of nature, have been little investigated.

Animals.] Among the various animals of this country, the most remarkable are the wild horses and wild asses, which are very numerous. The horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices. The *bos grunniens*, of Linnæus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary, has a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a glossy and silky texture. These tails are a considerable article of exportation from Tibet: the Indians fasten small bundles of the hair to a handle, which they use for fly-flaps: the Chinese dye tufts of it with a beautiful scarlet, to decorate their caps; and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their standards.

Population.] Of the population of these regions it is difficult to form any precise idea. 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.

Cities, Chief Towns, &c.] CHIN-YANG, the capital of the whole country of the Mandshur Tartars, stands on an eminence, and is nearly nine miles in circumference. It contains a palace for the emperor, magazines of arms, and store-houses. Kirin, the chief town of the department of that name, is the residence of a Mandshur general, who is invested with all the powers of a viceroy: he has the inspection of the troops, and authority over all the mandarins. Ningouto, which is considered as the cradle of the present imperial family, is surrounded by a wooden wall, composed of plain stakes, driven into the earth, which touch each other, and are twenty feet high. Without this palisade there is another, of the same kind, which is three miles in circumference, and has four gates, corresponding to the four cardinal points.

The Monguls, properly so called, have no towns; but in the country of Little Bucharia, possessed by the Kal-

mucs, who were subjected by the Chinese in 1759, is the city of Cashgar, formerly the capital of a kingdom, nearly corresponding, in its limits, with Little Bucharia, and which still retains some trade.

Government and Laws.] The Mandshur Tartars are governed by viceroys, appointed by the emperor of China. The wandering tribes of Monguls are governed by khans, or particular princes, who are independent of each other, but all subject to the authority of the Chinese emperor. When the Mandshurs subdued China, they conferred certain titles on the most powerful of the Mongul princes, and assigned them revenues, but far inferior to those of the Mandshur lords at Pekin. The emperor settled the limits of their respective territories, and gave them laws, according to which they are at present governed. These tributary khans have not the power of condemning their subjects to death, nor of depriving them of their possessions: the cases of death and confiscation are reserved for the supreme tribunal, established at Pekin, for the affairs of the Monguls, to which every individual may appeal from the sentence of his prince, who is obliged to appear in person whenever he is cited.

Army.] It is probable that this part of the Chinese empire might muster a very numerous army; but, amidst modern tactics and weapons, little need be apprehended from a new deluge of Mongul barbarians. Besides, 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.

Trade.] The principal trade of the Mandshur country consists in ginseng and pearls, found in the rivers which fall into the Amur. Excellent horses may also be classed among the exports. Cashgar was formerly celebrated for musk and gold. Korea also produces gold, silver, iron, beautiful yellow varnish, and white paper, ginseng, furs, and fossil-salt. The other towns are rather stations for merchants than seats of commerce.

Religion.] The religion most prevalent among the Tartars is that of Schamanism, or belief in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things, who loves all his creatures; who knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but who pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. The professors of this faith also maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who, nevertheless, generally act according to their own fancies; and, therefore, mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities detest and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. Women are considered as very inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs; and, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

Language.] The language of the Mandshurs is very copious, these Tartars being particularly nice with respect to the too frequent recurrence of the same sounds. It is said, likewise, to be very expressive, and has names, not only for the different species of dogs, but such as signify the age, colour, or qualities of a dog, whether he have long or short hair, large ears, or hanging lips, in all which, and many other cases, he has a distinct name. In like manner, a horse has a variety of names, signifying, in a single word, whether he be restive, easily frightened, with what pace he goes, &c. This language is written in characters which represent sounds and not things, like those of the Chinese. M. Langles, a member of the French Institute, has compiled a dictionary of the Mandshur language, which he pronounces to be the most learned and perfect of the Tartar tongues, though not written till the seventeenth century, when the emperor appointed some literati to design letters after those of the Monguls.

Customs, Manners, &c.] In such a vast extent of country there will, of course, be a considerable variety in the persons of the inhabitants, as well as in their manners and customs. M. Buffon has described them, generally, as having, even in their youth, large wrinkled foreheads, with thick and short noses, and very small eyes, sunk deep in the head; their cheek-bones are high, and the lower part of their face is very narrow; their chin is long and prominent, and their upper jaw falls in; their teeth are long, and distinct from each other; the eye-brows are thick, and cover a part of their eyes; the face is flat, the skin is tawny, and the hair is black; their bodies are of a middle stature, but strong and robust.

In speaking of the different tribes, we find, from the most authentic accounts, that the Kalmucs, who live in the neighbourhood of the Caspian Sea, between Muscovy and Great Tartary, are robust men, but extremely ugly and deformed. Their faces are so flat, that their eyes, which are very small, are situated four or five inches asunder. Their noses are so low, that, instead of nostrils, two holes are only to be seen. Their knees bend outwards, and their legs inward. After the Kalmucs, the Tartars of Daghestan hold the next rank in deformity. The Little Tartars, or those of Nogai, who live near the Black Sea, are not so ugly as the Kalmucs, though they resemble them in their general figure. Lastly, the Mongul Tartars, who conquered China, and were the most polished, though their features are less disagreeable, yet,

like all the other tribes, they have small eyes, large flat faces, thin black or red beards, short sunk noses, and a tawny complexion.

The Chinese have so strong a resemblance to the Tartars, that it is uncertain whether they are not of the same race: the most remarkable difference arises from a total disparity in their dispositions, manners, and customs. The Tartars are fierce, warlike, and fond of hunting: they love fatigue and independence, are hardy and brutally gross. But the manners of the Chinese are the reverse: they are effeminate, peaceable, indolent, superstitious, submissive, and very ceremonious.

The immense plains of Tartary have, in all ages, been inhabited by wandering tribes of hunters and shepherds, whose indolence refuses to cultivate the earth, and whose restless enterprising spirit disdains the confinement of a sedentary life. In general, they are a wandering sort of people; in their peregrinations, they set out in the spring, in large companies of several thousands, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they remain there till they have consumed its produce. They have but little money, except what they obtain from their neighbours, the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle: with this they purchase apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour, as the greatest slavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, or hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. They are hospitable, particularly to strangers, who confidentially put themselves under their protection. They are naturally of an easy and cheerful temper, and seldom depressed by care and melancholy; and are so much delighted with their own country, that they conceive it impossible to traverse their plains without envying them their possession. "You have travelled a great way," said one of these Tartars to the Baron de Tott; "but did you ever before see a country like ours?"

A strong resemblance exists between some of the Tartars and some of the more northerly nations of North America, particularly in their treatment of the aged, and of those who are seized with disorders that are reckoned incurable: they make a hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him, with a small quantity of provisions, and seldom think of visiting him again. On such occasions, they suppose they are doing their parents a kindness, by sending them to a better world. Among other tribes, however, filial affection, and a respect to the memory of their deceased parents, have ever been distinguishing traits. When Darius, king of Persia, invaded them with all his forces, instead of giving him battle, they retired, by degrees, till, at length, the Persian monarch sent an ambassador, to demand where they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting? To which they replied, "Since they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they should maintain a warfare, he had only to proceed with his hostile army to the place of their fathers' monuments, when he should understand the manner in which they had been accustomed to engage an enemy."

The houses of the Tartars are no more than small tents, of an oval form. The palaces of the rich consist of wooden huts, of such a size that they may be conveniently fixed on large waggons, and drawn by a team of twenty or thirty oxen. They cover their habitations with felt, the parts of which they join so nicely, as to keep out the piercing blasts of the north wind; for the same purpose, they take great care to place the door of the tents, which is, in general, very small, facing the south. The flocks and herds, after grazing all the day in the adjacent pasture, retire, on the approach of night, within the protection of the camp.

The necessity of preventing the most mischievous confusion, in such a perpetual concourse of men and animals, has gradually introduced regulations among them, resembling some that are known among more civilised people. Each proprietor has his own mark, which is burnt into the thighs of the horses, oxen, and dromedaries, and painted with colours on the wool of the sheep. The latter are kept, in all seasons, near the owner's habitation; but the other animals, united in herds, are, towards the spring, driven to the plains.

At the approach of winter it is necessary to seek these herds, and drive them to their sheds. Accordingly, a Tartar provides himself with about six pounds of the flour of roasted millet, which is sufficient to last him thirty days, and then mounts his horse, which is remarkable for its swiftness, nor stops till the sun goes down, when he clogs the animal, leaves him to graze, sups on the flour, goes to sleep, awakes, and continues his route. He neglects not, however, to observe, as he rides, the mark of the herds he happens to see: these discoveries he communicates to the different Tartars he meets, who have the same pursuits, and, in his turn, receives such indications as may help to forward the object of his journey.

The Tartars are remarkably expert at pitching and removing their tents, to which they have been accustomed by their constant incursions upon the neighbouring nations: on this account they have neither house nor fixed residence; the camp includes their families, their friends, their companions, and their property: in their most distant marches they are still surrounded by all the objects that are valuable, familiar, and dear to their eyes.

The dress of the Tartars consists of a large shirt and drawers; their habits are commonly made of calico, or some

other light stuff, which they line with sheep-skin; and sometimes they wear entire garments of the same materials.

Red is the colour in the highest esteem with the Tartars; and although their chiefs and grandees are but meanly clothed in other respects, they seldom fail to have a scarlet robe for occasions of state. They would rather be without a shirt than a scarlet coat; and the women of quality do not think themselves well-dressed, if the scarlet garment is wanting. Those who are able to get them, wear coats of stuff or silk, above which they throw a fur-coat of sheep-skins; and, in time of war, they cover their head and body with iron net-work, the links of which are so close, that it is proof against any kind of weapons, except fire-arms.

As the Tartars neither sow nor reap, nor make hay for their cattle, so they live without bread, or any sort of vegetable, except their millet; and, in the winter, their cattle fare as other wild beasts. Their own food is flesh, especially that of horses; they eat also mutton, fish, wild fowl, and venison, but are not fond of beef or veal. They have plenty of milk, butter, and cheese; but mare's milk is the most esteemed by them, and from it they make a strong spirit, of which they are very fond.

The pastoral life, compared with the labours of agriculture and manufactures, is undoubtedly a life of indolence: and as the most honourable shepherds of the Tartar race devolve on their captives the domestic management of the cattle, their own leisure is seldom disturbed by any servile duties. This leisure is usually spent in the exercise of the chace. The plains of Tartary are filled with a strong and serviceable breed of horses, which are easily trained for the purposes of war and hunting. The Tartars of every age have been celebrated as bold and skilful riders; and constant practice has seated them so firmly on horseback, that they have been supposed, by strangers, to perform the ordinary duties of civil life, to eat, to drink, and even to sleep, without dismounting from their steeds. They excel in the dexterous management of the lance; the long Tartar bow is drawn with a nervous arm, and the weighty arrow is directed to its object with unerring aim, and almost irresistible force. The vigour and patience, both of men and horses, are continually exercised by the fatigues of the chace; and the plentiful supply of game contributes to the subsistence, and even luxury, of a Tartar camp. But the exploits of the hunters are not confined to the destruction of the timid and innoxious animals: they boldly encounter the wild boar, excite the courage of the bear, and provoke the fury of the tiger, as he slumbers in the thicket. Where there is danger, they conceive there may be glory; and the mode of hunting, which opens the fairest field to the exertions of valour, is considered as the school of war. The general hunting-matches, the pride and delight of the Tartar princes, compose an instructive exercise for their numerous cavalry. A circle is drawn, of several miles in circumference, to encompass the game of an extensive district, and the troops, that form the circle, regularly advance towards a common centre, where the animals, surrounded on every side, are exposed to the darts of the hunters. In this march, which frequently continues many days, the cavalry are obliged to climb the hills, to ford the rivers, and to wind through the valleys, without interrupting the prescribed order of their gradual progress. Upon every expedition, the Tartars have no regard either to bridges or boats; they no sooner come to a river than they plunge in with their horses, slide from their backs, and hold fast by the manes till they get over. And then, mounting again, they proceed. By frequently engaging in these hunting parties, they acquire the habit of directing their eye and their steps to a remote object; of preserving their intervals; of suspending or accelerating their pace, according to the motion of the troops on their right and left; and of watching and repeating the signals of their leaders, who study, in this practical school, the most important lesson of military art, viz. the prompt and accurate judgment of ground, of distance, and of time. To employ against a human enemy the same patience and valour, the same skill and discipline, is the only alteration which is required in real war; and the amusements of the chace serve as a prelude to the conquest of an empire.

As the Tartars have no need of more than their own families to guard their cattle, which are the whole of their riches, they have no desire to burden themselves with useless mouths; and, on that account, none, except the Khans, are allowed to have slaves. But the Mahometan Tartars frequently make war upon their neighbours, for the purpose of procuring slaves, whom they may sell. This practice prevails so much among the Circassian, Daghestan, and Nogay Tartars, that, when they cannot meet with grown people, they steal children to sell; and, if they cannot get any other, they make no scruple of selling their own, especially their daughters.

Among the articles of their domestic economy, we shall present the reader with the following fact, taken from the Memoirs of the Baron de Tott:—"I approached," says he, "a group of Tartars, assembled round a dead horse, which they had just skinned. A young man, about eighteen, who was naked, had the hide of the animal thrown over his shoulders. A woman, who performed the office of taylor with great dexterity, began by cutting the back of this new dress, following with her scissars the round of the neck, the fall of the shoulders, the semicircle which formed the sleeve, and the side of the habit, which was intended to reach below the knee. She proceeded in the same manner with the other parts, till the cutting out was finished; the man then, who had served as a mould,

crouched on his hams, while the several pieces were stitched together, so that, in less than two hours, he had a good brown bay coat, which only wanted to be tanned by continual wearing."

The respect paid by children to their fathers, who are considered as kings of their families, is very great; but they pay little attention to their mothers, unless they are under some particular obligation to them. They must mourn for a father many days, and, during that time, abstain from all sorts of pleasure. Nothing must be spared to render his funeral honourable; and they must pay their devotions at his tomb at least once a year, to recal to mind the obligations which they owe him.

It is the custom, among some of the Tartar nations, to burn their dead, and inter their ashes on an eminence, upon which they raise a heap of stones, and place on it little banners; but the greater part of the Pagan Tartars bury their friends, and with each his best horse and moveables, for his use in the other world. Others, however, throw their dead into open fields, to be devoured by the dogs, of which many run wild, and some are kept expressly for this purpose. If the bodies are thus devoured by any number exceeding six, they think honourably of the deceased; otherwise, he is a disgrace to his relations.

History.] The different tribes, who at present inhabit this extensive region, were formerly comprehended under the general name of Monguls, a warlike and formidable nation, whose sovereign, Jenghis Khan, about the thirteenth century, subjugated the greater part of the north of Asia, seized on China on the one hand, and invaded Hindoostan on the other. The Tartars retained possession of China about a hundred years, but were expelled in 1368. The fugitives took different routes; some went towards the Eastern Sea, and established themselves between China and the river Sagalian: the rest returned to their former country, where, intermixing with the Monguls that remained, they soon resumed their ancient manner of living. Those who settled towards the east, having found the country almost a desert, and without inhabitants, retained the customs which they had brought from China, and became known by the name of Mandshur, or Eastern Tartars. In 1644, these Tartars re-entered China, and established a sovereign of their own race on the throne; as we have already noticed in the history of China.

SECTION II.

TIBET.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] This country is situate between seventy-five and a hundred and one degrees of east longitude, and between twenty-seven and thirty-five degrees of north latitude, extending fifteen hundred miles in length, and five hundred in breadth; and is supposed to contain a surface of about three hundred and eighty-five thousand square miles. It is bounded, on the north and north-west, by the great desert of Cobi, in Tartary; on the east, by China; on the south, by the Birman empire; and, on the south-west and west, by Hindoostan.

Divisions.] Tibet 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, On, and Kiang; and the provinces of Lower Tibet are Takbo, Congbo, and Kalung.

Many of these provinces are again subdivided: for instance, Nagari is considered as a kingdom of three departments, Sangkar, Pourang, and Tamo. Shang is, on the west, bounded by Nipal. The province of On contains Lassa, the capital of Tibet. Kiang is to the north-east of On; and is inhabited by mingled Tibetans, and Monguls in tents. Kalung is, in the south-east, bordering on the Birmans, and is divided into twelve departments.

Climate, Soil, Produce.] The climate of Tibet is extremely cold, in consequence of which the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered valleys, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. In the temperature of the seasons, however, a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. In Bootan, almost every part of the mountains and hills, which is coated with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared and adapted to cultivation; but, in Tibet Proper, the nature of the soil prevents the progress of agriculture. Wheat, barley, and rice, are raised in Bootan.

Face of the Country.] Tibet, at first view, appears one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and, in a great measure, incapable of culture. It exhibits only rocky hills, without any visible vegetation; or extensive and arid plains, promising as little as they produce. Bootan, however, or the most southern part, has its mountains covered with verdure, and exhibits several forests of large and lofty trees.

Rivers.] The chief river of Tibet is the Sampoo, or Burrampootar, which, rising in the western region, from the same lofty mountains that gave source to the Ganges, proceeds, in an east and south-east direction, for about the space of a thousand English miles, to the confines of Tibet and Asam, where it bends to the south-west, and flows into the estuary of the Ganges, after a farther course of about four hundred 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 Gulf of Pegu; and

the Irrawady of this last country, are an believed 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 Sadjoo, or Gugra, which, after a course of about six hundred miles, and nearly parallel on the east 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 many lakes, the most considerable being represented under the name of Terkiri, about eighty British miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth. The Chinese Lamas have also depicted many other lakes in the northern parts of the country; where there really exists one very singular, which yields the tincal or crude borax.

Mountains.] Of the course and extent of the vast ranges of Tibetian mountains, there is no accurate geographical delineation. 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 Asam, in a north-west and south-east direction. To the north of Sampoo a parallel and yet higher ridge seems to extend, the northern extremities abounding with large frozen lakes. The chief elevation appears to be central, to the south of the lake Terkiri.

Forests.] 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, presents similar features. The high snowy mountains, which contain the sources of the Ganges, are, probably, barren of vegetation.

Animals.] In Bootan few wild animals are observable, except monkeys; but Tibet abounds with game of various descriptions. The horses, though very spirited, are of a small size; and the cattle are also diminutive. The sheep also are 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, however, it is not disagreeable.

The goats are numerous, and celebrated for producing a fine hair, which is manufactured into shawls, and which lies beneath the exterior coarse coat. Nor must the singular breed of cattle be forgotten, called Yak, by the Tartars, 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 grunting ox.

The musk-deer delights in intense cold. This valuable animal has two long curved tusks, proceeding downwards 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.

Minerals.] There are some gold-mines in the northern parts of Tibet, which are the reserved property of the lama, and rented out to those who work them. The gold is not found in ore, but always in a pure metallic state, and only requires to be separated from the spar, flint, or stone, to which it adheres. When Mr. Hastings was governor-general of Bengal, he had a lump sent to him at Calcutta, about the size of a bullock's kidney, which was a hard flint, covered with solid gold; he caused it to be sawn asunder, and it was found throughout streaked with the purest metal. Great quantities of gold are also found in one of the principal rivers, as well as in most of the small brooks and torrents that flow down the mountains. It is used by the natives as a medium of commerce, and very considerable quantities are occasionally exported to other countries; yet it is a singular fact, that none of it is coined into money. There is a lead-mine, two days' journey from Teshoo Lumboo; and there are strong indications of copper.

The most peculiar product of Tibet, however, is tincal, or crude borax; concerning which Mr. Sanders gives the following information:

"The lake, from which tincal and rock-salt are collected, is about fifteen days' journey from Teshoo Lumboo. 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 seen 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, contain 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 twenty 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."

Natural Curiosities.] To the north of Tassisudon is a singular rock, projecting over a considerable fall of water, and forming, in front, six or seven hundred angular semi-pillars, of a great circumference, and some hundred feet high. Among the mountains of Bootan is a waterfall, called Minzapeezo, which issues in a collected body, but descends from so great a perpendicular height, that, before it is received in the thick shade below, it is nearly dissipated, and appears like the steam rising from boiling water.

Cities, Edifices, &c.] Lahassa, the capital of Tibet, is situate in a spacious plain; the houses are not numerous, but they are built of stone, and are large and lofty.

The residence of Teeshoo Lama is, in fact, a large monastery, consisting of three or four hundred houses, inhabited by gylongs, a kind of priests; besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff, with the residences of the various subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock, and has a southern aspect. Its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat roofed, and crowned with a parapet, rising considerably above the rest. The palace of the Dalai Lama, the sovereign of Tibet, is about seven miles distant from the city.

"A Tibet village," says Mr. Turner, "by no means makes a handsome figure. The peasan's house is of a mean construction, and resembles a brick-kiln, in shape and size, more exactly than any thing to which I can compare it. It is built of rough stones, heaped on each other without cement, and, on account of the strong winds that perpetually prevail here, it has never more than three or four small apertures, to admit light. The roof is a flat terrace, surrounded with a parapet-wall, two or three feet high: on this are commonly placed piles of loose stones, intended to support a small flag, or the branch of a tree; or else as a fastening for a long line, with scraps of paper, or white rags, strung upon it, like the tail of a kite: this, being stretched from one house to another, is a charm against evil genii, as infallible in its efficacy as horse-shoes nailed upon a threshold, or as straws thrown across the path of a reputed witch."

Government, Religion.] The government of Tibet is intimately connected with its religion; both the civil and spiritual authority being in the hands of the lamas, of whom the chief, called the Dalai Lama, or grand lama, is not only submitted to and adored by the Tibetians, but is also the great object of veneration among the various tribes of Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Volga to Koren, on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest where it is most removed from its object, the most remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up, from different parts, to worship, and make rich offerings at his shrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Mandshur Tartar, acknowledges him in his religious capacity, and actually entertains, at a great expense, in the palace of Pekin, an inferior lama, deputed as his nuncio, from Tibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Tibetians is, that when the grand lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul, in fact, only quits a crazy habitation to look for another younger, or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens, known only to the lamas, or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the grand lama was an infant, which had been discovered, some time before, by the Teeshoo Lama, who, in authority and sanctity of character, is next to the grand lama; and, during his minority, acts as chief. In the year 1783, the Teeshoo Lama was, in like manner, an infant, under the guardianship of a regent; and Mr. Turner, in his account of his embassy, has given a curious and interesting relation of a visit which he was permitted to make to him. "Teeshoo Lama," he tells us, "was, at that time, eighteen months old. He was placed, in great form, upon his musnud. On the left side stood his father and mother, and, on the other, the officer particularly appointed to wait upon his person. The musnud is a fabric of silk cushions, piled one upon the other, until the seat is elevated to the height of four feet from the floor; a piece of embroidered silk covers the top, and the sides also are decorated with pieces of silk, of various colours, suspended from the upper edge, and hanging down. Though the little creature," says our author, "was unable to speak a word, he made the most expressive signs, and conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum. His complexion was of that hue which, in England, we should term rather brown, but not without colour. His features were good, he had small black eyes, and an animated expression of countenance: altogether, I thought him one of the handsomest children I had ever seen."

There are, in this country, several monasteries, containing a great number of gylongs, or monks; who are enjoined sobriety, to forego the society of women, and confine themselves to the austere practices of the cloister. On the establishment of the monastery of Teeshoo Loom-

bo were reckoned no less than three thousand seven hundred of these gylongs. There are also many nunneries, containing nunnes, or nuns; and the strictest laws exist to prevent any woman from even accidentally passing a night within the limits of a monastery, or a man within those of a nunnery.

"The religion of Tibet," says Mr. Turner, "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 Boodh, who first broached the doctrine which now prevails over the wide extent of Tartary. It is reported to have received its earliest admission into that part of Tibet bordering upon India, which, from hence, became the seat of the sovereign lamas; to have traversed over Mandshur Tartary, and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, yet it still bears a very close affinity to the religion of Brahma, in many important particulars.

"The same places of popular esteem, or religious resort, are equally respected in Tibet and in Bengal: Prang, Cashi, Durgeeden, Saugor, and Juggernaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water, taken from the Ganges, travelling over the mountains, 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, however, it differs materially from that of the Hindoos. 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 called to my recollection a Roman Catholic mass.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The principal manufactures of Tibet are shawls and woollen cloths. The exports, which go chiefly to China and Bengal, consist of gold-dust, diamonds, pearls, coral, musk, rock-salt, tincal, woollen cloths, and lamb-skins; in return for which are imported, from China, silks, satins, gold and silver brocades, tea, tobacco, and furs, of various kinds; and, from Bengal, the productions of that country, and a variety of English commodities and manufactures.

Language and Literature.] The language of Tibet is the same as that spoken on the western frontiers of China. The literature is chiefly of the religious kind; the books being sometimes printed with blocks of wood, on narrow slips of paper, fabricated from the fibrous root of a small shrub. In this practice the Tibetians resemble the Chinese; while the Hindoos engrave their works, with a steel stylus, upon the recent leaves of the palm-tree, affording a fibrous substance, which seems indestructible by vermin. The printed and formal letters are called the *nehen;* while those of business and correspondence are styled *umin.* The Tibetians appear to have made considerable progress in civilization; but the sciences continue in a state of imperfection.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Tibetians are of shorter stature than their southern neighbours, and of a less robust make; their complexions, also, are fairer, and some of them have even a ruddiness in their countenances, which is unknown in the other climates of the east. Mr. Boyle observes, that they are of a mild and cheerful temper, and that the higher ranks are polite and entertaining in conversation, in which, however, they never mix any flattery or fulsome compliments.

The common people are generally dressed in coarse woollen stuffs, of their own manufacture, lined with such skins as they can procure; but the higher orders wear European cloth, or China silk, lined with the finest Siberian furs. The Dalai Lama is usually clothed in a napped kind of red woollen stuff, with a yellow cap, and a sort of tiara, resembling a bishop's mitre.

Their chief food is the milk of their cattle, prepared into cheese or butter, or mixed with the flour of a coarse barley, which is the only grain their sterile soil produces. They have no want, however, of animal food, and are well furnished with rice and wheat from the adjacent countries.

Polygamy, at least in our acceptation of the word, is not practised in Tibet; but it exists in a manner more repugnant to European ideas. It consists in a plurality of husbands, which is firmly established by law; and degrees of consanguinity are not considered as any obstacle to the marriage. A woman, for example, may marry all the brothers of one family, and her children are divided among them. Notwithstanding such brothers having one wife in common, they generally live in great harmony with her, though little dissentions will sometimes arise.

The Tibetians expose their dead bodies within walled areas, which are left open at the top, and have passages at the bottom, to admit birds, dogs, and beasts of prey: no other funeral-rites are performed, but such as tend to facilitate the destruction of the body by the voracious animals, which seem invited to devour it. Some bodies are conveyed, by the friends of the deceased, to the summit of some neighbouring hill, where they are disjointed and mangled, that they may become a more easy prey to carnivorous birds. The bodies of the sovereign lamas are, however, deposited in shrines, which are ever considered as sacred: those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal.

History.] The temporal government of Tibet has not been always in the possession of the lamas: as it appears that, in the year 1624, the country was governed by a se

cular sovereign, named Tsang-pa-han, who was a zealous protector of the Christian religion, and seemed greatly inclined to embrace it. The Tartar history of the same period corroborates this circumstance; for it relates, that this prince despised the lamas, and sought every opportunity to destroy their religion. The Dalai Lama, being highly incensed at not receiving the homage of Tsang-pa-han, formed a league with the Tartars of Kokonor, who, under a prince, named Kouchi, entered Tibet, at the head of a powerful army, attacked Tsang-pa-han, defeated him, and took him prisoner, and, some time after, caused him to be put to death. To this Tartar prince the Dalai Lama was indebted for his sovereignty over all Tibet; for, far from appropriating to himself the fruits of his victory, Kouchi declared himself a vassal of the supreme chief of his religion, and satisfied with receiving from him the title of khan, which he had never before enjoyed. This prince, to continue his protection to the Dalai Lama, and secure to him the undisturbed possession of his new acquisitions, fixed his residence in the neighbourhood of Lassa. His sons had no great inclination to return to a country which their father had abandoned, but followed his example, and remained in Tibet.

In 1642, the Dalai Lama sent ambassadors to Tsongte, father to the first emperor of the present dynasty of the Mandshur Tartars, threw himself under his protection, and paid him tribute. Ten years after, the Dalai Lama himself went to Pekin, and did homage to the emperor; he was loaded with honours, received a golden seal and magnificent presents from the emperor, and was confirmed in his title of Dalai Lama.

In 1693, the emperor Kanghi, being desirous of honouring the typa, or minister of the Dalai Lama, declared him a prince, and granted him a golden seal. This minister, however, was far from being faithful to the interests of the emperor; he, on the contrary, secretly betrayed them to the ambitious views of Kaldan, the chief of the Eluts, who was the declared enemy of the Mandshur Tartars. He even endeavoured to persuade the grand lama not to go to Pekin, when called thither by the emperor; and, when the Dalai Lama died, he concealed his death. At length, however, all these intrigues were discovered, in 1705 and the chief of the Tartars of Kokonor caused this perfidious minister to be put to death. Kanghi, informed of the crimes which he had committed, approved of the punishment inflicted on him, and sent some of the grandees of his court to Tibet, to govern that country in conjunction with the Tartar prince, on whom he lavished many rich presents. He afterwards appointed a new Dalai Lama, who was the sixth who had borne that title.

In 1714, Tchongkar, chief of the Eluts, made an irruption into Tibet, and carried away a great quantity of gold, silver, precious stones, silks, and other valuable things. The Tartar prince, who endeavoured to resist the invaders, was killed in battle, many of the lamas were put to the sword, and the monastery at Pootala was reduced to ashes. The Dalai Lama made application to the court of China for succours, and the emperor immediately sent a powerful army to his assistance, which drove the Eluts out of the country, re-established the Dalai Lama in his authority, and reinstated the other lamas in their pagodas or monasteries.

In 1702, the mountaineers of Nipaul invaded and ravaged Tibet, plundering the monasteries of their treasures, and robbing the mausolea of their lamas. The emperor of China, however, as soon as he had received information of this attack, sent an army to protect and avenge the lama. The Nipalese were defeated, and could only obtain peace on condition of becoming tributary to China, and making a full restitution of all the plunder they had carried off. The Chinese, at the same time, established military posts on the frontiers of Tibet, which prevent all communication between that country and Bengal, as the Chinese guard them with their accustomed jealousy and caution, and the approach of strangers, even of the natives of Bengal and Hindoostan, is strictly prohibited.

SECTION III.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] Independent Tartary is situate between thirty-one and fifty-two degrees of north latitude, and between fifty-five and seventy degrees of east longitude; being about fifteen hundred miles in length, and eight hundred and fifty in breadth; and it is computed to contain a surface of five hundred thousand square miles. It is bounded by Asiatic Russia, on the north; by the mountains of Belur, on the east; by Persia and Hindoostan, on the south; and by the Caspian Sea and the Uralian Mountains, on the west.

Divisions.] Independent Tartary consists of extensive tracts, inhabited by the Kirguisian Tartars; the country of Kharism, and Great Bucharia, inhabited by the Usbec Tartars. Great Bucharia is divided into the provinces of Fergana, Sogd, Vash, Kottan, Balk, Gaur, and Khilan.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The climate is moderate, the heat, even of the southern provinces, being tempered by the high mountains, capped with perpetual snow. 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 so exuberant, that the grass sometimes exceeds the height of a man; and, in some parts, industry is shewn in the cultivation of rice and other grain.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] The chief rivers of Independent Tartary are the Amu and the Sirr. The former is the ancient Oxus, and, near its source, is called the Harrat. The Amu rises in the mountains of Belur, more than two hundred British miles north-east from Badakshan. The whole course of this noble river surpasses that of the Tigris, being, probably, not less than nine hundred miles. It abounds with fish, of various sorts.

Besides numerous tributary streams, three remarkable rivers join the Amu; the Sogd, or river of Samarcand; the Morgab; and the Kizil Daria, or Red River, the longest and most considerable stream, and of which a branch seems to flow, apart, into the Aral.

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 five hundred and fifty miles. The course of the Sirr is chiefly through the desert of Burzuk; and it is doubtful if it be joined by the Sarasu, a large river from the north; so imperfect is the geography of these regions.

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bo were reckoned no less than three thousand seven hundred of these gylongs. There are also many nunneries, containing annees, or nuns; and the strictest laws exist to prevent any woman from even accidentally passing a night within the limits of a monastery, or a man within those of a nunnery.

"The religion of Tibet," says Mr. Turner, "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 Boodh, who first broached the doctrine which now prevails over the wide extent of Tartary. It is reported to have received its earliest admission into that part of Tibet bordering upon India, which, from hence, became the seat of the sovereign lamas; to have traversed over Mandshur Tartary, and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, yet it still bears a very close affinity to the religion of Brahma, in many important particulars.

"The same places of popular esteem, or religious resort, are equally respected in Tibet and in Bengal: Praag, Cashi, Durgeeden, Sangor, and Juggernaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water, taken from the Ganges, travelling over the mountains, 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, however, it differs materially from that of the Hindoos. 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 called to my recollection a Roman Catholic mass.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The principal manufactures of Tibet are shawls and woollen cloths. The exports, which go chiefly to China and Bengal, consist of gold-dust, diamonds, pearls, coral, musk, rock-salt, tincal, woollen cloths, and lamb-skins; in return for which are imported, from China, silks, satins, gold and silver brocades, tea, tobacco, and furs, of various kinds; and, from Bengal, the productions of that country, and a variety of English commodities and manufactures.

Language and Literature.] The language of Tibet is the same as that spoken on the western frontiers of China. The literature is chiefly of the religious kind; the books being sometimes printed with blocks of wood, on narrow slips of paper, fabricated from the fibrous root of a small shrub. In this practice the Tibetians resemble the Chinese; while the Hindoos engrave their works, with a steel stylus, upon the recent leaves of the palm-tree, affording a fibrous substance, which seems indestructible by vermin. The printed and formal letters are called the *uchen;* while those of business and correspondence are styled *umin.* The Tibetians appear to have made considerable progress in civilization; but the sciences continue in a state of imperfection.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Tibetians are of shorter stature than their southern neighbours, and of a less robust make; their complexions, also, are fairer, and some of them have even a ruddiness in their countenances, which is unknown in the other climates of the east. Mr. Boyle observes, that they are of a mild and cheerful temper, and that the higher ranks are polite and entertaining in conversation, in which, however, they never mix any flattery or fulsome compliments.

The common people are generally dressed in coarse woollen stuffs, of their own manufacture, lined with such skins as they can procure; but the higher orders wear European cloth, or China silk, lined with the finest Siberian furs. The Dalai Lama is usually clothed in a napped kind of red woollen stuff, with a yellow cap, and a sort of tiara, resembling a bishop's mitre.

Their chief food is the milk of their cattle, prepared into cheese or butter, or mixed with the flour of a coarse barley, which is the only grain their sterile soil produces. They have no want, however, of animal food, and are well furnished with rice and wheat from the adjacent countries.

Polygamy, at least in our acceptation of the word, is not practised in Tibet; but it exists in a manner more repugnant to European ideas. It consists in a plurality of husbands, which is firmly established by law; and degrees of consanguinity are not considered as any obstacle to the marriage. A woman, for example, may marry all the brothers of one family, and her children are divided among them. Notwithstanding such brothers having one wife in common, they generally live in great harmony with her, though little dissentions will sometimes arise.

The Tibetians expose their dead bodies within walled areas, which are left open at the top, and have passages at the bottom, to admit birds, dogs, and beasts of prey: no other funeral-rites are performed, but such as tend to facilitate the destruction of the body by the voracious animals, which seem invited to devour it. Some bodies are conveyed, by the friends of the deceased, to the summit of some neighbouring hill, where they are disjointed and mangled, that they may become a more easy prey to carnivorous birds. The bodies of the sovereign lamas are, however, deposited in shrines, which are ever considered as sacred: those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal.

History.] The temporal government of Tibet has not been always in the possession of the lamas: as it appears that, in the year 1624, the country was governed by a se

cular sovereign, named Tsang-pa-han, who was a zealous protector of the Christian religion, and seemed greatly inclined to embrace it. The Tartar history of the same period corroborates this circumstance; for it relates, that this prince despised the lamas, and sought every opportunity to destroy their religion. The Dalai Lama, being highly incensed at not receiving the homage of Tsang-pa-han, formed a league with the Tartars of Kokonor, who, under a prince, named Kouchi, entered Tibet, at the head of a powerful army, attacked Tsang-pa-han, defeated him, and took him prisoner, and, some time after, caused him to be put to death. To this Tartar prince the Dalai Lama was indebted for his sovereignty over all Tibet; for, far from appropriating to himself the fruits of his victory, Kouchi declared himself a vassal of the supreme chief of his religion, and satisfied with receiving from him the title of khan, which he had never before enjoyed. This prince, to continue his protection to the Dalai Lama, and secure to him the undisturbed possession of his new acquisitions, fixed his residence in the neighbourhood of Lassa. His sons had no great inclination to return to a country which their father had abandoned, but followed his example, and remained in Tibet.

In 1642, the Dalai Lama sent ambassadors to Tsongte, father to the first emperor of the present dynasty of the Mandshur Tartars, threw himself under his protection, and paid him tribute. Ten years after, the Dalai Lama himself went to Pekin, and did homage to the emperor; he was loaded with honours, received a golden seal and magnificent presents from the emperor, and was confirmed in his title of Dalai Lama.

In 1693, the emperor Kanghi, being desirous of honouring the typa, or minister of the Dalai Lama, declared him a prince, and granted him a golden seal. This minister, however, was far from being faithful to the interests of the emperor; he, on the contrary, secretly betrayed them to the ambitious views of Kaldan, the chief of the Eluts, who was the declared enemy of the Mandshur Tartars. He even endeavoured to persuade the grand lama not to go to Pekin, when called thither by the emperor; and, when the Dalai Lama died, he concealed his death. At length, however, all these intrigues were discovered, in 1705 and the chief of the Tartars of Kokonor caused this perfidious minister to be put to death. Kanghi, informed of the crimes which he had committed, approved of the punishment inflicted on him, and sent some of the grandees of his court to Tibet, to govern that country in conjunction with the Tartar prince, on whom he lavished many rich presents. He afterwards appointed a new Dalai Lama, who was the sixth who had borne that title.

In 1714, Tchongkar, chief of the Eluts, made an irruption into Tibet, and carried away a great quantity of gold, silver, precious stones, silks, and other valuable things. The Tartar prince, who endeavoured to resist the invaders, was killed in battle, many of the lamas were put to the sword, and the monastery at Pootala was reduced to ashes. The Dalai Lama made application to the court of China for succours, and the emperor immediately sent a powerful army to his assistance, which drove the Eluts out of the country, re-established the Dalai Lama in his authority, and reinstated the other lamas in their pagodas or monasteries.

In 1702, the mountaineers of Nipaul invaded and ravaged Tibet, plundering the monasteries of their treasures, and robbing the mausolea of their lamas. The emperor of China, however, as soon as he had received information of this attack, sent an army to protect and avenge the lama. The Nipalese were defeated, and could only obtain peace on condition of becoming tributary to China, and making a full restitution of all the plunder they had carried off. The Chinese, at the same time, established military posts on the frontiers of Tibet, which prevent all communication between that country and Bengal, as the Chinese guard them with their accustomed jealousy and caution, and the approach of strangers, even of the natives of Bengal and Hindoostan, is strictly prohibited.

SECTION III.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] Independent Tartary is situate between thirty-one and fifty-two degrees of north latitude, and between fifty-five and seventy degrees of east longitude; being about fifteen hundred miles in length, and eight hundred and fifty in breadth; and it is computed to contain a surface of five hundred thousand square miles. It is bounded by Asiatic Russia, on the north; by the mountains of Belur, on the east; by Persia and Hindoostan, on the south; and by the Caspian Sea and the Uralian Mountains, on the west.

Divisions.] Independent Tartary consists of extensive tracts, inhabited by the Kirgnisian Tartars; the country of Kharism, and Great Bucharia, inhabited by the Usbec Tartars. Great Bucharia is divided into the provinces of Fergana, Sogd, Vash, Kottan, Balk, Gaur, and Khilan.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The climate is moderate, the heat, even of the southern provinces, being tempered by the high mountains, capped with perpetual snow. 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 so exuberant, that the grass sometimes exceeds the height of a man; and, in some parts, industry is shewn in the cultivation of rice and other grain.

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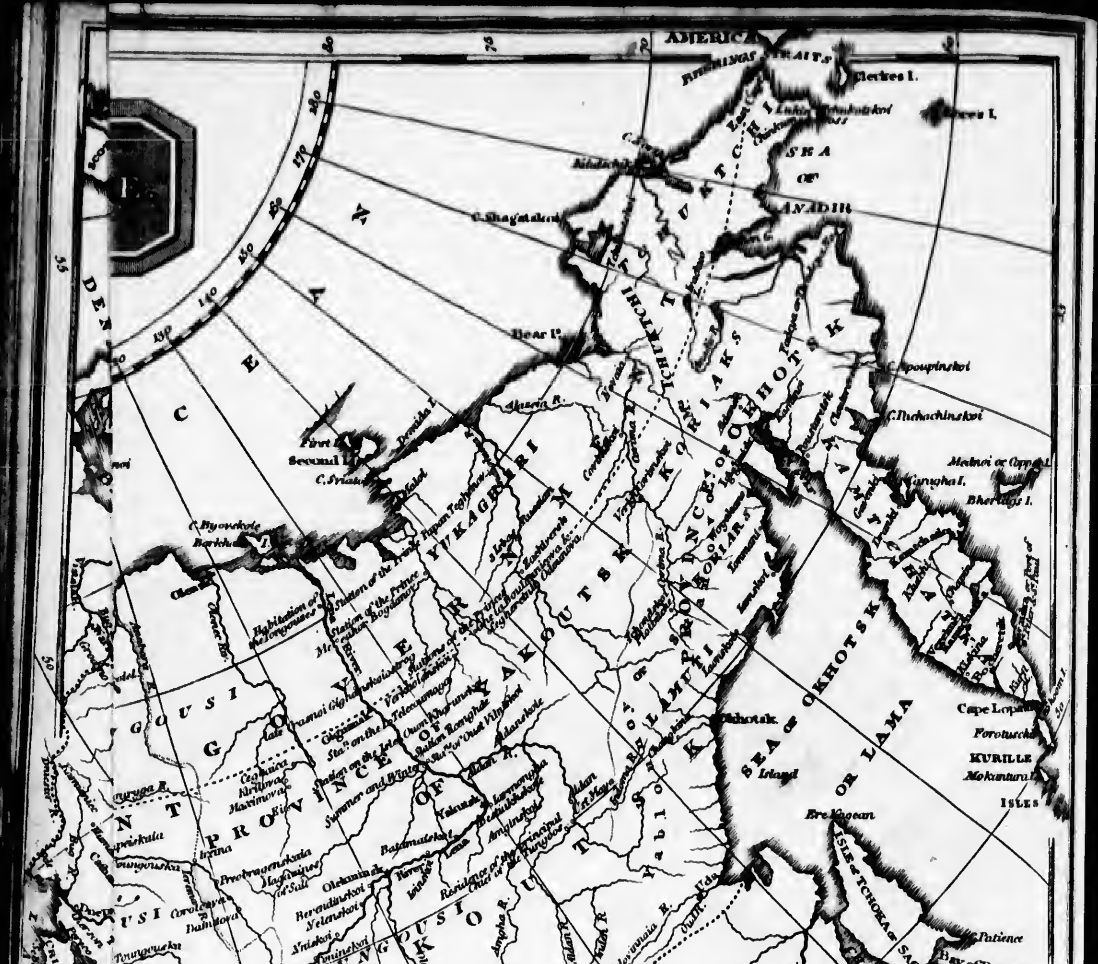

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her from some of the neighbouring nations. The Kalmuc women are the most sought after by the Kirguses, conceiving that nature has endowed them with singular advantages, and that they preserve the marks of youth longer than the women of other nations; insomuch that the rich are very willing to marry them, if they can be prevailed on to embrace Mahometanism: on the contrary, they hold the Persian women in so little estimation, that they give such as they take in marriage to their slaves. The espousals consist in a public declaration of the agreement made between the contracting parties, and then a priest repeats a prayer. The evening before, a woman is sent for to shave off part of the bride's hair, and, on the day of marriage, she is carried in a carpet to the bridegroom's tent, and the wedding celebrated in a hut built on purpose by the bride's father.

Previous to consummation, also, the girl is carried about on a carpet to her companions, to take leave of them, in which ceremony she is attended by several others, singing all the way. The rejoicings usually continue for several days, during which nothing is thought of but eating and drinking, dancing, singing, chatting, wrestling, horse-racing, and shooting at a mark. At the two last-mentioned diversions, considerable bets are made, and the new-married couple give prizes to the conquerors, of apparel, trinkets, and sometimes horses. On breaking up the festivities, the guests make presents of cattle and other things to the married pair. Such as have more than one wife, give each a separate *jourt*, or tent, where she brings up her children after her own inclinations. The more children they have, the happier they esteem themselves, and are the more honoured by their husbands; whilst such as prove barren are so little thought of, that the husband often makes them the servants of those who increase his family.

The Usbec Tartars, who inhabit the southern part of this country, resemble the other Tartarian tribes, except that they are in general more spirited and industrious. They are addicted to predatory warfare, and frequently make sudden incursions into the Persian provinces, on which occasions the women bear arms, and accompany their husbands to the field. Many of these Tartars reside in tents in the summer, but take up their abode in the towns and villages in winter. Those of Balk are the most civilized, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindoostan. The native Bucharians are of a fairer complexion than the Usbecs, and of a more peaceable disposition.

History.] Usbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence, of Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India, and the eastern world.

The former, about the year 1200, made himself master of those regions which form, at this day, the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son, Batou Sagin, conquered southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. It was not until the time of Ivan III., who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, that the Russians were able to throw off the galling yoke of the Tartars. Ivan repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan, and other provinces, and made his name respected through all the neighbouring countries.

When the vast dominions of Zinghis Khan fell into pieces, under his successors, in the sixteenth century, the Mongul and Tartar hordes, who had formed one empire, again separated, and have since continued distinct.

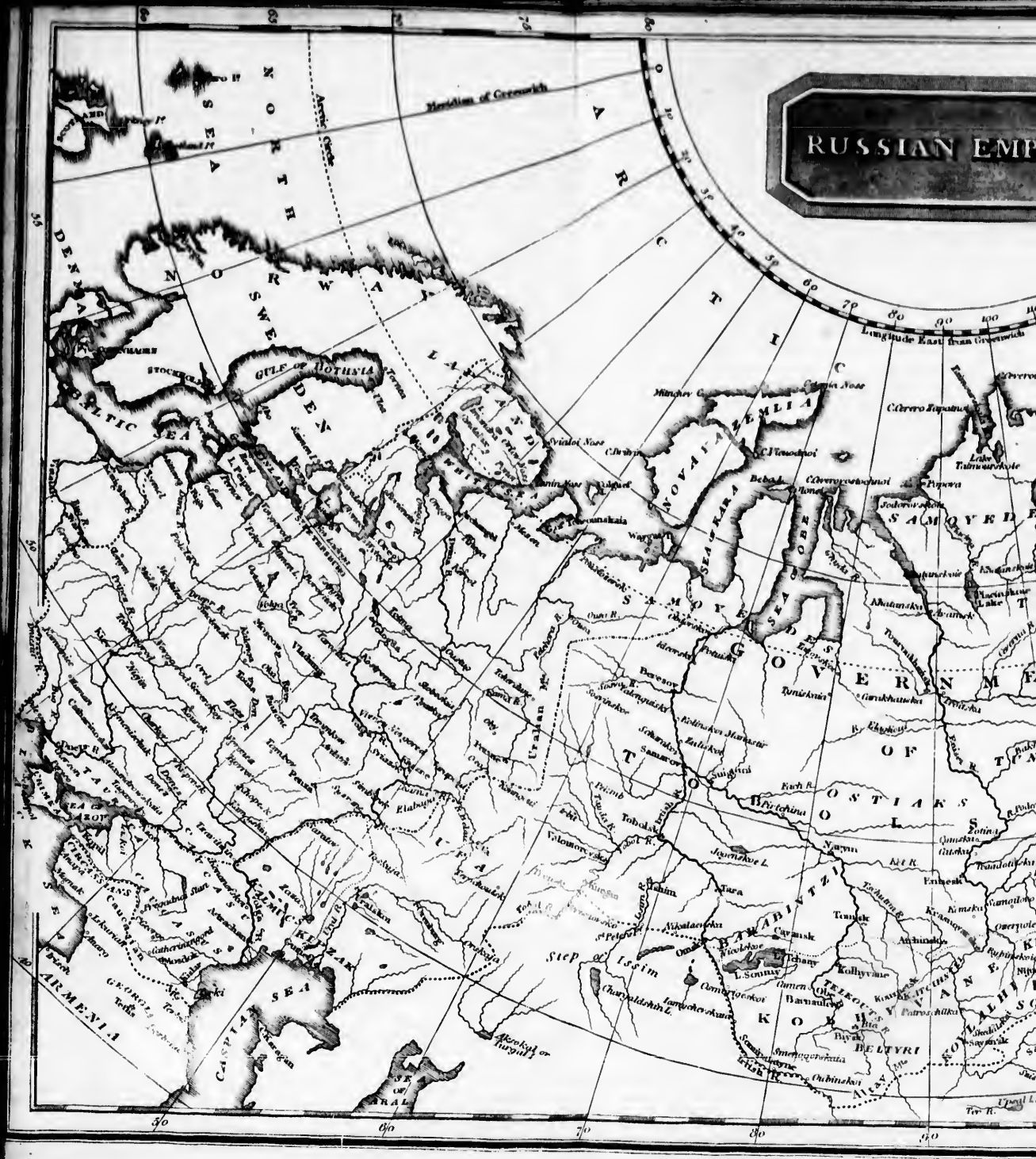
SECTION IV.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] The Russian dominions in Asia are situate between thirty-seven and one hundred and ninety degrees of east longitude, and between fifty and seventy-eight degrees of north latitude, extending about five thousand three hundred miles in length, and one thousand eight hundred in breadth, and containing a surface of three millions six hundred and fifty thousand square miles. Its boundaries are the Asiatic Ocean, on the north; the seas of Kamtschatka and Ochotsk, on the east; Chinese and Independent Tartary, Persia, and Turkey, on the south; and Russia in Europe, on the west.

Climate and Seasons.] "In Asiatic Russia," says a modern geographer, "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 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 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 the province around Nershinsk. 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, Soil, and Agriculture.] The northern and eastern parts of this region present vast marshy plains, covered with almost perpetual snow, and



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pervaded by enormous rivers, which, under masses of ice, pursue their 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 extensive a continent. Towards the south there are vast forests. The sublime scenes around the sea of Baikal are agreeably contrasted with cultivated fields and gardens. Even in the south, the rivers have acquired the size of the Danube and the Rhine, and they are navigable, with safety, for a great extent.

Many parts of Siberia are totally incapable of agriculture; but in the southern and western districts the soil is remarkably fertile. In some parts barley yields more than twelve fold, and oats twenty fold. Buck-wheat, in the black light mould, is apt to run into stalk, but, sown in the poorest spots, it yields from twelve to fifteen fold. Exclusive of winter-wheat, most of the usual European grains thrive in southern Siberia. The best rhubarb abounds on the banks of the Ural, or Jaik, in the southern districts, watered by the Yenissei, and in the mountains of Daouria.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] The chief rivers of this country are the Oby, the largest in the Russian empire, the length of its course being one thousand nine hundred miles; and the Yenissei, which has a course of about one thousand seven hundred and fifty miles. Both terminate in the Frozen Ocean. The other principal rivers are the Irtish, which falls into the Oby, the Lena; the Angora, which falls into the Yenissei; the Argun, the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territory; the Selinga, and the Yaik.

In the southern parts of Siberia, near the confines of Chinese Tartary, is the lake of Baikal, three hundred and fifty miles long, and about fifty broad. It is encompassed on all sides by high mountains; and, in one part, it throws up an inflammable sulphureous liquid, which the neighbouring peasants burn in their lamps. Its water, at a distance, appears of a sea-green colour, but is perfectly fresh, and so clear that objects may be plainly seen at the depth of several fathoms. The neighbouring rustics call it the *Holy Lake*, and they imagine, that, when storms happen on it, they will be preserved from all danger by complimenting it with the title of Sea. When it is frozen over, people travel upon it in the road to China, but they must be very sharp shod, in order to tread safely on the ice, which is exceedingly smooth. Notwithstanding the ice is sometimes two ells thick, there are some open places in it, to which tempestuous winds will often drive the unfortunate passengers, who, in that case, must inevitably perish. This lake contains several small islands, and the borders are frequented by sables and civet-cats.

The Altin is another famous lake in Siberia, said to be ninety miles long, and fifty broad, with a rocky bottom; though some geographers assert, that it is only eighteen miles long, and about twelve miles broad. These different calculations, however, may be accounted for, by considering, that the water of this lake, as well as of the rivers which run in through the adjacent places, only rises in the middle of summer, when the snows on the mountains are melted by the sun.

About ten miles from Nikuschkina is a remarkable sulphur lake, situated between two high mountains. It is an oblong basin, overgrown with birches, about four hundred and twenty feet long, and three hundred and forty broad. Its aspect is frightful, and its stench may be smelt at the distance of three miles. It has no perceptible motion, and never freezes. A visible thick vapour rises from its surface; yet the water is so clear, that its depth might be discerned, if it were not for the black and greasy soil which forms its border. Some attempts have been made to discover the origin of the sulphur; but these have all proved fruitless.

From the top of the neighbouring mountains issues a sulphureous spring, which runs down into the lake, and deposes a sediment, resembling a white and thick pulp. The continuation of this stream forms the remarkable river, called the White-Water River, which, as it proceeds from the lake, is about six feet deep, and between fourteen and twenty-eight feet broad. In this channel the water has the appearance of thin curds, but in some places the surface has a fine scum, like that seen upon limy waters; and all the matter which the water deposits is evidently mixed with limy particles.

Upon one of the Inderskoi mountains is a large lake, which may be justly classed among the wonders of nature. Dr. Pallas observes, that it is apparently about ten miles in circumference, has many bays, and resembles an extensive plain, glittering with snow, and encompassed with heights, which seem to be above the level of the river Jaik. The water is so saturated with salt, that large cubic grains are constantly forming upon the shore, when not prevented by wet weather, and its borders seem to be literally sowed with salt. Indeed, from the constant evaporation of the lake, the surrounding earth is covered with a crust of salt, which is of a pure white, and, when broken, exhibits an extraordinary crystallization, in irregular bodies; and, underneath this crust, lies a loose grey salt, which the Cossacks gather in little waggons, and wash with salt water on the spot, till it loses its grey colour.

Mountains.] The mountains of Asiatic Russia are the Uralian chain, which divides it from Russia in Europe; the mountains of Caucasus; those of Altai, called, by the Chinese, the Golden Ridge; and those of Nershinsk, or Russian Daouria.

Animals.] These are camels, dromedaries, rein-deers, bisons, bears, wolves, and all other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe.

The horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy; but, as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally very obstinate. Near Astracan there is a bird, called, by the Russians, babu, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan: he has a broad tail, under which hangs a bag, that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and, on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings, and drives them to a shallow, where he puts as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, he eats them, or carries them to his young.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables, and ermines, the skins of which are superior to those of any part of the world.

Metals and Minerals.] Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, jasper, and lapis lazuli. Asiatic Russia also produces sulphur, alum, sal ammoniac, vitriol, and nitre, in abundance.

Natural Curiosities.] Among these may be enumerated the extensive desert levels, called Stepps, which extend several hundred miles, with no appearance of a mountain, and scarcely of a hill. They contain, in some places, salt-lakes, and, in others, productive tracts, capable of cultivation.

On the borders of the river Suk is an asphaltos spring, on the steep declivity of a mountain, overrun with birch trees, whose soil is a fat and black earth. This spring forms a reservoir, about a yard wide, which is not only constantly full, without any agitation, but also overflows, and forms a little brook. The water never freezes, even in the most rigorous season; and when it is covered with snow, the bituminous vapours soon make an opening, though the water possesses no extraordinary degree of warmth. The surface of this well is covered with a black asphaltos, which has the appearance and consistency of thick tar, and, as often as it is taken off, will gather again in a few days. The neighbouring peasants use this bituminous water as a remedy for all infections, and ulcerous complaints of the mouth and throat.

On the banks of the river Jurjusen, is a steep woody mountain: but on three of the highest parts are several bare reddish spots, which are constantly burning. On the eastern side, this mountain seems to be about a hundred fathoms in perpendicular height. It has burnt on this side only for the last three years, and that with less violence than in the middle height, the whole southern side being burnt out, for the subterraneous fires have existed almost twelve years. A Baskirian gave Dr. Pallas the following account of this singular phenomenon: "About eleven or twelve years ago, a tall pine-tree, that stood at the bottom of the middle part of the mountain, was fired by lightning, which consumed the very roots of the tree, and gradually penetrated the body of the mountain. Since that time it has burnt inwardly, without any interruption; but in such a manner that the fire has ceased at the bottom, and yet is far from having reached the top. The trees and bushes, which formerly covered the southern side, were all consumed to a considerable extent, and the fire also communicated to an adjacent spot, on the western side; but that is now extinguished, and the place is overgrown with a variety of plants."

The stone, of which this mountain consists, especially in the spots which are burnt out, is partly a reddish slate, and partly a soft stone, divided into thin layers, between which there seems to have been some other matter, now reduced to ashes. In many places is found a yellow ochre iron-stone; and, at the bottom of the eastern part, is a great quantity of red friable marble. The burning spots are full of large clefts, whence a hot vapour rises continually. During stormy and gloomy nights, red thin flames rise to a considerable height, but there is no sulphureous smell; the exhalation communicating no other sensation than a suffocating heat, like that which issues from a hot glowing oven after the embers have been cleared out. It is said, that no snow ever lies on this mountain, that the soil is always clothed with verdure, and that many of the plants which grow upon it may be seen in flower through the whole winter.

Antiquities.] At Kasimof, about a hundred and thirty miles from Moscow, are some handsome remains of Tartarian buildings, which ought to be preserved for the admiration of posterity. On an elevated spot in this neighbourhood stands a high circular tower of a ruined temple, composed of hewn free-stone, which appears to have been taken out of a quarry, at eight miles distance. Here, also, were a triumphal arch, with gothic ornaments and Arabic inscriptions, an oblong square-built mansion, and a mausoleum, near the common burial-ground. But the triumphal arch has been demolished and converted into a lime-kiln; and the mansion, supposed to have been the residence of a Tartarian prince, has likewise been levelled with the ground.

The mausoleum of the khans is an oblong square-sided building, composed of free-stone, and ornamented round the top with a cornice. The western end contains a small closet, which seems to have been designed for private devotion, according to the custom of the Mahometans; and the other part has a vault, with several tomb-stones. The length of the building, from east to west, is rather more than forty-seven English feet, the breadth, from north to south, about twenty-six, and the height near sixteen feet.

The great vault is about twenty-one feet wide, seventeen

broad, and twelve feet high. The northern wall has two windows, and the eastern wall but one, which seem to have been formerly grated with iron-bars. On the ground, within the walls, are eight hillocks, about seven feet long, and covered with stones. At the head of each was erected a tomb-stone, five or six feet high, shaped off at the top in an obtuse angle, and ornamented with flowers, stars, and Arabic inscriptions: but only two of these stones are now standing.

On the eastern side of the village Bulgaria, are many curious pieces of antiquity: the most remarkable of which is a tower, about eighty-four feet high, built with hewn free-stone, and in tolerable preservation. It has a winding stair-case, consisting of seventy-two steps, each step twelve inches and three quarters high. The entrance is on the south, and has a strong iron hinge remaining, on which the door formerly hung.

At some distance, towards the south-west, stands a small square building, of free-stone, the vaulted roof of which is fallen in on one side. The entrance is in the west front, and on each side is a false window. This place is supposed to have been wholly devoted to purposes of devotion.

On the southern side of the village are some vestiges of a more extensive edifice, which the peasants call "the town-house." The square division of rooms appear, from their foundations, to have been entrances from without, but not to have had any communication with the central apartments, and, also, not to have been higher than the second story. There are three small rooms in the eastern front, two larger ones in the southern, and an oblong one in the western. In the northern corner is an oblong foundation, which touches the principal building only at its angle, and the northern front, where the entrance is, exhibits no appearance of side-rooms.

At the distance of about seven hundred feet is another ancient and strong built edifice, of remarkable architecture. Its northern part is built on a foundation of limestone, with large Tartarian bricks; its entrance is on the east; and in the side-walls are several apertures to admit the light. It is divided, by a cross wall, into a square antichamber, and an oblong saloon, the latter of which communicates with the principal part of the building. Its greatest space is divided into four closets, between which is a broad passage, built in the form of a cross, and lighted by a small window on each side, and an octagonal skylight in the roof. The corner closets are exactly square, and have their doors in the angle, leading into the cross passage. At the southern end of this building is an addition of three rooms, the smallest of which has no entrance nor opening, except a breach into the south-eastern corner of the centre building. Under this is a vault and a subterraneous passage from the southern wall; but, as a part of the vault is broken in, a descent is rendered impracticable.

The district of the Beltirs, between the mountains and the low grounds of the Abakan, is covered with several old tombs and monuments, of an extraordinary size and appearance. Among these graves, which are surrounded with a square wall of granite rock, and paved within, like a flat earth hillock, are many stones, ornamented with human faces, roughly sculptured; and these, as well as other stone images on the stepps of the Jenisei, have been evidently erected long before the time of the Kirguese.

About a mile and a half above the habitation of the Beltir chief, stood two narrow stones, seven feet high, flat on both sides, and truncated; but these now lie along upon the ground. On the upper end of each is a rough representation of a human face; and on one of them are the figure of a dromedary, and a ghastly image of a child.

On the right edge of the stone, which the Beltirs call *Kusi Tasch*, or man-stone, is carved a man on horseback, with a lance before him; and a little higher is represented a bent bow and arrow. The figures on the opposite edge are rendered undistinguishable by the ravages of time; but on the top may be discerned a lance, with a triple flag, and, below these, are some square lines, and the representation of a boat.

At a considerable distance from these stones, on the west side of a large tomb, stands a piece of granite rock, about the height of a man, and edged in such a manner at the top, that its point and carved side turn eastward to the tomb. Near the point of this granite is a large female face, much more relieved than those on the other stones, but considerably worn and decayed by time; and, on the same side, are some square lines and carved figures. This piece of rock is known among the heathen Tartars of the district, by the name of "the big woman," and is frequently invoked for success in sable-hunting.

About a mile and a half higher up the Abakan is a monument, which Dr. Pallas pronounces the finest of all Siberian antiquities. This is a tomb, four fathoms high, and a hundred and fifty paces in circumference, raised upon an eminence, so as to be seen at a great distance. Four other tumuli, lying on the north-west and south-west, form a triangle with the great one; in the opening of which, three square-sided sand-stones are so placed, that their flat sides face the north and south, each stone standing about four feet from the other. On the edge of one of these is a very long but distinguishable face, which the Tartars call "the little woman:" and the flat side of the stone is ornamented with some drawings. A very large stone, standing on the west of the largest tumulus, has many figures on the south-side, which seem to be either Tartarian hieroglyphics or inscriptions.

It has been observed, that all the monuments about the

Abakan are similar in their external appearance, and seem to have been tombs of the same nation. The only difference is, that some have the ground flat within the square walls, and others raised; but this may probably be a mere distinction of rank. The granite-stones, which border these graves lie along, with one edge upon the ground, none being placed upright, excepting those at the north-east, south-east, and south-west angles; in some of the graves, the space within the walls is divided into two or three parts, by rows of stones, one of which is generally larger and more elevated than the rest.

Professor Pallas tells us, that he ordered one of these tumuli to be opened; but no regular coffin was found, only a mixture of decayed bones of several bodies, which had been placed with the legs towards each other. These relics were found at the depth of four feet and a half, together with some broken pieces of earthen vessels, several large basins, and a bead, of a greenish enamelled substance.

Cities, Chief Towns, &c.] ASTRACAN, situate on an island, formed by the river Volga, near its entrance into the Caspian Sea, is a large and populous city, containing about seventy thousand inhabitants. It is about a league in circumference, and surrounded by a wall. It contains twenty-five Russian churches, and two convents, and is the seat of a Greek bishop. The Armenians, Lutherans, Roman Catholics, and even the Hindoos, have also their places of worship.

ORENBURG, the capital of the government of Ufa, was built in 1738, by order of the empress Anne, at the conflux of the Or and Ural; but, that situation being found inconvenient, the inhabitants were removed, and the town built lower down on the Ural, in 1740. It is now a place of considerable trade.

Tomsk, the chief town of the province of that name, in the government of Tobolsk, is a place of considerable trade, and contains about two thousand houses, and eight thousand inhabitants. Yakutsk, which gives name to a province in the government of Irkutsk, stands on the river Lena; it contains about five or six hundred wooden houses, and is defended by a wooden fort.

Tobolsk, the capital of Siberia, is situate at the confluence of the Irtish and the Tobol. It consists of two towns, called the upper and the lower town, and contains about fifteen thousand inhabitants. It has a tolerably strong fortress. To this city are sent the Russian state-prisoners, who are banished into Siberia.

Bolchetskoiostrog, which has the title of capital of Kamschatka, and is the residence of the governor, contains about five hundred houses, pretty regularly built.

Irkutsk, the capital of the government of that name, situate on the Angara, near the lake Baikal, contains several churches, and other edifices, of stone, and about twelve thousand inhabitants; it is also a place of considerable commerce, the caravans, which trade between Russia and China, passing through it.

Religion.] The Grecian system of the Christian faith, which is embraced by the Russians, has made an inconsiderable progress in their Asiatic possessions. Many of the Tartar tribes, in the south-west, are Mahometans; and others follow the superstition of Dalai Lama: but the more eastern Tartars are generally addicted to a system chiefly founded on the self-existence of matter, a spiritual world, and the general restitution of all things. They even believe that the 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 wandering spirits, who are purified by transmigration, so as also to become gods. Between men and gods are the 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 it to be the most prevalent system of the globe.

The archiepiscopal see of Tobolsk is the metropolitan of Asiatic Russia in the north, and that of Astracan in the south. There is another see, that of Irkutsk and Nershink, and perhaps a few others of recent foundation.

Population.] The population of Siberia cannot be computed at above three millions and a half; so that Europe can, in future, have little to apprehend from the Tartaric 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 relate principally to China and Japan.

Language and Literature.] The language of all these original nations are radically different; and, among the Tunguses, Monguls, and Tartars, there are some slight traces of literature: and not a few manuscripts in their several languages. The history of the Tartars, by Abulgasi, is a favourable specimen of Tartaric 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.

Manufactures and Commerce.] At Astracan there are manufactures of leather and isinglass; and a considerable trade is carried on in salt, produced, in great quantities, from the salt-lakes and marshes in the vicinity of the Caspian Sea; as also in fish, procured from the same sea.

The principal trade of Siberia is in sables, and other furs, which are purchased with avidity by the Chinese; who, in return, bring tea, silk, and other commodities.

The Tartar citizens of Kazan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not, in general, very enterprising; but, as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kazan, they make a trade of preparing what is called, in England, Morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Asiatic Russia are composed of many different nations, principally Tartar tribes, some of whom now live in fixed houses and villages, and pay tribute like other subjects. Formerly they were not admitted into the Russian armies, but of late years they have been found to make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their ancient habits, and live a wandering life. Both sides of the Volga are inhabited by Tchermises and Morduars, a peaceable and industrious people. The Bashkirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kazan to the frontiers of Siberia. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the rest of the tract to Astracan and the frontiers of the Usbecs; and, in consideration of certain presents, which they received from the sovereigns of Russia, they serve in their armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The character of the Tartars of Kazan may serve for that of all the Mahometan Tartars. Few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well-made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty, and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion, rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, and submission. The Tartars of Kazan take great care of the education of their children. Their youth are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, priest, and schoolmaster; though some of these priests and teachers are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kazan, Tobolsk, and Astracan, which are under the direction of the gagoums, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes, in manuscript, in the huts of the peasants; and their merchants, besides what those little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states. Such as choose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bucharia, which are more complete than the others.

Of the Kalmuc Tartars, Mr. Tooke says, "They are, for the most part, raw-boned and stout; their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may easily be known from that of any other man. The eyes too are smaller, and the corners of them flatter, than among the Europeans; They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin; and their beard is scanty, and appears late. Their teeth are even and white, their complexion a reddish brown, and their knees always stand outwards, like a bow, which proceeds from their manner of sitting on their ankles, and their being almost constantly on horseback. The women are of the same shape and make with the men, only that their complexion is very clear, and of a wholesome white and red. According to some travellers, one might be led to suppose, that all the faces of the Kalmucs are deformed and frightful; but this is not the case. There are, among both sexes, many round and pleasant faces, some whose features are so regular, that they would not want admirers in any European city; though it seems a characteristic of this people, that the corners of their eyes and eye-brows have a slant direction, and the bridges of their noses are short and flat. Full-grown men have a strong and large beard, but they leave only a whisker turned up on their upper lip, and a tuft upon the under one. Old persons, and especially priests, leave a whisker, and let the hair grow over the corners of the mouth, on the lower lip, underneath the chin, and about the neck. The rest of the face is kept clear, by plucking it, and cutting it with scissars and rough knives."

The Kalmucs are remarkable for their hospitality, candour, and a certain gaiety which never leaves them; but they are charged with indolence, want of cleanliness, and knavery. A love of idleness, indeed, is common to all nations who lead an unlimited, careless, and pastoral life; but their filthiness may be ascribed, as in the lower classes of the French, more to their education and volatility than to sloth; for the Kalmuc women perform their domestic offices with great industry. As to their mental faculties, their knowledge is certainly much limited; but they have a good natural understanding, which might be easily cultivated and improved, if their way of living and natural sprightliness were not insuperable obstacles. Though generally choleric, they live in tolerable harmony among themselves, and are very sociable, wishing to share every thing that can be enjoyed, and never keeping any thing to

themselves alone. When eating, drinking, or smoking tobacco, every one present must be a partaker; and if, for example, there should be but one tobacco-pipe, they must all use it by turns. If one be presented with tobacco, fruit, or other eatables, he will divide it with his friends, or those who are next him; or, if a family have made a provision of milk, to make brandy of, they will call in their neighbours to help to consume this blessing.

The dress of the common people seldom consists of any thing but sheep and other skins, and felts, which they throw over them in the rain, by way of cloak. The better class of men wear an upper garment, like that worn by the Poles, except the sleeves, which are close and narrow, and an under-garment, buttoned all the way down, and bound close to the body.

The women would be scarcely distinguished from the men, if it were not for their head-dress, and, in this, married women differ from the maidens. The heads of the men are commonly clipt close, leaving only a long tuft of hair behind, in the centre of the crown, which those of distinction generally braid into two or three tresses: the tribe of Torgouts wear, both summer and winter, a small round cap, bordered with fur: that of the Sjungorians commonly wear a summer-hat, covered with felt, just like those of the Chinese, except its being smaller, and having a flatter brim. All wear, upon the crown, a large spreading fringe, which hangs down under the cap. A Kalmuc's ears, like those of the Tartars, stand at a distance from his head, and the cap comes down to the root of the ears.

The hair of their boys is shorn from their infancy; but girls run about, like furies, with bewildered locks. At the age of ten or twelve, however, when a Kalmuc lady is marriageable, her hair is platted in as many tresses as she pleases, and wound round the head. When a girl is married, these tresses are undone, and the hair is braided into two large ones only, which hang down in tails over both shoulders. The ordinary class of women, whilst at work, put theirs into a linen bag. The caps of wives and maidens are partly the same, except that the lower class wear them only when they go out, or are well-dressed. It is a round flat cap, bordered with fur, and covers only the upper part of the head. Women of distinction wear higher caps, of a richer silk stuff, with a broad brim, turned up before and behind, and lined with black velvet. They seem fond of spreading, on the tops of their caps, a broad fringe, that hangs down on all sides. Ear-rings are universally worn by the women.

The dwellings of the Kalmucs are like those huts, made of felts, common in all Asiatic regions, and well known in Russia; they are called *jourts*. The skeleton of these felt huts consists first of wattled hurdles, formed, thirty inches thick, by seven or eight different pieces, seven feet long and five broad, placed one upon another, and fastened together, in a kind of pannel, with willow rods; several of these pannels are set up in a circular form, and joined at the ends with hair ropes, or bands, forming the circumference of the tent. The door is made in the same manner, but not so thick, and ornamented with a border: ropes serve instead of hinges, by tying the piece that forms the door to the hurdle next it. Three long willow poles are then set up, with a ring on the top, made of wicker, to form the roof; through which ring the ends of a great number of poles are put, the other end fixed in the hurdles below, and fastened with strings. This being neatly executed, the whole is painted red. The skeleton, now completed, is covered with felts, or a cloth made of wool, united without weaving, large enough to cover it, and fastened on with cords wound round it. In winter, all is closed; but, in summer, the sides are left open, by throwing aside the covering. In very cold weather, they lay over the whole tent an additional covering of felts and mats, binding them on as before. The part within the ring at the top is left open for a chimney; but, as a shelter from the wind and rain, some cross circular pieces are fixed over it, on which they occasionally throw a felt, on the windward side, and, when the fire is burnt out within, they cover the whole aperture, to keep the hut warm.

Domestic labour falls exclusively upon the women; the men taking no other pains than to build and repair their tents, the rest of their time being spent in hunting, attending their flocks, or in idleness or amusement. It is the women's business to milk the cattle, mares, and ewes, and prepare the hides, to do the needle-work, and every other domestic occupation. They also knead, with their hands, camel, horse, and cow dung; make flat cakes of the composition, and dry them in the wind for fuel. When the master of a house means to go abroad, it is the duty of his wife to saddle his horse, and bring him to the door. In short, the women have so much to do, that they are seldom seen idle.

They have commonly more horses than horned cattle, and mares' milk is what they like best, for, being made sour, it contains such a spirit, that, if a person drink two or three of their large bowls full, it will almost intoxicate him. The cows and mares will not give any milk, unless the calf or colt be present: on this account, colts and calves are kept almost the whole day about the tents, staked down to a particular spot of ground with long ropes, and are suffered to suck only at night. Their mothers will feed, naturally, not far from them; of course, they have them always at hand. They milk the mares every hour, and each yields about the seventh part of a gallon, or a moderate bottle full of milk; but the cows are milked only twice or three times a-day. Before milking, the mother is led to its young one; and, as soon as it begins to suck,

some one pushes it away, and the milk flows freely; with the cows, it is sufficient to shew them their calves, and, should they die in the birth or afterwards, they will stuff the skins, and tie them up among the rest, in order to shew them to the cows in milking-time; but the mares are not so simple, and they are under a necessity of acting cautiously with these, lest it should make them stubborn, and refuse their milk entirely.

Fresh mares' milk is much more fluid than the milk of cows, but, on account of a little alkaline taste, is not so pleasant; yet, if they turn it with cleanliness, it has a more delicate vinous flavour. It yields hardly any cream; of course, it is not fit for butter, but it is richer in fermenting particles. In winter, when they have but little mares' milk, they content themselves with cows' milk, which is much less spirituous, and, when turned sour, has a more disagreeable taste. In order to turn the milk, they pour it gradually into large vessels, which, in winter-time, are set near the fire, either above or under ground. As they distil a spirit from this sour milk, they sometimes turn it with a little of this spirit, if they have any, or can borrow it from their neighbours, and sometimes with a little of the sour milk which they find in the stomachs of the lambs they kill. Milk designed for distillation they do not take any cream from, but beat it about now and then with a stick, as they do in making butter; or, as the milk is collected in summer in leathern bottles, they shake it well twice a day; and this will turn it.

They make a kind of cheese from ewes' milk, which they eat, in winter, with butter. Indeed, this is the only use they make of ewes' milk, deeming it unfit for distillation. To make butter from cows' milk, they boil it well, turn it sour in the course of one day, beat it with a butter-staff, and pour it into a bowl, when the oil of the butter will swim on the surface, which they skim off, and keep in leathern vessels.

The Kalmucs are never at a loss for meat in the summer, as they can procure it in abundance, either by hunting, or from such of their cattle as die a natural or accidental death; but they rarely slaughter their own cattle. Badgers, marmots, and rats, are their peculiar dainties. They account the beaver, also, to be wholesome food, unless it be too fat. Besides these animals, they eat wild horses, wild goats, wild boars, and all sorts of birds, even the largest bird of prey; yet they abhor the flesh of wolves, saying it is bitter. When they have plenty of meat, in summer, they will cut it into narrow slices, dry it in the sun, or, in rainy weather, over a smoking fire, within their tents, and lay it up for winter and travelling provisions. "Even the chiefs and first people among them," says Mr. Tooke, "will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper and age, and, let the flesh stink ever so much, they will eat it without disgust. For this reason, in every horde, the flesh-market has the appearance of a lay-stall of carrion. Bread and groats they purchase from the Russians; for, as they eat but little, they seldom cultivate any land, or sow any corn. There are certain roots, also, which they eat, as the knots of the sage-tree, which they call *bodmon*. After drying it, and reducing it to powder, they boil it into a pulp with milk. They eat, also, the chichling-vetch, which they boil with their meat; and also the roots of a sort of sun-flower. Instead of tea, which they boil in the Mongolian fashion, with milk and butter, the common people gather, on the deserts, a kind of small liquorice, which they boil with salt and milk; they are great lovers of mead and brandy; and both sexes smoke tobacco at an enormous rate.

Besides the profession of arms and the care of their flocks, it is the department of the men to assist in manufacturing their felts. Having sheered their sheep in spring and summer, with sharp knives, they spread the wool out on an old felt, or mat, on which it is well-beaten, by ten or twelve persons sitting round it, till all the dust is out. It is then equally spread upon a felt, the exact size of the one that is to be made, and, in spots where they want to vary it in colour, they place, over the first layer of wool, died wool of those colours. This done, they carefully roll up the whole together, and tie it tight with hair-cords, then all the people present sit down in two rows, opposite to each other, take the rolled felt between them, and raise it to their knees, throwing it from their knees again on the ground with all their strength, and continuing this for some hours. This unites the wool into a body; and, when they think it is sufficiently matted, they unroll it, and repair, with the hand, any defects that appear in it.

The principal arms of the Kalmucs are lances, arrows, and bows; the latter are made of different kinds of wood, but chiefly of the plane-tree. They have a variety of arrows, some short, made wholly with wood, with a knob at the end; with these they kill small animals and birds; others are light, with small points; and some, intended for war, have a strong iron point. All these arrows are winged with feathers, taken from the tail of the eagle, as the wing-feathers are apt to carry the arrow out of its direction. They are contained in certain divisions in a quiver, and hung on the right side of the saddle; the bow, in a scabbard on the left side. The more opulent Kalmucs have fire-arms. Such as are well-armed wear breast-harness, like those of the oriental nations, consisting of net-work, made of iron and steel rings, which they get in barter for their horses. Their full armour consists of a round helmet, with an iron net-work, that hangs down round the neck upon the shoulders, but only as low as the eye-brows on the face; a coat of mail, with sleeves to the wrist, covering the back of the hand, with a slip fastened be-

tween the fingers; and two arm-harnesses, extending from the elbow to the wrist, and buckled on the outside of the arm.

The iron-work used for their arms is made among themselves. There are also a kind of petty jewellers among them, who make ornaments for the women, and embellish tea-pots with silver figures of animals and hoops. Their tools are very simple. Their bellows consists of a leather bag, with a pipe, fixed between two boards, which they extend and press together.

Many of the Kalmucs betroth their children, not only in their earliest infancy, but even before they are born: this betrothing is, however, conditional, that such a one has a boy, and such a one a girl. The young couple are united at fourteen years of age, or later. Prior to the wedding, the bridegroom agrees with the girl's father, as to the portion he is to have with her, which consists in a certain number of horses and cattle; and the father of the young man, in return, presents the bride with a new white felt tent, some household furniture, bed-clothes, and ornamented feet-pillows, covered with cotton or silk, and laced. The gellung, or priest, is consulted, with respect to the day of marriage, and he searches, by astronomical calculations, for a propitious one. The new tent is then erected; the bride, with her parents and relations, goes to the bridegroom, who, with the gellung, accompanies them to the tent, where he reads some few prayers, and orders the bride's tresses to be undone, and braided, in the manner of married women, into two tails. He next takes the caps of the married couple, retires with them without the tent, smokes them with frankincense, and offers a prayer. He then returns to the couple, blesses them, gives the caps to some of the persons present, to put them on the bride and bridegroom's head, and the ceremony concludes with a feast.

At the nuptials of princes, great entertainments are given. A large banquet is prepared, and those who carry the eatables to table, which are served up in large wooden vessels, are preceded by a herald, or carver, on horseback, splendidly dressed, having over his shoulders a long tippet of fine white linen, and his cap trimmed with black fur. On the wedding-day, all the priests read prayers, and the day is concluded with a variety of amusements.

The customary diversions of this people consist in horse-racing, in which the girls bear a part; shooting with the bow for wagers; wrestling, in which they strip themselves to their trowsers; hearing the maidens sing; pantomime dances, and music, performed by the girls, who play on the lute, the kit, a kind of hurdy-gurdy, and the pipe. The subjects of their songs are the fabulous stories of gigantic chivalry, heroic tales, and amorous ditties; but their melody is harsh and dismal. The Kalmucs also play at chess, cards, &c.

When a Kalmuc dies, the gellung is made acquainted with the moment in which the spirit of the deceased departed; and he ordains the manner in which, and to what district, the corpse is to be carried. There are six different modes of burial; one is to lay the corpse, naked, in the open field, with the head towards the east, and the body in a sleeping position, supporting the head with the right arm. At the head, on both sides, and also at the feet, they stick poles into the ground, on the top of which are fastened square pieces of stuff, written over with Tongusian prayers, which resemble flags, and are called prayer-flags. The second mode is to carry the corpse to some adjacent wood, dressed in the dress of the country. In both the above cases the body is left to be devoured by wild beasts, by which process, they suppose, the soul continues its transmigration. The third way is to throw the body into the water; this they do with children; the fourth, to bury it; the fifth, to cover it with a heap of stones; and the sixth, to burn it. In the first five modes, in which they bury the common people, and lower order of priests, they stick one flag as near the body as they can, burying with them the weapons of the deceased, and some few presents. Besides these prayers of the dead, a kind of mass is read by the priest for the deceased, by order of the parents, agreeably to the hour in which he died. These masses continue forty-nine days; at the expiration of which, three prayer-flags are given to the parents by the gellung, which they also stick near the corpse, and then leave it, without any further notice. Some, however, will continue the masses longer. From the hour of departure, they judge whether the deceased were a good or a wicked man; and, if the body remain unmolested by beasts of prey, they consider it as an ill omen.

Burning the dead is only practised for priests, princes, and a few persons of superior sanctity. The ashes of such bodies are carefully collected, mixed with frankincense, and sent to the Dalai Lama, at Tibet, who sends word back into which paradise the new-born soul is arrived through the fire, without being metamorphosed into an animal. In order to burn them, a vaulted oven is built, with holes, in one of which the body, full dressed, is laid upon a bench with three feet. The fire blazes out of the oven, and is fed with the fat of the body till it is entirely consumed.

The Nagai Tartars, of which there are many tribes, are represented as the remainder of the Mongolian race, and a powerful nation, but so reduced by the vicissitudes of war during a century past, as scarcely to deserve that appellation.

These people are low of stature, but rather corpulent; they have olive complexions, large faces, small eyes, and tolerable features. The dress of the men is composed of sheep-skins, with the wool outwards; their caps are of

various shapes; but those worn in general are small and round: they are made of lamb-skins, and so constructed as to cover the head only as far as the ears. The younger women wear Circassian caps; and those who are married adopt the custom of wearing the veil.

There are some tribes among these people who live in valleys, eight or ten fathoms deep, which intersect the plains from north to south, and which are more than ninety miles long, though but half a quarter of a league wide. Muddy rivulets run through the middle of them, on the borders of which are tents, intended to give shelter, during winter, to their numerous flocks and herds. A Tartarian tent, in many parts, resembles a large kind of hen-coop. The paling is in a circular form, and over this a door opens at the top. A felt of camel-hair envelopes the whole; and a piece of this felt is thrown over the hole in the centre, which serves to give vent to the smoke.

These Tartars, according to the custom generally prevalent in Asiatic Russia, purchase their wives. A dower, with the wealthy, consists of twenty or thirty mares, two stallions, fully equipped, a complete suit of armour, and a musket and sabre, which are presented to the wife's father on the day of marriage.

In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave and that of the wife; but, among the heads of tribes, the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife has arrived at the age of forty years, she is employed in menial duties, and must attend the young wives, who succeed to her place.

These Tartars are a wandering people. They set out on their peregrinations in the spring, in great numbers, preceded by their flocks and herds. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours, the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle: with this they purchase cloths, silks, stuffs, and other articles of apparel, for their women. They have few mechanics, and avoid all labour as the greatest slavery. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one place, and work like a Russian.

The pleasures of hawking, hunting, and coursing, are their chief delight: and their chiefs frequently form hunting parties, attended by numbers of *mirzas*, or noblemen. They depart for the chace with arms and baggage; and the amusement lasts several days. Camps are formed every night. A body of troops follow the *serasker*, or commander-in-chief of the army: and sometimes these parties of pleasure serve as pretexts for more serious expeditions.

Hospitality is a virtue by no means unknown to these people. On the arrival of a stranger at any town or village, it is customary for the inhabitants to stand at their doors, as if desirous of inviting him to enter. Having made choice of his temporary residence, the inhabitants go into their houses, and the stranger is shewn into an apartment, into which the wife and daughter of the host enter, both with their faces uncovered; the first carrying a basin and a pitcher, and the second a napkin, for the purpose of washing. They then set before him their best cheer, with an assurance of his being heartily welcome. According to their own declaration, they consider the exercise of hospitality as a benefit, and, therefore, if any one should constantly enjoy that advantage, he would make others jealous; but they do not permit of any means which might determine the choice of travellers. Their eagerness to come to their doors is only to prove that their houses are inhabited. Their uniformity preserves an equality, and no one has a chance of procuring a guest superior to another. They are of opinion, that it is equally their duty and pleasure to assist a stranger in distress; and that, exercising hospitality, and following the dictates of humanity, they fulfil the law of Mahomet, according to the sum and substance of the koran.

There is a tribe of the Nagais, called Kendure Tartars. When Professor Pallas first visited these parts, he found this tribe in their felt tents, or huts, similar to those already described; but, in his second visit, he observed that they had varied their form. The mode in which they were first constructed, was similar to that adopted by the Nagai tribes in general; but they seem to have derived the latter from some other nation, probably the Kalmucs, whose habitations are constructed with more art, and better adapted to the purposes of accommodation, being so made as to be disjoined and altered at pleasure. Each opulent Tartar family, belonging to those wandering tribes, has generally two tents, one for the accommodation of visitors, and the other set apart for their females; besides which, in proportion to the number of the family, they generally have one or more covered two-wheeled chariots, for the use of their wives and daughters. These carriages are painted of diversified colours; and on the front is commonly fixed a chest, covered with tapestry, for conveying their best apparel from place to place. They have also two-wheeled carts, which are loaded with their tents and baggage. The moveables of each family proceed on their journey, and in regular order. The hut is placed on the axletree of the carriage, in which the mistress of the family always goes before the caravan. The flocks and herds are conducted by servants on horseback, and each species of cattle moves in a separate drove. When the tents are pitched, on the spot fixed for a temporary abode, a coverlet is raised on a long moveable pole, to the windward of the aperture that lets out the smoke, in order to promote its ascent from the tent.

The dress of the women and girls of this nation is peculiar to themselves, as will appear from the following description: "The girls wear a sort of red cap, made of

the rind of trees, in the form of a bee-hive, and adorned with pieces of tin. Corals and small pieces of coin are hung round this head-dress. The gown is composed of diversified silk-stuff, with long narrow sleeves, and is ornamented, from the breast to the waist, with tassels of tin or silver, buttons, little bells, and rings. A strap or cord is worn over the left shoulder, to which is attached a tin case, containing amulets, and frequently a large shell. The women are very awkward figures: in summer, they dress in an upper gown, of an uniform colour, wear long white cloth on the head, and over it a fur-cap. In the perforated right nostril is a ring, ornamented with corals, pearls, or precious stones.

The Samoiedes were made tributary to the Russian empire so early as 1525; whereas the other nations of Siberia were not conquered till the seventeenth century. They inhabit all the northern districts of Russia and Siberia, as far as to the Jenisea; but, within this district, they are divided into many tribes, different even in their dialects.

The persons of the Samoiedes are thus described by Mr. Tooke: "The men are about five feet high. They seem all of a heap, have short legs, a large head, flat nose and face, large mouth and ears, small black eyes, pendant lips, and little feet, little or no beard, and black coarse hair. The women are shorter than the men, and have a more slender shape. It may be said of these people, on the whole, that a pretty female amongst them is as extraordinary as a fine man. Their breasts are small and flat, and their maturity very early; many of them being mothers at twelve years of age, and sometimes at eleven; but they are not very prolific, and after thirty years of age seldom bear children.

"Some of the men shave their heads partially, some wholly, and some not at all. Some wear but one whisker on one side, and others on both sides. The women's dress is singular: they always go bare-headed and bare-faced; their hair is braided into two tresses, which hang down behind, and are never opened. In their ears they wear short pendants of beads. The breast and back-pieces of their garments are made of the furs of young rein-deer, and the rest of pieces of cloth, sewed together; the whole bordered with fur, and made to lap over before, and there tied with a girdle. Instead of a breast-pin, they have a large iron ring, on which both ends of the girdle are tied. They also wear breeches, of dyed rein-deer skins. In this dress the Samoiede women remain day and night, but the men sleep without any clothes; and, but for these breeches, would be quite naked."

During three parts of the year they live in caves, and make subterraneous passages, for the purpose of visiting each other. Their light they derive from lamps, fed by fœtid fish-oil.

The tents, in which they live the three summer-months, in form resemble a bee-hive, and are covered with the skins of the game they kill.

Each Samoiede keeps his own rein-deer, and he and his family generally watch them themselves. These animals are chiefly employed to transport their tents and effects, on sledges, which measure about eight feet in length and about four in breadth, and turn up before, in the manner of a skait. The rein-deer have a pleasing appearance in harness, holding their heads so high, that their horns almost touch their backs. The wild rein-deer furnishes the Samoiede with every necessary he wants, viz. food, roofs, spades, which they make of the horn, clothes, and sinews for thread, &c. When they live near the sea, they have sufficient subsistence from the sea-bears that come on shore, dead whales, thrown up by the waves, and other animals, which they eat indiscriminately. Dogs, cats, ermines, squirrels, and snakes; in short, whatever they can kill, or find dead: nothing comes amiss to them. They sometimes fish in the gulf and lakes, with small nets, and ropes made of willow. In autumn they hunt ice-foxes, which are not only caught by the men in traps, and sometimes pursued, but even dug out of their holes, by the women, and killed. There are wealthy Samoiedes, who, for the sake of fishing, will take up their summer-abode on the river Oby, and leave the care of their flocks to their children and shepherds; yet, when the time of hunting approaches, will return to their old way of living. These people are very dexterous at catching what is called the sea-dog. It is done by crawling upon the ice after the animal, with a large hook and line, throwing the hook to a convenient distance, when the animal, in endeavouring to avoid the snare laid for it, generally fixes himself in it. The creature, however, though thus hooked, jumps sometimes into the sea, with such force and violence, as to drag the man into the sea after him. From the sea-dog is extracted an oil, and the flesh is eaten by the natives.

The Samoiede women are generally treated with great severity. They have every domestic and laborious business to perform, and are quite slaves to their husbands. In their huts, a staff is erected behind the fire, the limits of which the wife dares not pass, for they deem the fire sacred, and think a woman going round it would profane it. To do her domestic work, if she wants to go from one side of the hut to the other, she must go round about; for the Samoiedes superstitiously believe that, if a woman were at liberty to go about the whole tent, a wolf would certainly devour a rein-deer the same night.

When a Samoiede wishes to take a wife, he looks for one equal to himself in rank and property. Having appointed a person, from among his friends, to transact the business, the negociator waits upon the father of the

maiden, and enquires whether the young man can have her. If the father accept the proposal, the negociator settles the price to be paid, which generally consists of a variety of clothes, household necessaries, rein-deer, and other matters purchased from the Russians. As soon as this is paid, it is settled when the bride shall be ready to give her hand. On the day appointed, the bridegroom waits on his bride, with a number of strange women, to fetch her, and, after some forms, the marriage-rites are performed.

When these people assemble upon any joyous occasion, they divert themselves with fighting, and running over certain limits. They also dance with their wives, by couples, in circles, throwing themselves into a variety of attitudes, and making a number of grimaces, all to musical measure; and often, for want of music, will keep time by snorting, and other nasal sounds, in which the women bear a chorus.

When an individual of this nation dies, they dress the body in as many of its new clothes as they can put on, laying what is left about the corpse, and put the head into a boiler, from an opinion that, after the head is decayed, the soul will there remain: they then wrap the body in the cover of a tent, of rein-deer skins, bind it round with ropes, and drag it out, not at the door, but from under the covering of the tent, which they raise for the purpose; for they think, if it be taken through the door, the deceased will return, and soon fetch away some other of the family. When brought to the place of interment, if in summer, they dig a very shallow pit, not above eighteen inches deep, cover the corpse with wild bushes, and then throw the ground upon it. In winter, they erect a hut, with timber and bushes, place the deceased in it, give him an axe, knife, bow and arrows, tobacco, a pipe, spoon, and cups, and then leave him. The rein-deer that drew the corpse are killed, and put, with all their furniture, into the grave. Opulent persons kill, also, all those rein-deer with which the deceased used to hunt; and the whole, in winter, are covered with straw; in summer, with moss and straw.

During the interment, they send for a magician, who has recourse to the drum, and puts on a particular kind of robe, ornamented with figures, on iron plates. His business is, to persuade the spirit of the dead not to molest those he has left behind him, nor to fetch them away, but to leave his lucky hunting days to his relations. At these times, a rein-deer is sacrificed, and dressed on the spot; but neither the wife nor husband of the deceased is at liberty to eat out of the common boiler, without being first purified, by washing and smoking themselves with castor. Should a Samoiede pass the grave of a near relative, even ten years afterwards, he must sacrifice a rein-deer, in memory of the deceased, and eat it with his attendants, leaving the head and horns upon the grave. The name of the deceased is no more to be mentioned, but by allusion or circumlocution: he that would pronounce the name, would become a declared enemy of the relations; but the same name may be revived in the second or third generation.

Mourning for the dead consists in not tying up their fur-boots, nor girding their bodies with willows, letting the hair go dishevelled for some time, and afterwards braiding it, for life, into three tresses, letting the third hang on one side over the ear.

The Ostiac Tartars are, in general, of a middle stature, not very strong, and particularly thin and lean. Their faces are disagreeable, pale, and flat, without any characteristic form. The ruddy and light-coloured hair, that hangs about the head of the men, renders them still more ugly. They are timorous, superstitious, and simple, but otherwise have a tolerable share of good-nature. They are, from their youth, laborious, being obliged to put up with a troublesome and bad way of living; but, as soon as they find themselves a little above indigence, they are slothful, especially the men; and, in their whole domestic management, very filthy and disgustful.

To strangers the Ostiacs are very hospitable, and do not know how to pay sufficient honour and respect to their guests. If they have any rein-deer, they will kill one immediately, and set before their friend the tongue, brains, and breast, boiled in their way, which they consider as the greatest delicacies. After the meal, they will make their guest such a present as they can afford, without expecting any return.

The dress of both sexes consists chiefly of the skins of animals, and furs, which they prepare themselves. The more opulent wear shirts; but the common people wear their leathern coats next their skin. The mens' dress is first a narrow under fur, with sleeves, which scarcely reach half-way to the loins, having a hole above to put the head through, close behind and before. This is commonly made with the skin of a rein-deer fawn, which drops in spring, and is put on, instead of a shirt, with the hair inwards. The most usual upper fur, or garment, which is worn also in summer, when the weather is cold, consists of a rein-deer skin, sewed together, and worn with the hair inwards. It is almost like the former, except that behind the opening, through which the head passes, hangs a hood, which is occasionally thrown over the head. They generally border the hood and seams of the garment with dog's-skin, and it is often worn, in summer, without the under fur. In winter, they wear a fur over both, and also a cap, made of long-haired rein-deer skin. In summer-time, those who wish to appear finer than ordinary, make themselves a garment of several pieces of cloth, of various colours, without lining, and bordered with a white

dog's skin, or the tails of ice-foxes. The common breeches of the men are made of dyed rein-deer skins, cut to sit close on them, but do not reach the knees. On their legs they wear short stockings, made of the fawn of the rein-deer, and over these boots, made of the foot-skin of the same animal: the parts between the hoof are fastened together for the sole of their boots, being more solid, and tending to prevent them from slipping on the snow.

The women wear, next the skin, a kind of bed-gown, made of fur, and open all the way before: it is not very wide, yet sufficiently so to lap over and tie together. This is the only garment they wear: they take care to keep it close before, but are not permitted to wear a girdle. In summer they go bare-footed, but in winter, at home, they wear stockings, like the men; their hair is braided into two tresses, behind, which hang down the back, and are tied together by a string. Added to this, the more opulent fasten on the hair, behind, two long strips of cloth, which reach to the joint of the knee, and are decorated with brass and copper-plates, representing little horses, rein-deer, fish, and other figures. Those that have not much hair, wind a piece of cloth about their heads, which crosses behind, and hangs down the back in two long strips. Both men and women wear long pendants in their ears, of coloured beads, strung on a wire or string; and several men wear rings in their ears. As soon as any one enters their tent, whether strangers or relations, the women cover their heads with a linen veil, and will not be unveiled, even before their own mother.

Among the women, it is reckoned an ornament to mark the back of the hands, and the fore-part of the arm, with various bluish figures and points; for this purpose, they draw the figure they mean to mark upon their skin with soot, and prick it with needles till it bleeds; in so doing, the puncture given with the needle leaves a blue speck, and the figure, being so pricked all over, remains on the skin. Men only prick on their hands that sign by which they are registered in the tax-book, and which is considered, by other tribes unskilled in writing, as their signature in law.

Whilst the other wandering tribes may be properly stiled shepherds, the Ostiacs may be called a nation of fishermen; for fishing, during the whole summer, and in part of the winter, is their chief occupation. Hunting and bird-catching are occasional employments. Such being the life of an Ostiac, it is naturally unsettled; of course, in summer-time, they move their habitations to places most adapted for fishing; but have settled habitations in winter, to which they annually return.

A summer-tent, among these people, is made without much trouble; the birch-bark, which covers it, is carried with them in boats, made of hollow trees, enlarged with boards fastened on them, as are also the poles with which they form their tents; these poles are set close together, in form of pyramids, and covered with the bark. In these boats they go, with their wives and children, and all that belong to them.

For their winter-abodes, they select elevated and dry spots, on the banks of the neighbouring rivers. Here they build, with young timber, regular square huts, similar to a Russian house, but low, sometimes half under ground, and without a roof, instead of which, they cover the top with turf and leaves, leaving only a square air-hole, which they cover, in winter, with a transparent piece of ice. On each side of this house is an open passage, fenced in, where they keep their superfluous furs and necessaries. Such huts are inhabited by more than one family; and the place, within the walls, is divided into as many apartments as there are families. Though narrow and confined, the mother must put up with one room, for the children and the whole family, who do their work before a small fire. Those mothers who have infants have a cradle, made of birch-bark, before their house, and fill it with any bruised rotten wood they can find, which serves the infant as a bed. The cradle is covered with a piece of fur, fastened to it by strings. The beds of such as are grown up are made, on the bare ground, with rein-deer furs and hay; except in such rooms where there are benches to lie on.

"It is almost impossible," says a respectable author, "to describe the extreme filthiness of this nation. Washing of hands is unknown among them, except when the women open a fish, or take it out of the boiler, at which time they wash off the filth, and dry their hands in the furs. Men and animals eat out of the same vessel, which is never cleaned. As their hair swarms with vermin, the most filthy of all their actions is that of the women, at their leisure, picking such vermin from their husbands' heads, and killing them, with all possible calmness, between their teeth. But the rich Ostiacs, from imitation, are become so cleanly, as to make a kind of soap, because what the Russians use is too scarce and dear, and not strong enough to clean their hands. This soap is made by putting a good quantity of sharp ashes into a kettle of water, and pouring, by degrees, fish-fat into the lye, which they boil together till it settles and becomes soap. They then take it out in pieces, tie it up in rags, and, when they wash their hands, squeeze it like a sponge. One reason of the filthiness of the common Ostiacs is, that the women have too much domestic business on their hands, and are considered, by their husbands, rather as slaves than consorts. The wife erects the tent, pulls it down, dresses the victuals, dries and mends her husband's clothes, and serves him in every thing; and, when the husband returns from hunting or fishing, she must clean and dress the fish. The men take nothing on themselves but the business of fishing and hunting."

During the summer-season they have such an abundance of fish, that they eat nothing else, and they seldom think of boiling or roasting them, but cut off the flesh, as it comes fresh out of the water, sauce it with its blood, which flows plentifully from about the tail, when pricked with a needle; and take one long slice after another into their mouths, cutting the bits very skilfully below their lips. In winter they are fond of raw frozen fish, and are imitated in this by the neighbouring Russians, who eat it so as a preservative against the scurvy. Fresh fish is only boiled for guests, and what they leave the family eats; and, on such occasions, they plunge their filthy hands into the kettle, up to their elbows. In winter they make a soup, or fish-broth, and put flour in it, and eat it with large spoons. Eating with a knife is held ominous of unsuccessful fishing.

In autumn, when the first snow falls, they hunt elks and rein-deer; and he that kills makes a feast for his friends. The kidneys, lights, and other soft parts, are eaten raw; part of the flesh is boiled, and the rest smoked. In winter, the Ostiacs travel in their snow-shoes far into the deserts and forests, and do not return for some months, drawing their food with them on small sledges. Their hunting weapons are all sorts of arrows, some with a fork-like point, others with bone points, and others clubbed at the end, to kill small animals. If they kill large animals in any great number, they flay them, bury the flesh in the deep snow, in a spot which they can find again, and fetch it, at some other time, with rein-deer or dogs. They will eat the flesh of bears, foxes, squirrels, and dead carcases, without disgust. When an Ostiac is exposed to severe cold, pain, and hunger, he has recourse to tobacco, which does him great service: so that they are very fond of smoking and taking snuff.

The dances of the Ostiacs are entirely national; and their ridiculous attitudes may be aptly compared to a burlesque pantomime. They divert themselves thus at their entertainments, and particularly when they have obtained a quantity of brandy, by barter, from the Russians. The men only dance, the women are merely spectators; and it requires no small adroitness, strength, and agility, for they always dance till they are in a perspiration. In these dances they represent the proceedings of their ancestors, in chace of a variety of animals and birds, and even in fishing. Sometimes they imitate the conduct and walk of the most singular animals and birds, and satirise the gait of their neighbours, all in musical cadence, which the player varies, according to the different imitations. They represent the chace of the sable, the manners of the crane and elk, and the flight and preying of the mouse-hawk, the manner of the Russian women washing themselves, and other entertaining subjects. The most difficult representation is that of the crane; when the dancer squats down, hides himself in a fur, the collar of which he fastens round a long stick, which at top resembles the head of a crane, and thus squatting, and almost bent double, he dances, and imitates, with the stick, all the motions of a crane. At the representation of the elk, the music imitates the several actions of the animal, walking, trotting, and galloping; and the dancer makes all the grimaces of that animal, when he is throwing about his eyes in search of the huntsman. Their most favourite dances are satiric representations, and they are fond of ridiculing particular persons, in extemporaneous songs.

With respect to marriage, those Ostiacs, who adhere still to paganism, take as many wives as they can afford. It is legal among them to marry their brother's widow, their step-mother, or step-daughter, and other relations. They are fond of marrying sisters of other families, and believe that men's marrying with a wife's sister brings good luck; and, by doing this, they pay the father only half the price first paid; but they hold it sinful and disgraceful to marry relations of the same name; yet they attend only to the male line. If a woman have married into another family, and borne a daughter, the brother of the mother, or his children, may legally marry that daughter. In short, all marriages are legal, if only the father of the bride and bridegroom are of different families. Their marriage forms and ceremonies are similar to those of the Samoiedes.

Previous to their subjugation by the Russians, the Ostiacs had princes among them, whose dignity was hereditary. Some of their posterity are still in being, but not much respected; living, in the manner of the common people, by their labour. If any dispute happens among the people, it is generally settled by arbitration; but, if the cause is brought before any Russian court of judicature, it is adjusted by the evidence of the parties, and the following oath is usually administered. A wooden idol being brought, the defendant is reminded of the danger of taking a false oath, and constrained to cut off the idol's nose, with an axe or knife, and injure it otherways; during this, he must repeat, after the interpreter, the following words: "If I do not speak the truth in this cause, let my nose be cut off in the same manner; let me be hewn in pieces by an axe; let the beasts of the forests tear me; and every misfortune come upon me!" By the same oath the witnesses are sworn; and, out of superstitious fear, will rather confess they are in the wrong, than expose themselves to the punishment of their gods. If they are to swear allegiance to a new sovereign, they are assembled in little circles, an axe is placed in the middle, with which a bear, or bear-skin, has been cut in pieces; and each person is presented with a bit of bread, on the point of a knife; during this he is to take the oath of allegiance, as follows: "If I do not remain faithful to the emperor, to the end of

my life; if I revolt, or do not pay my tribute; or, if I leave my country, or do any other act of perfidy, let me be torn by the bear, or choked with this bread I eat; let the axe cut off my head, or let me be killed by this knife!" This done, they kneel down about a bear's skin, and lay hold of it with their teeth, biting it; and many, to shew their zeal, will tear out the hairs with their teeth. Similar obligations, on oath, are customary, with a bear's skin, among most of the tribes in Siberia.

The blindest idolatry is still the reigning religion of many of the Ostiacs. Those who, among their magicians, profess paganism, have their idols at home; which are clumsily-carved puppets, with a human face, clothed with rags, and put in the best corner of the tent. Before each idol they place a small wooden box, in which the worshipper presents his god with little presents, and keeps always for him a horn full of snuff. They industriously smear the idol's mouth with fish-fat, and render him every honour, in their way. Some Ostiacs have deified pieces of logwood, little boxes, and other things they have bought from the Russians. Such things they decorate in the best manner they can, with rings and ribands, and worship them, as others do their wooden puppets. It is truly laughable to see the effects of a Russian traveller taking out, at night, when they are all asleep, the tobacco from the horn, and leaving the horn in its place; the simple Ostiac, in such a case, supposes that the idol has taken all the snuff, is surprised at it, and thinks that he must certainly have been hunting. It can scarcely be credited, that such a people could be so blind and ridiculous, as to knock down the idol from its place, and break it in pieces, by various methods, when they are in trouble, and the god will not succour them; though they held the idol in the greatest veneration before. They also deify, in a certain manner, their deceased relations; making wooden images to represent some dead person they respected, and set, at their remembrance-meals, their portion before them. Women, that loved their husbands, will take these puppets to bed at night, dress them, and never omit placing some victuals before them, when they take their own meals.

Particular spots of ground are set apart for the purpose of sepulture. A corpse is never kept long; but he who dies in the morning is commonly interred at noon. Their graves are made, generally, only two feet deep; because, in most places, the frozen ground is too hard to be dug into deeper. The deceased is dressed in his best clothes, according to the season of the year, is put on a bench, and all things near him which he used; for instance, his knife, axe, tobacco-horn, &c. except his flint and fire-steel, which are only given to the dead carved in wood. The relations and neighbours of the deceased assemble in his jourt, and deplore him with great howling. The women sit together, with their faces veiled, and the men stand lamenting over the body. Instead of a coffin, they bring a little boat, whose fore and hind parts are cut off, put the deceased, with all his things, into it, and carry him to his grave. Men are borne by men, and women are carried by women only, to the place of interment, which is usually on some eminence. In the latter case, the corpse is followed by some men to dig the grave, and is interred with shrieks of woe. The corpse of a man is followed by three of the best rein-deer he possessed, dressed and harnessed to sledges, and led on by men. As soon as the body is interred, and covered with earth, they put a cord round the hind legs of the deer, which two men pull, whilst four others run them through the bodies, on all sides, with pointed poles. At the funerals of the rich, they kill many more rein-deer, putting slings about their necks and feet, and beating them about the back with poles, till they drop down dead. These animals, sacrificed to the deceased, remain on the grave; their housings are laid on a kind of scaffold, made over it with bushes, and the sledges are placed slanting up against it. Near the grave they dress a funeral-meal; and, when those who attend are satisfied, they carry the remainder home, and divide it among the neighbours, in remembrance of their deceased friend.

The Jakuti, one of the most considerable of all the pagan nations in Siberia, comprising, in ten tribes, thirty or forty thousand persons, are wholly subject and tributary to Russia. They have an idea of a Supreme Being; but the image they form of him is of hideous aspect: it has a big head, and large eyes of coral. They place it in a tree, and cover it with furs. Once a year they assemble together, and sacrifice horses, &c. to this image, sticking up the horses' heads all round the tree. Then, sitting down in a circle, they drink of a liquor, which they call *cumises*, and get intoxicated with it. They also throw some of the liquor into the air, and into a fire which they light on the occasion. This ceremony is performed in the spring, and is their new year's offering.

Their usual food is horse-flesh, which they devour with equal avidity, whether fresh or putrid. They are particularly fond of the use of tobacco, which they procure from the Russians.

Their habitations resemble those of the Samoiedes, excepting that their summer-huts are in the form of a sugar-loaf, covered with the bark of trees, and curiously wrought with horse-hair. The dead are generally left on the spot where they expire, and the survivors seek a new habitation.

The Bratski Tartars inhabit the vicinity of the Lake Baikal; and many of them attain to a considerable knowledge in mechanics and agriculture. Venison and horse-flesh constitute the chief part of their food; but the latter, in general, has the preference. They breed great

numbers of horses, as well as other cattle, by which means many of them obtain considerable property.

The Brabinski, who inhabit the vast desert of Barba, live still farther to the westward. In the summer, they remove to the banks of the rivers. Their winter habitations, like those in general of these northern climes, are low in the earth, and the roofs, which are raised about two or three feet, are covered with rushes or the skins of animals. As the dreary desert of Barba is void of fountains or rivers, the common drink of the inhabitants is melted snow. They also drink mares' milk, in common with the Tartars in general.

The Tungusi consist of various tribes, spread through different parts of Siberia, and are of the old Scythian race. They are divided into three classes, viz. the Konni Tungusi, or those who use horses; the Oleni Tungusi, or those who use rein-deer; and the Sabatschi Tungusi, or those who make use of dogs. They are of middle stature, and tolerably good countenance. Their sight and hearing are remarkably good; but their organs of smelling and feeling are rather defective.

Both sexes of the Sabatschi Tungusi, who take up their residence between the Lena and the Penchinska Ocean, go naked in summer-time, except having a small piece of skin round their waists. In winter, they are clothed with deer-skins. They believe in a superintending Providence, but reverence idols of their own construction. They hang their dead upon the branches of trees, and burn the bones as soon as the flesh rots off, or is devoured by animals.

These people are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their usual perambulations, and they can describe a course of some hundred miles by the configuration of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such descriptions. They also discover the tracks of the game by the compression of the grass or moss. They learn foreign languages with ease, are alert on horseback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The Tschutski are thus described by Captain Cook: "They were robust and well-proportioned; not any women or children of either sex were observed, nor any aged persons, except one man, whose head was bald; and he was the only one who bore no arms: the others seemed to be select men, and rather under than above the middle age. The elderly man had a black mark across his face, which was not perceived in any others. All of them had their ears perforated, and some of them had glass-beads hanging to them. These were the only fixed ornaments seen about them, for they wore none to their lips. The dress of these people consisted of a cap and frock, a pair of breeches, boots, and a pair of gloves, all made of the skins of deer, dogs, seals, and other animals, extremely well dressed, some with the hair or fur on, and others without it. The caps were made to fit the head very close; and, besides these caps, which most of them wore, some hoods were obtained from them, made of dogs' skin, and large enough to cover the head and shoulders. Their hair was apparently black; but their heads were either shaved, or their hair cut close off, and none of them wore any beards."

These people have their winter and summer habitations: the former are like a vault, the floor of which is sunk below the surface of the earth. One of them, examined by Captain Cook's people, was of an oval figure, about twenty feet in length, and twelve in height; the framing, consisting of wood and the ribs of whales, judiciously disposed, and bound together with smaller materials of the same kind. Over this framing, a covering of strong coarse grass was laid, and that again was covered with earth; so that, on the outside of the house, it had the appearance of a little hillock, supported by a stone wall, of the height of three or four feet, which was built round the two sides and one end. At the other end of the habitation the earth was raised sloping, to walk up to the entrance, which was by a hole in the top of the roof, over that end. The floor was boarded; and under it was a sort of cellar, in which was seen nothing but water. At the end of each house was a vaulted room, which was supposed to be a store-room, over which stood a kind of sentry-box or tower.

Their summer huts were of a tolerable size, and brought to a kind of point at the top. Slight poles and bones, covered with the skins of sea-animals, composed the framing. The inside of one being examined, there was a fire-place just within the door, where a few wooden vessels were deposited, all very dirty. Their bed-places were close to the side, and occupied about one half of the circuit: some degree of privacy seemed to be observed; for there were several partitions made with skins. The bed and bedding consisted of deer-skins, and most of them were dry and clean.

Their arrows are pointed either with stone or bone, but very few of them are barbed. Their spears are of iron and steel, and embellished with carvings and inlaying of brass, and of a white metal. A leathern quiver, slung over the left shoulder, serves to contain arrows: and some of these quivers are exceedingly beautiful.

The Kamschadales resemble the other inhabitants of Siberia in most instances, excepting that their visages are somewhat shorter, their mouths larger, and their cheeks fuller. Their hair is dark, their eyes are hollow, and the remarkable swarthiness of their complexion is attributed to the power of the sun reflecting from the snow; to obviate the effects of which, those who are obliged to be in the woods, cover their faces with a kind of netting; for this refraction injures not only the complexion, but the eye-

sight. They are uniformly below the middle stature; a circumstance which has been attributed to their entering into the conjugal state at the early age of thirteen or fourteen years.

In their disposition the Kamschadales are timid and pusillanimous, and, from an innate kind of stupidity, they seem to despise life. They never attack an enemy openly, unless constrained, but steal privately to their habitations, and there exercise the most horrid barbarities, cutting them in pieces, and even tearing out their entrails, with savage triumph. When they hear of the approach of a foe, they retire to some mountain, and fortify it as strongly as possible; if it appear that the enemy is likely to get the better, they murder their wives and children, and then encounter their assailants with the utmost fury; and, when overpowered, sell their lives as dearly as possible. They are, in general, exceeding slovenly, neglecting to wash themselves, comb their hair, or cut their nails. They eat out of bowls and troughs, with their dogs, nor do they even wash them afterwards.

The dress of the Kamschadales consists of the skins of various animals, with the fur outwards. They wear, in general, two garments, the sleeves of the outer reaching down to their knees. They have boots of dog or deer-skin, with the hair innermost; also a fur-cap, or hood, which serves to cover the head in bad weather. The dress of the men and women is nearly the same. The coat, or rather waistcoat, of the latter sits close to their bodies, and is decorated with slips of red, blue, and yellow cloth, and sometimes riband or woollen list. A kind of petticoat is joined to this waistcoat, that comes half way down the leg. The women let their hair grow much longer than the men.

There are, however, distinctions in their classes, and particularly those of the women, some of which are gay and pleasing. There is the common dress, composed of ordinary materials; the holiday dress, rather more decorated; and the grandest dress, consisting of a loose robe of white nankeen, gathered close round the neck, and fastened with a silk collar. A short jacket, without sleeves, is worn over this, consisting of different coloured nankeens: and they have petticoats, made of a slight Chinese silk. Their shifts, which are also made of silk, have sleeves descending to the wrists; and their heads are bound with coloured silk handkerchiefs, which entirely conceal the hair of the married women; but the unmarried ones place the handkerchief under the hair, permitting it to flow loosely down the shoulders.

Their habitations are of three kinds; the first adapted to the winter, the second to the summer, and the third of Russian introduction, and inhabited chiefly by the opulent. The winter-habitations, called *jourts*, are under ground, to the depth of about six feet. They are covered with grass or earth, and sometimes with skins of the animals they have killed in the field, which, being undressed, emit a most nauseous stench. Some of the huts, indeed, are covered with mats, and also lined with them. There is a cavity in the centre, which serves the purposes of chimney, window, and entrance. They pass in and out by means of a pole, with notches just deep enough to rest the toe upon. They have platforms, made of boards, raised about six inches from the ground, which they use as seats, and on which they repose, after strewing them with mats or skins. Near one corner is the fire-place; and the opposite side is set apart for the reception of provisions and culinary utensils. It is to be observed, that several families live together in one jourt.

Their summer-habitations, called *balagans*, are built on the surface of the earth, and constructed with more regularity than the jourts. They are raised on pillars about thirteen feet high from the surface, with beams thrown across them, on which is fixed a floor, with a roof rising from each side to a centrical point. It is found necessary to raise the summer-habitations to this height, to secure the inhabitants from the danger of wild beasts. The balagans have two doors, opposite to each other, and they ascend to them by the same kind of poles as they use in the jourts. The lower part, which is entirely open, is set apart for the purpose of drying fish, roots, vegetables, &c.

The log-houses, introduced by the Russians, are here called *isbas*. They are raised upon long timbers, piled horizontally; the ends are let into each other, and seem filled up with moss. The roof slopes like that of a European cottage, and is thatched with coarse grass or rushes. There are three separate apartments in them. The first runs the whole width and height of the habitation, and is appropriated to the reception of the more bulky articles, such as sledges, harness, and domestic utensils. The next is the middle and most commodious apartment, furnished with benches, for the purposes of eating and repose. The last is the kitchen, half of which is taken up by the fire-place, and so contrived in point of situation, as to convey heat to that and the middle apartment at the same time. In each apartment are two small windows. The beams and boards are smoothed, as well as possible, with a hatchet, and these, from the effects of the smoke, become very black and shining.

A town is called, by the natives, an *ostrog*, and consists of the three several habitations described; but the balagans are most numerous. European voyagers observe, that they never met, in the course of their travels in this country, with any kind of habitation detached from a town or ostrog.

"The marriage-ceremonies of the Kamschadales," says an intelligent writer, "are as singular as many other of their customs. When a man fixes his attention upon a

female, he binds himself to the service of the parents for a limited time, at the expiration of which he either obtains their consent to marry her, or a requital for his services upon dismission. If he obtain consent, they proceed to the nuptial-ceremonies, which consist in the bridegroom's stripping the bride of her clothes, which are purposely bound so fast with straps, girdles, and other ligaments, as to render it a very difficult task to accomplish his design. The bride is assisted against his efforts by the interposition of several women, notwithstanding which, he persists in his purpose, till her exclamations bring them all upon him, and he is subjected to very rough treatment, and exhibits several tokens of their indignation. At length the bride, moved with pity for his situation, and the women abating of their fury, the man gains his point, and, retiring to a short distance, is called back, in a plaintive tone, by the bride, who confesses his conquest over her. Here ends the ceremony; and the happy pair, the ensuing day, proceed to the habitation of the husband. In the course of a week they pay a visit to the parents of the wife, the relations of both parties are assembled, and the marriage is celebrated with great festivity. Some men marry three wives, who generally live together in an amicable manner. When the women go abroad, they veil their faces; and, if they meet a man. and cannot get out of the way, they turn their backs to him till he has passed by."

When one of the natives seeks the friendship of another, he invites him to his hut, which is made very hot for his reception, and he no sooner enters, than both strip themselves naked. The master of the hut then sets before his guest great plenty of his best provisions; and, while he is eating, throws water upon red-hot stones, till the heat of the place becomes insupportable. The visitor strives to bear it, and to eat up all the provisions, while the master of the hut endeavours to oblige him to complain of the heat, and to desist from eating. He eats nothing himself, but is allowed even to leave the hut, though the visitor is not suffered to stir, till he confesses he is overcome. They usually eat so much at these feasts, that for two or three days they can scarcely move, or bear the sight of victuals. At length the visitor, being unable to eat any more, purchases his dismission with presents of clothes, dogs, or whatever the master of the hut likes, and, in return, receives others of no value. But, if the man, who has obtained this advantage over his friend, does not soon return the visit, the guest pays him another, and then it is his turn to make him such presents as he is able.

The law of retaliation is strictly observed in Kamschatka. If a man takes away the life of another, the relations of the deceased avenge themselves upon the murderer. Theft is punished by depriving the thief of his fingers.

Some of the Kamschadales have a shocking custom, not only of neglecting the burial of their dead, but giving their carcases to the dogs, absurdly alledging, that, as the deceased are thus devoured by dogs, they will ensure to themselves a pleasant carriage in sledges drawn by fine dogs in the other world. This horrid practice, however, does not now prevail universally, some having the humanity at least to leave the dead in their hut, and go in quest of a new habitation. They always throw away the clothes of the deceased, from a persuasion, that whoever should wear them would soon meet with a similar fate.

Their entertainments and amusements are various. Sometimes one village entertains another, either upon account of a wedding, or their having had particular success in hunting and fishing. The master of the hut endeavours to make his guests sick with eating, and sometimes gives them a liquor, made of a large mushroom, prepared with the juice of a willow, which intoxicates them in so strange a manner, that they commit a thousand extravagancies; and, if the dose be too large, it sometimes proves fatal.

The mirth of the women consists in jesting and singing. At first they begin to sing very low, giving a gentle motion to their hands; but, by degrees, they raise their voice, and increase their motion, till they are out of breath. Their only musical instrument is the flute, upon which they play very indifferently. A stranger no sooner comes to Kamschatka, than they give him a new name, and, at their entertainments, mimic all his actions. They have also professed buffoons; but their wit is highly indecent. Their dances are very singular, the principal aim in these performances being to represent the clumsy gestures of the bear, which the inhabitants of this country have frequent opportunities of observing in various situations.

"The Kamschadale dances,' says M. de la Perouse, "can only be compared to those of the *convulsionnaires*, at the famous tomb of St. Medard; the dancers having occasion for nothing but arms and shoulders, and scarcely for any legs at all. The Kamschadale females, by their convulsions and contracted motions, inspire the spectators with a painful sensation, which is still more strongly excited by the mournful cry that is drawn from the pit of their stomachs, and which serves as the only music to direct their movements. Their fatigue is such during this exercise, that they are covered with perspiration, and lie stretched out upon the floor, without the power of rising. The abundant exhalations that emanate from their bodies perfume the whole apartment with a smell of oil and fish, to which European noses are too little accustomed to find out its fragrance. As the dances of all these nations have ever been imitative, and, in fact, nothing but a sort of pantomime, I asked what two of the women, who had just taken such violent exercise, had meant to express. I was told they had represented a bear-hunt. The woman, who rolled on the ground, acted the animal; and the other, who

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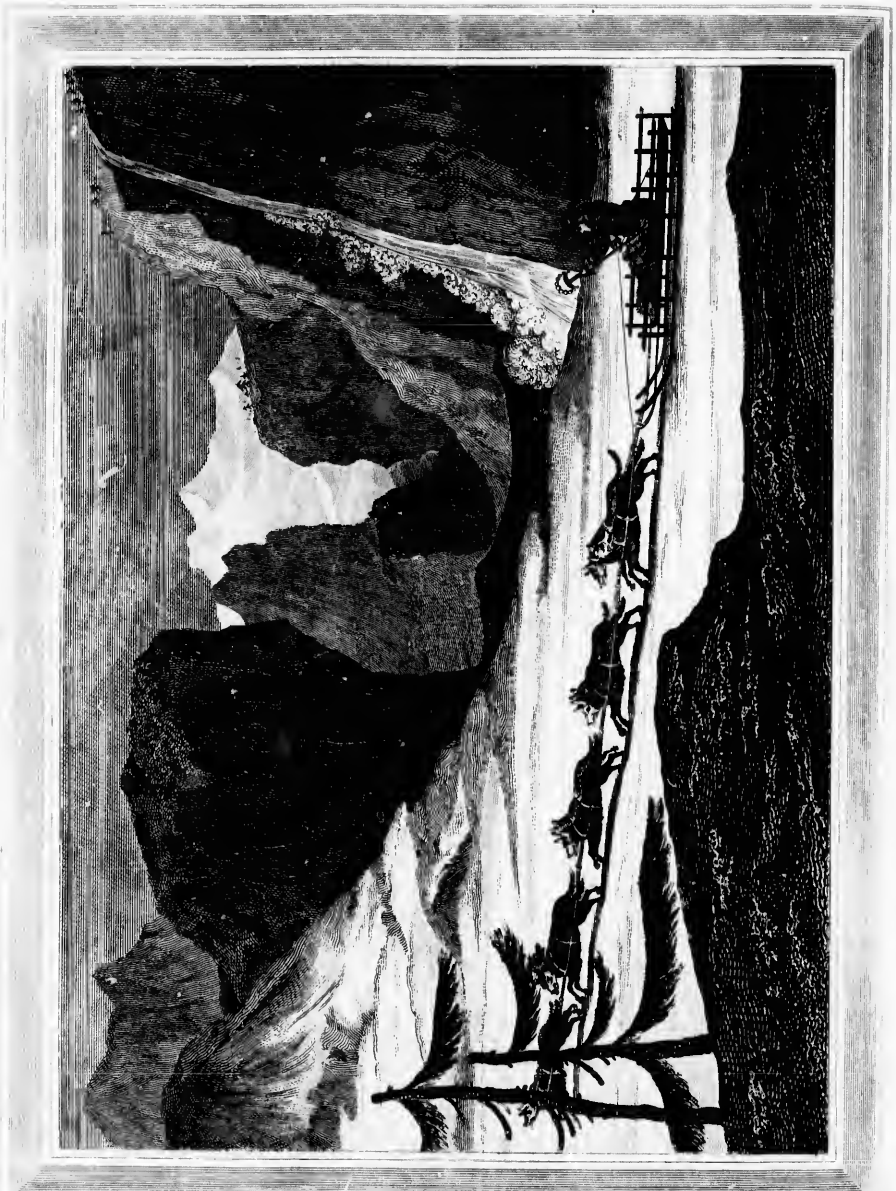

A SNOW SLEDGE DRAWN BY DOGS, AS USED IN KAMTSCHATKA

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One of the principal diversions of the natives is that of bear-hunting, which is followed about sun-set. Having found out the track of the animals, and fixed upon a convenient spot for concealment, the huntsmen put their fire-locks in a proper direction. They afterwards kneel, or lie down, as circumstances may require, and, having their bear-spears in readiness, wait the arrival of their game. On the discharge of the piece, the enraged animal makes immediately towards the place whence the sound and smoke issue, and furiously attacks his adversaries. If he should not happen to fall, and they have not sufficient time to reload their pieces, they immediately prepare to receive him upon their spears, their safety depending, in a great measure, on their giving him a mortal stab as he advances towards them. Should he parry the thrust, and break in upon his opponents, the conflict becomes dreadful; and it is seldom that the loss of a single life will satisfy the beast's revenge.

The Kamschadales always travel in sledges. The length of the body of the sledge is about four feet and a half, and the breadth twelve or fourteen inches. It is made in the form of a crescent, of light tough wood, fastened together with wicker-work; and those of the principal people are elegantly stained with red and blue, the seat being covered with furs or bear-skins. It has four legs, about two feet in height, resting on two long flat pieces of wood, of the breadth of five or six inches, which extend a foot beyond the body of the sledge at each end. These run up before, somewhat like a skait, and are shod with the bone of some sea-animal. The carriage is ornamented at the fore-part with tassels of coloured cloth and leather thongs. It has a cross-bar, to which the harness is joined; and links of iron, or small bells, are suspended from it, which, by the jingling, are supposed to encourage the dogs. They seldom carry more than one person at a time, who sits sideways, with his feet on the sledge, having his baggage and provisions in a bundle behind him. The usual number of dogs employed in drawing this carriage is four, though sometimes they use five. The reins, being fastened to the collar, instead of the head, have no great command, and are, therefore, usually hung upon the sledge, the driver depending principally upon the obedience of the animals to his voice. Great care and attention are consequently used in training up the leader, which frequently becomes very valuable, on account of his steadiness and docility; the sum of forty rubles, or ten pounds, being no unusual price for one of them. The rider has also a crooked stick, answering the purpose both of whip and reins, with which, by striking in the snow, he can regulate the speed of the dogs, or even stop them at pleasure. When they are inattentive to their duty, he often chastises them, by throwing it at them. The dexterity exhibited in picking this stick up again is very remarkable, and is the most difficult and necessary manœuvre in the exercise of their profession; for, if a driver should happen to lose his stick, the dogs immediately discover it, and unless their leader be both steady and resolute, they will instantly set off full speed, and never stop till their strength is exhausted, or till the carriage is overturned and dashed to pieces.

In the winter-season the dogs are fed on the offals of dried and stinking fish; and even this miserable food is withheld from them a day before they set out on a journey, and they are not permitted to eat a morsel of any thing till they arrive at the end of it. They are frequently kept fasting two entire days, in which time they will perform a journey of great extent. During the preparation for the journey, and the lashing of the baggage upon the sledges, these animals make a horrid howling; but, when they are yoked and ready for travelling, they set up a cheerful yelp.

The dressing of the skins of seals, beavers, dogs, &c. constitutes part of the employment of the Kamschadale. The mode is, first to wet and spread them out; then, with stones fixed in wood, to scrape off all the fat; they then rub them with caviare, roll them together, and tread on them; afterwards they scrape them again, and repeat the first part of their process, till the skin is thoroughly cleaned and rendered soft. In the summer the men are occupied in collecting the necessaries of life, and laying up a store for the ensuing winter's provision. The women are employed in making shoes, sewing clothes, dying skins, and making glue of the dried skins of fishes, and particularly of the whale.

Though many of these people adopt the Russian manners, despise the custom of their country, and have been instructed in the Christian religion by the Russian missionaries, they have, in general, a very imperfect idea of the Supreme Being, and think he can neither dispense happiness nor misery. They believe that the woods and burning mountains are inhabited by evil spirits, to which, from motives of fear, they make considerable offerings, and some of them have idols in their huts; while others reverence some particular animals, from which they apprehend danger.

The *Cossacks*, who have lately made so considerable a figure in military history, are distinguished into three tribes, known by the places where they made their first settlements; though all of them speak the same language, profess the same religion, and live under the same form of government. They were originally Polish peasants, who, being formed into a militia, were posted in the Ukraine, to oppose the incursions of the Tartars; but

finding themselves oppressed by their own lords, they turned their arms against them. In the first engagement they were defeated, and several of them fled to the banks of the Don or Tanais, at that time entirely uninhabited, where they established a colony. In 1637, they were joined by a considerable number of their countrymen, and soon after attacked and reduced the town of Asoph; but, on the approach of the Turkish army, were obliged to abandon that place, having first reduced it to ashes. Their next step was to put themselves under the protection of the Russians, and they built a town, which they called Circasky, on an island in the Don. Their settlement extended itself with surprising rapidity: thirty-nine towns, situated on both sides the river, from Rybna to Asoph, being built and peopled by them in a few years. They enjoy their own laws and customs, being exempt from tribute; neither do they furnish recruits, but, when summoned by the emperor of Russia, they appear in arms at their own expense. Though their country is fruitful they sow very little corn, subsisting chiefly on fish, flesh, and fruits; and their wealth consists in cattle, horses, camels, and dromedaries. They surpass the Russians in the neatness of their dress and houses, profess the Greek religion, and delight in war.

The internal government of the Cossacks is military and democratic. The captains and officers of the nations choose a chief, termed Hetman, who always resides at Circaska, and holds his authority during life; but he must first be confirmed by the emperor. His power extends over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen every year, and is accountable to the chief hetman at Circaska.

The Asiatic Cossacks are composed of part of the Don Cossacks, the Grebin Cossacks, and some other tribes, who, retiring from those who inhabited the south borders of Siberia, settled upon the Wolga, and are dependent upon Russia.

The Cossacks are usually mounted on a very little, but well-bred horse, which can walk at the rate of five miles an hour with ease, or, in his speed, dispute the race with the swiftest. With a short whip on his wrist, armed with a lance, a pistol in his girdle, and a sword, the horseman never fears a competitor in a single combat; but irresistably attacks every opposing squadron in the field.

Those who have not seen the achievements of the Cossacks may, perhaps, hesitate to credit their superiority in cavalry attacks; but what body, armed with sabres, can resist a lance, projecting six feet beyond the horses' heads, sustained by the firmest wrist, and impelled with the activity of the race-horse? The Cossack is not first armed with a lance when he proceeds to war, or when he attains to manhood; it is the toy of his infancy, and the constant exercise of his youth: so that he wields it, although from fourteen to eighteen feet in length, with the address and freedom that the best swordsman in Europe would use his weapon.

Their manner and way of living are perfectly free and unconstrained. Young people are continually amusing themselves with a variety of sports, and the old are not a little addicted to drinking and idleness. The female sex are not at a loss to give themselves pleasure and delight, as much in intrigue as in dress. The latter no ways differs from that worn by the Russians, except in the high collars of their shirts, and the form of their caps, which stand up straight in the front, are round and flat at top, and commonly very richly embroidered. That worn by the men is the common Cossack dress. There are among them some people of knowledge and good manners, and, about the river Jaik, are practised in politeness and cleanliness, which arise from their intercourse with foreign merchants. They were formerly very uncivilised, and had some very cruel customs. A creditor was authorised to seize his debtor, tie a rope about his left-arm, and lead him about publicly, or treat him as ill and contemptuously as he pleased, till his debt was paid, either by friends or by alms. But, as the right-arm is used among Popish Cossacks to make the sign of the cross, should the creditor tie his debtor's right-arm by mistake, he incurs a punishment for so doing, and loses all claim to the debt. When a wife has given her husband offence, he is at liberty to dispose of her by sale, at any of their public meetings, and the price paid is often but a trifle.

On all solemnities, both of church and state, the people assemble about the court-house, and are treated with bread, fish, and brandy.

Within the hall, the regalia being removed, the tables are spread with all sorts of strong liquors, dried fish, roe, or caviare, and bread, when the sovereign's health is drank by the hetman and starchins, officers of state.

Their courtship and nuptials deserve to be noticed. From the very day of a solemn betrothing, which is done with many ridiculous circumstances, to the day of marriage, which is seldom sooner than twenty weeks, all the young maidens of the bride's acquaintance assemble every evening at her house, and divert themselves with singing and dancing. During this time the bridegroom is authorised to take a husband's liberties with his bride, but with some secrecy. Before the wedding, the bridegroom presents her with a complete female-dress; and she, in return, presents him with a cap, boots, and shirt. When the nuptial-ceremony is over, the bride returns to her house from the church in an open waggon. Behind her sit her mother and the bride-maid, their fingers full of rings, and holding out on each side a piece of linen, to hide the bride's face from the spectators. Before the

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waggon walks the bridegroom, with his father and relations. Behind ride several, among whom is one carrying, at the end of a long pole, like a flag, a piece of stuff, striped with several colours, such as is worn by the Circassian women, by way of petticoat; and it is strange that the women of this district do not wear it likewise. The nuptials are next celebrated with dancing and singing, and mostly in the streets. Tartarian dances are frequent at such festivals; and there are many young people who perform the varied and innumerable motions of the body with great strength and wonderful agility.

They have among themselves shoe-makers, smiths, carpenters, &c.; and never suffer strangers of these denominations to settle among them. Some of the Cossack women make camblets, of different goodness and value: the most common sort is very durable and cheap; and they manufacture some of so superfine a quality, as not only to rival the camblets of Brussels, but would excel them, were it not for the defect common to all their drapery and stuff, that of being made in very small and narrow pieces. The Tartarian name of these stuffs is *armak*, and seems to have been invented by the Kirguses, whose women manufacture a coarse kind of camblet.

Breeding of cattle is one of the principal occupations of the Cossacks. Their horses live, both summer and winter, on the heaths, and never fare better, till when taken up to hard labour. The dry ground gives them a fine hard hoof, and renders shoeing unnecessary. On account of their breeding of cattle, many of the Cossacks have enclosures, or cattle-yards, on those parts of the heaths where there is the best pasture. Such Tartars as keep great flocks of sheep wander about with tents, made of felts; but the Russians erect wicker-huts, where they gather their sheep at night, and plaster these huts with mud. They drive large herds of cattle from the Jaik to the Volga, and transport great quantities of hides and tallow to those towns, where there are a great number of tanneries and soap-manufactories.

Another favourite branch of employ is hunting foxes, wolves, beavers, and wild boars. The season for this is the first three winter-months, when they are tracked in the snow: and they follow this business closely, especially when they have had an unsuccessful fishery. But the chief employment of the Cossacks, about the river Jaik, is fishing, wherein they are regulated by many customary laws. They fish but four times a year in that river, and only three of these seasons they consider of any importance. The first principal time is in January, when they fish with hook; the second is in May, and continues till June; the third, and least considerable, is the autumnal season, in October, and they finish in the beginning of December, with nets, which they set under the ice.

The brave Don Cossack, who arrived in London, in the spring of 1813, attended by Captain Bock, a Cossack officer, was in the fifty-fourth year of his age; his name was Alexander Wittischendst; and he had been allowed to retire from the service nearly fifteen years, with a pension, the reward of his courage and good conduct. When he heard of the invasion of his country by the French, he quitted his retirement, and voluntarily inrolled himself and his two sons in defence of native independence. He was dressed in the Cossack costume, with a large pistol stuck on his left side, a musket slung behind him, and a pike, upwards of ten feet long, shod with sharp iron.

His stature was about six feet; his make robust and manly; his features better, and his countenance, though rough and soldier-like, more expressive and gentle than the ideas that have generally been formed respecting his nation. His long and grey beard was very formidable, adding much to the power of his eyes, which, though light in colour, beamed forth above this grisley edge with much fire and fierceness. His hair, less grey than his beard, flowing unconfined and unadorned, was combed back over his neck, about the length of six inches, but on the forehead it was cut short. His dress consisted of a blue jacket and loose trowsers, of coarse cloth, with shoes very broad and round at the toes, as if designed to allow free action to his feet, on which he stood remarkably straight and firm. His hand was uncommonly broad in its spread, though his fingers were not long, and he managed his arms, consisting of a pistol, a musket, a sabre, and a long pike, with wonderful address and ease, and carried them without the least appearance of being encumbered by their weight, or inconvenienced by the length of his pike and musket.

This gallant veteran was sent over expressly for the purpose of gratifying British curiosity with a sight of one of those warriors who had done so much towards the deliverance of Europe.

On Wednesday, April the 14th, 1813, he appeared at the Royal Exchange, attended by the Lord Mayor, the city officers, &c. The crowd assembled to view this brave stranger was immense; and the huzzas were cordial and continued: he afterwards went up to the Mansion-House; and, in the evening, was introduced to their Royal Highnesses the Dukes of Sussex and Kent, at the Freemasons' Tavern, at a meeting of the Masonic Charity: and, on the 18th of the same month, he appeared in Hyde Park, mounted on a charger, belonging to Colonel Herries, with his pike, and equipped in his perfect military attire: he was received with very great marks of respect, by thousands of spectators.

Since the conclusion of peace, the British public have been gratified by a sight of the Hetman of the Cossacks, the victorious general Count Platoff, who acted a most prominent part in all the late Russian campaigns. It is

almost needless to add that he has been received with enthusiasm wherever he has made his appearance.

The following anecdotes of this celebrated warrior are too interesting to be passed over in silence:

After the battle of Zecherk, the French general sent a message to General Platoff, to request an armistice, in order that they might bury their dead. To this request Platoff answered, that, as the weather was so cold, there was no probability of any inconvenience arising from their being above ground, and that he should give himself no uneasiness about their interment; but hinted to them, to keep all such frivolous messengers in their camp, unless they wished to increase the number of their dead.

In the field of Preuss Eylau, when the cuirassiers had made their desperate charge on the Russian centre, and passed through an interval, the Cossacks instantly bore down on them, speared them, unhorsed them, and, in a few moments, five hundred and thirty Cossacks re-appeared in the field, equipped in the spoil of the slain. So again, after the battle of Eylau, when Buonaparte brought forward an immense mass of cavalry, to overwhelm the Russian rear-guards, commanded by Prince Bragration and by Platoff, the Hetman of the Cossacks, the latter, before they passed the bridges of the river which flowed behind them, and to which they had to descend, saw the impending danger, and began to press back in confusion. Platoff checked, but found the disorder increasing: he immediately sprang from his horse, exclaiming to the Cossacks, "Let those that are base enough abandon their Hetman." The corrected lines paused. He gradually moved; with a waving hand kept back those who trespassed; sent his orders with calmness; reached the town in order; halted at the bridge until every man had passed; destroyed it, and, still on foot, proceeded on the other side of the town, struggling ankle-deep through the heavy sand; nor could the most tremendous cannonade, and the incessant fire of the French battalions crowning the opposite heights, and who commenced their volleys as they formed successively, accelerate his pace, or induce him to mount his horse, until the object was attained, and superior duty called him to the direction of other operations. His mien, his venerable and soldier-like appearance, his solemn dignity of manner, combined with the awful incidents of the scene to render this one of the most imposing and interesting sights that could be witnessed.

After the close of the campaigns of 1806-7, the King of Prussia was so grateful for his services, that he felt anxious for some further distinction for him, he having already received both the red and black Eagle; in fact, he had exhausted all the honours for military achievements. On this occasion, the late amiable Queen of Prussia most graciously discovered the compliment that would be most gratifying to him, and presented him, with her own hand, with a beautiful heron's plume. Platoff received it with enthusiasm, and with the most grateful emotion; but supplicated, on his knee, permission that his wife might wear it on solemn occasions, "as he should contemplate it with suitable veneration, when borne by one who was more worthy than himself of the honour."

At the treaty of Tilsit, when the French generals sent to request leave to present their compliments to him in person, he sent answer, that "there might be peace between his sovereign and Buonaparte, but no civilities between him and them;" and immediately gave orders for his sentinels not to admit any Frenchman within his lines.

At the commencement of the late war, Platoff, in consequence of an insult offered him by the Corsican tyrant, issued a proclamation, in which he promised any man who brought him the body of Buonaparte, dead or alive, the sum of twenty thousand rubles, and, as a further reward, his daughter, the fair Miss Platoff, in marriage. Unfortunately, however, she did not obtain a husband; although she had as near a chance of a wedded life as any person; if it be true that, as the Cossacks entered a house in pursuit of Buonaparte, he jumped out of a window, and by that means evaded his vigilant pursuers.

History.] The Russians, though they had made some incursions into the interior parts of Asia as early as the middle of the fifteenth century, under the reign of John Basilides, had no fixed establishment there till nearly the middle of the sixteenth, when Trogonoff, a Russian merchant of Archangel, having found means to open a trade for furs with Siberia, the czar then on the throne, Ivan Vassilievitch II., to whom he disclosed the nature of his connexions, promised him protection; and, in 1558, assumed the title of Lord of Siberia. Soon after, Yermac, a chief of the Don Cossacks, being compelled, by the progress of the Russian conquests, to submit, or seek some distant place of refuge, retired, with a number of his followers, into Siberia, where, having defeated the Tartar khan of Siberia, he seized his capital, and made it his residence; but, finding himself too weak to preserve his conquests, he applied to Russia for succours and protection, and sent a deputation to do homage to the czar, as his sovereign. In the course of two or three years after, almost all the Cossacks were killed in repeated battles, and Yermac himself was drowned in attempting to leap into a boat. The Russians, however, after many conflicts, secured to themselves the possession of this extensive country; and, by the middle of the seventeenth century, had advanced to the river Amur, where they built some forts, which occasioned hostilities between them and the Chinese, who destroyed the Russian forts. These disputes were terminated by the treaty of Nershinsk, concluded in 1689, by which the Argoon was made the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territories. The limits of the former wer

somewhat enlarged in 1727. Kamschatka was reduced under the power of the Russians about the year 1711.

In the late war the Don Cossacks rendered themselves particularly conspicuous; and the following letter from General Field-Marshal Prince Kutusoff, of Smolensko, to his eminence Ambrosius, the metropolitan of Novogorod and St. Petersburgh, dated January the 4th, 1813, will afford a proof of the veneration which they entertain for their religion; and the very high estimation in which their valour was deservedly held by the Russian commander:

"Bestow your benediction on this present, offered by our warriors to the Giver of Victory. The brave Don Cossacks restore to God the treasure plundered from his temples. They have entrusted me with the duty of transmitting to your eminence this silver, once the ornament of the images of the saints—afterwards the prey of barbarous robbers—and, at length, wrested from their gripe by the brave Don Cossacks. The leader of this corps of Cossacks, Count Matwei Iwanowitsch Platoff, all his brave warriors, and myself, wish that this plate, which in weight amounts to forty puds, shall be made into images of the four evangelists, and adorn the church of the mother of God of Kasan, in St. Petersburgh. All the necessary expenses of casting these holy images we take on our account. Your eminence will have the goodness to order that able artificers may be employed to fulfil the pious wish of our warriors, by casting these images of the Holy Evangelists, which they offer in their zeal for the temple of God. As soon as you shall inform me what the expense will be, I will remit you the money. It appears to me, that these images would be appropriately placed close to the door of the sanctuary, and before the great communion-table, that they may strike the eye of the devout, when they enter the temple. On the pedestal of each of the images must be engraven the following inscription: "The zealous offering of the corps of Don Cossacks." Hasten to erect in the temple of God this monument of battle and victory, and, while you erect it, say, with thankfulness to Providence, "The enemies of Russia are no more: the vengeance of God has overtaken them on the soil of Russia; and the road they have gone has been strewed with their bones, to the utter confusion of their frantic and proud ambition."

CHAPTER VIII.

JAPAN.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.

THE Japanese empire may, in some degree, be compared with the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; as forming a grand insular power, near the eastern extremity of Asia, similar to that of the British Isles near the western extremity of Europe.

This empire extends from the thirtieth to the forty-first degree of north latitude; and, according to the most recent maps, from the thirty-first to the one hundred and forty-second degree of east longitude from Greenwich. Besides many smaller isles, it presents two considerable ones in the south-west, that of Kiufin and that of Sikokf. But by far the most important island is that of Nipon, to the north-east of the former. The geography of Kæmpfer has been corrected by recent voyagers, according to which the length of Kiufin, from north to south, is about a hundred and forty British miles, the greatest breadth about ninety. Sikokf is about ninety British miles in length by half the breadth.

The grand isle of Nipon is in length, from south to north-east, not less than seven hundred and fifty British miles; but is so narrow in proportion, that the medial breadth cannot be assumed above eighty, though in two projecting parts it may double that number. These islands are divided into provinces and districts.

To the north of Nipon is another large isle, that of Jesso, which, having received some Japanese colonies, is generally regarded as subject to Japan; but, being inhabited by a savage people, it is rather considered as a foreign conquest than as a part of this civilized empire.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The heat, during the summer-months, is extremely violent, and would be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea-breezes; and the winter is equally severe, particularly when the wind blows from the north to north-east. Thunberg observes, that the greatest degree of heat at Nagasaki was ninety-eight degrees in the month of August; and the severest cold in January thirty-five degrees; but the season he spent there was unusually mild. The weather is changeable throughout the year; and there are heavy falls of rain, especially in the rainy months, which begin about Midsummer. Thunder is very frequent; and tempests, hurricanes, and earth

quakes, are visitations to which the inhabitants are so much accustomed, that they pay little attention to them, unless they happen to lay villages and towns in ruins. They then have recourse to extraordinary acts of worship; and sometimes even proceed to offer human victims, to propitiate their deities.

The soil of Japan is naturally steril; but, in consequence of the infinite pains that are taken to improve it, and the advantages of its climate, it is rendered sufficiently fertile, and produces abundant crops.

Vegetables.] Among the vegetable productions of Japan are rice, wheat, barley, and beans. With the barley they feed cattle; the fine wheat they convert into cakes; and of two kinds of beans, they grind one into meal, to boil for eating, and with the other make a sort of preserve for deserts. They have also many other species of grain. They have various flowers and herbs; and their tea is esteemed particularly excellent. A great number of camphire-trees grow near the hot-springs, which resemble laurels, and bear purple or black berries. The cedars of this country are excellent, and many other trees, as plautains, &c. some of which, when cut asunder, exhibit admirable figures of birds, beasts, landscapes, &c. Of these are made many curious pieces of furniture, which, when polished, have a fine effect.

No country presents stronger proofs of agricultural skill and industry, and yet neither rewards nor encouragements are necessary. Husbandmen are considered as the most useful class of citizens, and they are treated accordingly. They neither groan under oppressions, nor do they labour for others. The taxes indeed are heavy, but they are paid in kind; and the farmer is at full liberty to cultivate the soil in that manner which he conceives will be most advantageous to him.

Animals.] Among the quadrupeds of this country the principal are buffaloes, elephants, oxen, horses, and deer, together with many wild beasts, that yield very valuable furs. The horses, though small, are uncommonly swift, and extremely beautiful. Neither sheep nor goats are found in this extensive country, 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 the few that appear were probably introduced by the Chinese. There are but few cows; nor do the natives either use their flesh or milk, but employ them only in ploughing and drawing carts. A few dogs are kept from motives of superstition, and cats are favourites of the women; but foxes, which inhabit some parts of the country, are considered as incarnate demons. Hens and ducks are domesticated, chiefly on account of their eggs. The ducks are remarkable for their size, shape, and beauty, as are the nightingales for their melody.

Near the river Miacos were seen a great number of pelicans, which built their nests in pine-trees, all along the road.

There is here a species of white ant, which, though pleasing to the eye, is very mischievous; for they pierce, with their little snouts, every thing they come near, except metal and stone, and gradually damage all kinds of goods, if not prevented from approaching them, by strewing the adjacent place with salt, which these little insects abhor. The beetles make an agreeable kind of humming noise, which gradually rises to a pretty high note. But the night-fly exceeds all the other insects for its beauty. The body is about three inches long, round, and finely shaped. It has four wings; two close to the body, which makes a very brilliant appearance, by means of the lustre of the blue and gold streaks with which they are tinged; and two above these, whose transparency not only admits of the others being seen through them, but even adds to their brilliancy. Sea and river-fish are found in Japan, in great abundance and variety.

Minerals, &c.] Gold is found in several parts of Japan; but, that it may not lose its value by being too plentiful, it is prohibited to dig more than a certain quantity; and none can be exported, either in bullion or in coin. The richest gold-mine is situated in the largest of the Nipon islands, near Sado. The next most valuable is in Suruga. Considerable quantities of this precious metal are also extracted from cupreous pyrites, dissolved by brimstone. Silver seems to be less plentiful than it was formerly; and it is more esteemed, according to the comparative value, than gold, which is so much more abundant.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] The rivers of Nipon have not been delineated with much care. Among the few named are the Nogafa and the Jedogawa, which passes by Osaka, where it is crowned with several bridges of cedar, from three hundred to three hundred and sixty 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 the rainy season. Fusigawa is also a large and rapid river, as is that called Sakgawa. The largest river, however, seems to be the Jodo, which flows in a south-west direction from the central lake of Oitz. This lake emits two rivers, one towards Miaco, the other towards Osaka. It is said to be fifty Japanese leagues in length, each about an hour's journey on horseback; and the breadth is very considerable.

Mountains, Volcanoes, Whirlpools, &c.] The principal mountain in Japan is that of Fusi, covered with snow almost throughout the year. Many of the mountains are overgrown with wood, and some are richly cultivated.

Japan is remarkable for its volcanic mountains: particularly near Firando, there is a small rocky island, that has been burning and trembling for many centuries; and at a

small distance from the coast is another, which has thrown out lava, and other combustible matter, at different intervals, for several ages. On the summit of a mountain, in the province of Figo, a perpetual flame continually issues. Sometimes a black smoke, accompanied by a very disagreeable stench, is observed to issue from the top of a famous mountain, called Feri. This mountain is said to be nearly as high as the pike of Teneriff; and its top is perpetually covered with snow. Unsen is a large, though not very high, mountain, near Timabra; its top is constantly bare, and of a whitish colour, from the sulphur upon it; and its smoke may be discerned at the distance of several miles. The earth is, in several places, burning hot, and is so loose and spongy, that, except on a few spots, where trees grow, one cannot walk over it, without being in continual fear from the crackling hollow noise perceived under foot. Its sulphureous smell is so strong, that, for the space of many miles round, there is not a bird to be seen; and, when it rains, the water is said to bubble up, and the whole mountain to appear as if boiling.

On the coast of Japan there are two remarkable and dangerous whirlpools. One, near Simabara, is, at high-water, even with the surface of the sea; but the tide no sooner begins to ebb, than, after some violent turnings, it suddenly sinks to the depth of fifteen fathoms, swallowing up, with great force, the ships, boats, and whatever comes within its reach, dashing them to pieces against the rocks at the bottom, where they sometimes remain under water, and at others are thrown out again, at several miles distance. The other, which lies near the coast of the province of Kijnokuni, rushes with a loud boisterous noise about a small rocky island, which, by the violence of the motion, is kept in a perpetual trembling. But, though this has a very formidable appearance, it is esteemed less dangerous than the other; for, its noise being heard at a considerable distance, it may easily be avoided.

Cities and Towns.] JEDDO, the capital of the Japanese empire, and the residence of the kubo, or emperor, is situated on a bay in the south-east side of the island of Nipon. It is in the form of a crescent, and intersected, in almost every street, by canals of water, shaded on each side with rows of trees. These canals not only serve as ornaments to the city, but are of great utility in case of fire, as they both afford a ready supply, and stop the progress of the conflagration. The city is not surrounded by walls, but has a strong castle to defend it. The river Tonkag supplies the castle-ditch, and, being divided into five streams, has a bridge over each. The principal of these bridges is the standard from which all the roads, posts, and distances, in the empire are taken. As the city of Jeddo is very large, so it is also proportionally populous, on account of the vast number of strangers that flock to it from all parts of the country. Towards the streets there are always either work-shops or ordinary sale-shops. The former are generally screened from the view of passengers in the street by a cloth, so that the artisans cannot be seen; but the sale-shops exhibit patterns of their respective commodities.

The imperial palace is a most noble building, comprising many streets, courts, pavilions, guard-houses, gates, draw-bridges, gardens, canals, &c. It is surrounded by three high walls, and as many deep ditches, with large intervals between each; and the water is conveyed from one ditch to another by subterranean pipes, so that they are always equally full. These walls have eight or nine stately gates opposite to each other, and between every two gates there is first a level piece of ground, and then an ascent by steps into certain outworks, with another area beyond them, where a thousand men may be drawn up on any emergency; so that the avenues to the imperial apartments are sufficiently secured. In the space between the first and second wall live the princes, chief nobility, and governors of the provinces, in stately edifices, according to their rank and office; and the ornaments and furniture within are answerable to their external appearance, it being esteemed a mark of respect to the monarch to strive to excel one another in the riches and splendor of their houses and furniture. Between the second and third wall live the emperor's relations and principal counsellors, each in separate apartments, or rather palaces, extremely grand and beautiful. In the centre of all, within the third enclosure, are the imperial apartments, consisting of a great number of spacious halls, chambers, and offices, for the emperor, his wives, and attendants, all of them richly furnished. These apartments are three rows of buildings, nine stories high, formed on the top like pyramids, and crowned with large gilded dolphins. The ceilings of the halls and chambers are plated with gold and silver, curiously wrought, and enriched with a variety of precious stones. The hangings are of the richest silk, flowered with silver and gold, pearl, and other embellishments. In the hall of audience, where the emperor receives ambassadors, there is a throne of massy gold, set with large gems. The roof, which is very lofty, is also plated with gold, richly enamelled with curious figures and landscapes, and supported by stately gilded columns. The gardens behind the apartments are laid out in an elegant taste, and are most agreeably diversified with terraces, canals, fish-ponds, water-works, and other ornaments. Nor must we omit to mention the noble theatre in the area before this inner court, where plays are frequently acted for the diversion of the imperial family Upon the whole, this amazing palace, which is five or six miles in circumference, looks like a populous and opulent city within itself, inhabited by princes and nobles, and by the eldest sons of all the great men of the empire, who are educated there, and kept as pledges of their fathers' fidelity.

The temples at Jeddo are very numerous and splendid, particularly that of Amida, one of their principal deities, which is almost covered with gold. The statue of that deity is on horseback, placed on a magnificent altar, covered with plates of the same metal; and the housings of the horse are also embroidered and enriched with pearls, diamonds, and other gems. Nothing can be more frightful however, than the figure under which he is represented; and, indeed, many idols of the Japanese are formed in the most monstrous shapes imaginable.

As fires are very frequent, the utmost vigilance is used to lessen or prevent the danger. One watch is kept in Jeddo to announce the hour, and another expressly for the prevention of fires.

This city is under the direction of two governors, who rule alternately for the space of one year. Under these are inferior officers, who have the direction of particular districts or wards; and subordinate to these are the *ottonas*, who have each the care of a particular street.

Miaco, the ancient metropolis of the empire, is situated on a pleasant and extensive plain, on the southern coast of the island of Japan, being surrounded at some distance by mountains, which give a pleasing and romantic prospect to the whole, particularly as the circumjacent country, between the city and the mountains, and the mountains themselves, are covered with temples, sepulchres, and monasteries, and embellished with a variety of orchards, gardens, groves, cascades, and purling streams.

This fertile plain is watered by three considerable rivers, which unite their streams in the centre of the city, where a magnificent stone-bridge facilitates the communication between the upper and the lower town. Here are established many beautiful manufactures in velvets and silks, wove with gold and silver, and in most kinds of metals. Here the coin is struck and stamped, and the celebrated Japanese copper is smelted, refined, and manufactured.

The emperor having discontinued his residence here, the city of Miaco has greatly declined; so that, according to the best authorities, it does not, at present, contain above a hundred thousand persons. The universities, colleges, monasteries, and temples, are very magnificent; but the private houses are but two stories high, built of wood, and covered with clay, or thatched. Neatness, however, is united with simplicity; and every trade or calling has its particular district.

The palace of the Dairi is situated on the north part of the upper town: it contains a small garrison, is six hundred yards in length, has a tower in the centre, and is surrounded by two ditches, the one dry, the other full of water, and abounding with the most delicious fish. So extensive is this palace, that it might be deemed a city of itself. It is enclosed by magnificent walls, flanked with stately towers, and surrounded with a double ditch. It contains twelve capital streets, in the centre of which are the royal apartments, superbly gilt, elegantly furnished, and adorned with gardens, orchards, pavilions, terraces, groves, &c.

Of all the religious structures, which are numerous here, that of Daibud is not only the largest, but the most remarkable. This temple stands on ninety-six pillars, and has several lofty, but narrow, entrances. The body of the pile consists, as it were, of two stories, which run into each other, and consequently have a double roof, the uppermost of which is supported by painted pillars, about six feet in diameter.

The image of the idol Daibud, which stands in the middle of the temple, is calculated to strike the spectator with terror. This image is in a sitting posture, and raised about two yards from the ground, with its legs placed before it, in the Indian manner. The ears are pendulous, the hair short and curling, the shoulders naked, the body covered with a wrapper, the right arm elevated, and the left laid edgeways against the belly. So enormous is the magnitude of this symbolical representation of the greatness of the deity, that six men may sit on the palm of its hand.

The emperor, who cannot personally visit this temple, annually sends an ambassador in his stead; and all his subjects, of every rank and condition, are bound to take a pilgrimage hither at least once in their lives; though many, from a principle of devotion, go frequently.

Osaeca is deemed the chief sea-port in the empire. It is nearly fifteen miles in circumference, contains many elegant houses, and some palaces, belonging to the nobility. The river Jegodawa washes the town, and, by means of different canals cut from it, refreshes all the principal streets. The citadel is of considerable extent, and tolerably strong. Across the river are many fine bridges of cedar, which preserve a communication with the different parts of the town.

Two officers command here: one has the superintendance of the castle, and the emperor's treasures, stores, and customs; the other presides over the garrison. But the city itself has a governor of its own, who has the regulation of all civil affairs. The houses are covered with a kind of yellow earth, which gives the roofs an elegant appearance. The mode of announcing the hour of the night, by the watchmen, is very singular: an hour after sunset, they beat a drum; the succeeding hour is signified by striking on a brazen bowl; and the hour subsequent to that by ringing a bell: the next hour, they begin again with the drum, proceed to the bowl and bell, and so continue the whole night, using the three instruments alternately. In all other parts of the empire, however, the hour is told by beating with two wooden cylinders against each other.

CANGOXIMA, remarkable for being the spot on which the Portuguese first landed, is a sea-port. It lies in thirty-one degrees forty-two minutes north latitude, and one hundred and thirty-three degrees sixteen minutes east longitude. A strong castle is built on a rock in the harbour, and a light-house on another very high rock in the harbour. A good garrison is kept here, and many stately temples adorn the city.

NAGASAKI, the nearest city to the Dutch factory, is one of the five towns called Imperial; and, on account of its foreign commerce, is one of the most bustling in the empire. It belongs separately to the secular emperor; he appoints a governor in his name, who is annually changed; but, after the expiration of a year, generally returns to his post; so that, in fact, there are two governors, one in office, and the other out. The town is surrounded, on the land side, by high mountains, that slope off gradually towards the harbour, which is generally full of shipping. The island of Dezima, which the Dutch rent for a factory, may be considered merely as a street belonging to Nagasaki. It has a communication with it by a bridge, and, at low water, is only separated from it by a ditch.

Roads, &c.] The roads in Japan are broad, and furnished with ditches to carry off the water. They are generally kept in good repair; but before the Dutch make their annual journey to the capital, they are fresh strewed with sand, and every species of filth is removed. In hot and dusty weather they are also watered. Their sides are frequently planted with hedges, of various kinds: among the rest, Thunberg found the tea-shrub, very commonly used for this purpose.

Mile-posts are set up, which not only indicate the distance, but also point out the road; and, in fact, not any thing is omitted that can contribute to the security and accommodation of the traveller, which might be expected among a people far advanced in civilization. The roads of Japan, however, when once made, cost little to keep them in a perfect state of repair. No wheel-carriages, for pleasure, are known in this empire; and travellers either go on foot or on horseback, unless they are of high rank, when they are carried in cangos, or norimons.

The cango is a square kind of close box, approaching the shape of a sedan-chair, but destitute of its elegance or convenience.

The norimons are made of thin boards and bamboo canes, in form of an oblong square, with windows before and on each side. Over the roof runs a long edged pole, by which the chair is supported on the bearers' shoulders. It is so large, that a person may sit or lie in it at his ease, and is richly adorned. The number of porters are in proportion to the rank of the person, and they alternately relieve each other. They generally sing some air in concert, which regulates their pace.

Travellers on foot wear out their shoes in this country very fast, and as easily replace them. They are made of plaited rice-straw, and are sold, at a very low rate, in every village, even the most inconsiderable. Hence shoe-making forms the employment of numerous hands. Even the horses are shod with straw, instead of iron. They are tied above the hoof with strings of the same materials; and, in slippery roads, are extremely convenient, though they cannot be very durable.

Language and Literature.] The Japanese language is written, like the Chinese, in straight lines, upwards and downwards, but the letters are quite different, and the language, on the whole, so dissimilar, that those two neighbouring nations cannot understand each other without an interpreter. The Chinese language, however, is much read and written at Japan, and is used by the learned in particular. Thunberg, with great difficulty, made some progress in the current tongue of this country, and even formed a vocabulary of some of its most usual colloquial terms.

In literature, the Japanese yield to few of the oriental nations. They consider house-keeping, or domestic economy, as an indispensable science; and, next to this, every Japanese is versed in the history of his country. 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.

Religion.] The religion of Japan is Polytheism, united with the acknowledgment of a Supreme Creator. There are two principal sects. The first acknowledge a Supreme Being, far above the worship of man; whence they adore the inferior deities, as mediators. 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. They abstain from animal-food, detest bloodshed, and will not touch a dead body.

Although the professors of this religion believe that their gods know all things, and that, therefore, it is unnecessary to pray to them, they have both temples and stated holydays. Their 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 no visible idol is exhibited, nor any image designed to represent the Supreme Invisible Being: though they sometimes keep a small image in a box, representing some inferior divinity, to whom the temple is consecrated. In the

centre of the building is frequently placed a large mirror, made of cast metal, well polished, which is intended to remind those that come to worship, that, as their personal blemishes are faithfully pourtrayed in the mirror, so the secret blemishes of their hearts lie open to the penetrating eyes of the gods.

The priests are either secular or monastic; the latter alone are entrusted with the mysteries. There are likewise several orders of monks and nuns, as in the Roman Catholic system; though the festivals and modes of worship are very cheerful, 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 observed as a holyday.

The doctrine of their philosophers and moralists partakes of the Epicurean, though it acknowledges, that the purest source of pleasure is a virtuous life. This sect does not allow inferior gods, temples, nor religious ceremonies.

Some Jesuit missionaries arrived in Japan in the year 1549, and their successors continued to diffuse their doctrine till 1638, when, among other persecutions, thirty-seven thousand Christians were massacred; and, in 1590, upwards of twenty thousand are said to have perished. The pride and avarice of the Portuguese, together with the vain ambition of the Jesuits, who endeavoured to introduce themselves into the governing councils of the nation, first conspired to render odious the religion which they professed, and afterwards to produce this melancholy catastrophe; the existence of the Christian faith being, through such perversion, found incompatible with that of a state otherwise universally tolerant. Since that memorable epoch, Christianity has been held in the greatest detestation; and the cross, with its other symbols, are annually trampled under foot.

This ceremony is performed for the purpose of imprinting on every one an abhorrence of the Christian doctrine, and of the Portuguese, who attempted to propagate it, and at the same time to discover whether any remains of it are left among the Japanese. The trampling is performed in such places as were formerly most frequented by the Christians.—In the town of Nagasaki it continues four days: after which the images, which are made of copper, and are about twelve inches in length, are carried to the adjacent places, and laid by till the following year. Every one, except the governor and his train, even the smallest child, is obliged to be present at this ceremony; and overseers are appointed to superintend the due observance of this horrid custom. Adults walk over the images, from one side to the other, and children in arms are put with their feet upon them.

Government.] The government is, at present, vested in the kubo, or secular emperor, who is sole monarch of the country; but, till near the end of the seventeenth century, the dairis, or spiritual monarchs, held the supreme authority, being appointed by the high ecclesiastical court, according to the laws of succession. Yet, occasionally, this appointment has been changed; which has involved the country in many civil wars. The ecclesiastical dignities were of six orders; some belonging to particular offices, others merely honorary. The secular prince is accustomed to confer, with the consent of the dairi, two honorary ranks, equivalent to our noblemen and knights. The ecclesiastical court is chiefly occupied with literary pursuits, the dairi residing at Miaco, where his court remains, though not in its former splendour.

The senators and ministers of state appear at court every day, and dispatch all public affairs, by the emperor's directions. These are maintained at a considerable expense, and receive great honour from the inferior nobles. Their authority and power depend upon the emperor's pleasure; and, though all the affairs of the kingdom pass through their hands, yet they never venture to propose any advice, but such as they know will be agreeable to the sovereign.

Every governor of a province is responsible for his administration, his family remaining at the emperor's court, as hostages; and he is obliged to make an annual appearance in person, the journey being performed with great pomp, and accompanied with valuable presents. The emperor derives his principal revenue from his own estate, consisting of five inferior provinces and some detached towns. Each prince enjoys the revenues of his government, with which he supports his court and military force, repairs the roads, and defrays the civil expenses. 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 the capital, but to reside there themselves during half the year.

The emperor never pays more than one visit to any of his nobles, of which three years' notice is given; and during the whole of this time preparations are constantly making, with great care and expense: every thing is adorned with his arms, and never after used, but preserved with great devotion, in remembrance that the emperor once condescended to eat in that house.

Laws.] The laws of Japan are rigidly, though impartially, administered: the parties themselves appear, and the cause is determined without delay. When a gentleman, or soldier, is condemned to die, he is allowed to destroy himself; whereas citizens, merchants, and meaner persons, suffer by the common executioner. Almost every crime, however small, is punished with death, fines being considered as a partiality to the rich; but the sentence of death must be signed by the privy-council at Jeddo If murder

be perpetrated in a town, not only the murderer himself, but sometimes his relations, dependents, and neighbours, are involved in the calamity, accordingly as they have been more or less accomplices in the crime, or have neglected the means of preventing its perpetration.

Dealing in contraband goods is death without mercy; and the punishment extends to every individual concerned in the traffic, both buyer and seller. The general mode of executing the sentence of the law is by decapitation with a scimitar, in prison; though crucifixion, and other painful modes of death, are sometimes exhibited in public, by way of terror.

Theft and gaming are esteemed no less crimes than murder. 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, but a commissary of each street, elected by the inhabitants, to watch over property and tranquillity. Two inhabitants, in their turn, nightly patrole the street; the one to announce the hour, the other expressly for the prevention of fire.

The best proof that the laws are salutary is, that few crimes are committed, and few punishments are inflicted. A brief code is posted up in every town and village, in large letters, on a spot surrounded with rails.

Population.] The population of the Japanese empire, like that of other Asiatic states, can only be estimated from conjecture; but it is generally admitted, that the number of inhabitants is surprising. Jeddo and Miaco are equal in size to any cities in the world; the former, which is the capital, is said to be sixty-three British miles in circumference. 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 in very short distances. Kæmpfer says, that the number of people daily travelling on the highway is inconceivable, and that the great roads are sometimes more crowded than the most frequented streets of European capitals. Some estimate may be formed, by supposing the population of Japan to equal that of China, in proportion to its extent; and the former country being about one-tenth part the size of the latter, the population will be about thirty millions.

Army, Navy, &c.] The Japanese are naturally good soldiers, the character of the people being singularly brave and resolute; but, as they inhabit nothing but islands, they are seldom at war; they, nevertheless, keep a large standing army. Varenius, the geographer, has, from the best authorities, estimated the regular forces maintained by the princes and governors at three hundred and sixty-eight thousand infantry, and thirty-eight thousand cavalry; while the kubo, or emperor, maintains a hundred thousand foot, and twenty thousand horse, thus constituting in the whole a force of four hundred and sixty-eight thousand infantry, and fifty-eight thousand cavalry.

The military weapons of Japan consist of bows, arrows, scimitars, halberts, and guns. Their bows are very large, and their arrows long. Firelocks are not in common use in the army; they are chiefly possessed by persons of consequence, and are always displayed in their apartments on an elevated stand. They have a few cannon at Nagasaki, and at the imperial palace at Jeddo. These seem to have been formerly taken from the Portuguese, and are only used in saluting. The scimitar is the chief weapon, and is constantly worn by every person above the rank of a peasant. This weapon is about a yard in length, somewhat inclining to a curve, and has a broad back. The blade is of admirable temper, and the oldest are always most valued. They are far preferable to the toledos, and will cut a large nail without turning the edge. According to the Japanese accounts, they will cleave a man asunder from head to foot. The hilt is furnished with a round and substantial guard, without any bow, and is full six inches long. The scabbard is thick and rather flat, and sometimes covered with the finest shagreen, lacquered.

The navy, like that of the other oriental powers, is almost unworthy of notice. The Japanese vessels are open at the stern, so that they cannot bear a boisterous sea. Captain King observes, that those which he saw off their coast could not have endured the violence of the storm, when the sea ran as high as the oldest mariner on-board ever remembered to have seen it. They had only one mast, on which was hoisted a quadrangular sail, extended aloft by a yard, the braces of which worked forwards. Three pieces of black cloth came half way down the sail, at an equal distance from each other.

M. de la Perouse, being off the coast of Japan, in 1787, discovered two Japanese vessels, one of which is thus described by that intelligent navigator:

"This vessel, which was about a hundred tons burthen, had a single high mast in the middle, and which appeared to be only a parcel of small masts united by copper hooks and mouldings. The sail of it was linen, the breadths of which were not sewed, but laced lengthwise. This sail appeared very large, and two jibs, with a spritsail, composed the remainder of her suit. A small gallery, of three feet in breadth, projected from both sides of this vessel, and extended along her gunwale from the stern to about two-thirds of her length. She had beams upon her stem, which projected, and were painted green. The boat, placed athwart her bows, exceeded the breadth of the vessel by seven or eight feet, which had, in other respects, a common sheer, a flat poop, with two small windows, very little carved work, and did not resemble the Chinese junks in any thing but the manner of fastening the rudder with cords. Her side-gallery was only raised two or three feet

above her water-line, and the extremities of the boat must touch the water in rolling. Every thing made me think that these vessels were not destined to go any distance from the coasts, and they could not be safe in a high sea during a squall of wind: it is probable, the Japanese have vessels for the winter, better calculated to brave the bad weather. We passed so near to this vessel, that we observed even the countenances of individuals. They had a small Japanese white flag, on which were words, written vertically. The name of the vessel was on a kind of drum, placed at the side of the ensign-staff."

The Japanese pleasure-boats, which are intended only for the navigation of lakes, rivers, &c. are finely gilt, carved, and otherwise adorned with the most curious and superb embellishments.

Revenues.] The revenues of this empire are minutely stated by Varenius, according to princes and provinces; the sum total being two thousand eight hundred and thirty-four tons of gold, in the Flemish mode of computation; and taking the ton at only ten thousand pounds sterling, the amount would be twenty-eight millions three hundred and forty thousand pounds sterling, besides the provinces and cities which are immediately subject to the emperor. These revenues are not, however, to 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, containing a thousand taels, each being nearly equal in value to a Dutch rix-dollar, or about four shillings and four pence English.

Manufactures.] Some of the manufactures are carried to the highest degree of perfection in Japan. They work extremely well in iron and copper; their silk and cotton manufactures equal, if not excel, the productions of other oriental countries.

Lackering in wood, especially their ancient workmanship, surpasses every attempt at imitation by other nations. They make use of the finest firs and cedars, and cover them with a varnish, prepared from the rhus vernix, which grows every where in abundance. This varnish oozes out from the tree, on its being wounded, and at first is about the consistence of cream, but afterwards grows thicker. It is of such a transparent nature, that, when it is laid, pure and unmixed, on boxes and other pieces of furniture, every vein of the wood may clearly be seen through. This lacquered work is also embellished with gold and silver flowers and figures. Old works of this kind, in good preservation, fetch a very high price, as it seems they neither emboss nor colour so well now as in former ages. The porcelain is here deemed equal, if not superior, to that of China. Their swords display incomparable skill, and paper is fabricated here from the bark of a species of mulberry.

As the intercourse of the Japanese with foreigners is extremely limited, the greatest part of their commerce must be among themselves. Their inland trade, however, is very flourishing, and in every respect free and uncontrolled. The harbours are covered with coasting vessels and boats, and the high roads are crowded with travellers, transporting their wares from one place to another. 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.

Both the Dutch company and individuals are prohibited from exporting from hence Japanese coin, maps, charts, and books, at least such as are relative to the country; and all sorts of arms, particularly their scimitars.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Japan are stout, and very active, although their strength is not equal to that of the northern inhabitants of Europe. The men are of the middling stature, and, in general, not very corpulent. They are of a yellowish complexion, sometimes bordering on brown, and sometimes on white. The lower class of people are sun-burnt, and consequently brown; but ladies of distinction, who seldom go out in the air without being covered, are perfectly white. Their eyes have not that rotundity, which those of other nations exhibit; but are oblong, small, and sunk deep 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. Their eye-brows are also placed somewhat higher. Their heads are, in general, large, and their necks short; while their hair is black, thick, and shining, from the use they make of oils. Their noses, though flat, are yet rather thick and short.

The character of this people must of course display great diversity; but their virtues far preponderate over their vices; and even their pride is useful, as it prevents them from stooping to the mean tricks of the maritime Chinese.

Nothing imported by the Europeans escapes their curiosity. They seek information concerning every article; and their questions are generally repeated till they become troublesome. Physicians are regarded with great respect, on account of their supposed learning, and they are consulted as oracles.

Frugality is said to have its peculiar abode in Japan; it is a virtue admired, as well in the emperor's palace as in the meanest cottage. It makes those who possess but little contented, and it prevents the abundance of the rich from overflowing in voluptuousness. Hence scarcity

and famine are unknown; and, though the state is exceedingly populous, yet there is scarcely a necessitous person to be seen.

Though a plurality of wives is allowed, yet one only is acknowledged, the others being merely considered as concubines. Marriages are conducted by the parents or relations; and the wife is under the absolute disposal of her husband, the laws allowing no claim whatever, in case she incurs his displeasure. Hence, though the women are not confined, examples of infidelity rarely occur. In case of separation, the wife is condemned to the ignominy of having her head always shaved. The marriage-ceremony is performed before an altar, on an elevated situation near the town, by the bride lighting a torch, from which the bridegroom kindles another.

The dress of the Japanese is perfectly national and uniform. From the monarch to the most obscure subject, it has not undergone variation, from caprice, fashion, or any other cause, for the space of two thousand five hundred years.

It consists universally of long and wide gowns, of different lengths, according to sex or situation, and of different degrees of fineness, according to the circumstances of the wearer. The men seldom wear more than two or three of them at once; but the women have often thirty or forty, all so thin, as not to weigh more, collectively, than four or five pounds. These gowns are fastened round the body by a belt.

Men of high rank, besides these long gowns, have a short half-gown, worn over the other, and made of a thin gauzy stuff. This is tied with strings at the top and bottom, and is sometimes green, but more frequently black. Their breeches are manufactured of a species of hemp, and are left open on the sides to two-thirds of their length. They depend to the ankles; and at the back part of them is a thin triangular piece of board, covered with the same stuff, which sticks up just above the band. These breeches are sometimes striped with brown, or green, but more commonly they are black. Drawers are seldom used but on journeys, and by soldiers, who wear short or tucked-up gowns, that they may run with the greater speed. The complimentary dress is worn above the common gown. It consists of two pieces, made of one and the same kind of stuff. The undermost piece is the above-described breeches, made of a blue stuff, painted with white flowers. The uppermost piece is a frock, like the half-gown, thrown back over the shoulders.

Stockings are unnecessary, because the night-gowns descend to the ankles; however, cotton-stuff spatterdashes are sometimes used. The Japanese never enter their houses with their shoes on, but always leave them at the door.

The mode in which this people dress their hair is peculiar to themselves. The men shave the whole of the head, down to the nape of the neck, leaving, however, some on the temples, which, being greased and turned back, is tied with that remaining behind at the top of the head, with several rounds of white string, made of paper. This is strictly attended to, and the head shaved daily. Priests, physicians, and youths before the age of maturity, are the only persons who are exempted from this custom. The former shave their heads all over; and boys suffer their hair to grow, till such time as their beards begin to appear.

No females have their hair cut off, except such as have separated from their husbands. They besmear their hair with oil and mucilaginous substances, and put it close up to the head, on all sides, in a neat and simple manner, or else spread it out on the sides like wings. After this, the ends are fastened together round a knob, at the crown of the head. Single women and maid-servants are frequently distinguished from the married by these wings. Just before the knob, a broad comb of lackered wood, or tortoise-shell is stuck. They also sometimes wear other ornaments of tortoise-shell or flowers.

Neither hats nor caps are used by the Japanese, except on journeys, when they wear a conical hat, made of a species of grass, and tied on with a string. Some few women, also, when travelling, wear a sort of cap, interlaced with gold; but a parasol is their usual protection from the solar beams, or the rain.

The houses in Japan are generally constructed of wood and plaster, and white-washed on the outside, so as to resemble stone. They have no partition-walls, but only sliding frames, which are made of lackered wood, and covered with thick painted paper. The roofs are covered with thick tiles, and occasionally with the bark of trees or chips of woods. The floors are always spread with mats. The ceilings and walls are usually papered with various colours, and sometimes highly embellished with gold and silver. The room which serves as a kitchen has no other fire-place than a square aperture, which is frequently in the middle of the room, and lined with a few stones. The smoke ascends through a hole in the roof. The windows are formed of a semi-transparent paper, which renders the houses rather gloomy and dull. Nor is the general style of architecture, in this country, either elegant or convenient.

The furniture is as simple as the style of building. Here are neither sofas, beds, tables, nor chairs. To the greatest part of those conveniences the Japanese are perfect strangers. Their soft floor mats serve them at once for chairs and beds. A small table, about twelve inches square, and four in height, is set down before each person in company, at every meal. A soft mattrass, stuffed with cotton, is frequently spread upon the mats, when the hour of rest approaches.

Fans are universally used by both sexes; and on these they have often their route marked, when they go a journey. Though they have not mirrors to decorate the walls of their apartments, at the toilette the ladies use plates of copper and zink, highly polished, which answer the same purpose.

The food of the Japanese comprises not only such articles as are wholesome and nutritive, but take in almost the whole animal and vegetable kingdoms. The meat that is served up in every dish is cut into small pieces, well boiled and stewed, and mixed with agreeable sauces.

Women do not eat with the men, but by themselves. Rice supplies the place of bread, and is boiled with every kind of provisions. Miso-soup, boiled with fish and onions, is the customary food of the common people. Fish and fowls are very plentiful, and eaten in abundance.

The beverage of this people consists entirely of tea and sakki. Wines and distilled liquors they can scarcely be prevailed on to taste. Sakki is a kind of fermented liquor, prepared from rice. It is tolerably bright, and not a little resembles wine, though its taste is somewhat singular, and not very palatable. When fresh, it is of a whitish colour, but, from lying in wooden casks, it becomes brown. This liquor is vended in every tavern, and is used to promote hilarity, as well as at meals. Tea is in such universal use, that no person of any rank undertakes a journey, without a servant to carry his tea-equipage. The tea-shrub is indigenous here, and is met with most frequently on the borders and margins of cultivated lands, or on such mountains and downs as are incapable of being cultivated to better advantage.

The year is measured in Japan by lunations, so that some have twelve, and others thirteen months; consequently, the termination and commencement of the year are not on the same day, nor always in the same month. Day and night, taken together, are divided into twelve hours only; and the whole year through they regulate themselves by the rising and setting of the sun. The hour of six they reckon at sun-rise, and the same at sun-set, so that noon and midnight are always at nine. Time is measured by burning matches, twisted like ropes, and divided by knots.

Though gravity forms the general character of this nation, they have, nevertheless, their pleasures, their sports, and festivities. Some of these are connected with their religion; others may, in many respects, be compared to European plays or interludes.

Of those which have a relation to their religious belief, the lantern-festival, or feast of lamps, is one of the most remarkable. It is celebrated towards the end of August, and lasts for three days. The Japanese call it Bang; and it was originally instituted in memory and honour of the dead, who, they believe, return annually to their kindred and friends, on the first afternoon of these games, where they remain till the second night, on which they are again sent away.

To welcome them on their arrival, they hang a number of lamps round the tombs, on bamboo-stakes; and, when the souls of the deceased are to take their leave, they fabricate a small vessel of straw, filled with lights, which they carry, at midnight, in procession, with music and loud cries, and launch it on the waves, where it is left to be consumed or swallowed up.

Dr. Thunberg had an opportunity of seeing plays acted several times, both in Nagasaki and afterwards on his journey to the imperial court at Osaka. The actors are always dressed in a very grotesque manner, so that a stranger would be apt to imagine, they exhibited themselves to frighten, rather than to entertain, the audience. Their gestures are equally uncouth and extravagant; and the plots are of a piece with the acting. In short, the dramatic performances of Japan can, in no respect, be put in competition with those of Europe. But they have the same effect, and answer the same purpose every where, to amuse the idle and frivolous, and to fill the pockets of the players.

Among the games played by the Japanese, is one called *siobuts*, or the game of the goose. In playing this they make use of a thick checkered paper, with different figures delineated on each square. A die being thrown, each person marks his chance on the representations in the square.

Cards are by no means a favourite diversion in this country, and, indeed, they are prohibited, though sometimes used in secret. They are fifty in number, formed of thick stiff paper, two inches long, and one or more wide, black on one side, and dissimilarly marked on the other. They lay them in different heaps, with the stake at top, and then turn up a card to see who has won.

When the Japanese wish to show the Dutch extraordinary respect, they entertain them with a band of female-dancers. These are generally young damsels, who twist and twine their bodies in a variety of forms. Their steps are regulated by music, and they are all provided with a vast number of gowns, which they strip off one after the other, till a dozen or more are left hanging from their girdle.

The usual holidays in Japan are the first day of every month, when they rise early in the morning, dress themselves in their best attire, and pay their respects to their friends and superiors, wishing them joy of the new month. This custom has been universally observed from very remote ages. The full of the moon, or the fifteenth day, is another holiday, on which people resort to the temples in greater numbers than on the first. The third festival

is of less consequence, and falls on the twenty-eighth, or the day before the new moon.

Besides these monthly festivals, they celebrate five more; the first and principal of which is New Year's Day. The country, at this time, is given up to pastime and festivity; and, indeed, the whole of the first month is set apart for pleasure, throughout the whole empire. The second annual festival falls on the third day of the third month; the third, on the fifth day of the fifth month; the fourth, on the seventh day of the seventh month; and the fifth, on the ninth day of the ninth month. All these, making uneven numbers, are reckoned unlucky days, and no business is undertaken on them, but they are spent in mirth and mutual congratulations. It is a maxim among the Japanese, that the gods take delight in seeing mankind joyful and happy; and, in this respect, they honour their benignity and other amiable attributes.

The Japanese either burn their dead or bury them in the earth. The former seems to have been the most ancient practice, though it is now less prevalent than the other, except for persons of distinction. The ashes are carefully collected, and, after some time, are buried in the earth.

Both men and women follow the corpse in norimons, together with the family of the deceased, and a numerous train of priests. After one of the priests has sung the eulogy of the dead, he thrice waves a burning torch over the corpse, and the pile is then set on fire by the relations, who also throw upon it clothes, arms, victuals, money, sweet herbs, flowers, and other things, which they suppose will be of use to the deceased in the other world. When a prince or grandee dies, there are commonly ten or twenty youths of his household, and such as were his greatest favourites, who put themselves to a voluntary death, at the place where his body is burned; and their ashes are generally deposited in a magnificent sepulchre.

History.] The early records of Japan are so perplexed with incoherent relations, and involved in ambiguity, that they merit little attention. Their historians, also, instead of adverting to the political and moral character of their monarchs, have confined themselves to tedious and uninteresting details of their descent, names, births, succession, &c.; to recapitulate which would conduce neither to profit nor entertainment. We shall, therefore, reduce the whole, as abstracted from their own chronicles, to a very narrow compass.

The monarchs of Japan appear to have been famous for longevity; and three of them in particular lived from the age of a hundred and thirty-seven to a hundred and forty-nine years. Sin-mu, the founder of the Japanese monarchy, began his reign six hundred and sixty years before Christ. In the seventieth year of his reign he instituted a form of government, established laws, civilized the people, taught them chronology, and other arts and sciences, divided time into years, and years into months and days, secured the crown to his posterity, and, having reigned seventy-nine years, died in the one hundred and forty-ninth year of his age.

Some of their monarchs have signalized themselves by their military exploits; one was ranked upon that account as more than mortal, and might be considered as the Mars of the Japanese, as was his mother the Bellona of her country.

Another monarch, named Taycho, though of mean extraction, displayed singular resolution in the total subjection of the petty princes, by which he quelled that spirit of rebellion which was formerly prevalent in the empire. He expelled the Portuguese from Japan, prohibited their ever after trading with his subjects, and began the first persecutions against the Christians, of which there were once great numbers, in different parts of the empire. The cause of this was said to be the opposition of the priests, in not allowing them a plurality of wives, and the persuasion of the Dutch, who told them, that the emperor would become a slave to the pope.

This persecution was carried on with such horrid cruelty, that, in the space of four years, no less than twenty thousand five hundred and seventy persons were cruelly massacred. In the two succeeding years, however, after the places of worship had been shut, and the public profession of Christianity prohibited, the Jesuits, by their private endeavours, made twelve thousand proselytes; and, when any of these were detected, they not only absolutely refused to abjure the Christian faith, but readily submitted to death, and suffered martyrdom with astonishing constancy. Indeed, the persecution continued forty years, reckoning from its commencement, in the reign of Taycho, with unremitting cruelty, before Christianity could be totally exterminated.

CHAPTER IX.

ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE groupe properly distinguished by this appellation consists of Ceylon, Borneo, Macassar, the Philippines, the Moluccas, the Sunda Islands, Nicobar, and Andaman; each of which demands a separate description.

SECTION I.

CEYLON.

Situation, Extent, &c.] This island is situate between five degrees thirty minutes, and ten degrees sixteen minutes of north latitude, and between seventy-nine degrees forty minutes, and eighty-two degrees forty-five minutes of east longitude; at the distance of about one hundred and ninety miles from the continent of India. It is generally supposed to be about two hundred and sixty miles in length, one hundred and fifty in breadth, and nearly nine hundred miles in circumference.

Climate, Soil, &c.] Ceylon is one of the most pleasant and fertile islands in the Indies; and the air is much more temperate than could be expected, from its vicinity to the Line. Being exposed on all sides to the sea-breezes, the climate is cooler than that of Hindoostan, and far more wholesome than Batavia. The mountainous parts are woody, but the plains are exceeding fertile; springs, meandering streams, and rivers, water the whole; but the latter, in general, are so rocky, as not to be navigable. The variation of the seasons, and the winds which occasion the monsoons, are much the same as on the coast of India. The northern corner of the island is the most unproductive, on account of its deficiency with respect to rivers, rivulets, &c.; but the other parts are amazingly fertile, being plentifully supplied with water, and enjoying periodical rains, which always proceed from the southward, but are prevented from reaching the northern district by a lofty chain of mountains.

Vegetable Productions.] Ceylon produces all the fruits that are known in India, either on the continent or in the islands; hence it is called the "Garden of the East," and "Paradise of the Indies." Grapes, in particular, are found in perfection during nine months in the year. The mangoes here resemble nectarines, and are, when ripe, either red, white, or green: they are delicious, when preserved, and make an admirable pickle. It also produces ginger, pepper, sugar, mulberries, palms, cardamums, cotton, and areka-trees; figs, originally planted by the Portuguese, long-pepper, melons, various sorts of mangoes, onions, garlic, &c.

The fine spice we call cinnamon is the bark of a tree, growing plentifully in Ceylon, and the best sort is brought from thence. By an account given in the Philosophical Transactions, there appear to be several species of the cinnamon-tree, though some are not easily distinguished from each other. That which yields the best cinnamon has leaves like those of the lemon-tree, bears white fragrant blossoms, and a yellowish fruit, not unlike an acorn, which has neither the smell nor taste of the bark, but yields, when boiled, an oily juice, that hardens to the consistence of tallow, and is not only used by the Ceylonese, both internally and externally, for several disorders, but also for candles.

The young leaves of this tree are red, and, if rubbed between the hands, yield an odour more like that of cloves than that of cinnamon. These, by distillation, afford an oil, of a bitterish taste, resembling oil of cloves, to which a little oil of cinnamon has been added.

The inhabitants of this island extract from the root of the cinnamon-tree, by incision, a liquor that smells like camphor, and gradually coagulates into white grains. This species of camphor is also obtained by distillation from the bark of the root, dried, bruised, and immersed in water. The physicians of Ceylon use this distilled liquor with success, administering a spoonful of it, at proper intervals, as a sudorific, in malignant fevers.

The cinnamon-tree must grow a certain number of years before the bark is fit to be taken off; but the best sort ripens two or three years sooner than the other trees, which is owing to the difference of the soil they grow in. Those, for instance, where the soil is a fine white sand, will be ready in five years' time, whereas those that stand in a wet soil must have seven or eight years before they are ripe enough. Those trees, likewise, that grow in the shade are later on that account; and, for the same reason, the bark of such trees has not that agreeable taste which is observed in those that grow in a white sandy soil, where, with a little wet, they stand exposed to the sun.

The bark is rather of a bitterish taste, somewhat astringent, and smells like camphor; for, by the heat of the sun the camphor is rendered so thin and volatile, that it rises up, and mixes with the juices of the tree, where it

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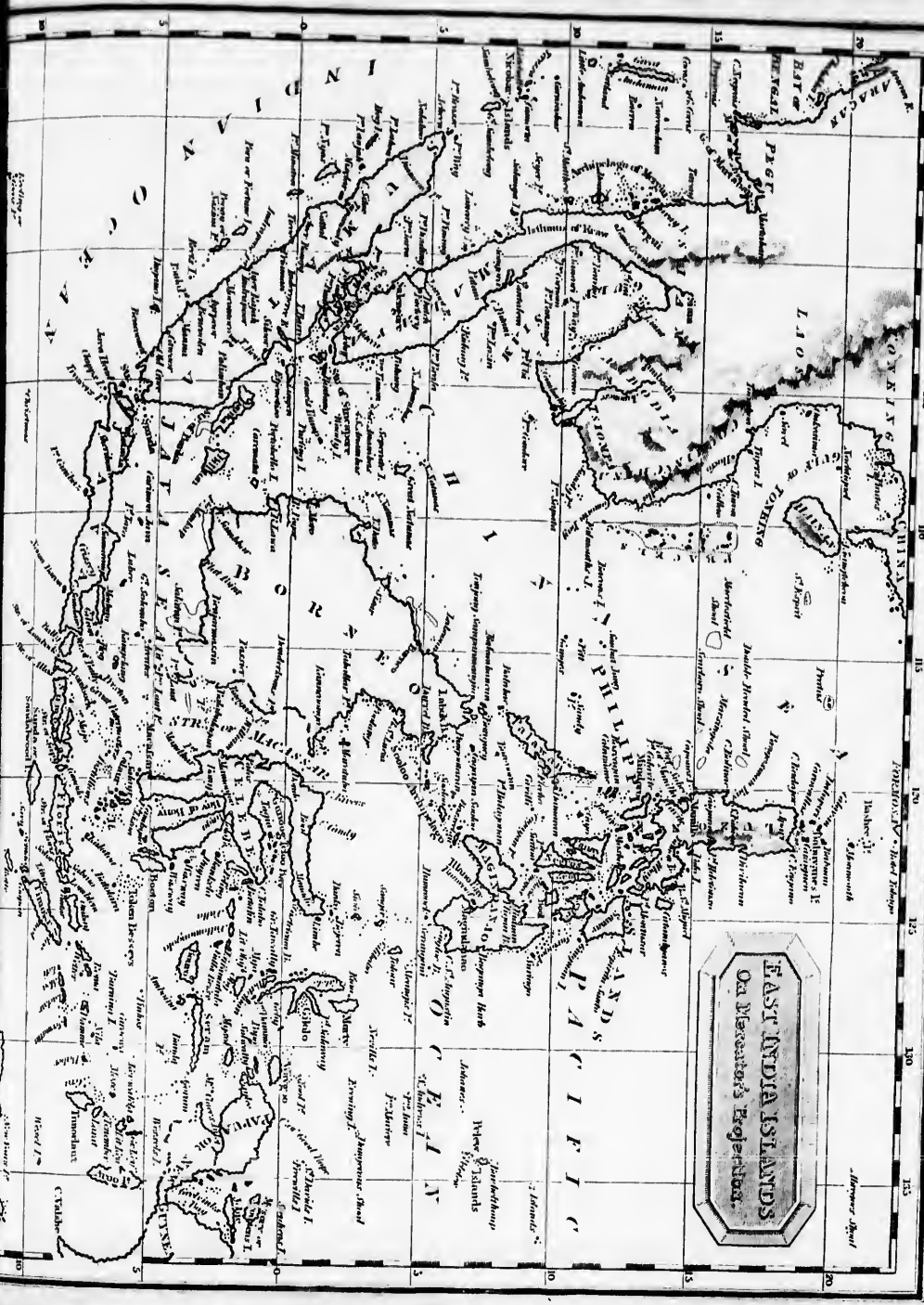

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undergoes a small fermentation; and then, rising still higher between the substance of the wood and the thin inner membrane of the bark, it is at last so effectually diffused through the branches and leaves, that the least trace of it is not to be perceived. Mean time the thin glutinous membrane between the bark and the substance of the wood attracts the purest and most agreeable particles of the juice, leaving the thick and gross ones, which are pushed forwards, and serve to nourish the branches, leaves, and fruit.

To confirm the truth of what has been said, our author observes, that, if the bark be fresh taken off, the juice remaining in the tree has a bitterish taste, not unlike that of cloves; but, on the contrary, if the inner membrane of the bark be tasted when just taken off, it will be found most exquisitely sweet, whereas the outer part of the bark differs very little in taste from that of the common trees, which shows that all its sweetness is owing to the inner membrane. When the bark is laid in the sun, in order to be dried and convolved, this oily sweetness of the inner membrane diffuses itself through the outer part of it, and impregnates it so strongly, as to make it a commodity which is justly admired for its aromatic taste and fragrancy.

The betel, so much chewed in Asia, grows on a small shrub; the leaves resemble those of ivy, and are naturally of a green colour; but the natives whiten them by artificial means, without impairing their virtues; the flavour is very pleasant, and the scent aromatic. In preparing the quid or pill for chewing, they take a piece of chalky earth, or a kind of lime, about as big as a pea, which they mix with a fourth part of the areka-nut, wrap the whole in three betel-leaves, and chew it when they think proper. Till a person is accustomed to this chewing, it occasions a dizziness and stupefaction, like tobacco; but, when grown familiar, it is much more agreeable.

Ceylon likewise produces the root-tree, whose branches hang to the ground, and take fresh root; and the talipot-tree, which is as high as the mast of a ship, but without any branches or leaves, except at the summit. The top is, therefore, cut off, and used as an umbrella, or soldier's tent; it is very strong and light, and will fold like a fan. Here are several species of grain, that are converted either into bread or oil; the most singular of which is the tanna, celebrated, not only for its goodness, but for yielding a thousand-fold.

Animals.] In the island of Ceylon are vast numbers of buffaloes, elephants, monkeys, bears, tigers, and jackalls. The island is particularly famous for its elephants, on account of their prodigious bulk, and the beauty of their ivory; and they are so numerous, as to do incredible damage to the husbandmen, by breaking their trees, and eating or trampling down their corn. Hence the country people are obliged to watch those fields that lie near the woods every night, and they are not secure of their corn even when it is placed in their yards. It is with great difficulty that, with lighted torches, and making a great noise, they can frighten them away. The tigers and bears are far less troublesome; for they do no damage to the corn, and seldom attack people without provocation.

The Ceylonese not only make use of fire to drive away the wild beasts, but also to take deer, elks, &c. with which their woods abound. Two men go into a wood in the night-time, one of whom carries on his head an earthen vessel, in which a fire is made of sticks and a kind of rosin; and in one hand he has a staff, to which eight musical bells are fastened. The other man goes behind, with a spear in his hand; and, whilst the deer stands gazing at the light, and listening to the sound of the bells, the spearman advances, and runs him through the body. They have another method of killing deer, or other game, which is practised by those who are masters of a gun. They make a frame, large enough to screen their body, which they cover with boughs of trees, and, advancing behind this frame, they easily get near enough to fire at their mark, the birds or deer having no suspicion of danger, as seeing nothing but the green branches.

Besides elephants, tigers, and other quadrupeds, there is a sort of bear in Ceylon, called the ant-bear, from his eating certain ants, called waia, of which there are great numbers in that island. In order to deceive them, the bear lies down near the little nests they build, as if he were dead, lolling out his tongue as far as he can, upon which multitudes of ants presently fix themselves, and the bear draws in his tongue and swallows them; and then putting out his tongue again, he soon catches more, continuing so to do till he has satisfied his hunger. The nests or habitations of these ants are very curiously formed, according to the accounts of travellers, being built in little hills, and consisting of vaults and arches of the finest clay, and so strong as not to be easily demolished.

This island abounds with a variety of fowl, particularly wild peacocks, and green parrots, which are very numerous. A species of the latter, called the macaw, is of the size and colour of a black-bird; and speaks very plain, when taught, as does also another species, which is of a very beautiful gold colour.

One of the finest birds of the country is of the size of a sparrow, and as white as snow, except its head, which is black, with a plume of feathers standing erect; and the tail is a foot long. There are others of a deep yellow, but in every other respect like the former: neither of them have any musical notes.

Sea and river-fish are found here in great variety and abundance.

Among the insects of this country the most remarkable are the ants, which throw up large hills, four or five feet in height and two or three in diameter: these they arch

in an admirable manner, and fill them with all kinds of grain, for their winter subsistence.

Of these insects a most interesting description has been given by Mr. Henry Smeathman, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1781. According to this account, the works of these little creatures surpass those of the bees, wasps, and other animals, as much as those of the most polished European nations excel those of uncultivated savages; and even with respect to man, his greatest works, the boasted pyramids, fall, comparatively, far short, even in size alone, of the structures raised by these industrious insects. The labourers among them employed in this service are not a quarter of an inch in length; but the structures which they erect rise to ten or twelve feet above the surface of the earth. Supposing, therefore, the height of a man to be six feet, our author calculates, that the buildings of these insects, relatively to their size and that of a man, may be considered as raised to nearly five times the height of the greatest Egyptian pyramid. And it may be added, that, with respect to the interior construction, and the various members and dispositions of the parts of the building, they certainly appear to exceed every work of human construction.

The most curious parts of these structures are the royal apartments, nurseries, magazines of provision, arched chambers, and galleries, with their various communications; the ranges of Gothic-shaped arches, projected, and not formed by mere excavation, some of which are two or three feet high, but which diminish rapidly, like the arches of aisles in perspective; the various roads, sloping staircases, and bridges, consisting of one immense arch, and constructed to shorten the distance between the several parts of the building, which would otherwise communicate only by winding passages.

The economy of these insects appears to have been very minutely observed by an ingenious author, who informs us, that there are three distinct ranks or orders among them, constituting a well-regulated community. These are, first, the *labourers*, or working insects; next, the *soldiers*, or fighting class, which do no kind of labour, and are much larger than the former; and, lastly, the winged or perfect insects, which may be called the *nobility* of the state; for they neither labour nor fight, being scarcely capable even of self-defence. These only are capable of being elected *kings* or *queens;* and Providence has so ordered it, that they emigrate within a few weeks after their elevation to the sovereignty, and either establish new kingdoms, or perish within a day or two.

The first order, the working insects, are most numerous, being in the proportion of a hundred to one of the soldiers. In this state, they are only about a quarter of an inch long, and so extremely small, that twenty-five of them will scarcely weigh one grain.

The second class, or soldiers, have a very different form from the labourers, and have been, by some authors, supposed to be the males, and the former neuters; but they are, in reality, the same insects as the foregoing, only they have undergone a change of form, and approached one degree nearer to the perfect state. They are about half an inch long, and equal in bulk to fifteen of the labourers.

The third order, or the insect in its perfect state, varies its form still more than ever. The head, throat, and belly differ almost entirely from the same parts in the labourers and soldiers; and, besides this, the animal is now furnished with four large transparent wings, with which it is, at the time of emigration, to wing its way in quest of a new settlement. These are equal in bulk to two soldiers, and about thirty labourers; and, by means of the wings, with which they are furnished, they roam about for a few hours; at the end of which time they lose their wings, and become the prey of innumerable birds and reptiles: while scarcely one pair out of many millions of this unhappy race get into a place of safety, and lay the foundation of a new community.

The few fortunate pairs who survive this annual destruction are casually found by some of the labourers, and are elected kings and queens of new states. By these industrious creatures the king and queen elect are immediately protected and enclosed in a chamber of clay, where the business of propagation soon commences. Their voluntary subjects then busy themselves in constructing nurseries, or apartments, entirely composed of wooden materials, and seemingly joined together with gums. Into these they afterwards carry the eggs produced from the queen; and here the young are attended, after they are hatched, until they are able to shift for themselves.

From the many singular accounts given of the police of these insects, we shall mention one respecting the different functions of the labourers and soldiers, or the civil and military establishments in this community, on an attempt to explore their nests.

On making a breach in any part of the structure with a hoe or pick-axe, a soldier immediately appears, and walks about the breach, as if to see whether the enemy be gone, or to examine whence the attack proceeds. In a short time he is followed by two or three others, and soon afterwards by a numerous body, who rush out as fast as the breach will permit, their numbers increasing as long as any one continues to batter the building. During this time they are in the most violent bustle and agitation; while some of them are employed in beating with their forceps upon the building, so as to make a noise that may be heard at three or four feet distance. On ceasing to disturb them, the soldiers retire, and are succeeded by the labourers, who hasten in various directions, towards the breach, each with a burden of mortar in his mouth, ready

tempered. Though there are millions of them, they never stop nor embarrass each other; and a wall gradually rises that fills up the chasm. A soldier attends every six hundred or thousand of the labourers, seemingly as a director of the works; for he never touches the mortar, either to lift or carry it. One, in particular, places himself close to the wall which they are repairing, and frequently makes the noise above mentioned, which is constantly answered by a loud hiss from all the labourers within the dome; and, at every such signal, they evidently redouble their pace, and work as fast again.

The work being completed, a renewal of the attack constantly produces the same effects. The soldiers again rush out, and then retreat, and are followed by the labourers, loaded with mortar, and as active and diligent as before. "Thus," says our author, "the pleasure of seeing them come out to fight, or to work, alternately, may be obtained, as often as curiosity excites, or time permits; and it will certainly be found, that the one order never attempts to fight, nor the other to work, let the emergency be ever so great. The obstinacy of the soldiers is very remarkable: they fight to the last extremity, disputing every inch of ground so effectually, as often to drive away the negroes, who are without shoes, and make Europeans bleed plentifully through their stockings."

Serpents and leeches are very numerous in Ceylon, and very dangerous, as the natives go bare-legged; but, as much as possible to prevent them from biting, they rub their legs and feet with a composition of ashes, salt, and lemon-juice.

Minerals.] Though Ceylon abounds with mines of gold, silver, and other metals, none are permitted to be worked but those of iron; and such as produce precious stones are all monopolized by the sovereign. The cat's-eye, which has a variety of fine colours, and requires no polishing, is the favourite gem; though their rubies, sapphires, topazes, hyacinths, turquoises, &c. are some of the finest in the universe. The mountains likewise produce crystal, brimstone, saltpetre, &c.

Pearl-Fishery.] Ceylon is celebrated for its pearl-fishery, which commonly begins, on the north-west shore, about the middle of February, and continues about two months; the village of Condatchy is then crowded with a mixture of thousands of people, of different colours, countries, casts, and occupations, with numerous tents and huts, and bazars and 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 five or ten fathoms, and remain under water about two minutes, each bringing up about a hundred oysters in his net. These precious pearls are formed like the coats of an onion, around a grain of sand, which serves as a nucleus, the animals 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 hue, are most valuable.

Antiquities.] On the west and south coasts of Ceylon there are several curious antiquities, of which an interesting account has been communicated to the public through the medium of the Asiatic Researches. The substance of that account we take the liberty to lay before our readers:

"In the vicinity of Biligam, about ten miles north of Matura, is a figure of the Coutta Rajah, sculptured on a rude block of granite, about thirty feet high. Opposite to this stone, and about twenty feet distant, is another of nearly the same size; and the intervening ground is worked away to a hollow, on which it is necessary to be placed, to have a full view of this figure, which is cut out of the stone in relievo; but the whole is sunk in a hollow, scooped out, so that it is thus defended from injury on the sides. The figure is about fourteen feet high, with a full round visage, long nose, and mild aspect; but it has no beard, nor any of the usual marks of the Hindoo casts. The head-dress is high, and seems decorated with jewels; the arms are ornamented with bracelets; a belt seems girded high above the waist; and a ring is distinctly seen on the little finger of the left hand. The neck is encircled by a collar; ornamental drops seem to depend from the ears; and the lower drapery is fringed with a sort of tassels.

"On the spot," says our author, "I was told that this was the figure of an ancient prince, called *Coutta Rajah*, from a cutaneous disorder he had been troubled with; and that his statue was placed here, in memory of his being the first who had taught the inhabitants the use of the cocoa-nut, which now constitutes a principal part of their food. At Matura the tradition was told much to the same purpose, but with more amplification of circumstances. They described him as the son of a foreign prince, who, labouring under a sort of leprosy, was landed on the coast, and left to shift for himself; when he was cured by the aid of a holy recluse residing in these woods, and by the milk of the cocoa-tree: returning home to his native land, he recounted his wonderful cure, and was sent back with rich presents, to reward the holy man, whom they found no more. In memory of these events the statue was set up. Whatever degree of credit may be due to this story, the name of the Coutta Rajah seemed to be familiar to all ranks, and is certainly connected with some historical event."

Being desirous of seeing a Cingalese temple, at a place called Villigaam, our author was conducted, by a winding road, to a small eminence, enclosed at the top by a low

stone-wall, surmounted by a kind of balustrade, in the midst of thick surrounding groves. "At the gate," says he, "to which we ascended by some steps, the priests received and conducted me to the door of the temple: they were bare-headed, and their hair cut close; and their garment consisted of a cloth of a dusky snuff colour, which folded round the body, and descended to the feet: their dark complexions and inanimate features exhibited no symptom of superior intelligence, or of keen genius; but rather indicated a kind of apathy or indifference. The building had no external decorations: a close gallery ran round the body of it, to which only one door opened, that rendered it so close, for want of fresh air, with the strong fumes of several burning lamps, and the aromatic odour of yellow flowers, profusely scattered on a raised terrace before the idol, that it almost overcame me, on entering the interior apartment.

"On our being introduced, a curtain, which enclosed the shrine, was drawn back, and a gigantic figure of *Boodhoo* was displayed, reclining on his side, with one hand supporting his head, and the other lying negligently on his body: the habit was very simple, of a saffron colour, covering him from the neck to the heels; and the only ornament was a kind of belt across the body. This statue was about eighteen feet long, and well proportioned; the countenance was mild and full; and the top of the head painted to represent the hair in several small black curls.

"In a corner of the room was a smaller figure, represented sitting cross-legged on a coiled snake, the expanded head of which shaded him: from the same habit and turn of feature, it was easy to perceive that Boodhoo was also here represented. A female figure, the natural size, and arrayed in the same garb, was represented standing in another corner, and holding a lamp in her extended hand. In a third corner stood a male figure, said to represent *Veeshnu;* and, in the fourth, *Ramy Swamy*, of a dark blue colour, and distinguished by his peculiar attributes of several hands, and correspondent Hindoo ornaments.

"The gallery, which ran round the inner apartment, was entirely covered with paintings, in compartments rudely finished, each apparently containing the history of some event in the life of Boodhoo. One of these paintings seemed to represent the birth of the divine infant, and others represented his youthful amusements and adventures. In one, a youth held earnest conversation with a nymph, among deep shades and woods, while a monkey, concealed by the branches of a tree, seemed to listen with mischievous intent: in another piece, the god appeared as a youth, slily stealing coin from a chest, toward which an aged man approached with cautious steps, holding a large key in his hand: in other compartments processions appeared; feasts seemed prepared; food was distributed to the poor of various nations; and the different habits and manners of men in active life, were strikingly pourtrayed. The style or costume of these paintings was entirely different from that of the Hindoos on the peninsula, and evidently belonged to a different people, though they undoubtedly exhibited those of the Cingalese and the worshippers of Boodhoo."

About a mile from Matura is another temple of Boodhoo, embosomed in the deep recesses of a wood, and decorated in front with a profusion of flowering trees and shrubs, among which a clump of bamboos, of a bright yellow colour, with small stripes of green branching from below the joints, appears most conspicuous. Within is an image of Boodhoo, and several other figures, illuminated by lamps and enclosed by curtains, as in the former temple, and, in like manner, the terrace, or raised altar, is strewed with flowers, and the walls are adorned with paintings.

About four miles from Matura is a Cingalese temple, of a circular shape, about a hundred and sixty feet in circumference, and twelve feet high; forming a terrace, from the centre of which there rises a bell-shaped spire, crowned with a smaller cone, on a square pedestal, the height of the whole being about thirty feet. A parapet runs round this terrace, to which a door and staircase leads up; and in one corner stands a small thatched hut, which seems designed for the lodging of some of the priests. No figures, inscriptions, nor any thing else remarkable, appears on the outside, except a single granite pillar, four feet high, placed on end, and seemingly intended to receive a lamp at night. This structure is said to be solid: it has no doors, windows, nor any other opening; but it is said that one of the teeth of the sacred elephant is buried under it.

After taking a short view of this place, our author was conducted to the sea-beach of Dewunder-head, by a gradual descent along an avenue in the woods, where he found several remains of ancient buildings, resembling the Carnatic temples. "Close to the beach," says he, "we find the first building, probably designed for the use of devotees, immediately before or after ablution in the sea, which is not above forty yards distant: the descent over the bank is not difficult, though the coast below is lined with masses of granite washed by the waves. It consists of a colonade of sixteen granite pillars, about nine feet high, the four centre ones of which only are regularly formed with bases, capitals, &c. On the north side are two pillars, ornamented with sculpture, and forming an exact square with two central ones of the colonade, in the middle of which is a square opening of about two feet and a half, faced with stone, but nearly filled up with earth: this seems to have been the situation of the interior recess; but of the roof and the object of worship no vestige remains

"Proceeding thence, by an easy ascent, we cross the ruins of a wall, probably the enclosure of the grand temple, marked by several pillars and upright stones; but no sculptures are visible till we reach the Cingalese temple, in the front of which stands the inner portal of a Hindoo temple, consisting of two upright stones, supporting a cross one, all carved on one side, with ornaments similar to those of the interior parts of the pagodas on the coast. The centre of the cross-stone is occupied by a fierce fantastic head, the sides by a running border of foliage, and the basement supported by figures, in a correspondent style.

"To the left of the Cingalese buildings are some more ruins, evidently the remains of other temples. The steps leading up to the raised floors are decorated with heads of elephants, carved out of stones, placed on either side;—an ornament frequently seen in Hindoo temples, as the entrances of Egyptian buildings were usually ornamented with figures of the sphinx.

"Near this is a deep well, across the mouth of which is placed a flat granite-stone, with a perforation of six inches square through its centre, between the prints of two feet, raised on the stone: the figure occupying the rest of the stone is scooped out to the depth of two feet. This well was probably enclosed within some of the buildings now no longer existing; but its use does not appear. The cross-stone is too heavy to be easily moved, and occupies too much room, to admit of water being drawn from it for any common use: the figures carved on it indicate some connection with the *lingam*, and may consequently give us an idea of the object of worship.

"On narrowly examining these remains, little doubt remained in my mind that this was the site of an ancient Hindoo temple, on the ruins of which the Cingalese building was raised, at a much later period."

The head man of the village, being questioned respecting these ruins, confessed that he could give no account of their origin; but proposed to conduct our author to another old temple, about three-quarters of a mile distant. Here they found a small square pagoda, built of hewn stone, flat roofed, with one door, and having no spire, pillars, nor arches: it had no sculpture, except some mouldings about the door, and the pediment-cornices; nor did any image, altar, or hieroglyphic decoration appear, to show the object of worship: from its exact similarity, however, to some of the small stone pagodas in the Carnatic, there can be little doubt of its origin.

At Deogamme our author met with another temple of Boodhoo, which was erected on a flat space, cut out of the side of a swelling eminence, and had nothing remarkable in the style of building, being a square house, with a tiled sloping roof, and a covered gallery running round it; so that the double story of sloping roofs gives it the air of those edifices which may be frequently seen in Chinese paintings. In the interior apartment the image of Boodhoo was seen reclining, in the same attitude as at Biligam, illuminated by lamps, and strongly perfumed with flowers. The walls were covered with paintings, representing the history of the deity, and several commodious houses were built near it, for the residence of the priests.

Having received intimation of an ancient inscription on a rock in this neighbourhood, our author proceeded in quest of the place, attended only by one peasant, who undertook to show him the way; and, after walking smartly for an hour and a half through the woods, he came to a huge block of stone in the channel of the river, about fifty yards from the banks, and surrounded by water, but nothing like an inscription appeared on it. After some time, however, some of the villagers conducted our author back to a field, where he found another large block of the same kind of stone, but of a black colour, which it had probably received from its long exposure to the weather. The higher part of it was about fourteen feet high; and, on a low projection of about twenty feet from this, the villagers pointed out some vestiges of characters, rudely carved, and of unequal sizes. "They were so corroded," says our author, "by time and the effects of the air, that I should have found considerable difficulty in making them out, had it not been suggested that some lime-water traced on the hollow characters, would render them legible on the dark ground of the stone: by tracing them in this manner, I was enabled to sketch out the appearance of the whole with tolerable exactness. But of the causes of engraving it here, or of the history of the place, I could get no account from the natives, except some incoherent traditions of its being formerly struck by lightning, whence it is called *Pelmucallu*, or split-stone."

At Calanee, about six miles north-east of Columbo, are two temples of Boodhoo, which were visited by Mr. Harington, on the 7th of February, 1797. "The images," says our author, "are of stone, representing a man in a sitting posture; the right leg supporting the left; the right arm and breast uncovered; and the left side and the waist covered with a folding vest, the end of which hangs down before. The complexion is fair; but no conclusion can be drawn from this, as two images in the two temples at this place differ considerably in these respects, one having a fair round face, the other darker and more oval. Both appear to have long pendant ear-rings, and their heads are crowned with a sort of tiara, somewhat resembling five fingers joined to each other.

"In one of the temples three images of the above description were enclosed in a glass-case, which the officiating priest readily opened, to satisfy my curiosity, and allowed me to approach as near as I wished, without even desiring me to take off my shoes, as is usually required in

other parts of India. Before the glass-case, which extended the whole length of the temple, stood a wooden table; on which are daily presented oblations of flowers, fruit, or money. From the surrounding representations of devotees, the *lotos* appears to be the favourite flower of the god; and I also observed the *keyosa* and *gool-acheen*, two of the most fragrant flowers in India. Images of Boodhoo, and some other deities, are painted on the walls and roof of this temple; but chiefly Boodhoo, sitting or sleeping, and his devotees bearing each a *nagisur* flower; with sixteen sketches, said to represent the sixteen temples, or monuments, of this description, on the island of Ceylon.

"The idol temple I am now describing, is called a veehar, or college, and consists of one small apartment, of an oblong square, composed of common brick and mortar materials, with a tiled roof. It is said to have been built time out of mind, but, from its structure, cannot be very ancient. I saw nothing peculiar in its exterior, and have nothing further to remark on its interior, but that it contained a lamp, said to be kept perpetually burning, and a curtain, that is occasionally drawn across the middle of the apartment."

On each side of the entrance, enclosed in recesses, are two large statues, the door-keepers of the god; and several others are sculptured round, bearing a club, and crowned with a high tiara. In the passage, which leads from the above-mentioned temple to a second of the same construction, are two gigantic figures, cut in alto relievo, and said to represent two attendants of the local deity.

The second temple contains a single figure of Boodhoo, in a sitting posture, and somewhat larger than those already noticed. A large elephant's tooth, presented by the king of Candia, is fixed in the ground, near this image, and a small elephant, of brass, forms the ornament of a lamp-stand.

Both the above structures stand on an eminence, surrounded by trees, and by a low wall, which also encloses a third building, called *Daghope Wahunsee*. This building is a solid mass of earth and brick-work, about sixty feet high, and shaped somewhat like a dome, with a cupola above. The inside is a mound of earth, and is said to contain twenty images of Boodhoo, buried below it. At the foot of the eminence is the house of the priests, who have been appointed to officiate at the ceremonies performed at this place daily at noon, and annually at a great festival, when numbers of pilgrims are said to assemble here.

The temple at Oogulbodda is an oblong square building, with a veranda, supported by square brick-pillars, and covered with leaves of the cocoa-nut tree. At a small distance, on the east side, is a triple-roofed building, constructed in form of a pigeon-house, in which the precepts of Boodhoo are read to his votaries, at festivals and other times of assemblage. The *veehar*, besides two large figures of door-keepers, and various historical and mythological paintings, contains a colossal statue of Boodhoo, composed of earth and cement, in a sitting posture, or rather reclining on his lotos throne; his head resting on a pillow, and supported by the right-arm, while the left is extended on the thigh of the same side. He has the same tiara, ear-rings, and curled hair, as the other images already described; and, with no unpleasing aspect, is painted of an azure brown complexion. Before this figure stands the principal altar, covered with a variety of brass figures, flowers, &c.

At the north end of the temple is another figure of Boodhoo, in a sitting posture; having, on each side, two tigers and two alligators; and, over the head, a fabulous animal, called *kimis*, with three large teeth in front, and two on each side of the mouth. But it seems that these ornamental figures have no connection with the character or history of Boodhoo; but should have been placed on the outside of the temple, had there been room. Two figures on each side of this image, with chowries in their hands, are said to be Veeshnu, in attendance upon Boodhoo: "but I have some doubt," says our author, "of the accuracy of this information, as, at the south end of the temple, where there is a third image of Boodhoo, in a standing posture, there is likewise a statue evidently of Veeshnu, of black hue, and crowned with a high tiara, which bears no emblem of attendance." There are several other images of Boodhoo in this temple, but they have no peculiar characteristic.

Towns.] The town of CANDY, in the centre of the island, is of small size and consequence, and only distinguished by a palisade and a few temples. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1590; but no recent traveller appears to have visited it.

COLUMBO, the chief town of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English possessions, is a respectable place, and well fortified; the residence of the governor is elegant. The name of Columbo seems indigenous, as well as that of Nigombo, a fortress a few miles to the north of this capital.

On the east of this city is the highest mountain in Ceylon, called Adam's Peak, from a tradition of the natives, that Adam was created and buried here. It is steep and craggy, and of a conical figure. On the summit there is a smooth stone, bearing the impression of a large human foot, which the natives affirm to have been made by Adam. This occasions them to pay a great adoration to it; and, at the commencement of every year, vast multitudes clamber up to it, notwithstanding the ascent is so difficult, that iron-spikes and chains have been fixed to the rock, in order to facilitate their climbing. In another part of the mountain there is a lake, which the natives, with equal gravity,

aver to have been made by the tears which Eve continued shedding, on account of the death of Abel, for one hundred years successively.

TRINCOMALE has a noble harbour, which opens at the mouth of the Mowil Ganga, the Ganges of Ptolemy's large map of Taprobana; and is defended by a strong fortress. This harbour is of great consequence to the English, because there is not any on the eastern coast of Hindoostan; and it has been suggested that, in case of a revolution, to which all human affairs are subject, this island might afford an extensive asylum, where the British name and commerce might be perpetuated.

MATURA, on the southern side of Ceylon, 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 west of Matura is Gallec, near a point so called, a handsome town, strongly fortified, on the projecting angle of a rock.

Manufactures.] There are but few manufactures carried on in this island; but the natives seem not unskilled in the common works in gold and iron. The Dutch ships used to sail from Gallee, laden with cinnamon, pepper, and other spices: nor must pearls and precious stones be forgotten among the articles of export. The Columbo-wood, a bitter in recent use, receives its name from the capital; but its native country or district seems still unknown.

Religion.] 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. The worship of Boodh is supposed to have originated in Ceylon; and thence to have spread to ancient Hindoostan, to exterior India, Tibet, and even to China and Japan. Such are the traditions in Siam, Pegu, &c. which suppose that Boodh, probably a deified philosopher, flourished about five hundred and forty years before the Christian era: and as the Boodhis, in general, shew a prodigious superiority of good sense to the visionary Brahmins, their accounts deserve more credit than the idle dreams and chronology of the Pundits. Others, however, suppose that the worship of Boodh originated in exterior India.

Government, &c.] The island of Ceylon was formerly divided into nine monarchies; but, at present, it is under the dominion of one king, whose court is kept in the centre of the island, at a place called Digligy-Neur. The palace is but meanly built, though the gates are large, stately, and finely carved; and the window-frames made of ebony, and inlaid with silver. His elephants, troops, and spies, are numerous, and his concubines many. He assumes great dignity, and demands much respect, which his subjects readily pay him, as they imagine that all their kings are immediately upon their demise turned into gods. He expects that Christians should salute him kneeling and uncovered, but requires nothing more of them. His revenue consists in the gifts and offerings of his subjects. His palaces are built upon almost inaccessible places, for the greater security. No bridges are permitted to be erected over rivers or streams, or good roads to be made, to render the country as impassible as possible. None are allowed to approach his palace without a passport, stamped on clay.

Military.] The troops are hereditary, and carry, as weapons, swords, guns, pikes, bows, arrows, &c. They are subtle, but not courageous; and will not engage an enemy, but by surprise, and when there is some manifest advantage in their own favour. It is so difficult to penetrate into the inland parts, and all the passes are so well guarded, that even the Dutch themselves are unacquainted with great part of the island.

Penal Laws.] All the male Cingulays are allowed to command those who are within hearing to assist them upon any emergency in the apprehension of delinquents. Criminals are frequently impaled alive, or have stakes driven through their bodies. Some are hung upon trees, and many are worried by dogs, which are so accustomed to this horrid butchery, that, on the days appointed for the death of criminals, they, by certain tokens, run to the place of execution. But the most remarkable criminal punishment is by the king himself, who rides an elephant, trained up on purpose, while the beast tramples the unhappy wretch to death, and tears him limb from limb.

There are other modes of punishing, by fines and imprisonment, at the discretion of the judges. When the fine is decreed, the officers seize the culprit, wherever they meet him, strip him naked, (his clothes going as part of payment,) and oblige him to carry a large stone, the weight being daily increased by the addition of others that are smaller, till the money is either paid, or the debt remitted.

A creditor will sometimes go to the house of his debtor, and very gravely affirm, that, if he does not discharge the debt he owes him immediately, he will destroy himself This so greatly terrifies the other, that he instantly musters all the money he can, even sells his wife and children, not to be deficient, and pays the sum demanded. This is owing to a law, which specifies, if any man destroys himself on account of a debt not being discharged, the debtor shall immediately pay the money to the surviving relations, or forfeit his own life, unless he be able to redeem it by the payment of a very large sum to the king.

Women must not be beaten without permission from the king; but they may be made to carry heavy baskets of sand upon their heads, as long as the punisher pleases, which is much more dreadful to them than the severest flagellation. The circumstances of the children depend upon those of the mother; for, if the mother is a free

woman, they are free; but, if she be a slave, they are always vassals.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Ceylon are composed of Dutch, Portuguese, Moors, Malabars, and a mongrel breed of all four; but the natives, who reside in the interior, are called Cingulays, or Cinglasses. These are of two classes, the Cingulays, properly so called, who are rather a civilized people; and the Vaddans, who live in the woods, and are quite wild. The first are well-made, have regular features, are very active, ingenious, hardy, and temperate; but they are crafty and treacherous. Old people let their beards grow long, and wear a cap, like a mitre; but the people in general wear a waistcoat, either of blue or white calico, and another piece of calico about the middle, tied round with a sash. The higher orders wear ornamental weapons, such as a hanger, with an enamelled hilt, and a scabbard finely embossed. The women grease their hair with oil of cocoa-nuts, and comb it down behind. They wear a flowered waistcoat, and calico apron, and adorn themselves with ear-rings, bracelets, necklaces, rings on their toes and fingers, and a girdle of silver wire.

The Vaddans live without civil government, are excellent archers, and their principal business is to kill and dry venison. When they have expended or spoiled their arrows, and want new ones, they go towards the house of a smith in the night, and hang up a quantity of venison, with a leaf fashioned into the form and size of the arrow's point they want, by way of pattern: if the smith makes the arrows as they would have them, and leaves them in lieu of the venison, they reward him with more deer's flesh; but, if he neglects them, they are sure to do him a mischief. To preserve flesh against a time of scarcity, they rub the inside of a hollow tree with a quantity of honey, filling it with flesh, and closing up the aperture with clay, which preserves it as effectually as if it were salted.

The habitations of the Cingulays, or more civilized natives of Ceylon, consist of low houses, built with sticks or canes, daubed over with clay, and covered with thatch. Cane bedsteads and stools, and a few China plates, brazen and earthen vessels, for dressing food or to serve as lamps, are the whole of their furniture. The men undress themselves, and sleep between two mats; the women and children lie upon the floor on a single mat, but keep their clothes on. But what is the most extraordinary in so warm a climate, they keep a fire burning all night.

At their meals, they use spoons and ladles, but neither knives nor forks. The husband sits down to meals alone, the wife being obliged to wait upon him with the utmost obsequiousness; and when he has done, she presumes to sit down with her children. Like some other Asiatics, they do not touch their drinking vessels with their lips, but hold them at a distance, and pour the liquor into their mouths. They are, in general, so addicted to the use of both betel and tobacco, that they even smoke and chew in the night-time; and, when they are perfectly intoxicated, sing till they fall asleep.

Previous to the marriage-ceremony, the man sends a friend to purchase the woman's clothes, which she freely sells for a stipulated sum. In the evening he carries them to her, and in the morning appoints the day of marriage, on which he provides an entertainment, of two courses, for the friends of both parties. The feast is held at the bride's house, when the young couple eat out of the same dish, tie their thumbs together, sleep together that night, and, on the ensuing morning, depart for the bridegroom's habitation. They are permitted to part from each other whenever they please; but, if there are any children, the man is obliged to maintain the boys, and the woman the girls. They are so fond of availing themselves of this law, that some have been known to change a dozen times before they have entirely suited their inclinations.

Inferiors salute their superiors by bowing their bodies and extending their arms, with the palms of their hands upward; but persons of rank only extend one hand. The salutation of the women is by clapping their hands together, and then carrying them closed to their foreheads.

The begging class of Cingulays are mountebanks: the men beat a drum, the women dance, and both exhibit a variety of whimsical tricks. They are prohibited by law from touching the waters in wells or springs, and must use none but what is procured from rivers or ditches. If a nobleman or gentleman commit high treason, he is put to death, and his wives and daughters are delivered to some of these beggars, which is looked upon in so disgraceful a light, that they frequently destroy themselves, to avoid any connection with persons esteemed so despicable.

SECTION II.

BORNEO.

Extent and Boundaries.] Prior to the discovery of New Holland, Borneo was considered as the largest island in the world. It is about seven hundred miles in length, and four hundred and eighty in breadth; it is bounded by the Philippine Islands on the north; by Macassar, on the east; by Java, on the south; and by Sumatra, on the west.

Climate.] Considering the situation of the country, the air is tolerable, particularly in those parts next the coast, which are refreshed every morning by cooling breezes from the sea. These parts, however, are very unhealthy, as they lay on a flat for many hundred miles, and are annually overflowed. When the waters retire, a muddy slime is left on the surface of the earth, which the sun shining

upon with perpendicular rays, occasions thick fogs, that afterwards turn to rain, with cold chilling winds. Great numbers of frogs and other vermin are also left on the mud, which, being destroyed by the heat of the sun, produce an intolerable stench.

The dry season begins in April, and continues till September, during which time the wind is easterly between the south coasts of Borneo and the island of Java; but from September to April, the winds are westerly, attended by violent storms of rain, thunder, and lightning. These storms are so continual, especially on the south coast, that it is thought very extraordinary to have two hours fair weather in the course of twenty-four.

Minerals.] In the rivers, particularly that of Succadanea, are found excellent diamonds; and great quantities of gold-dust are gathered from the sands. The loadstone is found here; and there are also mines of iron and tin, which are said to be excellent in their qualities.

Vegetables.] This island produces musk, aloes, pepper, cinnamon, and other spices; also various kinds of fruits, and excellent timber, with cotton-shrubs, canes, and rattans; and an abundance of rice.

Animals.] The quadrupeds of Borneo are oxen, buffaloes, horses, deer, and goats; besides which there are several sorts of wild beasts, as elephants, bears, tigers, monkeys, baboons, &c. Among the birds may be enumerated various kinds of parrots and paroquets, one of which is called *luree*, and is admired for its beauty. Edible birds' nests are here in abundance. During the time of the western monsoons, the sky is frequently darkened with bats, which fly in prodigious numbers. They are called, by some, *flying-cats*, and in colour, shape, and smell, resemble a fox, though not so large; but their wings, when extended, are not less than six feet from the tip of the one to that of the other.

Cities, Towns, &c.] The city of Borneo, on the north, Passeer on the east, Succadanea on the west, and Banjar Masseen on the south, are the principal places of trade on this island. The last of these is the most considerable, on account of the river Banjar, which is so commodious as to admit ships of the greatest burthen. This river runs, from north to south, above half through the island, and towards its mouth is nearly two miles broad. Its banks are planted with thick groves of evergreens; and one branch of it is called the China River, from the Chinese junks constantly passing it.

The towns and factories to which the Europeans trade are built on floats of timber on the river; each town consists of one long street; and, to secure them from being carried away by the stream, posts are driven into the ground near the shore, to which they are fastened with cables made of rattans. Each house consists only of one door, divided into different apartments, according to the number of the family: the sides of the building, are made of split bamboo, and the roof is covered with leaves of trees: the walls are made high, for the benefit of the air, and from their tops hang coverings, that reach within five feet of the logs, and are made in a sloping form, to keep off the scorching heat of the sun. The floats are made of large logs of wood; and the houses are so light in their construction, that a considerable part of the float is seen above the surface of the water.

Government.] The interior of this island is divided into several petty kingdoms, each of which is governed by a rajah or king. The natives pay great homage to these princes, and it is difficult for a stranger to get access to them. The only means to effect this is by complimenting them with some valuable present; for avarice is their darling passion; and the stranger will be treated with respect in proportion to the present he makes.

The mountaineers live independent of any of these kings; they are divided into different clans, under their respective chiefs, and are subject to a government peculiar to themselves. They are seldom seen, as they live in woods and forests, where they are so secure, that it would be difficult to attack them; and they are so savage, that an attempt would, in all probability, be attended with the most fatal consequences. Their arms are a dagger, and a trunk, about seven feet long, through which they shoot poisoned darts, made of brass, and barbed on each side. Their dress consists only of a piece of cloth wrapped round the waist, and a rag about their heads.

Commerce.] The Dutch possess the principal parts on the coast of this island, and are masters of the best ports, and most valuable articles in traffic: but there are many creeks about the island, where others have free commerce without molestation. As this country produces a great variety of articles, whose value is more estimable to other nations than to the Dutch, numbers of foreigners resort here for those commodities that are best adapted to the trade of their own nation. The Chinese and Japanese come here for spices; the Malayans for gold; and those from India in search of diamonds. As the Dutch reckon the pepper, cloves, and cinnamon, of Borneo inferior to those of the other spice-islands, so they suffer them to be sold without interruption. The natives are supplied by the Dutch with the manufactures of India, in exchange for which they receive gold, diamonds, and other valuable commodities.

Pepper, gold, precious stones, and gum, called dragon's blood, which is said to be finer here than in any other part of the world, are the principal articles purchased by the English merchants.

The European imports consist of guns, pistols, gunpowder, sheet-lead, iron and steel bars, nails of different sizes, hangers, knives, and other cutlery-wares, boots, made

of red leather, spectacles, looking-glasses, clock-work, calamancoes, and various sorts of linens.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives of Borneo may be divided into two classes, differing as well in their persons and dress, as in their customs and religion. Those who inhabit the sea-coast are Mahometans, and called Banjareens, from the town of Banjar, to which most nations resort, to purchase the various commodities of the country. They are rather low in stature, and of a swarthy complexion, but, on the whole, very proportionably made. The common people have no other covering than a small piece of linen fastened round the waist; but the better sort wear a kind of waistcoat, made of silk, or European cloth, over which they throw a loose garment, that reaches to the knees. They also wear a pair of drawers, but have neither shirt, shoes, nor stockings. Their hair is tied up in a roll, and covered with a piece of muslin or calico; and, when they go abroad, they always carry a dagger with them.

The women are smaller than the men, and their features much more delicate; their complexion is also much fairer; and, contrary to the mode of most Indian women, they walk very upright, and step with a graceful air. They are very constant after marriage, though apt to bestow favours with great freedom when single; but, however indiscreet they may have been in this point, no person is permitted to reproach them for faults committed previous to their marriage.

Pagans, as well as Mahometans, allow a plurality of wives and concubines. They generally attain to longevity, which is attributed to their frequent use of the water; for both men and women bathe in the rivers once in the day; from which practice they are very expert in swimming.

Rice constitutes the principal article of their food; but with it they eat venison, fish, and fowl. Persons of rank are served in vessels made of gold or silver; but the poorer sort use dishes made of earth or brass. They all sit cross-legged at their meals, upon mats or carpets. Both sexes chew betel and areka, and are very fond of smoking tobacco, with which they often mix opium, made into pills, after being boiled in water, till it comes to a consistency. The whole company usually smoke out of the same pipe: the master begins, and, after having smoked two or three whiffs, he gives it to the person nearest him, from whom it passes round till it comes to the master again.

Their principal diversions are dancing and comedies, which are performed after the oriental mode. Their rural sports are shooting at a mark and hunting. They travel chiefly in the night, on account of the coolness of the air at that time: the common people usually go in covered boats; but the better sort travel by land, on elephants and horses.

Their mode of salutation consists in lifting the hands to the head, and bending the body. When they appear before their superiors, they raise their hands above the forehead; and, if before a prince, they prostrate themselves on the ground, and retire backwards on their knees.

The Banjareens, in burying their dead, always place the head to the north, and throw into the grave several kinds of provisions, from a superstitious notion that they may be useful in the other world. They fix the place of interment out of the reach of the annual inundation; and the mourners, as in Japan and China, are dressed in white, and carry lighted torches in their hands.

Those who inhabit the interior of the island are taller, and much more robust, than the Banjareens. They are called Byajos, and are pagans in their religion. Their complexion is more swarthy than the inhabitants of the coast; and their time is chiefly employed in hunting and attending their cattle. They go almost naked, having only a small piece of linen fastened round the waist; they paint their bodies, and smear them with fœtid oil. Some of them are very fond of having large ears, to obtain which they make holes in the soft parts of them when young: to these holes are fastened weights, about the breadth of a crown-piece, which continually pressing on the ears, expand them to an immoderate length. The better sort pull out their fore-teeth, and place artificial ones in their stead, made of gold: but their greatest ornament consists in a number of tigers' teeth, which are strung together, and worn about the neck.

As they suppose most of their distempers to arise from the malice of some evil dæmon, when a person is sick, instead of applying to medicine, they make an entertainment, of various kinds of provisions, which they hold under some conspicuous tree in a field: these provisions, which consist of rice, fowls, fish, &c., they offer for the relief of the person afflicted; and, if he recover, they repeat the offering, by way of returning thanks for the blessing received; but, if the patient die, they express their resentment against the spirit, by whom he is supposed to have been afflicted. They know nothing of astronomy; and, when an eclipse happens, they think the world is going to be destroyed. They likewise know little of arithmetic; and their only method of calculating is by parallel lines and moveable buttons on a board. To the use of physic they are also entire strangers.

SECTION III.

MACASSAR.

Extent and Division.] This island, which lies under the equator, is divided from Borneo by the Straits of Macassar; as it is by the ocean from the Molucca Islands,

on the east; and the Philippines, on the north. Its extent, from north to south, is upwards of three hundred miles; and, in the broadest part, it is near two hundred and forty. It is divided into six provinces, the principal of which are, Macassar, on the south, and the Celebes, on the north-west. But, as all the other provinces are subject to these two, the island is sometimes called by the name of one, and sometimes by that of the other.

Climate and Productions.] As the climate is both hot and moist, it is consequently unhealthy, except at the time of the northern monsoons. The western part of the country lies low and flat, but the southern part is very high. In the rivers is found gold-dust, which is washed down in the sands, from the neighbouring hills, by the great torrents of water that sometimes fall after excessive rains. Here is great plenty of various kinds of vegetables, all excellent in their qualities; the rice in particular is said to be much superior to that cultivated in any other part of the Indies.

Cities.] The chief city, Macassar, is situated on the banks of a river of the same name, near the south-west corner of the island. Here the Dutch have a very strong fort, mounted with a great number of cannon, and the garrison consists of about eight hundred men.

In general, the streets of the city are very long and spacious, and planted on each side with trees. The mosques and houses of people of quality are built with stone, but those of the common class are of wood, and elevated upon pillars, the tops of them being covered with palm or cocoa-leaves. Here are large markets, for the sale of provisions and other commodities. The markets are open every morning and evening, before the rising and setting of the sun. The provisions are brought to market and sold by women only; for if a man were to be seen in that character, he would be treated with the greatest contempt. The inhabitants of this city were formerly estimated at one hundred and sixty thousand men, able to bear arms; but, since the Dutch deprived them of their trade, great numbers have forsaken it: and the other towns and villages, which were proportionably populous, have been greatly deserted, for the same reason.

Jampandam, the principal place on this island, exclusive of the city of Macassar, is situated about fifteen miles to the south of Macassar River. This was the first place of any importance taken by the Dutch, who have a good fort here, and there is as commodious an harbour as any to be met with in the Indian seas.

Government.] These islanders were the last enslaved by the Dutch, who could not effect a conquest till after a very long and expensive war, in which were employed almost all the forces they had, at that time, in India. The Dutch first joined the natives to oppose the Portuguese, who made an attempt to subdue this island; but the latter being soon conquered, the Dutch immediately took sole possession of it.

Assemblies are held at particular times on affairs that concern the general interest, and the result of their determinations becomes a law to each state. When any contest arises, it is decided by the governor of the Dutch colony, who presides at this diet. He holds a watchful eye over these different sovereigns, and keeps them in perfect equality with each other, to prevent any one from aggrandizing himself to the prejudice of the company. The Dutch have disarmed them all, under pretence of hindering them from injuring each other; but, in reality, with a view only to keep them in a state of subjection.

Laws.] These people are so little addicted to infamous practices, or litigious disputes, that they have neither attorneys or bailiffs. If any difference arise, the parties apply personally to the judge, who determines the matter with expedition and equity. In some matters of a criminal nature they are permitted to do justice to themselves. If a man detect another in the commission of adultery, murder, or robbery, he has a right to execute justice himself, by taking the life of the culprit.

Commerce.] The only foreigners permitted to trade with this island are the Chinese, who bring hither tobacco, gold-wire, china, and unwrought silks; in return for which they take opium, spirituous liquors, gum, and linens. They get but little gold from hence, but great quantities of rice, wax, slaves, and tripam, a species of mushroom, which the rounder and blacker, the more excellent it is esteemed. The customs bring in upwards of eighty thousand livres to the company; but they obtain a much larger profit from their trade, and the tenth part of the territory, which they hold in full right of sovereignty.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives are of a short stature, and of a light olive complexion: they are so fond of having flat noses, that they practise methods in their infancy to obtain that distinguished form, with as much labour and attention as the Chinese women endeavour to acquire small feet. Neither men nor women wear any covering on their heads; but their hair, which is of a fine shining black, is ingeniously tied up, and from it hang curls that lay gracefully on the neck and shoulders. The men ornament their hair with jewels, but the women do not: the latter only wear a gold chain round their necks. Both sexes, however, dye their nails red, and their teeth either black or red, both of which they consider as very material ornaments. The lower class of people wear a loose garment made of cotton, which reaches below the knees, but none use either shoes or stockings. The women have a garment, made of muslin, with straight sleeves, that button at the wrists, besides which they wear a kind of drawers, made of cotton, that are fastened round the waist and reach to the ankles. The garments of the better sort are made

of scarlet cloth, or brocaded silk, with large buttons of solid gold. They have likewise a very handsome sash, made of silk, and richly embroidered.

Their houses, which are small, but very neat, are chiefly built of ebony, and other wood, of variegated colours. They are elevated on pillars, on account of the rainy season, which continues from November till March. They have but little furniture, except the necessary utensils for dressing their provisions; but what they have is always kept exceeding clean; and to prevent the house being made filthy, they have vessels to spit in, when they chew betel or smoke tobacco.

The diet of the common people consists principally of rice, herbs, roots, and fish, and their usual beverage is water or tea: the better sort eat flesh and poultry, the former being generally beef or kid, which are both exceeding fine, and they drink tea, coffee, and chocolate, the latter of which they get from the Philippine Islands: they also use palm-wine, arrack, and other spirituous liquors. They have but two meals a day, one in the morning and the other about sun-set, the latter of which is the principal: in the intermediate space they refresh themselves by chewing betel and areka, or smoking tobacco, intermixed with opium. They sit cross-legged on the floor at their meals, and have very low tables for their provisions, which are set on them in plates or dishes, made of wood; but they use neither knives, forks, nor spoons.

Both sexes are rendered active by a custom practised during their infancy. Every day their nurses rub them with oil, or water just warm; and these unctions encourage nature to exert herself with the most extensive freedom. Male infants are taken from the breast when a year old, their parents having an opinion that if they sucked longer it would greatly prejudice their understandings. When they are five or six years old, children of any distinction are entrusted to the care of some relation or friend, that their courage may not be weakened by the caresses of their mothers, and a habit of reciprocal tenderness. They do not return to their parents till they arrive at the age of fifteen or sixteen, when the law allows them to marry; but this is a liberty they seldom use till they are thoroughly versed in the exercise of arms.

In general the men are very robust, and naturally so courageous, that they are esteemed the best soldiers in India; for which reason they are frequently hired into the service of other princes. But they often degrade their courage by acting as freebooters, attacking vessels with incredible desperation, and often with lances, or arrows, poisoned with the juice of a tree or shrub, called *uphas*.

They formerly lay under the imputation of cannibalism, and being so steeled against the feelings of humanity, that they refused alimentary assistance to Captain Cartaret's crew, in 1762, though employed on a voyage of discovery, and reduced to the utmost distress.

The husband, on marriage, receives no other portion with his wife than the presents she received before the ceremony, which, as soon as the priest has performed, the new-married couple are confined in an apartment by themselves for three successive days, having only a servant to bring them such necessaries as they may have occasion for; during which time their friends are entertained, and great rejoicings made at the house of the bride's father. At the expiration of the three days, the parties are set at liberty, and receive the congratulations of their friends; after which the bridegroom conducts the wife home, and each apply themselves to business; he to his accustomed profession, and she to the duties of housewifery.

Funeral-ceremonies are performed here with great decency; to secure which, the meanest persons make provision while in health, by assigning a certain sum to defray the incidental expenses. As soon as a person is dead, the body is washed, and, being clothed in a white robe, is placed in a room, hung with white, which is scented with the strongest perfumes. Here it generally continues for three days, and, on the fourth, it is carried on a palanquin to the grave, preceded by the friends and relations, and followed by the priests, who have attendants that carry incense and perfumes, which are burnt all the way from the house to the grave. The body is interred without a coffin, there being only a plank at the bottom of the grave for it to lie on, and another to cover it; and, when this last is placed, the earth is thrown in, and the grave filled up. If the person be of distinguished quality, a handsome tomb is immediately placed over the grave, adorned with flowers; and the relations burn incense, and other perfumes, for forty days successively.

SECTION IV.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLES.

This large groupe was discovered by Magellan, in 1521, who called them the Archipelago of St. Lazarus: they were afterwards denominated the Philippines, in honour of Philip II. of Spain, but they are sometimes called the Manillas.

The principal of these islands is Manilla, which is situate in fifteen degrees of north latitude, and is nearly four hundred miles in length, and above one hundred and eighty in breadth.

The city of Manilla, built upon the shore of the bay which bears its name, and which is more than twenty-five leagues in circumference, lies at the mouth of a river that is navigable as far as the lake from which it derives its source, and is delightfully situated. All the necessaries

of life are to be procured there in the greatest abundance, and at an excellent market; but European manufactures bear an excessive price.

The population of this city is estimated at thirty thousand persons, among which there are not more than a thousand or twelve hundred Spaniards; the rest are Mulattoes, Chinese, or Indians, who cultivate all the arts, and are employed in every species of industry.

The neighbourhood of Manilla is peculiarly pleasant; a beautiful river flows by it, branching into different channels, the two principal of which lead to the famous lake of Bahia, which is seven leagues within the country, bordered by more than a hundred Indian villages, situate in the midst of a highly fertile territory.

The Spaniards, in general, quit their town-houses after the Easter holidays, in order to pass the summer, which is intensely hot, in the country. There has been no attempt made to embellish a country, which has no need of the assistance of art. A neat house, built on the water's edge, with very convenient baths, without avenues or gardens, but shaded by a few fruit-trees, constitutes the dwelling of the most opulent citizens.

Some streams, in which gold-dust is found, and the adjacent situation of the Spice-Islands, without doubt, were the temptations which led to the settlement of the Philippines; but the produce has not been adequate to the hopes which were entertained of it. The enthusiasm of religion succeeded to the motives of avarice; great numbers of religions, of every order, were sent thither, to preach up the Romish tenets, and so abundant was the harvest, that the different islands soon contained eight or nine hundred catholics. Had this zeal been enlightened, the conquests of the Spaniards could not have been more firmly established, than by the adoption of this system, and the settlement would have been productive of great utility to them; but, while making them nominal Christians, they forgot to render them citizens. The people were divided into parishes, and subjected to the most absurd practices; every sin and every fault is still punished with whipping; the non-attendance at prayers or mass is noted down, and the punishment is inflicted on the men or women, by order of the curate, at the church-door. The holidays, the religious societies, and particular devotions, consume much of their time, and, as in hot climates the imaginations and feelings are more active than in those of moderate temperature, masked penitents are seen, in passion-week, dragging chains in the streets, their waist and legs surrounded with a girdle of thorns, receiving, at every station, in front of the church-doors, or before the oratories, several strokes of discipline, and submitting to the most rigorous penances.

The most unenlightened society cannot conceive a more absurd system of government than that which has directed these colonies for upwards of two centuries. The port of Manilla, which should be open to all nations, has, within a few years, been shut against Europeans, and only open to some Moors, Americans, and Portuguese of Goa. The governor is entrusted with the most despotic power. The judges of the courts, who ought to moderate it, are destitute of power, when opposed to the will of the representative of the Spanish government; he can, in reality, if not of right, receive or confiscate the merchandise of strangers, whom the hopes of advantage had drawn to Manilla, and who would not run the risk of coming there, but from the expectation of very great profit, which is, in fact, attended with the most ruinous consequences to the consumers.

There is not the smallest particle of liberty here; monks and inquisitors direct the consciences of the people; spies overlook all temporal concerns, and the governor connives at the most atrocious actions. A conversation, or a walk into the interior of the island, are within the pale of his jurisdiction and authority; in a word, this, though the finest and most delightful country in the world, is certainly the last that a man, who loves liberty, would wish to inhabit.

The most galling distinctions are established and maintained with the most rigorous severity. The number of horses harnessed to carriages is fixed for every rank of persons; those who have the greatest number take precedence; and the single caprice of a great officer may detain in a line behind his carriage all those who have the misfortune to be travelling the same road. So many vices in this government, and so many vexations resulting from it, have not yet entirely destroyed the advantages of the climate; the peasants still display an air of happiness, which is not generally to be observed in our European villagers: their houses, shaded by fruit-trees, which grow without cultivation, are peculiarly neat. The tax which every head of a family pays is very moderate; it is limited to five reals and a half, including in it the rights of the church, which the nation gathers; all the bishops, canons, and priests, are paid by government; but they have established voluntary perquisites, which amply compensate the smallness of their stipends.

The passion of this people for smoking tobacco is so excessive, that there is hardly a moment in the day, in which a man or woman is without a segar in the mouth; even children, in their earliest infancy, contract the habit. The tobacco in the island of Manilla is the best in Asia; every one cultivates it round his house for his own consumption, and the few foreign vessels, which had permission to land at Manilla, transported it into every part of India. But, of late years, a prohibitory law has been proclaimed; the tobacco of every individual has been forced from him, and the cultivation of it confined to particular districts, where it is raised for the benefit of government.

In consequence of such oppressions, M. de la Perouse remarks, that, at the time of his visit, insurrections threatened every part of the island; troops were employed to suppress them. An army of custom-house officers was kept on foot to prevent smuggling, and to compel the consumers to apply for it to the national officer; several had been massacred, but the tribunals inflicted speedy vengeance for their deaths, passing judgment and sentence on the Indians with much fewer formalities than other citizens. M. de la Perouse was of opinion, that an enemy, having a design of conquest, would find, the moment they set foot on the island, and brought with them weapons, an army of Indians ready to enlist under their orders. The bay of Manilla is open to every kind of vessel, and can only be defended by shipping, so that, in an expedition against this country, there must be a decided superiority of naval force. The fortifications of the places, though regular, and kept in good repair, could only retard a few days the capture, which has no chance of relief from Europe, or elsewhere. Besides, the garrison is far from numerous; in time of peace, it is limited to a single regiment of infantry, consisting of two battalions, each composed of a company of grenadiers, and eight companies of fusiliers, forming together thirteen hundred effective men. This is a Mexican regiment; all the soldiers are the colour of Mulattoes, and, in point of skill and valour, they are said to be not inferior to European troops. These are besides two companies of artillery, commanded by a lieutenant-colonel, and each of them composed of eighty men, whose officers are a captain, lieutenant, ensign, and supernumerary; three companies of dragoons, forming a squadron of one hundred and fifty horse, commanded by the oldest captain of the three; also a battalion of twelve hundred militia, in former times raised and paid by a very rich Chinese of half-blood, named Tuasson, who was ennobled. All the soldiers of this corps are Chinese of half-blood: they perform the same duty in the place as the regular troops, and, during the time of their service, receive the same pay; but they would be but a weak aid in time of war. If occasion required, eight thousand militia could be raised in a very short time, divided into provincial battalions, and commanded either by Creole or European officers. Each battalion has a company of grenadiers, extremely well disciplined, and allowed, by the Spaniards themselves, to be in no respect inferior to European troops.

M. de la Perouse declares, that the picture which might be drawn of Manilla, in a few years time, would be very different from that of its present state, if the Spanish government would adopt a better constitution for the Philippines. The land is equal to the raising of the most valuable productions. Nine hundred thousand individuals, of both sexes, in the island of Luconia, might be encouraged to cultivate it: the climate will allow the produce of ten crops of silk in a year, while that of China rarely produces two. In addition to these considerations, it may be observed, that cotton, indigo, sugar-canes, and coffee, grow without the trouble of cultivation, under the footsteps of the inhabitants, who despise them. Every circumstance promises, that their spices would not be at all inferior to those of the Moluccas; an absolute liberty of commerce for all nations would ensure a sale that would encourage the cultivation of them all; a moderate duty on all articles exported would be sufficient, in a very few years, to defray all the expenses of government; the liberty of religion, with a few privileges granted to the Chinese, would soon draw into this island an hundred thousand inhabitants, from the eastern provinces of their empire, which the tyranny of the mandarins drives away from it.

The Spanish sovereignty in the Philippines, from many circumstances we have detailed, evidently appears to be little more than nominal. They have a few presidencies in the land of Mindanao, but their limits are not more extensive than those of Oran and Ceuta, on the coast of Africa.

Cavite, situate about three leagues to the south-west of Manilla, was formerly a very considerable place; but at the Philippines, as in Europe, the large towns, in a great measure, drain the small ones. M. de la Perouse found only the commandant of the arsenal, a contador, two lieutenants of the port, the commandant of the place, about one hundred and fifty men in the garrison, and a proportionate number of officers attached to the corps. All the other inhabitants are Mulattoes, or Indians employed at the arsenal, and, with their families, which are very numerous, form a population of about four thousand persons, divided between the city and the suburb Saint Roche. There are only two parishes here, and three convents of men, each occupied by two ecclesiastics, although thirty might be conveniently accommodated there. The Jesuits formerly possessed a very handsome house here, which the commercial company, afterwards established by the Spanish government, has taken into its own hands. The whole place seems little else than a heap of ruins; the old stone-houses are either abandoned or occupied by Indians, who never repair them, and Cavite, once the second town of the Philippines, is reduced to a paltry village.

Next in size and importance to Manilla is *Mindanao*, a beautiful and fertile island. It is governed by a sultan, subordinate to whom are several petty governors, who rule over various districts. The monarch, when he goes abroad, is carried in a palanquin, and has a strong guard to attend him, who are armed with lances, swords, and bayonets. The chief trade of this island is to Manilla and Borneo: and the Dutch come from the Moluccas to purchase of them rice, tobacco, bees-wax, &c.

Miedanao, the capital, is situated on the south side of the island, in six degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and a hundred and twenty-three degrees fifteen minutes east longitude. It is watered by a small river, that will not admit ships of any considerable burden; and those that do come up to the city are greatly in danger of having their bottoms destroyed by worms, which abound in that river, unless they are well sheathed. The city is square, being about a mile each way. The houses are built upon wooden pillars, near twenty feet high, with ladders to ascend them, according to the usual fashion of building in the Philippines: they consist but of one floor, but are divided, by partitions, into many apartments. The sultan's palace is supported by one hundred and fifty pillars, and is much higher than any other house in the city, having iron cannon in the hall, and a broad fixed staircase to ascend it.

The other Philippine Islands are Philippina, St. John, Bohol, Layta, Paragon, Mindora, Tandaya, Sebu, Panay, Buglas, or Isle of Negroes, Xolo, and Masbate; but as all these islands partake in general of the advantages, and are subject to the same oppressions as we have stated under the head of the principal island, Manilla, it would be superfluous to enumerate them. We shall only observe, that among this groupe is the small isle of Mactan, where the renowned navigator Magellan was slain. M. de la Perouse, who visited several villages in the vicinity of the city of Manilla, speaks of the inhabitants as affable, hospitable, and honest; and remarks, that, though the Spaniards mention, and even treat, them with contempt, he found that the vices, which they impute to the Indians, ought in justice to be attributed to the government they have established among them; it being well known, that the avidity for gold, and the spirit of conquest, with which the Portuguese and Spaniards were animated during two centuries, caused adventurers from those nations to overrun the different seas and islands of the two hemispheres, from the sole hope of meeting with that valuable metal: and it appears evident, from the weakness of the Spanish government, that it does not possess power sufficient to protect the commerce arising from the fertility of the soil, or conduce, in any essential degree, to the interest of the inhabitants of these islands.

SECTION V.

THE MOLUCCAS.

These islands are called Moluccas, from the word moluc, signifying *head*, and referring to their situation at the head or entrance of the Archipelago of St. Lazarus. They are denominated Spice-Islands, from their abounding in spices, particularly nutmegs and cloves. They lie between five degrees of north, and seven degrees of south latitude, and extend from one hundred and twenty-one to one hundred and thirty degrees of east longitude.

The principal of these are the Banda Isles, all of which produce nutmegs; and Ternate, Amboyna, Gilolo, Bouro, and the Maldive Islands, which mostly produce cloves.

BANDA ISLES.

The Banda Islands, or those which produce the nutmegs, lie near each other. Banda, the principal of them, is about twenty miles long and ten broad. Besides the large forests of nutmeg and clove-trees, which grow spontaneously, and require no cultivation, the soil is fertile in a variety of delicious fruits. The island is in the shape of a crescent, and the concavity of it forms an excellent bay, near which stands the principal town. Several brooks, which flow from a small mountain, water the whole country, and render it very pleasant.

The island of Banda is divided into three districts: the religions are Mahometanism and Paganism. The natives have ships of some force, containing a few cannon in each; and use bucklers, back and breast plates, as defensive, and carbines, darts, lances, scimitars, &c., as offensive weapons. The men are very indolent, and oblige the women not only to do all the domestic drudgery, but to cultivate the land. They have three harvests in the year, but make fruit a principal part of their diet.

The Dutch have a fort at the western part of the island, erected upon the top of a mountain, and ascended to by three hundred and twenty-four stone steps. At the foot of the mountain stands a negro town, the principal factory of the Dutch being at Nera, which is well fortified, as are all the landing-places in the island; and the whole are under the direction and superintendance of a governor and council. The imports into this and the other Banda Islands are gold-chains and coins, enamelled and damasked sword-blades, guns, China-ware, broad-cloths, velvets, damasks, flannels, &c. The exports are spices and fruits.

TERNATE.

Ternate, though inferior in size to some of the other Moluccas, is deemed the principal, both by the Dutch and natives, as the Dutch make it the head seat of thei government, and the chief sultan of these islands, the place of his residence.

This island produces an abundance of cloves, admirable almonds, delicious fruits, a few goats, and some poultry; but not rice, or any other grain; for the excessive heat, which is requisite to ripen spices, and meliorate fruit, parches the earth, so as to render it incapable of bearing wheat, barley, or rice; for here the sun is

seen in all his splendor and power, and his influence is so great, that his rays penetrate through the pores of the earth, and warm the soil to a considerable depth beneath the surface.

As a substitute for bread, the natives use the pith of a tree called sago, whose salubrious qualities are well known in Europe. This excellent tree is not only of utility with respect to its medicinal virtues, and for yielding them bread, but it affords them, likewise, drink, clothing, and shelter; for, by incision, a liquor is drawn from it, that exceeds most wines: the leaves, being a kind of cotton, the smaller are converted into garments, and the larger used to thatch their houses.

Most of the houses on this island are built of cane; some few of the better sort, indeed, are of timber. With respect to their furniture, a mat serves them instead of a bed, chair, and table; for they eat, drink, sit, and sleep, on it. This, and a pot to dress their victuals, a hatchet to cut their wood, and a calabash to hold their water, make the whole catalogue of their household utensils: their windows are not glazed, nor are their doors secured by locks. They wear silk or calico, and all persons make their own garments, the king and grandees excepted. Their fuel consists of odoriferous woods, and even their smiths use nothing in their forges but almond-shells. The king resides at Malaya, a little town, fortified with a mud-wall; but the suburbs, in which the Dutch factory have a fine garden, are pretty large, and well inhabited by blacks. The palace is but a trivial building; but the gardens belonging to it are very pleasant, and contain an aviary, filled with a great variety of beautiful birds.

The chief quadrupeds are goats, deer, and hogs. Many of the birds are of distinguished beauty, particularly the king-fisher, clothed in scarlet and mazarine blue, and called, by the natives, the goddess. Ternate also produces parrots, which are handsomer, and speak more distinctly, than those of the West-Indies; but the most remarkable of the feathered race in this island is the bird of Paradise, which is justly deemed the most beautiful bird in the universe. The head is like that of a swallow, but the bill considerably longer; the body is small, but the plumage displays such admirable colours, as are inconceivably pleasing to the eye.

The Boa serpent is sometimes found here of the length of thirty feet, and, by its power of suction and constriction, is said to be capable of devouring small deer.

The sultan of Ternate has great power, which extends to a part of Papua, whence he receives a tribute of gold, amber, and birds of Paradise. Captain Forrest, in the account of his voyage from Balambangan to New Guinea and the Moluccas, states the number of the militia, furnished by the respective territories of the sultan of Ternate, as amounting to ninety thousand seven hundred men; nor was the naval force inconsiderable. The largest of the *proas*, or small ships, are 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 velocity through a smooth sea.

There is a volcano on this island, which casts out a sulphureous fire, three months in the year, and sometimes does great mischief. There is an account of its dreadful devastations, in a letter from a merchant at Batavia, from which it appears, that, during his residence in that city, more than a hundred shocks of earthquakes were felt, some of which were so violent, that they seemed to threaten the destruction of the whole island. The burning mountain, after a dreadful explosion, threw out hot stones, cinders, and lava, in abundance; and, some time after, the earth was never still for three hours; the mountain seemed all on fire, and the most dreadful storm of thunder and lightning fell in every part of the island, which threw the inhabitants into such a consternation, that they ran from one part to another for shelter, but none was to be found: the sea was so dreadfully boisterous, that destruction there seemed inevitable; and, on the land, the earth opened and trembled under them, as if the whole island were going to be annihilated; but, at length, a calm was restored, and the inhabitants were delivered from their dreadful apprehensions.

AMBOYNA.

The island of Amboyna was discovered by the Portuguese, about the year 1515, but not taken possession of till 1564. It was conquered by the Dutch about 1607. This isle is about sixty British miles in length; and, on the west side, there is a large bay, which divides it into two branches, or peninsulas. On the eastern side there is another bay, with an harbour, where the Portuguese erected their chief fortress, called Victoria.

The face of this island is beautiful and woody; mountains and verdant vales being interspersed with hamlets, and enriched by cultivation. The clove-tree grows to the height of about forty or fifty feet, with spreading branches and long pointed leaves. In deep sheltered vales some trees will produce thirty pounds annually, the chief crop being from November to February. The soil is, in general, very fertile, producing fruit of various kinds, and vegetables in general in great abundance; but the air is unwholesome.

The town of Amboyna, the capital of the island, stands near the south-west 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. It contains, at present, above fifty Protestant churches; and many of the natives, who have been sent over to Holland for education, officiate as clergymen and

missionaries, by which means proselytes are exceeding numerous.

When Amboyna was seized by the English, it was found, with its dependencies, to contain forty-five thousand two hundred and fifty-two persons, of which twenty-seven thousand eight hundred and thirteen were Protestants, the rest Mahometans, except a few Chinese and savages.

GILOLO.

The island of Gilolo is of considerable extent, but of an irregular form. The length is about two hundred and thirty British miles, the breadth seldom above forty. The shores are low: the interior rises to 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; but the sultans of Ternate and Tidore seem now to share this large isle betwixt them, the former possessing the northern part, with Mortay, Bakian, Motir, and some Celebesian isles, and part of Papua; while the sultan of Tidore holds the southern part, with Mycol and some other isles. One of the chief towns is Tartanay, situated on a small promontory of the eastern quarter, 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. It produces also the beautiful crowned pigeon mentioned by Dampier. These birds strike hard with their wings, on which there is a kind of horn appendage.

The bread-fruit is frequent in Gilolo, with the sago-tree; and there are probably cloves and nutmegs. The natives are industrious, particularly in weaving; but their exertions are suppressed by Batavian jealousy.

BOURO.

Bouro, situate in two degrees thirty minutes south latitude, and one hundred and twenty-five degrees thirty minutes east longitude, is about seventy-five miles in length, and thirty in breadth. The Dutch have a strong fort here, though the island is perfectly secure, from the singularity of its coast, which rises in a high ridge, and encompasses the whole, as with a wall. It contains some prodigious high mountains, but is very fertile, producing cloves, nutmegs, cocoa-trees, bananas, piany, green ebony, beans, peas, potatoes, tobacco, Indian wheat, lime-trees, herbs, flowers, &c. Among the beasts are the civet-cat, and a singular kind of roe-buck, whose flesh is very delicate, and the curious hog called babirousa. The natives are black, and go entirely naked till they are twelve years of age, at which period they tie a piece of cloth round their waists, and never wear any other garments. They are Mahometans and Pagans, but, upon the whole, have very little sense of religion. When a relation dies, they seem very sad till the corpse is interred, and then they appear merry to an excess; but do not forget to make a sepulchre of stone and clay, to cover the grave of the defunct. The next day after the women are delivered of children in this island, they go about their ordinary work, while the men indulge themselves in bed, and pretend to be very ill. Instead of a cradle, they put their infants in a kind of net-work hammock, which they hang upon a peg, whenever they are too busy to dandle it in their arms.

THE MALDIVE ISLANDS.

Situation and Extent.] The Maldives were the first islands discovered by the European navigators on their arrival in the Indies. They form, as it were, an oblong enclosure of small, low, regular isles, around a clear space of sea, with very shallow water between each. They are situated about five hundred miles from Ceylon, and reach from one degree south, to seven degrees of north latitude. They extend about six hundred miles in length, and are upwards of one hundred in the broadest part.

Climate and Soil.] As these islands lie so near the equinoctial on both sides, they are, of course, exceeding sultry. The nights, however, are tolerably cool, and produce heavy dews, that are refreshing to the trees and vegetables. The winter commences in April, and continues till October, during which there are heavy rains and strong westerly winds; but no frost. The summer begins in October, and continues six months, during which time the winds are easterly, and, as no rain falls, the heat is excessive.

Vegetables.] The Maldive Islands are generally fertile, and, in particular, produce great quantities of millet, and another grain much like it, of both which they have two harvests every year. They have also several kinds of roots that serve for food, particularly a sort of bread-fruit, which grows wild, and in great abundance. The woods produce excellent fruits, as cocoas, citrons, pomegranates, and Indian figs.

Animals.] The only animals for food are sheep and buffaloes, except a few cows or bulls that belong to the king, and are imported from the continent; but these are only killed on particular festivals.

Domestic poultry is scarce, but they are well supplied with wild fowl, which are caught in the woods, and sold at very low prices. They have also plenty of wild pigeons, ducks, rails, and birds resembling sparrow-hawks.

The sea produces most kinds of fish, great quantities of which are exported from hence to Sumatra. Among the fish is one called a *cowrie*, the shells of which are used in many parts of the Indies instead of coin; and these are the same as those known in England by the name of blackmoors' teeth

There is a very dangerous sort of snake, that frequents the borders of the sea. The inhabitants are also greatly pestered with rats, dormice, emmets, and other sorts of vermin, which are very destructive to fruit, and other perishable commodities; for which reason they build their granaries on piles in the sea, at some distance from the shore.

Government and Dignity of the Monarch.] The government here is absolute monarchy, as every thing depends on the king's pleasure. His residence is situated in the centre of the other islands, and is about five miles in circumference. The king has here a magnificent palace, in which his beds are hung, like hammocks, between two pillars, ornamented with gold; and, when he lies down, he is rocked to sleep by his attendants. His usual dress consists of a coat, made of fine white cloth or cotton, with white and blue edgings, fastened with buttons of solid gold: under this is a piece of embroidered tapestry, that reaches down to his heels, and is fastened with a large silk-girdle, fringed, and a great gold-chain before, with a lock, formed of the most precious and valuable stones. He wears a scarlet cap on his head, which is a colour so esteemed, that no other person dare presume to use it. This cap is laced with gold, and on the top of it is a large gold-button, with a precious stone. The grandees and soldiers wear long hair, but the king's head is shaved once a week. He goes bare-legged, but wears sandals of gilt copper, which must not be worn by any other person, except those of the royal family.

When he goes abroad, his dignity is particularly distinguished by a white umbrella, which no other persons, except strangers, are permitted to use. He has three pages near his person, one of whom carries his fan, another his sword and buckler, and a third a box of betel and areka, which he almost constantly chews.

When the queen goes abroad, all the women, in their respective districts, meet her with flowers, fruits, &c. She is attended by a great number of female-slaves, some of whom go before, to give notice to the men to keep out of the way; and four ladies carry a veil, of white silk, over her head, that reaches to the ground. She and her ladies frequently bathe in the sea, for the convenience of which they have a place on the shore, close to the water, which is enclosed, and the top of it covered with white cotton.

The principal part of the nobility and gentry live in the north parts of this island, for the convenience of being near the court: and so much is this division esteemed, that, when the king banishes a criminal, he is thought to be sufficiently punished by being sent to the south. The king's guards consist of about six hundred, who are commanded by his grandees; and he has considerable magazines of armour, cannon, and several sorts of ammunition. His revenue consists chiefly of a number of islands, appropriated to the crown, with certain taxes on the various productions of others; in the money paid to purchase titles and offices, and for licenses to wear fine clothes. All the ambergris found in this country is also the property of the king; and so narrowly is it watched, that whoever is detected in converting it to his own use, is punished with the loss of his right-hand.

Each province has a governor, who is both a priest and a doctor of the law. He not only presides over the inferior priests, and is vested with the management of all religious affairs, but he is likewise entrusted with the administration of justice, both in civil and criminal cases. These governors are, in fact, so many judges, and make four circuits every year, throughout their respective jurisdictions.

Penal Laws.] The punishments for crimes are various: if a man be murdered, the wife cannot prosecute the criminal; but if the deceased have left any children, the judge obliges him to maintain them till they are of age, when they may either prosecute or pardon the murderer. The stealing of any thing valuable is punished with the loss of a hand; and for trifling offences they are banished to the southern islands. An adulteress is punished by having her hair cut off, and those guilty of perjury pay a pecuniary fine. Notwithstanding the law makes homicide death, yet a criminal is never condemned to die unless it is expressly ordered by the king: in which case he sends his own soldiers to execute the sentence.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The natives are naturally ingenious, and apply themselves with great industry to various manufactures, particularly the making of silk and cotton; and they are cautious and shrewd in trading. The principal exports consist of cocoa-nuts, cowries, and tortoise-shell; the last of which is exceeding beautiful, and not to be met with in any other place, except the Philippine Islands. The articles imported are iron, steel, spices, china, rice, &c. all of which are engrossed by the king, who sells them to his subjects at his own price.

These islands are happily situated for producing mutual commerce to the respective inhabitants: for though the thirteen provinces are in the same climate, and all of them very fertile, yet they produce such different commodities, that the people in one cannot live without what is found in another. The inhabitants have likewise so divided themselves, as greatly to enhance this commercial advantage; for all the weavers live in one island, the goldsmiths in another, &c. In order, however, to make the communication easy, these artificers have small boats, built high on both sides, in which they work, sleep, and eat, while sailing from one island to another to expose their goods to sale; and sometimes they are out a considerable time before they return to their fixed habitations.

Coin.] The current coin is silver, and of one sort only, called lorrins, each of which is about the value of eight pence. It is about two inches in length, and folded, the king's name being set upon the folds in Arabic characters. They sometimes use the shells of cowries instead of small change, twelve hundred of which make a lorrin; but, in their own markets, they frequently barter one thing for another. Their gold and silver are all imported from abroad, and are current here by weight, as in many other parts of the Indies.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives are very robust, of an olive complexion, and tolerably well-featured. The women are fairer than the men, and, in general, agreeable in disposition.

The dress of the common people is only a piece of cotton fastened round their waist, except on festivals, when they wear cotton or silk jerkins, with waistcoats, the sleeves of which reach only to the elbows. The better sort tie a piece of cloth between their legs and round their waist, next to which they have a piece of blue or red cotton cloth, that reaches to the knees. Within a girdle, on the left side, they keep their money and betel, and on the right side a knife. They set a great value on this instrument, from its being their only weapon; for none but the king's officers and soldiers are permitted to wear any other.

The women wear a coat of cotton or silk, that reaches from the waist to the ankles, over which they have a long robe of taffety or fine cotton, that extends from the shoulders to the feet, and is fastened round the neck by two gilt buttons. Their hair is black, which is esteemed a great ornament; and, to obtain this, they keep their daughters' heads shaved till they are eight or nine years of age, leaving only a little hair on the forehead, to distinguish them from the boys. They wash their heads and hair in water, to make it thick and long, and let it hang loose, that the air may dry it; after which they perfume it with an odoriferous oil. When this is done, they stroke all their hair backwards from the forehead, and tie it behind in a knot, and the whole is ornamented with a variety of flowers.

The habitations of the common people are built of cocoa-wood, and covered with leaves, sewed one within another. But the better sort have their houses built of stone, which is taken from under the flats and rocks in the following manner: Among other trees in this island is one called *candou*, which is very soft, and, when dry and sawed into planks, much lighter than cork. The natives, who are excellent swimmers, dive under water, and, having fixed upon a stone fit for their purpose, they fasten a strong rope to it: after this they take a plank of the candou-wood, which, having a hole bored in it, is put on the rope, and forced down quite to the stone: they then run a number of other boards, till the light wood rises up to the top, dragging the stone along with it. By this contrivance the natives got up the cannon and anchors of a French ship that was cast away here in the beginning of the last century.

The Maldivians are in general very polite, particularly those on the Island of Male, which is the principal of the groupe; but they are very lubidinous, and fornication is not considered as a crime; neither must any person offer insult to a woman that has been guilty of misconduct previous to marriage. Every man is permitted to have three wives, if he can maintain them.

In their diet, they are very abstemious; their principal food consisting of roots, made into meal, and baked. They sit cross-legged at their meals, in the same manner as in other oriental countries. The floor on which they sit is covered with a fine mat; and banana-leaves supply the want of a table-cloth. Their dishes are chiefly of china, all vessels of gold and silver being prohibited: they are made round, with a cover, over which is a piece of silk, to keep out the ants. They take up their victuals with their fingers, and in so careful a manner as not to let any fall; and if they have occasion to spit, they rise from the table and walk out. They do not drink till they have finished their meal, for they consider that as a mark of rudeness; and they are very cautious of eating in the presence of strangers.

Though they profess the religion of Mahomet, they retain many Pagan customs; for when crossed at sea, they pray to the king of the winds; and in every island there is a place where those who have escaped danger make offerings to him, of little vessels, made for the purpose, into which they put fragrant woods, flowers, and other perfumes, and then turn the vessel adrift to the mercy of the waves. Such are the superstitious notions they have of this airy king, that they dare not spit to the windward, for fear of offending him: and all their vessels, being devoted to him, are kept extremely clean.

Their mosques are neat buildings, made of stone, and well cemented: each of them is situated in the centre of a square, and round them they bury their dead. The mosque has three doors, each ascended by a flight of steps. The walls within are wainscotted, and the ceiling is of wood, beautifully variegated. The floor is of polished stone, covered with mats and tapestry, and the ceiling and wainscotting are firmly joined, without either nails or pegs. Each mosque has its priest, who, besides the public duties of his office, teaches the children to read and write the Maldivian language. He also instructs them in Arabic, and is rewarded for these services by the parents.

Those who are very religious go to the mosque five times a day; and, before they enter it, they wash their feet, hands, ears, eyes, and mouth; nor will they neglect doing this on any occasion whatever. Those who do not choose to go to the mosque, may say their prayers at home; but if they are known to omit doing one or the other, they are treated with the greatest contempt.

They keep their sabbath on the Friday, which is celebrated with great festivity, and the same is observed on the day of every new moon. They have likewise several other festivals in the course of the year.

When two persons design to enter into the conjugal state, the man gives information of his design to the governor, who asks him, if he is willing to have the woman proposed: on his answering in the affirmative, the parents are interrogated, as to their consent: if they approve of it, the woman is brought forward, and the parties are married in the presence of their friends and relations. A woman cannot part from her husband without his consent, though a man may divorce his wife.

On the death of any one, the corpse is washed by a person of the same sex, of which there are several in each island appointed for that purpose. After this is done, it is wrapped up in cotton, with the right hand placed on the ear, and the left on the thigh. It is then laid on the right side in a coffin of candou-wood, and carried to the place of interment by six relations or friends, and followed by the neighbours, who attend without being invited. The grave is covered with a large piece of silk or cotton, which, after the interment, becomes the property of the priest. The corpse is laid in the grave with the face towards Mahomet's tomb; and, after it is deposited, the grave is filled up with white sand, sprinkled with water. In the procession, both to and from the grave, the relations scatter shells for the benefit of the poor, and give pieces of gold and silver to the priest, in proportion to the circumstances of the deceased. The priest sings continually during the ceremony; and, when the whole is over, the relations invite the company to a feast. They inclose their graves with wooden rails; for they consider it as a sin for any person to walk over them; and they pay such respect to the bones of the dead, that no person dare touch them, not even the priests themselves. They make little difference in their habits on these occasions; the mourners only go bareheaded to the grave, and continue so for a few days after the interment.

If a person die at sea, the body, after being washed, is put into a coffin, with a written paper, mentioning his religion, and requesting those who may meet with the corpse to give it decent interment. They then sing over it, and, after having completed their ceremonies, they place it on a plank of candou-wood, and commit it to the waves.

SECTION VI.

SUNDA ISLANDS.

The Sunda chain comprises Java, Timor, and Sumatra, with some other islands of inferior note.

JAVA.

This island is situate between one hundred and two and one hundred and thirteen degrees of east longitude, and between five and eight degrees of south latitude; being about seven hundred miles in length, and two hundred in breadth. It is bounded, on the north, by the Island of Borneo; on the east, by the Straits of Bally; on the south, by the Indian Ocean; and, on the west, by the Straits of Sunda.

Animal and Vegetable Productions.] The island of Java produces goats, sheep, hogs, buffaloes, and horses. The horse, which is said to have been met with here, when the country was first discovered, is a small animal, being seldom above thirteen hands high. The horned cattle of this country are different from those of Europe; the flesh is extremely lean, but of a very fine grain. Both the Chinese and the natives feed on the buffalo; but the Dutch will neither taste the flesh or the milk, from an idea that they are productive of fevers. The sheep have long pendulous ears, and their flesh is tough and ill-tasted.

Formerly this island produced no kind of spices but pepper, and the quantity which the Dutch bring annually from thence is very considerable; but the quantity used in the country is very small, as the people there give the preference to Cayenne pepper. The inhabitants are very fond of nutmegs and cloves, but they bear too high a price to be much in use, as the trees which produce them are all become Dutch property.

Cities, &c.] The most distinguished city in this island is Batavia; of which the following account has been given by Sir George Staunton, secretary to Earl Macartney's embassy to the emperor of China:

"The city of Batavia, situated amidst swamps and stagnated pools, independent of climate and inattention to cleanliness, is, perhaps, one of the most unwholesome places in the universe. The morning sea-breeze ushers in noxious vapours, and the meridian sun deleterious miasmata. The wan and languid appearance of the people, and the obituary of the public hospitals, which recognized nearly a hundred thousand deaths within the last twenty years, are melancholy proofs of the assertion.

"The acknowledged unhealthiness of Batavia, notwithstanding the inducement of a rapid acquisition of fortune, discourages Europeans from going thither, if, by any possible means, they can remain comfortably at home. This accounts for the reposterous unfitness with which offices and professions are filled and personated. There were two men in the place, originally barbers; the one acted as clergyman, the other as physician. The season which contributes most to health, or rather which retards the progress of death, is from March to November. The sea-breeze commences about ten o'clock in the morning, and remains till about four in the afternoon; a calm then suc-

ceeds till about eight, when the land-breeze sets in, and, except a few intervening calms, is stationary till day-break; from which time till about ten o'clock there is scarcely a breath of wind. During the Lion's stay in Batavia road, the thermometer was from eighty-six to eighty-eight degrees; but, in the town, it was two degrees higher.

"The fortifications of Batavia, which, at first view, seem to imply great strength, would not, in Europe, be considered as formidable: and it should be observed, that one of the counsellors of the Indies, who had exerted his military talents to guard the settlement from external attacks, declared, that their chief dependence was upon the havoc which the climate and noxious air of the atmosphere were likely to make upon the enemy's forces.

"The troops on the establishment were twelve hundred Europeans, of whom eleven hundred were infantry, the rest artillery. There were, besides, three hundred volunteers of the town, not disciplined, formed into two companies. The irregulars consisted of enrolled natives of Java, who were never embodied, and of Chinese, in all very numerous. Add to this, every person, who becomes a settler at Batavia, is compelled to take up arms in its defence.

"The castle is constructed of coral-rock, and the town-wall partly of dense lava, from the mountains in the centre of the island, not unlike that of Vesuvius. There is no stone of any sort discovered for miles behind the city of Java. The marble and granite, used here in various edifices, are conveyed thither from China, in vessels called junks: these sail from the ports of the provinces of Canton and Fokien, and are mostly laden with tea, silks, and porcelain."

The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world; the Chinese residing in this island are computed at one hundred thousand; but twenty thousand of that nation were barbarously massacred, without even the smallest offence being proved upon them, in 1740. The massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia: but he never has been heard of since.

About eighty miles east of Batavia is Cherebon, a place of considerable extent, and where the Dutch have a factory. The country is very fertile, and produces most kinds of provisions, particularly rice. The inhabitants are under the dominion of four great lords, called sultans, one of whom is particularly attached to the Dutch, and, for that reason, is distinguished from the rest by the name of the company's sultan.

Near Cherebon are a splendid tomb and mosque, ranked amongst the most magnificent antiquities of the east. Thunberg mentions several volcanoes, one of which had overwhelmed with ashes a great number of coffee plantations.

Bantam, which was once the metropolis of a great kingdom, is the principal place of commerce at the western part of this island. It stands in a plain, at the foot of a mountain, whence issues a river that divides itself into three streams, one of which runs through the town, and the others surround it. It is twelve miles in circumference; and, before it was reduced by the treachery of the Dutch, (who first joined the natives against their king, and then stripped the latter of all regal power,) was very populous, well fortified, and contained several elegant buildings and palaces. At this time it is a ruinous place, inhabited only by the poorest people.

Customs, Manners, &c.] "The Dutch settlers in this place, acquiring wealth and influence under the company, neglect their former habits of industry and temperance, and too often sacrifice health, and sometimes life, to indolence and voluptuousness; convivial pleasures, in particular, are carried to excess. In many respectable houses, fish and flesh are served with tea and coffee for breakfast; very soon after this, claret, madeira, gin, Dutch small beer, and English porter, are placed in the portico of the great hall; and pipes and tobacco are served to every guest, with which they are occupied, with little interruption, till near the hour of dinner, which is one o'clock.

"Just before dinner, each guest is served with a bumper of Madeira wine, as a whetter or bracer: two men-slaves attend for this purpose. Afterwards enter three female slaves: one holds a silver jar, containing water, to wash with; a second, an empty silver basin, with a cover, to receive the water after having used it; and a third has towels to wipe the hands with. Other female slaves wait at table, which is covered with a variety of dishes; but, with stomachs so cloyed, little is received into them except liqueurs. A band of musicians, all slaves, play at a small distance during the repast. Coffee immediately succeeds dinner; and soon after they retire to bed, consisting only of a mattress, bolster, pillow, and a chintz counterpane, but no sheets; and the night-dress, consisting of a muslin cap and a long loose gown, is put on. If he be a bachelor, a female slave attends to fan him during his sleep. About six, they rise and dress, drink tea, take an airing in their carriage, and form parties to spend the evening.

"The morning-meetings are seldom attended by the ladies. Most of these are descended from Dutch settlers, and their education has by no means been neglected. The features and contour of their faces are European, but their complexion and character Javanese. The tint of the rose is an alien to the cheek, while pale languor overspreads the countenance. When at home, they are mostly clothed, like their slaves, in a red checkered gown of cotton, de-

seeming to the ankles, with long wide sleeves. The colour of their hair is mostly black, worn in plaits or tresses, fastened with a silver bodkin on the top of the head, like the peasants of Switzerland; they wear no head-dress, and their hair is occasionally polished with the oil of the cocoa-nut, and decorated with chaplets of flowers.

"Diseases of the teeth, which prevail in the northern parts of Europe, are strangers to the native Javanese, who principally subsist on vegetable food; but so capricious is mankind with regard to taste, that what would appear disgusting, if not disgraceful, to a European, black teeth, is with them considered as the standard of beauty: accordingly, they sedulously paint their teeth all black, of the deepest hue, the two anterior ones in the middle excepted, and these they cover with gold-leaf; the operation is repeated as often as is necessary to keep them in that state, and they compare those to monkeys, who preserve them in their natural colour.

"When abroad on morning-visits, out on airings in their carriages, or engaged in parties on evenings, they dress splendidly, in gold and silver-spangled muslin robes, with their hair adorned with a profusion of jewels. They are not solicitous to mould the shape from fancied elegance, at the expense of ease, neither are they guided by any standard of fashion.

"Every native lady takes abroad with her a female slave, handsomely dressed, who, on her mistress being seated, sits before her on the floor, holding in her hand a gold or silver box, containing a pungent masticatory. It is compounded of areca-nut, cardamom-seeds, pepper, tobacco, and slacked lime, rolled within a betel-leaf, and is in general use among the ladies.

"If, when at public assemblies, the ladies feel themselves incommoded by heat, whether occasioned by their dress or not, they withdraw, and change their costly robes for a loose attire. The younger gentlemen follow the example, and substitute white jackets, often with diamond buttons, for their heavy formal vestments.

"The members of the government have always combined their personal gratification with the eastern policy of striking vulgar minds with reverential awe, by assuming external and exclusive distinctions. They alone, for instance, are privileged to wear abroad crimson velvet; to them only one of the city-gates is opened; their carriages have distinguished heraldic ornaments, and others, meeting them, must stop and pay them homage. They certainly do succeed in maintaining absolute power, not only over the natives of the country, but likewise over the slaves imported into it, and the Chinese attracted thither in the hope of gain.

"The native Javanese were formerly governed by as many petty kings as there were large towns, but their number has been diminished. At present, the sultan of Mataram rules to the east, and the king of Bantam to the west, while nearly the whole coast and effective power are in the hands of the Dutch.

"The Mahometan princes, being all despots, do not rule in the hearts of their subjects. According to Dutch accounts, the tyrannic sway of the emperor is supported by prodigious armies throughout his territories, and by a very considerable female guard about his person. These heroines are trained to a domestic, as well as to a military life, among whom many, from mental accomplishments, are the companions as well as attendants of his Imperial Majesty.

"The island of Celebes, to the eastward of Borneo, and some other eastern islands, supply Java with slaves; and though a change of masters may not have generally aggravated their condition, yet some among them, who, before they were made captives, lived in a state of independence, have been known to take offence on the slightest occasions, and to avenge themselves by assassination. Under this apprehension it is, that female slaves are preferred in Batavia, for every use to which they can be applied; and their number, of course, exceeds that of the males. The method of wreaking their revenge is this: in order to possess themselves of artificial courage, they swallow a more than ordinary dose of opium, which soon renders them frantic and desperate. In this state, they not only stab the objects of their hatred, but, in their frenzy, sally forth, and assail, in the same manner, every person they meet, till self-preservation renders it a duty to destroy them. Indeed such is the moral turpitude of mankind, that instances are not more frequent among the slaves than among the free natives of the country, who, without prudence to guide them in the ordinary affairs of life, or fortitude to bear them up against its common accidents—from the anguish of losing their friends, or their money, or property—madly adopt the same remedy, and produce the like dreadful effects.

"The Javanese appear, however, to have the highest veneration for such of their ancestors as have paid the debt of nature. A cemetery is appropriated for their remains, and they spare no expense in erecting monuments to their memory. The head of every family, not a pauper, has a separate vault; and when a Chinese of respectability dies, the melancholy event is announced to the surviving relatives. The body of the deceased is washed and perfumed; and, after putting on its best apparel, it is seated in a chair, before which the wives, children, and relations, prostrate themselves, and weep bitterly. A table, spread with fruit and various dishes, with a desert, is laid before the corpse, and wax-figures are placed on each side, as its attendants. On the third day, the corpse is put into a coffin, and placed in one of the best apartments hung round, on this occasion, with white linen, the colour

of their mourning. An altar is raised in the middle of the room; and they place the portrait of the deceased upon it, and burn incense near it. The sons, dressed in coarse white linen, stand near the coffin, and manifest every token of sorrow, while the mother and female relatives are heard to bewail behind a curtain.

"On the day of interment the whole family assembles, and the corpse is conveyed to the grave with great pomp and solemnity. In the first procession are persons bearing images of men and women, relatives of the family, images of various animals, wax-tapers, &c. Next follow the priests, accompanied with instruments of music; and then the corpse, borne upon a bier, attended by the sons of the deceased, clothed in white, and inclining upon crutches, as if unable, from sorrow, to support themselves erect. The female relatives are carried in chairs, encircled with white silk, to conceal them from view; but their lamentations are uttered aloud; and other women, trained to mimic sorrow, are hired to howl, shriek, and groan, as is the custom in some parts of Europe."

TIMOR.

Timor extends almost north-east and south-west, and is situated between one hundred and twenty-four and one hundred and twenty-eight degrees of east longitude. It is upwards of two hundred miles in length, and more than fifty in breadth, and is divided into several principalities or kingdoms. It has not any navigable rivers or harbours; yet there are several bays, where ships may ride, at some seasons of the year, with the greatest safety, as the shore is good, and free from either rocks or shoals. The Dutch and Portuguese have factories on this island; but that of the latter is the most considerable.

The island is very fertile, and produces a variety of valuable articles, particularly cocoa-nuts, which grow here in great abundance. There are also several sorts of trees that make excellent timber for ship-building; and in some parts of the island are sandal-wood and cotton-trees.

The Malayan and a corruption of the Portuguese are the most general languages used by the inhabitants of this island, but the natives have a language of their own.

The fort belonging to the Dutch here is called Concordia, situated on a rock near the sea, between two and three miles from the south-east point of the island. But the place where the principal trade is carried on is Porta Nova, situated at the east end of the island, and where the Portuguese governor usually resides. This town, with that of Concordia, belonging to the Dutch, were some years ago attacked by a pirate, who plundered and destroyed several of the buildings.

SUMATRA.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] This island is situated in the Indian Ocean, between ninety-three and one hundred and four degrees of east longitude, and five degrees thirty minutes of north latitude. It is bounded, on the north, by Malacca; on the east, by Borneo; on the south-east, by Java; and, on the west, by the Indian Ocean. It is long and narrow, extending in a direct line from the north-west to the south-east, and is about seven hundred and fifty miles in length, and one hundred and seventy-five in breadth. It is the first of the islands that form the Great Archipelago of the East, the entrance of which is, as it were, blocked up by this island and Java, which form a barrier, separating the Indian from the Chinese Ocean, with this exception, that, in the centre, between the two islands, there is an opening, which appears as if purposely designed to admit a free passage, for the advantage of commerce. This opening is called the Straits of Sunda, the south part of which is the north of Java, and the north point is the south of Sumatra. These two are about six leagues asunder, between which ships pass directly to Batavia or China, without touching at the Indies.

Face of the Country, Soil, &c.] A chain of mountains runs through the whole island. Mount Ophir, immediately under the equinoctial line, is thirteen thousand eight hundred and forty-two feet above the sea, only yielding about two thousand 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 great a scale as the rivers and other features of that immense continent. The soil of this island 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 seem to be many mines of gold, though mostly neglected; and the copper is mingled with that metal. There are excellent ores of iron and steel; and tin is one of the chief exports, being principally found near Palimbang, on the eastern shore.

Animal and Vegetable Productions.] The horses of Sumatra are small, but well-made and hardy: the cows and sheep are also diminutive, the latter probably from Bengal. Here are also found the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, tiger, bear, otter, porcupine, deer, wild hog, civet-cat, and many varieties of the monkey. The buffalo is employed in domestic labour. Among birds, the Sumatran pheasant is of distinguished beauty. Of the vegetable productions, the most abundant article is pepper, which is produced by a creeping plant, resembling a vine. The white pepper is procured by stripping the outer husk

from the ripe grains. 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, is found in the central parts of the country. Rattans are exported to Europe as walking-canes. There are three kinds of cotton, the annual, the perennial or shrub, and the silk-cotton, which is 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 silk-worm; but, owing to the shortness and brittleness of the staple, it is esteemed unfit for the reel and loom, and is only used for the purpose of stuffing pillows and mattresses. It grows in pods, from four to six inches long, which burst open when ripe. The seeds 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. 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.

Language, &c.] Besides the Malay, several languages are spoken on this island, which seem, however, to have a manifest affinity among themselves. The Rajang and Batta are the chief 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.

Cities, &c.] ACHEN, the capital of the kingdom of that name, which comprehends the whole northern part of the island, is situate on a plain, about five miles from the sea, one thousand miles south-east of Fort St. George, in India, and about four hundred and fifty miles north-west of the city of Malacca. The harbour, which is capable of containing any number of the largest vessels, is commanded by a spacious fortress, encompassed by a ditch, well fortified, according to the Indian manner, and mounted with cannon. There are seven gates belonging to the city, besides which there are other redoubts and fortifications in the adjacent marshes.

Achen contains about eight thousand houses, which are built on posts, two feet above the ground, on account of the great rains that sometimes inundate the city. The floors and sides are made of split bamboos; and they are covered with reeds, cocoa, or palmetto-leaves. They are chiefly divided by palisades, except in two or three particular streets, set apart for trade, and one that is particularly inhabited by the Chinese. The Europeans live as near each other as they can, in a long street near the river.

BENCOOLEN, a settlement belonging to the English, but chiefly inhabited by people of other nations, is situated in one hundred and three degrees of east longitude, and three degrees ten minutes of south latitude. The adjacent country is mountainous and woody; and, in some parts, are volcanoes. The air is very unwholesome, and the mountains are generally covered with thick clouds, that burst in storms of thunder and rain. The soil is a fertile clay, and the chief produce is grass; but, near the sea, it is all a morass. The natives build their houses on bamboo-pillars; but the English build their's with timber, not only from their being in want of stone, but on account of earthquakes, which very frequently happen in this part of the island.

SILLABAR is an English settlement, situated about fifteen miles from Bencoolen, where they constantly keep a detachment from Marlborough Fort. The town is tolerably large, and before it is a convenient harbour; but it has not any building that demands particular attention.

PRIAMAN is situated nearly opposite to Padang, about one hundred miles north-west of Indrapour. It is very populous, and plentifully supplied with most kinds of provisions. The natives carry on a considerable trade in gold with the inhabitants of Manimcabo. The Dutch had a factory here for some years, but were, at length, driven from it by the king of Achen.

BARROS, one of the most considerable places on the west coast, belonging to the king of Achen, is situated on a fine river, nearly in the centre between Ticow and Achen. The Dutch and English, as also the inhabitants of the coast, buy up the camphor here, in order to carry it to Surat and the Straits of Sunda.

Customs, Manners, &c.] Of the inhabitants of Sumatra, no account had been given by any Englishman till the year 1778, when Mr. Charles Miller, son of the late botanical gardener, published an account of the manners of a particular district, in the sixty-eighth volume of the Philosophical Transactions. These were the Battas, a people who reside in the interior parts of the country, and differ from all the other inhabitants in language, manners, and customs. They are described as eating the prisoners whom they take in war, and hanging up their skulls, as trophies, in their houses. Our author observes, however, that human flesh is generally eaten by them *in terrorem*, and not as common food, though they prefer it to all other, and speak with peculiar rapture of the palms of the hands and soles of the feet.

In 1783, Mr. Marsden, who had been secretary to the president and council of Fort Marlborough, published a very interesting history of Sumatra, in which he divides the inhabitants into Malays, Achenese, Battas, Lampoons, and

Rejangs; but takes the latter as his standard of description, with respect to their persons, manners, customs, &c. They are rather below the middle stature, and of a proportionable bulk; their limbs, in general, are slight, and particularly small at the wrists and ankles; and, upon the whole, they are gracefully formed. Their hair is strong, and of a glossy black; but the men are beardless, great pains being taken to render them so when boys, by rubbing their chins with a kind of quick lime. Their complexion is properly yellow, wanting the red tinge that constitutes a copper or tawney colour. The females are, in general, very ordinary, and many of them really disgusting; yet among them are some, whose appearance is strikingly beautiful. Some of the mountaineers are observed to have swelled necks or goitres, but they attempt no remedy for these wens, which are consistent with the highest health.

The customs of the Sumatrans permit their having as many wives as they can purchase, or can afford to maintain; but it is extremely rare that an instance occurs of their having more than one; for the dictates of frugality are more powerful with them than the irregular calls of appetite, and make them decline an indulgence, from which their law does not restrain them. Their rites of marriage consist simply in joining the hands of the parties, and pronouncing them man and wife, without much ceremony, except an entertainment, which is given upon the occasion by the father of the bride. Mothers carry their children, not on the arm, but straddling on the hip, and usually supported by a cloth, which ties in a knot on the opposite shoulder. The Sumatran children are not confined by any swathing or bandage; and, being suffered to roll about the floor, they soon learn to walk and shift for themselves. When cradles are used, they are commonly suspended from the roofs of the huts.

These islanders are so extravagantly fond of cock-fighting, that a father on his death-bed has been known to desire his son to take the first opportunity of matching a cock for a sum equal to his whole property, under a blind conviction of its being invulnerable. When a cock is killed, or overcome, his antagonist must have sufficient spirit left to peck at him three times, on his being held up to him for that purpose, or it becomes a drawn battle; and sometimes an experienced cocker will place the head of his vanquished bird in such an uncouth situation as to terrify the other, and render him unable to give this proof of victory.

The Achenese differ considerably in their persons from the rest of the Sumatrans, being taller, stouter, and of a darker complexion. They appear not to be a genuine people; but are supposed to be a mixture of Battas, Malays, and Moors, from the western parts of India. In their dispositions they are more active and industrious than their neighbours; they possess more penetration and sagacity; and, as merchants, they deal upon a more liberal and extensive foundation. They are justly famed for their skill in navigation; and employ a variety of vessels, according to the voyages they undertake, and the purposes for which they design them. The river is generally covered with fishing sampans or canoes, which go out to sea with the morning-breeze, and return in the afternoon full laden. Having no convenient coins, they usually make their payments in gold-dust, and for that purpose are all provided with scales or small steelyards. They carry their gold about them, in pieces of bladder; and often purchase to so small an amount, as to make use of grains or seeds for weights.

The religion of these people is Mahometanism; and, having a great number of mosques and priests, its forms and ceremonies are observed with the utmost strictness. They have ever been remarkable for the severity with which they punish crimes, and there is no commutation admitted, as is established in the southern countries. There is great reason, however, to suppose, that the indigent alone smart under the rod of justice, the nobles being secured from retribution by the number of their dependants. Petty theft is punished either by suspending the criminal from a tree, with a heavy weight tied to his feet, or by the amputation of a finger, a hand, or leg, according to the nature of the theft. House-breaking and robbery on the highway are usually punished by drowning, and afterwards exposing the offender's body on a stake; but, if the robbery be committed on an imam or priest, the criminal is burnt alive. When a man is convicted of adultery, he is delivered up to the friends and relations of the injured husband, who take him to a large plain, and, forming themselves into a circle, place him in the middle; a large weapon, called *gadoobong*, is then delivered to him by one of his family; and, if he can force his way through those who surround him, he is not liable to farther persecution; but it more commonly happens, that he is soon cut to pieces; and, in that case, his relations bury him as they would a dead buffalo, refusing to admit the corpse into their house, or to perform any funeral-rites.

The sovereignty of Achen is hereditary; and the king usually employs a guard of one hundred Sepoys about his palace. "The grand council of the nation," says Mr. Marsden, "consists of the king, four *ooloobattaugs*, eight of a lower degree, who sit on his right-hand, and sixteen *cajoorangs*, who sit on his left. At the king's feet sits a woman, to whom he communicates his commands; which she imparts to an eunuch, and he to an officer, who proclaims them aloud to the assembly. There are also present two other officers, one of whom has the government of the market, and the other the superintendence of executions.

All matters relative to commerce, and the customs of

the port, come under the jurisdiction of a *shabandar*, who performs the ceremony of giving the licence for trade, by lifting a golden-hafted dagger over the head of the merchant; without which no person must presume to land his goods. Presents, the value of which are become pretty regularly ascertained, are then sent to the king and his officers. If the stranger be an ambassador, the royal elephants are sent to carry him and his letters to the monarch's presence, which is done with a great deal of ceremony. After this interview, he is conducted to a separate building, where he is entertained with the delicacies of the country; and in the evening he returns, surrounded by a prodigious number of lights.

SECTION VII.

NICOBAR ISLANDS.

Extent, Productions, &c.] The Nicobar Islands are three in number; the largest of which is called Carnicobar, and is about fifteen miles in circumference. They produce cocoa and areka-trees, with yams and sweet potatoes; and the edible birds' nests, so highly esteemed in China, are here found in abundance. The only quadrupeds are swine and hogs. The principal traffic is in cocoa-nuts, of which one hundred are bartered for a yard of blue cloth.

Customs, Manners, &c.] Of the inhabitants of the Nicobar Islands, but little authentic information has been given to Europeans. We are enabled, however, to lay before our readers some interesting particulars, which have been communicated to the Asiatic Society by Mr. G. Hamilton and Lieutenant Colebroke.

"The natives of Carnicobar are low in stature, and of a copper complexion, with a cast of the Malay features, but very well made, and remarkably strong and active. The men cut their hair short, and wear nothing but a narrow strip of cloth about the waist. The women have their heads shaved quite bare, and wear no other covering than a short petticoat, made of dry grass, which reaches about half-way down the thigh, and bears some resemblance to the thatching of a house. Such of them as have received presents of cloth-petticoats from the ships, commonly tie them round immediately under their arms. The ears of both sexes are pierced when young; and, by inserting plugs of wood, or appending heavy shells, they contrive to render them extremely wide. They are naturally disposed to gaiety and feasting, and are very fond of sitting at table with Europeans, of whose viands they will eat most voraciously. They do not appear to be very partial to wine, but will drink bumpers of arrack, till they are completely inebriated. When a feast is held at any of their villages, every person that chooses goes uninvited, for they are utter strangers to ceremony. At these feasts they devour immense quantities of pork, and this they eat almost raw, giving it only a hasty grill over a quick fire. Their hogs are extremely fat, being fed upon cocoa-nuts and sea-water; indeed, all their domestic animals are fed upon the same. They have, also, abundance of small fish, which they strike very dexterously with lances; wading into the sea about knee-deep, and frequently killing a very small fish at the distance of ten or twelve yards. They roast a fowl by running a piece of wood through its body, and holding it over a brisk fire until the feathers are burnt off, when they deem it ready for eating, without any other preparation. Their usual beverage is cocoa-milk, or a liquor called *soura*, which oozes from the cocoa-tree after cutting off the young sprouts or flowers. This they suffer to ferment before it is used, and then drink it by sucking it slowly through a small straw, which is said to add considerably to its intoxicating quality.

"After a repast, the young men and women usually dress themselves out with leaves, and begin dancing, while the old people sit in a circle round them, drinking *soura* and smoking tobacco. The dancers, while performing, sing some of their tunes, which are tolerably harmonious, and to which they keep very good time. Of musical instruments they have only one kind, and that the simplest that can be imagined. It is a hollow bamboo, about two feet and a half long, and three inches in diameter, along the outside of which there is stretched from end to end a single string, made of the threads of split cane, and the place under the string is hollowed out to prevent it from touching. This instrument, which is played upon in the same manner as a guitar, produces but few notes; the performer, however, generally contrives to make it sound harmoniously, and sometimes accompanies it with his voice.

"The habitations of the Carnicobarians are generally built upon the beach, in villages of fifteen or twenty houses each, and each house contains a family of about twenty persons. These dwellings are raised upon wooden pillars, about ten feet from the ground: they are of a circular shape, and, being covered with thatch, bear a striking resemblance to bee-hives, particularly as they have no windows; the entrance is through a trap-door, where the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night. This mode of building is intended to secure the houses from snakes, rats, &c. and for that purpose the pillars are bound round with a smooth kind of leaf, that prevents animals from crawling up them; and, besides this, each pillar has a broad flat piece of wood near the top of it, the projecting of which effectually stops the progress of such vermin as may by chance have passed the leaf. The flooring consists of thin strips of bamboo, laid at such distances as to leave free admission for light and air; and the interior of each house is neatly finished, and decorated with fishing lances, nets, &c.

"The most remarkable qualities in the composition of this people are, their total neglect of compliment, and their aversion to dishonesty. A Carnicobarian travelling to a distant village, upon business or amusement, passes through many towns, in his way, without speaking to any one: if he is hungry or tired, he goes into the nearest house, where he helps himself to what he wants, and sits till he is rested, without taking the least notice of any of the family, unless he has business or news to communicate. Theft or robbery is so very rare amongst them, that a man, going out of his house, never takes away his ladder, nor shuts the door, but leaves it open for any body to enter that pleases, without the least apprehension of any thing being stolen.

"Their language has a sound entirely different from most others, their words being pronounced with a kind of stop, or catch in the throat, at every syllable. By frequent intercourse with strangers, however, they have acquired, in general, the barbarous Portuguese, so common over India.

"It is said that the Carnicobarians have no idea of God, although they believe in the existence of the devil, and worship him from sentiments of fear. In every village a high pole is erected, with long strings of rattans hanging from it, which is supposed to keep the malevolent spirit at a distance. When they see any signs of an approaching storm, they imagine that the devil intends them a visit, upon which many superstitious ceremonies are performed. The people of every village march round their own boundaries, and fix up, at different distances, small sticks, split at the top, into which they put a piece of cocoa-nut and the leaf of a certain plant. But whether this is designed as a peace-offering to the devil, or a charm to keep him away, cannot be easily ascertained.

"When a man dies, all his live-stock, hatchets, fishing-lances, &c. are buried with him, and his death is mourned by the whole village; a custom which, however singular in its nature, prevents all disputes about the property of the deceased among his relations. It is also customary for the wife to suffer the amputation of a joint from one of her fingers, or to have a deep notch cut in one of the pillars of her house.

"I was once present," says Mr. Hamilton, "at the funeral of an old woman. When we went into the house which had belonged to the deceased, we found it full of her female relations; some of whom were employed in wrapping up the corpse in leaves and cloth, and others tearing to pieces all the cloth which had belonged to her. In an adjacent house, the men of the village, with a great many others from the neighbouring towns, were sitting, drinking *soura*, and smoking tobacco. In the mean time two stout young fellows were busy digging a grave in the sand near the house. When the women had done with the corpse, they set up a most hideous howl, upon which the people began to assemble round the grave, and four men went up into the house to bring down the body: in doing this they were much interrupted by a young man, son of the deceased, who endeavoured with all his might to prevent them; but, finding it in vain, he clung round the body and was carried to the grave along with it: there, after a violent struggle, he was turned away, and conducted back to the house. The corpse being now put into the grave, all the live-stock which had been the property of the deceased, consisting of about half a dozen hogs and as many fowls, was flung in above it; a man then approached with a bunch of leaves, fastened to the end of a pole, which he swept two or three times gently along the corpse, and then the grave was filled up. During the ceremony, the women continued to utter the most horrible cries imaginable. A few days afterwards, a kind of monument was erected over the grave, with a pole upon it, from which some strips of cloth, of different colours, were suspended.

"There seems to subsist among these islanders a perfect equality. A few persons, from their age, have a little more respect paid to them; but there is no appearance of authority one over another: their society seems bound rather by mutual obligations; the simplest and best of all ties."

As the natives of Nancowry and Comarty have the same customs, manners, &c. as the rest of the Nicobarians, we shall only state, in addition, an extraordinary ceremony which they annually perform in honour of the dead.

"On the anniversary of this festival," says Mr. Colebrooke, "their houses are decorated with garlands of fruits, flowers, and branches of trees. The people of each village assemble, dressed in their best attire, at the principal house in the place, where they spend the day in a convivial manner; the men, sitting apart from the women, smoke tobacco, and intoxicate themselves, while the latter are nursing their children, or employing themselves in preparation for the mournful business of the night. At a certain hour of the afternoon, announced by striking the *goung*, the women set up the most dismal howls and lamentations, which they continue, without intermission, until sun-set, when the whole party get up, and walk in procession to the burying ground. When arrived at the place, they form a circle round one of the graves, when a stake, planted exactly over the head of a corpse, is pulled up. The woman who is nearest of kin to the deceased then steps out from the crowd, digs up the skull, and takes it up with her hands. At sight of the bones her strength seems to fail her: she shrieks and sobs alternately, and tears of anguish fall abundantly on the mouldering object of her pious care. She clears it from the earth, scrapes off the festering flesh, and laves it plentifully with the milk of fresh cocoa-nuts; after which she rubs it over with an in-

fusion of saffron, and wraps it carefully in a piece of new cloth. It is then deposited again in the earth, and covered up, the stake is replanted, and hung with the various trappings and implements belonging to the deceased; and the whole night is spent in going from grave to grave, and repeating these dismal and disgustful rites.

"On the next morning the ceremony is concluded by an offering of several fat swine, when the sacrifice made to the dead affords an ample feast to the living. The people besmear themselves with the blood of the slaughtered hogs; and some, more voracious than the rest, eat the flesh raw. They have various ways, however, of dressing their meat, but always eat it without salt. A kind of paste, made of the *mellori*, serves them for bread, and they always finish their repast with copious potations of *soura*.

"The Nicobareans," continues our author, "are hospitable and honest, and are remarkable for a strict observance of truth, and for a most punctual adherence to their engagements. Such crimes as robbery and murder are unknown in these islands; but the people do not want spirit to revenge their injuries, and will fight resolutely, if attacked or unjustly dealt with. Their only vice seems to be inebriety; but even in their cups they are commonly jovial and good-humoured. Sometimes, however, it happens at their feasts, that the men of different villages fall out, and then the quarrel is sure to become general. In these cases they terminate their differences in a pitched battle, where the only weapons used are long sticks, of a hard and knotty wood: with these they drub one another most heartily, until, no longer able to withstand each other's fury, they mutually put an end to the combat.

"These islanders are so sensible of the scanty population of their country, that they endeavour to increase it by inviting, and even seducing, some Malabars, or Bengalese, to remain amongst them, and of these there are in almost every village some to be found, who may be easily distinguished from the natives, by their figure, features, and complexion. They are usually encouraged to stay by grants of land, with plantations of arecas and cocoa-trees; and, after a certain number of years, they are permitted to make choice of a female companion.

"They entertain a very high opinion of such as are able to read and write; and firmly believe that all Europeans, by this sole qualification, are able to control the winds, direct the appearance of the planets, and perform all the supposed wonders of divination.

"The different changes of the moon are productive of great festivity among the Nicobareans, for on these occasions their huts are fancifully decorated with branches of palm and festoons of plantain-leaves; and the day is entirely devoted to singing, dancing, and drinking.

"The idea of years, months, and days, is totally unknown to them, as they reckon by moons only, of which they number fourteen, that is, seven at each monsoon. At the fair season, or the commencement of the north-east monsoon, they sail in large canoes to Carnicobar, called by them *Champaloon*. The object of this little voyage is trade; and for fowls, hogs, areen, and coron, the produce of their own island, they receive in exchange, canoes, spears, ambergris, tortoiseshell, &c.

"Few diseases are known among them, except a swelling of the legs, known, in the west of India, by the name of the *Cochin leg*, from the place where it generally prevails. This endemial disease seems to result chiefly from ill-chosen and badly-prepared diet, or bad choice of habitations, and an extremely indolent life. The small-pox visits them occasionally, but not of the confluent kind; and they are sometimes attacked by fevers and cholics. When a person falls sick, he is immediately removed to the house of a priest, or conjurer, who invariably orders the patient to be laid in a supine posture for some time, and friction, with some oily substance, is to be repeatedly applied to the upper part of his body: the use of internal remedies seems to be either unknown or utterly disregarded."

Their superstition, in many particulars, is very remarkable; one instance of which we shall lay before our readers.—Some of the natives, having begun to fabricate earthen pots, died soon afterward; and the cause being attributed to this new employment, it has never been resumed; for they prefer going fifteen or twenty leagues to purchase such articles, rather than expose themselves to an undertaking which they firmly believe to be attended with the most fatal consequences.

SECTION VIII.

ANDAMAN ISLANDS.

Extent, Productions, &c.] The island called the Great Andaman is about one hundred and forty miles in length, but not more than twenty in the greatest breadth; indented by deep bays, and intersected by vast creeks and inlets, one of which passes quite through the island, and is navigable for small vessels. The soil is chiefly a black mould, and the forests, which are pretty extensive, contain some valuable trees, as ebony and the bread-fruit. The only quadrupeds are wild hogs, monkeys, and rats; but the sea yields an abundance of excellent fish, particularly oysters.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Andaman Islands are inhabited by a race of men the least civilized in the world, and approaching nearer to a state of nature than any people we read of. Their complexion is extremely dark, their stature generally low, and their aspect remarkably uncouth. Their limbs are ill-proportioned, their bellies prominent, and their noses flat. They have also woolly heads, in

which respect they differ from all the various tribes inhabiting the continent of Asia or its islands. Both sexes go entirely naked, except on some occasions, when the women wear a sort of fringe round their waist; and even this is intended merely for ornament.

It is said that the men are remarkably crafty and revengeful; and frequently express their aversion to strangers in a loud and threatening tone, exhibiting many signs of defiance, and expressing their contempt by the most indecent gestures. At other times they appear quiet and docile, with the most insidious intent. They will even affect to enter into a friendly conference, and receive, with a show of humility, any articles that may be presented to them; but on a sudden they will utter a hideous shout, and treacherously discharge their arrows at the unsuspecting visitant. On the appearance of a vessel, they frequently lie in ambush among the trees, and send one of their gang to allure the strangers on shore; and, if the crew happen to land without arms, they immediately rush out from their lurking-places and attack them. In these skirmishes they are said to display great resolution, and have sometimes been known to plunge into the water, and discharge their arrows while in the act of swimming.

Their mode of life appears degrading to human nature, for, like brutes, their time is chiefly spent in quest of food, and, as their lands are totally uncultivated, they subsist entirely upon what they can pick up or kill. In the morning they daub their woolly heads with red-ochre, and rub their skins with mud, to prevent the annoyance of insects. The women bear the greatest part of the drudgery, in collecting food: repairing to the reefs, at the recess of the tide, to pick up shell-fish: while the men are hunting in the woods, or wading in the water to shoot fish with their bows and arrows. In their excursions through the woods, a wild hog sometimes rewards their toils, and affords them a more substantial repast. They usually broil their meat on small bamboos, adjusted in form of a gridiron, but use no salt, nor any other seasoning.

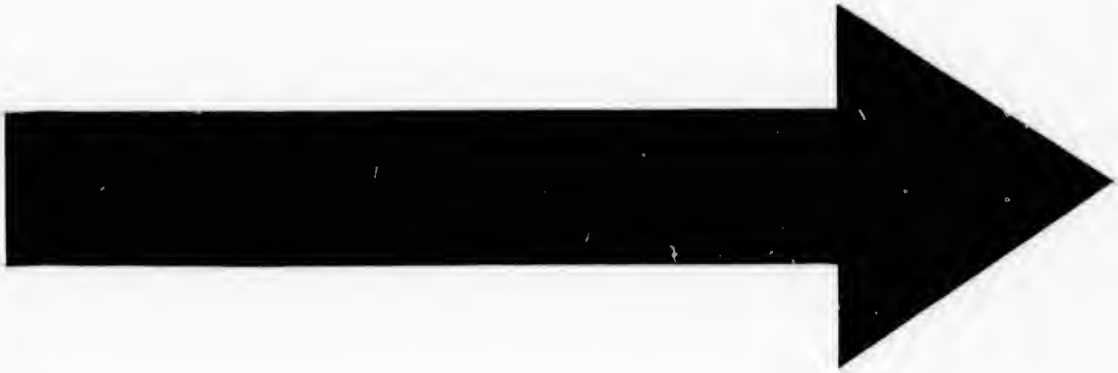
Upon some occasions they display a considerable share of vivacity in conversation, and are remarkably fond of singing and dancing. Their language is rather smooth than guttural; and their melodies, which are in the nature of recitative and chorus, are not unpleasing. They usually dance in a ring, each alternately slapping and kicking his own posteriors. Their salutation is performed by lifting up one leg, and striking with their hand upon the lower part of the thigh.

Their huts may be considered as the rudest attempt to procure shelter from the weather. Three or four sticks are fixed in the ground, and fastened together at top in form of a cone; over which a sort of thatch is formed with branches and leaves of trees; an opening is left on one side, just large enough to creep into, and the ground beneath is strewed with dried leaves, that supply the want of beds. In these wretched hovels are frequently found the skulls of wild hogs, suspended from the roofs.

They use rafts, made of bamboos, to transport themselves across their harbours, or from one island to another; and they have also a few canoes, hollowed out of the trunks of trees, by means of fire and instruments of stone, but they have no iron in use among them, except such utensils as they have procured from the European mariners who have lately visited their islands, or from the wrecks of vessels formerly stranded on their coasts. Their bows are remarkably long, and of a peculiar form; their arrows are headed with fish-bones, or the tusks of wild hogs; and they also use a kind of shield. Of their implements for fishing, and other purposes, we cannot give a particular description. It appears, however, that hand-nets, of different sizes, are used in catching the small fry; and a kind of wicker-basket serves to deposit whatever articles of food they can pick up.

With respect to the origin of these people, nothing satisfactory has ever been laid before the public. A story has, indeed, been related of a crew of African slaves, of both sexes, having been cast away at the Andamans; and that, having murdered their masters and fellow-passengers, they spread themselves over, and peopled the country. But this story does not appear to have been well authenticated. Some authors have accused them of being cannibals; but this charge has never been fully proved, although, from their cruel disposition, great voracity, and cunning modes of lying in ambush, there is reason to suspect, that, in attacking strangers, they are frequently impelled by hunger; as they invariably put to death the unfortunate victims who fall into their hands, and the bodies of some whom they have killed have been found mangled and torn. It would, indeed, be difficult to account for their unremitting hostility to strangers without believing them to be men-eaters, unless the above-mentioned story of their origin be true; in which case they might probably retain some tradition of having once been in a state of slavery, and might therefore wage perpetual war with those whom they suspected of wishing to enslave them again.

A British settlement has been recently formed on the Greater Andaman, and some convicts have been sent thither from Bengal.



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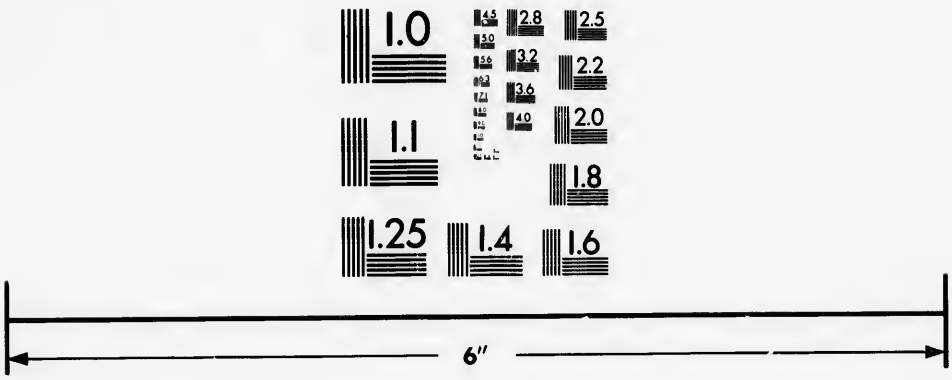

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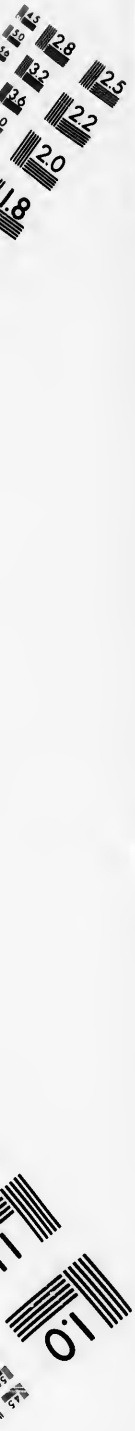
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CHAPTER X.

FORMOSA, ANIAN, AND THE ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

SECTION I.

FORMOSA.

Situation, Extent, and Climate.

THIS beautiful island is situated nearly opposite to the province of Fo-kien, in China, and is computed to be two hundred and sixteen miles in length, from north to south, and about seventy miles in the broadest part. Its longitude from Pekin is from three degrees twenty minutes to five degrees forty minutes east, so that, when the sun is almost vertical over it, the climate is rather hot; but this is far from being disagreeable, as the heat is greatly mitigated by the situation of the island, which is so elevated as to receive the most agreeable advantages from the cooling breezes of the sea.

Vegetables.] That part of the island possessed by the Chinese produces great quantities of different kinds of grain, especially rice; and its fertility is increased by the numerous rivers with which it is watered. As great a variety of fruits are to be found upon it as in any other part of the Indies, particularly oranges, cocoas, bananas, ananas, guavas, &c. Also several kinds of those produced in Europe, as peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, and chesnuts. They have likewise a sort of melon, which is of an oblong form, and much larger than those of Europe: it contains a white or red pulp, and is full of a fine juice, very grateful to the taste.

Animals.] There are but few wild beasts on this island, and those seldom seen, as they chiefly inhabit the interior parts, which are very mountainous, and seldom resorted to by the inhabitants. They have some horses, oxen, sheep, goats, and hogs. They have but few birds, the principal of which is the pheasant; but the rivers produce great plenty of various kinds of fish.

Chief City.] The capital city, which is in the possession of the Chinese, is called Taywan. It is large and populous, and carries on so extensive a trade, that it is little inferior to some of the most opulent in China. It is plentifully supplied with all kinds of provisions, either of its own product, or commodities brought from other countries, as rice, cotton, sugar, wine, tobacco, and dried venison; the latter of which is greatly admired by the Chinese, and considered as the most delicious food. They have likewise all kinds of fruits, medicinal herbs, roots, gums, &c. with plenty of linen, silk, and cotton, of various sorts.

The houses are, in general, very small, and are built of clay, covered with thatch. The streets are long and spacious, and the buildings on each side have awnings, that join in such a manner as to cover the street; but these are only used during the hot months, to keep off the excessive heat of the sun. Some of the streets are nearly three miles in length, and between thirty and forty feet broad. These streets are chiefly occupied by dealers, whose shops are furnished with all kinds of goods, ranged and displayed to the greatest advantage. The shops appear very brilliant, and many people walk in the streets merely to gratify themselves with the sight of so great a variety of the richest commodities.

The city is not defended either by walls or fortifications; but it has a good garrison of horse and foot, consisting of ten thousand men, who are principally Tartars. These are commanded by a lieutenant-general, two major-generals, and a number of inferior officers, who are at liberty to relinquish their situation, after having served three years, or sooner, if occasion should require.

The harbour is tolerably good, and sheltered from the winds; but the entrance to it is dangerous for ships of burthen, the bottom of it being rocky, and the water not above ten feet deep at the highest tides.

As the coasts about this island are very high and rocky, and have neither havens nor sea-ports, it is almost impossible to effect an invasion. Taywan is the only bay in the whole island where ships of any bulk can approach, and this is situated at the mouth of a river so narrow, and defended by such high rocks and forts on each side, that no enemy could possibly enter it without being repulsed.

Government.] The government of each town or borough is confined to itself. Three or four of the most ancient, who are known to be men of integrity, are appointed as judges over the rest, who determine all differences; and he who refuses to submit to the decision is banished; nor can he either return, or be admitted into any other town; so that he is obliged to finish his days without ever again participating of the enjoyments of society. The inhabitants of this island pay an annual tribute to the Chinese, which consists of certain quantities of grain, the tails and skins of stags, and other productions of the country.

Population, Language, &c.] M. de la Perouse, who was off this island in 1787, relates, that the easternmost part

of Formosa is inhabited by natives, who do not acknowledge the sovereignty of the Chinese, and that the western part is extremely populous, because the Chinese, oppressed and harassed in their native country, are always ready to emigrate. From the information the French navigators received, it appears, that the settlers who have gone over to this island, since its conquest by the Chinese, amount to five hundred thousand, and that the chief town contains fifty thousand inhabitants; and, as these are laborious and industrious, their numbers are not of any disadvantage to the conquerors. M. de la Perouse thought, that the conquest of Formosa would be of more consequence to Britain than to any nation in Europe, on account of the vast consumption of tea in that island, which has, in a manner, rendered them tributary to China; but, with respect to France, he did not consider it as an object of any great importance. It is remarked, that the language of the natives of this island is not only destitute of the smallest resemblance to that of the Europeans, but even that kind of pantomimic language, which is deemed universal, is by no means better understood by them; and a motion of the head, which, amongst Europeans, denotes the affirmative, has, among them, a signification diametrically opposite.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives of this island are, in general, of a low stature, have large mouths, and are very swarthy in complexion. They have a very high forehead, and are altogether greatly disproportioned; for the body is very short, the neck small, and the arms and legs remarkably long.

Their dress consists only of a rough piece of cloth, tied round the waist, and reaching to the knees; but they adorn their bodies with the figures of trees, flowers, animals, &c. in doing which they undergo such violent pain, that only a small part of the operation can be performed at one time; so that it will take some months before the whole is completed. These embellishments are only permitted to such as have distinguished themselves either by feats of activity or courage. The better sort avoid the punishment of obtaining these ornaments, by using the hair of animals, intermixed with silk, and embroidered with gold and silver. They have all liberty to ornament their arms and ears, which they do with the greatest profusion. On their heads they wear a kind of coronet, the top of which is terminated by a plume, made of the feathers of cocks or pheasants. In short, the whole of their ornaments, with the awkwardness of their shape, form together a very whimsical appearance.

As the climate of the northern part is less temperate than the southern, the inhabitants are better clothed, their dress consisting of the skins of beasts, particularly stags, which they kill in hunting. This garment is very uncouth in its form, being shaped like a vestment worn by priests, and without sleeves. They wear a kind of bonnet on their heads, made of the leaves of bananas, and adorned with coronets, placed one above another, in the form of a pyramid: the whole is fastened with locks of hair of different colours, and the top of it is terminated by a plume of feathers.

In the northern part, the houses are built after the manner of the Chinese; but those of the south are mean cottages, made of earth and bamboo, covered with straw, and so close together, that they are only separated by a very slight partition. Their customs in both parts are the same. They have neither chairs, tables, benches, or beds. Instead of the latter, they use the leaves of trees, which they spread on the floor, and lay themselves down without any sort of covering. They dress their victuals in a kind of chimney, or stove, placed in the centre of the room, and are filthy in their manner of eating. They have neither dishes, spoons, or knives; so that when the provision is dressed, it is laid on a piece of wood, or mat, and they pull it to pieces with their fingers. They do not take much pains in dressing their meat, for the less it is done the better they like it; and some of them admire it most when it is so raw, as barely to have felt the effects of the fire.

Their food chiefly consists of boiled rice, which they eat instead of bread; and the flesh of sheep and goats, and game, which they sometimes catch in the woods, by shooting them, or running them down: the latter is the most common method; for their agility is so great, that they will even outrun the swiftest horse.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, which they use with such dexterity, that they will kill a pheasant flying, at an amazing distance.

In their marriages, little ceremony is observed. When a man fixes on any object that he wishes to be his wife, he goes several days together with music, which he plays for some time before the door; but he is not permitted to enter the house. If the object of his affections approve of him, she comes out, and they agree upon terms, which being made known to their parents, the marriage-feast is prepared, and the friends of each party are invited. The feast consummates the marriage, after which, instead of the wife going home with her husband, he continues in his father-in-law's house, and provides as well for him as for himself, during the remainder of his life.

Their manner of treating the dead before interment is very singular. When a person dies, they lay him on a kind of scaffold, made of bamboo, which they place over a slow fire for nine days, after which they wrap the corpse in a mat, and lay it on a higher scaffold, covered with a pavilion, made of shreds of silk, cloth, &c. Here it remains for two years, at the expiration of which they dig a large hole in the ground, and bury it. Each of these

ceremonies is accompanied with feasting, music, dancing, &c.

History.] About the beginning of the last century, this island was in the possession of the Japanese, but they were supplanted by the superior policy of the Dutch, who, having found means to introduce themselves, erected a small town and a castle, which they called Zealand, situated on so advantageous a spot, that it was impossible for any ship to enter it, of whatever force, without being repulsed. The Japanese, either offended at the great progress the Dutch had made, or not finding the advantages they expected, soon quitted the island, and left the Dutch in sole possession of it, after which the latter erected other fortifications opposite to their new fort, and raised such other defences, as made them complete masters of the island. But the Dutch, with all their policy, continued on the island but a few years; for one of the Chinese generals, (a man of an enterprising genius,) being defeated by the Tartars, who were then at war with the Chinese, fixed his views on Formosa, formed a resolution of ejecting the Dutch, and establishing a new kingdom on the island.

This he effected, and, having afterwards acknowledged submission to the emperor, the island has ever since been subject to the government of China. In 1782, Formosa was visited by a tremendous 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 at his own expense.

SECTION II.

ANIAN, OR HAINAN.

This island, great part of which also belongs to the Chinese, is of considerable extent, and some of the towns are very populous. On the southern part of the island is a fine port, the bay of which is nearly twenty feet deep. There is also another very convenient port on the northern part, the entrance to which is defended by two small forts, though the depth of water does not exceed twelve feet. Here the barks frequently come from Canton with various commodities, in exchange for which they take several kinds of minerals, the natural produce of the country; for in some parts of the island there are gold and silver mines, also mines that produce the lapis lazuli, which the natives of Canton use in painting the blue porcelain. Between the two forts that defend the entrance of the northern fort is a large plain, on which are several handsome Chinese sepulchres.

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 called Leoo-keoo; by the Chinese accounts, the length of it is about one hundred and twenty-five British miles, nearly twice the extent which is assigned in recent maps. These isles were discovered by the Chinese in the seventh century; but it was not till the fourteenth that they became tributary to China. The emperor Kiang-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, and tin, with shells, and mother-of-pearl.

SECTION III.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

The principal islands in the Archipelago considered as belonging to Asiatic Turkey are Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes.

The Asiatic Islands belonging to the Turks are scattered about this Archipelago, so called from the Greek words *archos* and *pelagos*, the first signifying chief, and the latter a sea, this being the chief sea in these parts. Through the oppression of the Ottoman government, they maintain but little of their former opulence and importance. We shall describe them in order as follows:

MYTILENE.

Mytilene, the ancient Lesbos, is about sixty miles from Tenedos, and nearly eight from the continent of Asia. It is about forty miles in length, but its greatest breadth does not exceed twenty-four.

This island once contained several cities, renowned for their fertility and opulence; but scarcely are the remains of many of them to be seen at present, some having been destroyed by earthquakes, and others having fallen a prey to the oppression of the Romans.

Mytilene, the metropolis, was not more famed for the fertility of the circumjacent country, and the uncommon magnificence of its buildings, than for the number of considerable personages to whom it gave birth. Among these were Pittacus, one of the seven Grecian sages; Alcæus, the lyric poet; Sappho, the celebrated poetress; Terpander, the musician; Hellanicus, the historian; Callias, the critic; and many other eminent characters. Indeed, Mytilene was deemed so much the seat of the Muses, and the centre of politeness, that Aristotle resided in it two years, for the express purpose of enjoying the elegant conversation of its inhabitants.

The city, after having revolted from the Athenians, was greatly injured by the Peloponnesian war. It was subse-

quently destroyed by the Romans; and, at its siege, the famous Julius Cæsar made his first campaign, and greatly signalized his courage. Being afterwards rebuilt, Pompey restored it to its ancient franchises. The emperor Trajan adorned it with many elegant structures, and, from his own name, called it Trajanopolis. This island is very fertile, and was celebrated by the ancients for producing, in great abundance, all the necessaries and delicacies of life. The wine, in particular, is excellent, and as much celebrated by physicians for its salubrity, as admired by the voluptuous for its admirable flavour.

Lesbos is, at present, but thinly peopled, and scarcely any thing to be seen but the fragments of its former magnificence: yet there remain some small villages, and several harbours, particularly Castri, built on the ruins of the ancient capital, which is situated on the east side of the island, has an excellent port, and is defended by a strong castle.

The trade of this island consists principally of wine, grain, fruit, cheese, butter, pitch, &c.; and the inhabitants are computed at about twenty thousand. The houses are low and meanly built, and the people poor. Magazines are here kept, to furnish the Turkish galleys with stores, which are employed by the Porte to cruize against the pirates that infest some of these islands. The governor is a cadi; but the troops on the island are commanded by an aga of the Janisaries.

SCIO.

Scio, the ancient Chios, is about thirty-six British miles in length, but only about thirteen in medial breadth. This island is mountainous and rocky, yet the plains produce corn, wine, oil, honey, fruits, and gums; though the fertility is much impeded by a scarcity of water. The country is fertile and populous, and the inhabitants opulent. The wine is celebrated by Horace, and retains its ancient fame. The men are well-made, the women handsome, and both sexes so much inclined to mirth, that they think all the time lost which is not employed in singing, dancing, revelling, or gallantry.

A considerable commerce is carried on here; but the harbour is bad, and indeed dangerous; yet the ships going to and coming from Constantinople rendezvous at this place; and a Turkish squadron is kept here to protect the merchant-ships, and annoy the pirates.

Scio, the capital, is a handsome city. The houses are elegant, and have spacious terraces, and windows glazed with red and green glass. The Venetians took it in 1694, and greatly embellished it, but lost it the year following. It is two miles in circumference, and environed by several beautiful gardens. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Greek Church, or Roman Catholics, and have several churches and monasteries, which remain unmolested by the Turks, who likewise permit them openly to profess their religion.

The citadel was erected by the Genoese, in order to defend the entrance of the harbour. It is guarded by a Turkish garrison. The esplanade, or space between the citadel and first houses of the town, was formed by the Venetians, who, for that purpose, demolished all the houses in the vicinity of the castle. On the esplanade, which presents a most pleasing appearance, there is a fine fountain, in the Turkish style. The whole forms a very beautiful view. Part of the citadel appears to the left of this picturesque scene. About two leagues from the city, in the midst of the mountains, is a convent, very considerable for its vast revenues.

It is to be observed, that Scio was one of the seven cities that contended for the honour of having given birth to Homer, and their coin formerly was stamped with his image.

The whole island contains thirty villages, three hundred churches, and about sixty thousand inhabitants. In time of peace, it is governed by a cadi; but, in war, a bashaw is sent from Constantinople to take upon him the supreme command.

SAMOS.

Samos is about thirty miles in length, and ten in breadth, and is the see of an archbishop. It was formerly a commonwealth, and is naturally so fertile, that, when Greece was at the summit of her glory, it was deemed of as much importance as any of the islands of the Archipelago. The trade at present consists of several sorts of wines, a superior kind of onions and garlic, fine earthenware, raw silk, oil, honey, saffron, fruits, drugs, minerals, emery, ochre, black dye, &c. Notwithstanding the natural richness of this island, the natives are so much oppressed by the Turks, and plundered by the pirates, who infest the coast, that they are in general miserably poor. The inhabitants are about twelve thousand, principally Greeks. The capitation-tax which they pay amounts to about six thousand four hundred crowns, and the customs are farmed at ten thousand more. The governor, who is an aga of the Janisaries, collects about as much again for himself, and makes himself likewise heir to every Greek who dies without male issue; taking money, house, goods, and every thing but the garden, which is left to the possession of the daughters.

The chief town, Samos, is now reduced to a mean village; and, to add to its wretchedness, the pirates frequently plunder it; but it still exhibits some noble fragments of its ancient splendour, and particularly some vestiges of the temple of Juno.

This island is celebrated in history for having given birth to the philosopher Pythagoras. The city of Samos was

formerly very magnificent, as we may judge from its ruins.

COS.

Cos is about twenty-four miles in length, by three or four in breadth; but has been little visited by modern travellers. Pliny styles it 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.

Cos, the capital, is spacious, well built, and strongly fortified: it is situated on the eastern coast, and was formerly famous for a superb temple of Esculapius, as the island itself was for the birth of the celebrated Hippocrates, whose house is still shewn in the town of Harangues.

RHODES.

Rhodes is about thirty-six miles in length, by fifteen in breadth. This island has been long famed in history, under various names, and its inhabitants very early were deemed a maritime people. When attacked by the Greeks, the Rhodians called in the Romans to their assistance; who, according to their usual custom, drove away the enemy, and repaid themselves for their trouble, by seizing the country and the property of the natives; after which it underwent various revolutions. It was taken by the Venetians in 1124. The Turks conquered it in 1283, but were driven out of it by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1308; however, Soliman the Magnificent attacked it with an army of two hundred thousand men, and three hundred ships, and took it, January 1st, 1523, after the Rhodians had lost upwards of ninety-three thousand of their men, and the Turks a much greater number. After this misfortune, most of the Rhodians quitted their country; so that the island became very much depopulated: but the Turks showed so great a respect to the knights of Rhodes, that they suffered them to keep their houses, effects, coats of arms, statues, inscriptions, &c. and granted very considerable privileges to such as would come and settle there, which drew back some of the Rhodians, and many of the Greeks; so that Rhodes, at present, is as populous and flourishing as Turkish tyranny will permit any place to be in the Ottoman territories. The metropolis of Rhodes is called by the same name, and was always esteemed a place of considerable strength. At present, though its former splendour is much decayed, it is a handsome city, and a good sea-port; the situation, at the side of a hill, is delightful; it is about three miles in circumference, fortified by a triple wall and castle, though they are but in bad repair; the streets are wide and well-paved, particularly that of St. John, which is paved with beautiful marble. The houses are built in the Italian taste, and the markets well supplied with all kinds of provisions. It has two harbours, a large one for ships of all nations, and a smaller for the Turkish galleys only, a squadron of which are always kept here to cruize against the Maltese ships. This port is shut up every night with a chain, and near it is a fine piazza, adorned with stately trees, at the extremity of which are the arsenal and dock. The church of St. John is converted into a mosque. Many other churches, the palace formerly belonging to the grand master, the houses of the knights, &c. are still magnificent fabrics.

This city was formerly celebrated for the learning and politeness of its inhabitants, and the numerous academies for various arts and sciences, which were kept open at the public expense; but, at present, literature meets here with the same treatment that it does in most other parts of the Turkish dominions.

Here was erected the celebrated Colossus, one of the wonders of the world, to the honour of Apollo, or the sun. This prodigious statue was made of brass, about one hundred and twenty-three feet in height, and proportionably large in every part. It stood astride over the haven, so that ships could sail in and out between its legs. In one hand it held a light-house, and in the other a sceptre; and its head represented a golden sun. The distance between the two feet was one hundred yards; and two men could scarcely, with extended arms, embrace its thumb. After having stood sixty-six years, it was overturned by an earthquake; and though the Rhodians collected, from the various Grecian states, a prodigious sum to defray the expenses of repairing it, yet the money was embezzled, and the image was suffered to lay on the ground for the space of eight hundred and ninety-four years, when the Saracens took the city, and sold it as old brass to a Jew, who loaded nine hundred camels with it; the whole weight being 720,000 lb. avoirdupois. This wonderful work was made by Clares, a native of Rhodes, who was twelve years in completing it. Just on the spot where the feet stood, a castle on one side, and a tower on the other, were erected, and are standing at present.

The modern Christian inhabitants of this island are very poor, and are not suffered to live within the walls of the city. The principal manufactures are soap, tapestry, and camblets; but the city is a mart for all the commodities and productions of the Levant; yet Rhodes is kept merely in opposition to the Christians, as it does not remit any thing to the grand-signor, the Turkish bashaw being allowed the whole of its revenues, for his own maintenance, and that of the galleys and the garrison.

Along the southern shore of Asia Minor there are some small isles, but they are of no moment, when compared with the large and celebrated island of

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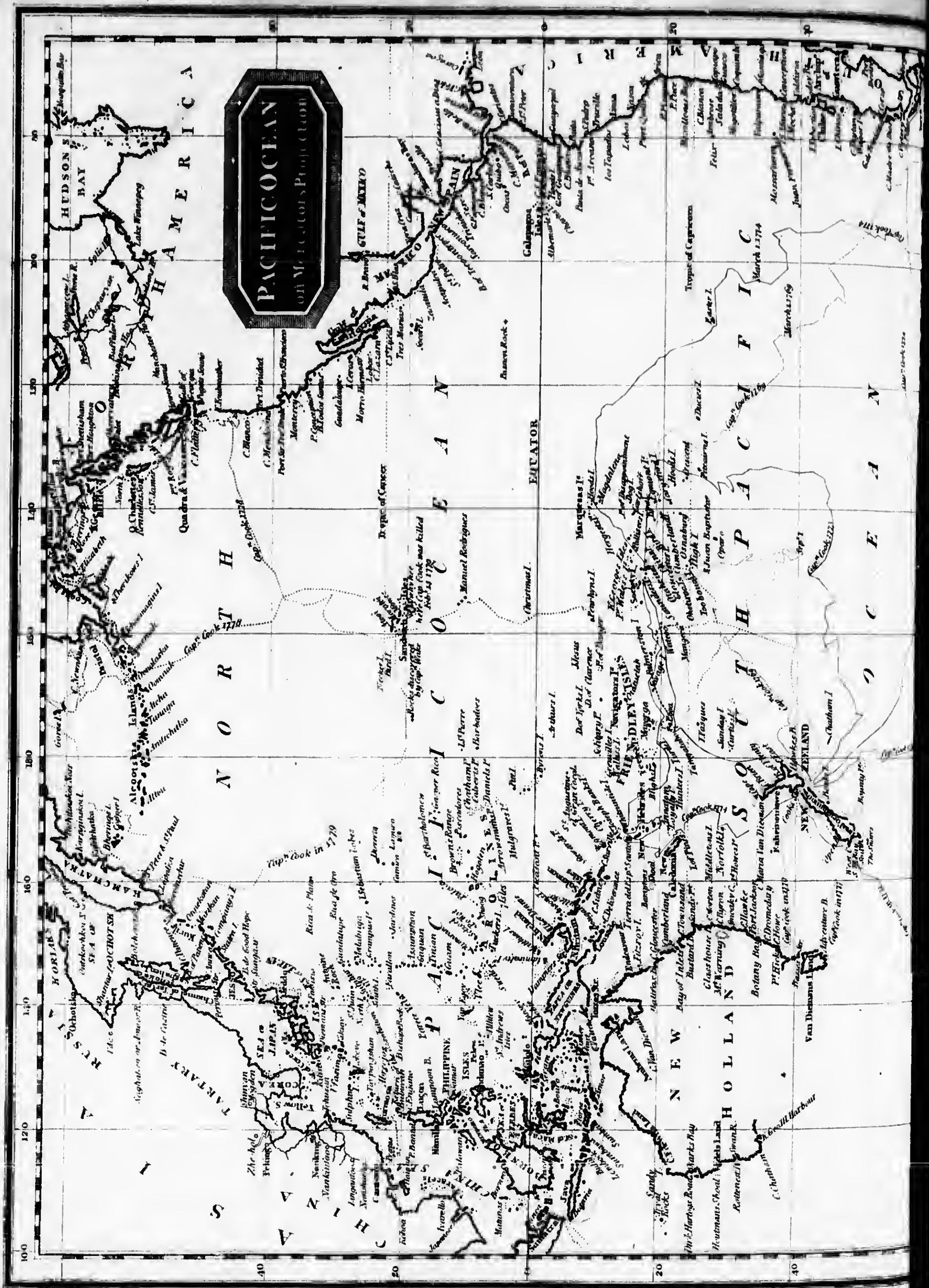

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which is about one hundred and sixty British miles in length, and about seventy at its greatest breadth. It was long possessed by the Ptolemies of Egypt, till it fell under the Roman power; when it remained a portion of the Byzantine empire, till it 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 heiress of the house of Lusignan resigned this isle to the Venetians; but, in 1570, it was conquered by the Turks, who still continue in possession of it.

The soil produces all kinds of grain, wines, oil, sugar, cotton, honey, saffron, wood, metals, minerals, plants, drugs, flowers, &c. It was formerly populous and opulent, but, at present, is but poor and thinly inhabited, which is chiefly owing to the tyranny of the Turkish government, and the swarms of locusts, with which it is infested. The wool and cotton manufactures are the best in the east, but the silk is very indifferent. The inhabitants were formerly deemed the most lewd and debauched people in the universe; and, according to the most authentic accounts, their inclinations are as depraved as ever; but the Turkish government obliges them to act with an outward appearance of decency. The present inhabitants are chiefly Greeks, who dress after the Italian fashion, but retain their own religion and customs. The people of this island were converted to Christianity by St. Paul and St. Barnabas, the latter of whom was a native of Cyprus. It gave birth to the poet Asclepiades, Xenophon, Zeno, Apollonius, Epiphanius, and several other great men. Cyprus has no considerable rivers, but some famous mountains, particularly Olympus, on which, at the distance of every league, there is a Greek monastery, and a fountain, said to be erected by the Empress Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great.

The principal places in Cyprus, at present, are the following: Famagusta, or Arsinoë, is an elegant city, and good sea-port, pleasantly situated, and defended by two forts: it is enclosed, on two sides, by a ditch and double wall, well fortified, and, on the other two, by the sea. The Turks are sensible of the importance of this place, and, contrary to their usual custom, keep the fortifications in excellent repair. The Greeks and other Christians are permitted to keep shops here in the day-time, but are not allowed to sleep in the city, which is, however, a bishop's see, subject to the metropolitan of Nicosia.

Though the above is the most important place, yet Nicosia is deemed the metropolis of Cyprus. This city, which is delightfully situated in the centre of the island, was formerly the seat of the Cyprian monarchs. It was then nine miles in circuit, but is now dwindled to three. It is, however, still a beautiful town, of a circular form, surrounded by walls, defended by a deep ditch, and well-fortified. It formerly contained forty thousand houses, and several noble palaces; but many of the first, and all the latter, are fallen to decay, or have been pulled down.

Cerenes, the ancient Ceraunia, is almost in ruins, though formerly a strong and populous place. People depart from hence to the continent as the nearest port. The Palace of Peace, a magnificent edifice, formerly belonging to the knights, is near the city; and at about nine miles distance there is a Greek monastery; the monks of which have cells along the sea-coast, where they deposit the fish which they are employed to catch for the use of the brotherhood.

Paphos, now called Baffa, is situated on the western coast of the island. St. Paul in this city converted its governor, Sergius, and struck the necromancer Barjesus with blindness. Though much decayed from its former glory, it is still a bishop's see, and a good sea-port town.

CHAPTER XI.

AUSTRALASIA.

AUSTRALASIA, according to the statement of Mr. Pinkerton, comprises the following countries:

1. The central and chief land of New Holland, with any isles which may be discovered in the adjacent Indian Ocean, twenty degrees to the west, and between twenty and thirty degrees to the east, 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 Hebrides.
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.

SECTION I.

NEW HOLLAND.

Extent, Soil, Rivers, Climate, &c.] New Holland has generally been considered as the largest island in the world. Some persons, however, have disputed, whether the name of *island* can be properly applied to a country of such vast extent, or whether it ought not rather to be denominated a *continent*.

Its length, from east to west, is about forty-three degrees of longitude, in the medial latitude of twenty-five degrees, which is about two thousand seven hundred British miles; and the breadth, from north to south, extends from eleven to thirty-nine degrees, being twenty-eight degrees, or one thousand nine hundred and sixty miles.

The soil immediately around Sydney Cove is sandy, with here and there a stratum of clay; but the produce does not seem to be very luxuriant. The principal difficulty hitherto experienced in clearing the ground arises from the size of the trees, which is said to be so enormous, that twelve men have been employed for five days in grubbing up a single one.

From the first discovery of this continent the extreme scarcity of fresh water has been mentioned by every navigator. None had been fortunate enough to enter the mouth of any navigable river, such as might be expected in a country of equal extent. The settlers about Port Jackson found enough for the ordinary purposes of life; but Captain Tench informs us, that when he left the country, towards the end of 1788, there had been no discovery of a stream large enough to turn a mill. Since that time, however, Governor Phillip has been more successful, as appears by a letter of his to Lord Sydney, dated February 13, 1790.

After having visited Broken Bay several times, with boats, a river was found, which has since been traced, and all those branches explored which afforded any depth of water. This river, distinguished by the name of Hawkesbury, is from three hundred to eight hundred feet wide, and appears navigable for the largest merchant-ships as far up as Richmond Hill; but there it becomes very shallow, and divides into two branches; on which account, Richmond Hill is called the head of the river. As after heavy rains, however, the water sometimes rises thirty feet above its level, it would not be safe for ships to go up so far; but, fifteen or twenty miles below it, they would lie in fresh water, and be perfectly safe. The country about Broken Bay is, at first, high and rocky; but, up the river, it becomes more level, the banks being covered with timber, and the soil a light rich mould, supposed to be very capable of cultivation. The other branches of this river are shallow, but probably run many miles up into the country.

Richmond Hill is the most southerly of a large range of hills, which run to the north, and probably join the mountains nearly parallel to the coast, from fifty to sixty miles inland. The soil of this hill is good, and lies remarkably well for cultivation. The prospect from the top is very extensive, the whole circumjacent country forming a level covered with timber.

Between Richmond Hill and a break in the mountains, that separates Lansdown and Camarthen Hills, there is a flat of six or seven miles; in which the Hawkesbury has been supposed to continue its course, though the river cannot be seen, on account of the timber with which the ground is every where covered, where the soil is good. Six miles to the south of Port Jackson is a small river, and twenty to the west is one more considerable, which probably runs into the Hawkesbury. As far as this river has been explored, the breadth is computed at from three to four hundred feet. It is called the *Nepean*, and, like the Hawkesbury, sometimes rises thirty feet above its level. A party who crossed this river attempted to reach the mountains, but found it impossible, probably for want of provisions. After the first day's journey, they met with a succession of deep ravines, the sides of which were frequently so inaccessible, that in five days they could not proceed farther than fifteen miles. When they turned back, they supposed themselves to be twelve miles from the foot of the mountains.

The climate of New Holland does not appear to be disagreeable; for the heat is never excessive in summer, nor is the cold intolerable in winter. Storms of thunder and lightning frequently occur; but these are common to all warm countries: and it has been supposed that, were the country properly cleared and inhabited, these would, in a great measure, cease. A shock of an earthquake has likewise been felt; but these natural calamities are incidental to some of the finest countries in the world. It is not yet known whether there are any volcanoes.

Minerals.] Metals of various kinds appear to abound in the vicinity of Sydney Cove; but the want of some scientific person to describe and arrange these natural productions was sensibly felt among the first settlers. A convict, who had formerly worked in a lead-mine, positively affirmed that the ground which he had been clearing contained a large quantity of that ore; and copper was supposed to lie under some rocks, which were blown up in sinking a cellar. Stone has been found in this neighbourhood, of three different kinds: one equal to that of Portland, a second sort similar to sand-stone, and a third containing a mixture of iron. Good clay for bricks is also produced near Sydney Cove; and from a piece of finer clay, imported to England, the ingenious Mr. Wedgewood caused a medallion to be modelled, representing Hope encouraging Art and Labour, under the influence of Peace,

to pursue the means of giving security and happiness to the infant settlement. The following beautiful lines, in allusion to this medallion, were written by Dr. Darwin, and entitled

THE VISIT OF HOPE TO SYDNEY COVE.

Where Sydney Cove her lucid bosom swells,
Courts her young navies, and the storm repels,
High on a rock, amid the troubled air
Hope stood sublime, and wav'd her golden hair;
Calm'd with her rosy smile the tossing deep,
And with sweet accents charm'd the winds to sleep;
To each wild plain she stretch'd her snowy hand;
High waving wood, and sea encircled strand.
"Hear me," she cried, "ye rising realms! record
"Time's opening scenes, and Truth's unerring word.—
"There shall broad streets their stately walls extend,
"The circus widen, and the crescent bend;
"There ray'd from cities o'er the cultur'd land,
"Shall bright canals and solid roads expand.—
"There the proud arch, Colossus like, bestride
"Yon glittering streams, and bound the chafing tide;
"Embellish'd villas crown the landscape scene,
"Farms wave with gold, and orchards blush between.—
"There shall tall spires and dome-capt towers ascend,
"And piers and quays their massy structures blend;
"While with each breeze approaching vessels glide,
"And northern treasures dance on every tide!"
Here ceas'd the nymph—tumultuous echo's roar,
And Joy's loud voice was heard from shore to shore—
Her graceful steps descending press'd the plain,
And PEACE, and ART, and LABOUR, join'd her train.

Vegetables.] The most beautiful new genus of plants hitherto found in New Holland has been destined, by Linnæus, to transmit to succeeding ages the name of Sir Joseph Banks, who first discovered it in his voyage round the world. It is, in fact, one of the finest genera with which we are acquainted. It seems there are four species of Banksia, specimens and seeds of which have been sent over to England; but we shall merely notice the *Banksia serrata*, which is the most magnificent of the genus. The trunk is thick and rugged: the leaves are alternate, standing thick about the ends of the branches, narrow, obtuse, and strongly serrated; their colour is a bright green on the upper surface, but beneath they are opaque and whitish, with a strong rib running through their middle. A large cylindrical spike of flowers terminates each branch; but most of these flowers are abortive, a few only in each spike yielding ripe seed. The capsules are covered with thick down.

The peppermint-tree (so called from the near resemblance between the essential oil drawn from its leaves and that obtained from the peppermint which grows in England) generally grows to the height of a hundred feet, and is above thirty feet in circumference. The bark is perfectly smooth, like that of poplar.

The red gum-tree is very large and lofty, generally exceeding the size of an English oak; but the wood is so extremely brittle, and contains such a quantity of resinous gum, that it is of little use, except for fuel. On making incisions in the trunk of this tree, very considerable quantities of red resinous juice may be obtained, sometimes even more than sixty gallons from a single tree. This juice, when properly dried, becomes an astringent gum resin of a red colour, nearly resembling that known in the shops by the name of *kino*, and for all medical purposes quite as efficacious.

The yellow resin-tree is about the size of an English walnut-tree. Its trunk grows pretty straight for about fourteen or fifteen feet; after which it branches out into long grassy leaves. From the centre of these leaves arises a single stem, eighteen or twenty feet in height, nearly resembling a sugar-cane, and terminating in a spiral spike, somewhat like an ear of wheat. This stem, being very strong and light, is used by the natives for making spears and fiz-gigs, which are commonly pointed with bone.

But the most valuable part of this plant seems to be its resin, the properties of which are not inferior to those of the most fragrant balsams. This resin, which exudes spontaneously from the trunk, and is frequently dug out of the soil at the root of the tree, is at first a yellow fluid, but, when inspissated in the sun, it acquires a solid form. When thrown upon hot coals, it emits a scent nearly resembling that of a mixture of benzoin and balsam of tolu. It is perfectly soluble in spirits of wine, but not in water, nor even in essential oil of turpentine, unless it be digested in a strong heat. With respect to its medicinal qualities, it has been found in many cases to be a good pectoral, and very balsamic.

The tea-tree of New Holland is a small shrub, thickly set with branches. The bark is full of longitudinal fissures; and the leaves are about three-quarters of an inch in length, marked with longitudinal ribs, and full of resinous spots, which contain an aromatic essential oil.

Animals.] The kangaroo, which appears to be of the opossum kind, is the largest animal hitherto seen in New Holland, and its conformation is peculiarly singular. This quadruped has a small head, neck, and shoulders; the body gradually increasing in thickness towards the rump. The head is oblong, formed like that of a fan, and tapering from the eyes to the nose: the end of the nose is naked, and the upper lip divided. The nostrils are wide and open, but the aperture of the mouth is small.

This animal commonly lurks among the grass, and seems to feed entirely upon vegetables. It goes on its hind legs, making use of the fore feet only for digging, or bringing its food to its mouth. It is very timid, shy, and inoffensive; and flies from man by amazing leaps, springing over bushes seven or eight feet high, and going progressively from rock to rock. It always carries its tail at right

angles with its body, when in motion; and, when it alights, often looks back. In the account of Governor Phillip's Voyage, we are told, that these animals are sometimes seen feeding in herds of about thirty or forty, and that one is always observed to be apparently on the watch at a distance from the rest.

"It has been reported," says Mr. White, "by some convicts, who were out one day with a large Newfoundland dog, that the latter seized a very large kangaroo, but could not preserve its hold. They observed, that the animal effected its escape by the defensive use it made of its tail, with which it struck its assailant in a most tremendous manner. The blows, indeed, were applied with such force and efficacy, that the dog was bruised in many places till the blood flowed. It was remarked, that the kangaroo did not seem to make any use of its teeth or fore-feet, but fairly beat off the dog with its tail, and escaped before the convicts could get up to secure it."

The kangaroo may now be considered as, in some measure, naturalized in England; several of the species having been kept for some years in the royal domains at Richmond; which, during their residence there, have produced young ones, and seem likely to succeed very well in this country; though, by confinement and alteration of food, they may probably lose many of their natural habits, and exhibit less of that bounding vivacity, by which they are so peculiarly distinguished in New Holland.

The kangaroo-rat is so called from the colour of its hair and the resemblance of its visage to that of the rat; but the general shape of its body is very similar to that of the kangaroo, both in respect to the shortness of the fore-legs, and the peculiar construction of the hind ones.

The spotted opossum of New Holland is in length, from the nose to the end of the tail, about twenty-five inches, of which the tail takes up about nine or ten. The general colour of the animal is black, inclining to brown beneath; the neck and body spotted with irregular roundish patches of white: the ears are pretty large, and stand erect; the visage is pointed, and the muzzle furnished with long slender hairs; the fore, as well as hind legs, from the knees downward, are almost naked, and ash-coloured. On the fore-feet are five claws, and on the hinder ones four and a thumb without a claw; the tail, for about an inch and a half below the root, is covered with hairs of the same length as those on the body; but from thence to the end, it is furnished with long ones, like those of the squirrel.

The countenance of this animal is somewhat like that of a fox; but, in manners, it approaches more nearly to the squirrel. When inclined to sleep, or to remain inactive, it generally coils itself up in a round form; but, when eating, or on the watch, it sits almost erect, throwing its tail behind it. When irritated, it sits still more erect on its hind legs, or throws itself upon its back, uttering a loud and shrill cry.

The vulpine opossum is, in its general shape, somewhat like the common fox, but considerably less. The upper parts of the body are of a grisly colour, arising from a mixture of white and dusky hairs, with a rufous yellow tinge, the head and shoulders partaking most of this last colour. The hair round the eyes is blackish; and above the nostrils are several black whiskers, about four inches in length. All the under parts of the body are of a tawny buff colour, deepest on the throat, where the hairs are rust-coloured toward the bottom. The legs are much shorter in proportion than those of a fox.

The flying opossum of New Holland is a beautiful species, and clothed with fur of the most exquisite texture, appearing on the upper part of the body, at first sight, of a glossy black; but, on a nicer inspection, it is found to be mixed with grey: the under parts are white, and on each hip is a tan-coloured spot, about the size of a shilling; at this part the fur is thinnest, but at the root of the tail it is so rich and close, that the hide cannot be felt through it. The formation of the feet is nearly similar to that of the vulpine opossum. The fur is continued to the claws, and on each side of the body is a broad flap or membrane, as in the flying squirrel, which is united to the fore and hind legs.

The wha tapoa roo is about the size of a racoon, of a dark grey colour on the back, becoming rather lighter on the sides, and terminating on the belly in a rich brown. The coat is of two kinds, a long hair, and a kind of fur; but it appears that even the long hair, at the roots, is of the fur kind. The head is short, the ears broad, and the eyes rather prominent.

The tapoa-tafa has much the appearance of a martin-cat, but is hardly so long in the body, in proportion to its size. The hair resembles that of a rat, both in texture and colour; but towards the insertion of the tail, it is of a lighter brown, forming a broad ring round it. The head is flat in front, and broad across, particularly between the eyes and ears; the nose is peaked, and projects beyond the teeth, which makes the upper jaw appear considerably longer than the under one: the nose is furnished with whiskers, which begin near the muzzle, by small short hairs, but gradually become longer as they approach the eyes.

The spotted martin is about the size of a large polecat, and measures eighteen inches from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail; the tail itself being nearly of the same length. The general colour of the fur is black, marked all over with irregular blotches of white: the tail has an elegant appearance, and tapers gradually to a point. This animal is most commonly found in the neighbourhood of Port Jackson.

The dog of New Holland is rather less than two feet in height, and about two feet six inches in length. The head is formed like that of a fox; the ears are short and erect; and the muzzle is furnished with whiskers, from about one to two inches in length. The general colour of the upper parts is a pale brown, growing lighter towards the belly: the inner part of the fore-legs and the fore-part of the hinder-ones are white, as are also the feet. The tail is of a moderate length, rather bushy, but in a less degree than that of the fox.

A female of this species was sent over as a present to Mr. Nepean from Governor Philip. It is said to possess much of the manners of the domestic dog, but is of a very savage nature, and not likely to change in this particular. It laps like other dogs; but, instead of barking or growling, when irritated, it erects the hairs of its whole body like bristles, and seems perfectly furious. It is very eager after its prey, and seems particularly fond of rabbits or chickens, raw, but will not eat dressed meat. From its fierceness and agility, it has the advantage of other animals much superior in size; for a very large fox-dog being put to it, in a moment it seized him by the loins, and would have put a period to his existence, had not some one been at hand. With the utmost facility it can leap over the back of an ass, and was once very near worrying one to death, having fastened on it so firmly, that the creature was not able to disengage himself without assistance: it has, likewise, been known to run down both deer and sheep.

The New Holland cassowary differs materially from the common species, and is a much larger bird; standing higher on its legs, and having a longer neck. The bill is not very different from that of the common cassowary, but the horny appendage, or helmet, on the top of the head, in this species, is totally wanting; the whole of the head and neck is also covered with feathers, except the throat and fore-part of the neck about half way, which are not so well feathered as the rest; whereas in the common species the head and neck are bare and carunculated, like those of a turkey.

The plumage consists of a mixture of brown and grey, and the feathers are somewhat curled or bent at the ends in the natural state: the wings are so short as to be useless for flight, and could scarcely be distinguished from the rest of the plumage, were it not for their standing out a little. The long spines which are seen in the wings of the common sort are in this not observable, nor is there any appearance of a tail.

The duck-billed platypus is a new and extraordinary genus, discovered in New Holland. Sir Joseph Banks had in his possession two specimens, which were sent over by Governor Hunter and only a few others have as yet arrived in England.

The length of this curious animal from the tip of the beak to the end of the tail is thirteen inches, of which the beak occupies one inch and a half. The head is rather small, and the mouth bears so near a resemblance to the beak of some broad-billed ducks, that it is not without minute examination that we can persuade ourselves of its being the real snout of a quadruped. The body is depressed, and is somewhat like that of an otter in miniature: it is covered with a thick soft fur, of a moderately dark brown above, and whitish beneath. The legs are very short, and terminate in a broad web, which on the fore feet extends to a considerable distance beyond the claws: on the fore feet are five claws, straight, strong, and sharp pointed; and on the hind feet are six curved ones; the interior of which is seated much higher than the rest, and resembles a strong sharp spur.

The specimens of this animal hitherto sent to England, have been deprived of their intestines, and for the most part ill preserved. Mr. Home, however, examined one belonging to Sir Joseph Banks, which had been kept in spirits, and was tolerably perfect. He discovered, that although the beak, when cursorily examined, had such a striking resemblance to that of the duck, as to induce a supposition that it was calculated for the very same purposes; yet, when all its parts were carefully reviewed, it evidently differed in a variety of circumstances. This, it appears, is not the animal's mouth, but is merely an appendage projecting beyond it.

From the general form of this animal, we are led to suppose, that it burrows in the banks of rivers, or underground, and that its food consists of aquatic plants and animals. But the structure of it is such as not to enable it to take firm hold of its prey: when the two marginal lips are brought together, the animal may have a considerable power of suction, and in this manner it probably draws food into its mouth.

The Pennantian parrot is a very beautiful bird, frequently seen in the vicinity of Port Jackson, and corresponding in most particulars with the creature of the same name described by Mr. Latham, in the supplement to his "General Synopsis of Birds." The general colour of the plumage is scarlet; the bill of a bluish horn-colour; and the chin and the base of the under mandible covered with rich blue feathers. The back is black, variegated with crimson: the wings are blue, the middle part much paler than the rest; the tail is black, except the extremities of the feathers, which are of a pale hoary blue. The common length of this bird is about sixteen inches.

The wattled bee-eater is about the size of a missel-thrush, but much larger in proportion. The plumage, for the most part, is brown, the feathers long and pointed, and each feather marked with a streak of white down the middle. From the gape of the bill, a broad streak of

silvery white passes under the eye; and beneath this, on each side of the throat, hangs a pendulous wattle, about half an inch long, and of an orange-colour. The tail is wedge-shaped, like that of a magpie, and the feathers tipped with white.

The white-fronted heron of New Holland is little more than half the size of the common species. The general colour of the plumage is a bluish ash, inclining to lead-colour. The top of the head is black, and a little crested. The forehead, chin, and throat, are white, passing downwards, and terminating in a point on the middle of the neck before. On the lower part of the neck, the feathers are long and loose, and of a cinnamon-colour; all the under parts of the body also incline to this colour, but are much paler.

The laced lizard of New Holland is a very elegant species, about forty inches in length from the nose to the end of the tail. The general shape is slender, and the ground-colour of the skin on the upper part is a bluish black, curiously marked with yellow; in some parts this colour is prettily mottled, like some kinds of lace-work; in others, striped in various directions. The under parts are yellow, crossed with single bars of black on the throat, and with double clouded ones on the belly. This beautiful lizard is commonly found in the vicinity of Port Jackson, where it is considered as perfectly harmless.

The ribboned lizard is a very elegant species, about six inches and a half in length, and distinguished by a number of parallel stripes, disposed longitudinally throughout the whole upper part of the body; and the remainder is of a pale ferruginous colour. In some varieties a tinge of this colour is also visible on the back: the lower part of the body is of a yellowish white; the tail is perfectly round, of a considerable length, and gradually tapers to the extremity.

The white-jointed spider of New Holland, unless seen in the utmost state of perfection, cannot easily be distinguished. This species is particularly remarkable for the lucid surface of its throat and legs, the latter of which are furnished with several long moveable spines, that may be either elevated or depressed at pleasure. The eyes are eight in number, and are arranged in the same order as those of the great American spider. The general colour is a pale brown. The orifice at the top of each fang is rendered visible by a magnifying glass of two inches focus; so that this spider is evidently of the number of those which poison their prey before they destroy it.

Several other sorts of spiders and scolopendras are found in New Holland; but the most remarkable insects seen by Captain Cook were the green ants. These little animals form their habitations by bending down the leaves of trees, and glueing the ends of them together, so as to form a sort of purse. Though the leaves here alluded to are as broad as a man's hand, they perform this feat by main strength, thousands of them holding down the leaves, while multitudes of others apply the glutinous matter. Captain Cook's people ascertained this curious fact, by sometimes disturbing them at their work; in which case the leaf always sprung up with an elasticity which they could not have supposed such minute insects were capable of overcoming. For this curiosity, however, the Europeans smarted pretty severely; as thousands of their little enemies instantly revenged themselves, by their stings, for the interruption they had met with.

Another species of ants burrow in the root of a plant, which grows on the bark of trees like misletoe, and is commonly as big as a large turnip. When this is cut, it appears intersected with innumerable winding passages, filled with these little animals; notwithstanding which, the vegetation of the plant suffers no injury. These are about the size of the small red ant: they do not give pain by their stings, but produce an intolerable itching by crawling about upon the skin.

Another sort, which do not molest in any manner, resemble the white ants of the East-Indies. They construct nests, three or four times as big as a man's head, on the branches of trees; the outsides being composed of some vegetable matter along with a glutinous substance. On breaking the outer crusts of these hives, innumerable cells appear, swarming with inhabitants, in a great variety of winding directions, all communicating with each other, and with several other nests upon the same tree. They have also another house, built on the ground, generally at the root of a tree: this is formed like an irregularly sided cone, sometimes more than six feet high, and nearly as much in diameter. The outside of these habitations is of well-tempered clay, about two inches thick; and within are the cells, which have no opening outward. One of these is their summer and the other their winter dwelling, communicating with each other by a large avenue, leading to the ground, and by a subterraneous passage. It must also be observed, that the ground-structures are proof against rain, which those on the branches are not.

Customs, Manners, &c.] There are but few individuals among the natives of New Holland, who can be said to be tall, and still fewer who are well made. Their arms, legs, and thighs, are, for the most part, remarkably small and thin, which is probably owing to the poorness of their living; as the fineness of the climate and their constant exercise might otherwise have rendered them more muscular. Their complexion does not seem to be uniform; for some of them, even when cleansed from smoke and filth, are nearly as black as the negroes of Africa, while others exhibit only a copper or Malay colour. Their heads are generally covered with black hair: some indeed have been

seen with hair of a reddish cast, but, being unaccompanied by any variety of complexion, this might be rather the effect of some outward application, than its natural appearance. They have remarkably flat noses, sunk eyes, thick lips, and wide mouths; but their teeth are perfectly white and regular, and the features of some of them are very agreeable. Many of them, however, have prominent jaws; and Mr. Collins tells us of one man, who, but for the faculty of speech, might have passed for an orang-outang. "He was remarkably hairy; his arms appeared of an uncommon length; and in his whole manner he seemed to have more of the brute, and less of the human species, about him than any of his countrymen." The same gentleman makes mention of a female dwarf, who, when she stood upright, measured only four feet two inches. None of her limbs seemed disproportioned, nor were the features of her face unpleasant; but the other natives appeared to make her an object of merriment.

Both sexes frequently rub their bodies over with fish-oil, in order to defend themselves from the effects of the air and the bites of musquetoes; but the oil, together with the perspiration from their bodies, produces, in hot weather, a most disagreeable odour; and some of them may be seen with the entrails of fish frying in the solar rays upon their heads, till the oil literally runs down their faces. Their hair is usually daubed with yellow gum, which serves to fasten their favourite ornaments, such as the front-teeth of the kangaroo, the jaw-bones of large fish, pieces of wood, feathers, human teeth, and the tails of their dogs. The natives inhabiting the southern shore of Botany Bay divide their hair into small parcels, each of which is matted together with gum, and formed into lengths, somewhat like the thrums of a mop. On certain occasions they ornament their bodies with red and white clay, using the former when preparing for combat, and the latter for the amusement of dancing. The fashion of these ornaments depends upon each person's taste and ingenuity. In general their arms, thighs, and legs, are marked with waved lines; but some of them add a large white circle round each eye, and draw a line over every rib; so that they exhibit a most ghastly figure. Both sexes have scars upon the breast, back, and arms, which have been cut with broken pieces of shell, and kept open till the flesh has grown up between the sides of the incision and formed a large seam. This singular operation is performed at an early age, and, until they advance in years, the scars look large and full; but on some of the old men they are scarcely perceptible.

On some occasions, the men thrust a bone or reed, through the cartilage of the nose, which, together with their black bushy beards, tends to give them a very grotesque appearance. The bone commonly used for this purpose is the small bone in the leg of the kangaroo, and has been humorously termed, by English mariners, "the sprit-sail yard."

Many of the females have their noses perforated in this manner, and are likewise subjected to a mutilation of the first two joints of the little finger on the left-hand. The operation is performed at an early age, and is usually done by some slight ligature, which is tied round the joint till the circulation of the blood is destroyed, and the finger mortifies and drops off. This was formerly supposed to have constituted some part of their marriage-ceremonies; but the European settlers were convinced of their mistake in this particular, by seeing great numbers of mutilated children; and, after some time, they learned, that these joints of the little finger were supposed to be in the way, when the natives wind their fishing-lines over the hand. It also seems to be considered a mark of honour.

Between the ages of eight and sixteen, the boys receive certain qualifications, by losing one of the front teeth. This curious ceremony occurred twice during the residence of David Collins, Esq. in New Holland, and, at the second operation, he was enabled to attend during the whole of the time. From that gentleman's interesting account we have taken the liberty to extract the particulars of the ceremony:

"On the 25th of January, 1795," says Mr. Collins, "we found that the natives were assembling for the purpose of performing this ceremony. Several youths, well known among us, never having submitted to the operation, were now to be made men. Pe-mul-wy, a wood native, and several strangers, came in; but the principals in the operation not being arrived, the intermediate nights were to be passed in dancing. Among them we observed one man painted white to the middle, his beard and eye-brows excepted; and others were distinguished by large white circles round the eyes, which rendered them as terrific as can well be imagined. In the evening of the 2d of February the rest of the party arrived, among whom were the operators, who appeared to have been impatiently expected by the other natives. They were painted after the manner of the 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 prepared, by clearing it of grass, stumps, &c.: it was of an oval figure, the dimensions of it twenty-seven feet by eighteen, and was called Yoo-lahng.

"When we arrived at the spot, we found the party from the north shore armed, and standing at one end of it; at the other we saw a party, consisting of the boys who were to be given up for the purpose of losing each a tooth, and their several friends who accompanied them. They then began the ceremony. The armed party advanced from their end of the ground with a song, or rather shout,

peculiar to this occasion, clattering their shields and spears, and raising a dust with their feet, that nearly obscured the objects around them. On reaching the farther end of the yoo-lahng, where the children were placed, one of the party stepped from the crowd, and, seizing his victim, returned with him to his party, who received him with a loud shout, placing him in the midst, where he seemed defended, by a grove of spears, from any attempts that his friends might make to rescue him.

"In this manner the whole were taken out, to the number of fifteen; when they were seated at the upper end of the yoo-lahng, each holding down his head, his hands clasped, and his legs crossed under him. In this position, awkward and painful as it must have been, we understood they were to remain all night; and that, until the ceremony was concluded, they were neither to look up, nor take any refreshment.

"The carrahdis now began some of their mystical rites. One of them suddenly fell upon the ground; and, throwing himself into a variety of attitudes, accompanied with every gesticulation that could be extorted by pain, appeared to be at length delivered of a bone, which was to be used in the ensuing ceremony. During this apparently painful process, he was encircled by a crowd of natives, who danced around him, and sang vociferously; while one or more beat him upon the back, until the bone was produced, and he appeared to be freed from his pain. He had no sooner risen from the ground, exhausted, drooping, and bathed in sweat, than another threw himself down with similar gesticulations, who went through the same ceremonies, and ended also with the production of a bone, with which he had taken care to provide himself, and to conceal it in his girdle.

"It being now perfectly dark, we quitted the place, with an invitation to return early in the morning, and a promise of much entertainment from the ensuing ceremony. We left the boys sitting silent, and in the position before described, in which we were told they were to remain until morning.

"On repairing to the place soon after day-light, we found the natives sleeping in small detached parties; and it was not until the sun had risen that any of them began to stir. We observed, that the people from the north shore slept by themselves, and the boys, though we heard they were not to be moved, were also lying by themselves at some distance from the yoo-lahng. Towards this, soon after sun-rise, the carrahdis and their party advanced in quick movement, one after the other, shouting as they entered, and running twice or thrice round it. The boys were then brought to the yoo-lahng, holding down their heads, and clasping their hands. On their being seated in this manner, the ceremonies commenced, the principal performers in which appeared to be about twenty in number, and all of the tribe of Cam-mer-ray. The exhibitions now performed were numerous and various; but all of them in their tendency pointed toward the boys, and had some allusion to the principal act of the day, which was to be the concluding scene of it.

"In the first part of the ceremony, the boys remained sitting at the head of the yoo-lahng, while those who were to be the operators paraded several times round it, running upon their hands and feet, and imitating the dogs of the country. Their dress was also adapted to this purpose; for the wooden sword stuck in the hinder part of the girdle, which they wore round their waist, did not, when they were crawling on all fours, look much unlike the tail of a dog curled over his back. Every time they passed the place where the boys were seated, they threw up the sand and dust on them with their hands and feet. During this ceremony, the boys sat perfectly still and silent, never once moving from the position in which they were placed, nor seeming in the least to notice the ridiculous appearance of the carrahdis and their associates. We understood that, by this ceremony, power over the dog was given to them, and that it endowed them with whatever good or beneficial qualities that animal might possess.

"Two stout natives now appeared, one carrying on his shoulders a kangaroo, made of grass, and the other carrying a load of brush-wood. Various other natives were seated at some distance, singing, and beating time to the steps of the two loaded men, who seemed almost unable to move under the weight of the burden which they carried on their shoulders. Halting every now and then, and limping, they at last deposited their load at the feet of the young men, and retired from the yoo-lahng, as if excessively fatigued by what they had done. By this offering of the artificial kangaroo, was implied the power that was now given them of killing that animal; and the brush-wood might probably be intended to represent its haunt.

"At the conclusion of this scene, the boys were left seated at the yoo-lahng for about half an hour, during which time the actors went down into an adjacent valley, where they fitted themselves with long tails made of grass, which they fastened to the hinder part of their girdles, instead of the wooden swords, which were now laid aside. Being equipped, they put themselves in motion as a herd of kangaroos, now jumping along, then lying down and scratching themselves, as those animals do, when basking in the sun. One man beat time to them with a club on a shield, while two others, armed, attended them all the way, pretending to steal upon them unobserved, and spear them. This was emblematical of one of their future exercises, the hunting of the kangaroo.

"On the arrival of this curious party at the yoo-lahng, they passed by the boys, as the herd of kangaroos, and then, divesting themselves of their artificial tails, each

man caught up a boy, and, placing him on his shoulders, carried him off in triumph toward the last scene of this extraordinary exhibition.

"After walking a short distance, the boys were let down from the shoulders of the men, and placed in a cluster, standing with their heads inclined on their breasts, and their hands clasped together. Some of the party disappeared for about ten minutes, to arrange the figure of the next scene, about which they appeared to observe a greater degree of mystery than in either of the preceding ceremonies. Being, at length, desired to come forward, we saw, on the left, the boys, and those who attended them: fronting these were two men, one seated on the stump of a tree, bearing another man on his shoulders, both with their arms extended; behind these were a number of bodies lying with their faces towards the ground, as close to each other as they could lie, and at the foot of another stump of a tree, on which were placed two other men in the same position as the preceding.

"As the boys and their attendants approached the first of these figures, the men who formed it began to move themselves from side to side, lolling out their tongues, and staring as wide with their eyes as they could open them. After this mummery had continued a few minutes, the men separated for them to pass, and the boys were led over the bodies lying on the ground. These immediately began to move, writhing, as if in agony, and uttering a mournful sound, like distant thunder. Having passed over these bodies, the boys were placed before the second figures, who went through the same series of grimaces as those who were seated on the former stump; after which the whole moved forward.

"At a little distance, the whole party halted; the boys were seated by each other, while opposite to them were drawn up, in a half-circle, the other party, now armed with spears and shields. In the centre of this party stood the native, who had throughout taken the principal part in the business. He held his shield in one hand, and a club in the other, with which he gave them, as it were, the time for their exercise. Striking the shield with the club, at every third stroke the whole party poised and presented their spears at him, pointing them inwards, and touching the centre of his shield. This concluded the ceremonies previous to the operation; and it appeared significant of an exercise which was to form the principal business of their lives, viz. the use of the spear.

"They now commenced their preparations for striking out the tooth. The first subject they took out was a boy of about ten years of age; and he was immediately seated on the shoulders of another native, who sat on the grass. The bone was now produced, which had been pretended to be taken from the stomach of the native the preceding evening: this, being made very sharp and fine at one end, was used for lancing the gum; and, but for some such precaution, it would have been impossible to have got out the tooth without breaking the jaw-bone. A throwing-stick was now to be cut, about eight or ten inches from the end; and to effect this much ceremony was used. The stick was laid upon a tree, and three attempts to hit it were made before it was struck. The wood being very hard, and the instrument a bad tomahawk, it took several blows to divide it; but three feints were constantly made before each blow. When the gum was properly prepared, the operation began: the smallest end of the stick was applied as high up on the tooth as the gum would admit, while the operator stood ready with a large stone, apparently to drive the tooth down the throat of his patient. Here their attention to the number three was again manifest; for no stroke was actually struck, until the operator had thrice attempted to hit the throwing-stick. They were full ten minutes about this first operation, the tooth being, unfortunately for the boy, fixed very firm in the gum. It was, however, at last, forced out, and the sufferer was taken away to a little distance, where the gum was closed by his friends, who also equipped him in the style he was to appear in for some days. A girdle was tied round his waist, in which was stuck a wooden sword; his head was wound round with a ligature, in which were stuck some slips of the grass-gum tree; the left hand was placed over the mouth, which was to be kept shut; he was on no account to speak, and for that day he was not to eat.

"In like manner were all the others treated, except one, a pretty boy, about eight or nine years of age, who, after suffering his gum to be lanced, could not endure the pain of more than one blow with the stone, and, breaking from them, made his escape.

"During the whole of the operation, the assistants made the most hideous noise in the ears of the patients, sufficient to distract their attention, and to drown any cries they could possibly have uttered; but they made it a point of honour to bear the pain without a murmur.

"Some other peculiarities, however, were observed. The blood that issued from the lacerated gum was not wiped away, but suffered to run down the breast, and fall upon the head of the man on whose shoulders the patient sat, and whose name was added to his. I saw them several days afterwards, with the blood dried upon their breasts. They were also termed *Ke-bar-ra*, a name which has reference in its construction to the singular instrument used on this occasion, *ke-bah*, in their language, signifying a rock or stone.

"Ben-nil-long's sister, and Da-ring-ha, Cole-be's wife, hearing me express a great desire to be possessed of some of the teeth, procured three of them for me, one of which was that of Nau-bar-ray, Cole-be's relation. I found that

they had fastened them to pieces of small line, and were wearing them round their necks. They were given to me with much secrecy and great dread of being observed, and with an injunction that I should never let it be known that they had made me such a present, as the Cam-mer-ray tribe, to whom they were to be given, would not fail to punish them for it; and they added, that they should tell them the teeth were lost. Nan-bar-ray's tooth Da-ring-ha wished me to give to Mr. White, the principal surgeon of the settlement, with whom the boy had lived from his being brought into it, in the year 1789, to Mr. White's departure; thus gratefully remembering, after a lapse of some years, the attention which that gentleman had shown to her relative.

"Having remained with them while the operation was performed on three or four of the boys, I went into the town, and returned after sun-set, when I found the whole equipped and seated on the trunk of a tree. It was then that I received the three teeth, and was conjured by the women to leave the place, as they did not know what might ensue. In fact, I observed the natives arming themselves; much confusion and hurry was visible among them; the savage appeared to be predominating; perhaps, the blood they had drawn, and which was still wet on the heads and breasts of many of them, began to make them fierce; and, when I was on the point of retiring, the signal was given, which animated the boys to the first exercise of the spirit which the business of the day had infused into them, and they rushed into the town, every where, as they passed along, setting the grass on fire, and driving before them men, women, and children, who were glad to get out of their way. They were now received into the class of men, being privileged to wield the spear and club, and to oppose their persons in combat. They might now also seize such females as they chose for wives.

"All this, however, must be understood to import that, by having submitted to the operation, having endured the pain of it without a murmur, and having lost a front tooth, they received a qualification which they were to exercise whenever their years and their strength should be equal to it."

The sight of the New Hollanders is peculiarly fine; and, indeed, their existence sometimes depends upon the accuracy of it, for a short-sighted person would be utterly incapable of defending himself from their spears, which are thrown with equal force and velocity. There are also but few personal deformities among them. Some few have been met with who were lame, and assisted themselves with sticks, but the lameness of such persons might probably have been occasioned by wounds, or accidents from fire, the latter of which frequently happen, through the carelessness of the women. Children are said to be frequently injured by fire, whilst the mother lies fast asleep by their side; and one instance is recorded of a fine little girl, who had two of its toes burnt off, and the sinews of one leg contracted, by falling into a fire, out of her mother's arms, while they were both asleep.

The natives on the sea-coast subsist principally upon fish, which the men usually catch with fiz-gigs, and the women with hooks and lines. The fiz, which is made of the wattle, and 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 females are made of the bark of a small tree; and their hooks are made of mother-of-pearl oysters, which are rubbed on a stone until they assume the proper shape.

Whilst employed in fishing, the women usually beguile the time with a song, and they may be frequently seen in their canoes, chewing muscles or cockles, which they spit into the water, as a bait. At other times they are busily engaged in procuring a collection of the large worms and grubs which inhabit the trunk of the dwarf gum-tree: these insects, when divested of antennæ, legs, &c. they devour with surprising avidity, and appear to find a peculiar relish in them.

Those natives, however, who reside in the interior of the country, and on the banks of rivers, are obliged to seek a different subsistence, and to exert greater abilities in procuring it; as appears from the fatigue and hazard which they frequently undergo in climbing the tallest trees, after the opossum, flying squirrels, and other animals. Their traps for catching birds or beasts are wide enough at the entrance to admit an ordinary-sized man, but taper away gradually to the end, and terminate in a small wickered grate. The earth is thrown up on each side, and the whole constructed of weeds, rushes, and brambles, so well secured, that an animal, once within it, cannot possibly liberate himself. It is supposed, that the prey is hunted and driven into these toils, and that, being forced to the grated end, it is there dispatched with spears. By the sides of lagoons the natives frequently excavate holes, and cover them over with grass, in such a manner, that a bird or beast stepping on it must inevitably fall in, and, from its great depth, be unable to escape.

Marriage-ceremonies are unknown among the natives of New Holland, and even the prelude to cohabitation is an act of violence of the most brutal nature. The women are generally selected from a tribe with whom the men desirous of taking wives are at enmity. Secrecy is necessarily observed, and the destined victim is stolen upon in the absence of her protectors. Having been first stupefied with blows, inflicted with clubs or wooden swords on the head, back, and shoulders, she is dragged through the woods by one arm, with a degree of violence, which one might suppose would either break or dislocate it;

the ravisher being only anxious to convey his prize in safety to his own party. This savage act of violence is so constantly practised, that even the children make it a game or exercise of amusement; and the relations of the injured females never attempt to resent the outrage, but only retaliate by a similar method, when they find a convenient opportunity. The women, thus barbarously forced from their natural relations, become the wives of their ravishers, are incorporated into the same tribe, and but seldom quit them for others. On the banks of the Hawkesbury, and inland, all the men are said to have two wives; and, indeed, there seems to be many instances of polygamy throughout the country. It seldom happens, however, that there are children by both wives.

The women do not appear to pride themselves upon the virtue of chastity; as a loaf of bread, a shirt, or a blanket, will induce them to give up all claim to it, when either of these temptations is held out by an European: yet the same girls, who are thus easily led astray, are anxious to conceal the rewards of their guilty compliance; and some of them appear extremely reserved, when seen naked by the English settlers, although, among their own people, they are perfectly indifferent about their appearance.

During the time of parturition, these people suffer none but females to be present; nor does the sufferer receive any actual assistance. Their infants, when first born, are of a reddish hue, but this soon gives place to the dark complexion of the parents; a change which is, no doubt, assisted by the smoke and dirt in which, from the first moment of their existence, these children are nurtured. A new-born babe is carried about for a few days on a piece of soft bark; but as soon as it has acquired a little strength, it is removed to the mother's 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. Parents begin early to decorate their children after the custom of the country. As soon as the hair of the head can be taken hold of, fish-bones and the teeth of various animals are fastened to it with gum: their little limbs are also ornamented with white clay; and the females suffer the mutilation of the little finger before they have quitted their seat on the mother's shoulders.

In about five or six weeks the child receives a name, which is generally taken from some bird, beast, or fish, and is given without any ceremony. At an early age, the females wear a sort of girdle, made of the hair of the opossum, from the middle of which hang some small uneven lines, from [illegible] to five inches long, made of the same materials.

Among the juvenile exercises of this people, the most important one seems to be that of managing the spear, to which the boys are accustomed from their earliest infancy. They begin by throwing reeds at each other, and are soon very expert both in the offensive and defensive use of their little weapons. Another favourite amusement is that of throwing up a ball, and passing it from one to another. They also provide themselves with small sticks, and range themselves in a row, when the one at the upper end rolls a ball along the front of his companions, each of whom endeavours to strike it as it passes.

When admitted into the class of men, by the ceremony of losing one of their front-teeth, the youths of New Holland quickly assume an air of consequence, and embrace every opportunity of availing themselves of their new privileges, and bringing all their faculties into action. The procuring of subsistence appears to be but a secondary business with them; the dexterous management of their weapons, agility in either attack or defence, and an intrepid contempt of pain, seeming to hold the first rank in their employments. It is with pain we add, that the unhappy females frequently bear on their heads traces of the superiority of the males, which the latter liberally bestow almost as soon as they find strength in their arms to imprint the mark. Some of these unfortunate beings have more scars upon their heads, cut in every direction, than can be easily counted; and their condition altogether is so wretched, that a humane European, on seeing a female child borne on its mother's shoulders, can scarcely forbear breathing a wish for its death. The women, however, are said to mingle in all the contests of their brutal tyrants, and indeed it has been generally found, in tracing the causes of their quarrels, that the women were at the head of them. One of these contests, which was opened by a female, is thus described by Mr. Collins:—

"We had been told for some days of the natives making great preparations for a fight, and heard that they had chosen a clear spot near the town for their purpose. The contending parties consisted of most of our Sydney acquaintance, and some natives from the southern shore of Botany Bay. We repaired to the spot an hour before sunset, and found them seated opposite each other on a level piece of ground between two hills. As a prelude to the business, we observed our friends, after having waited some time, stand up, and each man, stooping down, take water in the hollow of his hand, which he drank. An elderly woman, with a cloak of opossum-skins on her shoulders, and provided with a club, then advanced from the opposite side, and, uttering much abusive language, ran up to Cole-be, who was on the right, and gave him what I should have considered a severe blow on the head, which, with seeming contempt, he held out to her for that purpose. She went through the same ceremony with the rest, who made no resistance, until she came up to a very fine boy, who stood on the left. He, not admiring the blows that his companions received, struggled with her, and, had he not been very active, I believe she would

have stabbed him with his own spear, which she wrested from him. The men now advanced, and gave us many opportunities of witnessing the strength and dexterity with which they threw their spears, and the quickness of sight 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."

The wo-mer-ra, or throwing-stick, used by the New Hollanders, is about three feet long, with a hook at one end, and a shell at the other. This is held, with the spear, in the right hand, the fingers of which are placed two above the throwing-stick, and two between it and the spear. After considering the distance from the object to be thrown at, the spear is discharged with astonishing force, the throwing-stick remaining in the hand.

Of these instruments there are two sorts; the one called wo-mer-ra is armed with the shell of a clamm, which the natives use for the same purposes as an European employs a knife; the other has no shell, but is rounded at the end, and serves to dig the yams and fern-roots out of the earth. There are also several kinds of spears, some of which are only pointed, some have one or more barbs, shaped out of the solid piece of wood of which the spear is made; and others are armed with pieces of broken oyster-shell for four or five inches above the point. Of shields there are but two sorts; the one called e-lee-mong, which is cut from the bark of the gum-tree; and the ar-rah-gong, which is formed of solid wood, and hardened by fire. There are several varieties of clubs, some of which are of very large dimensions; and there is another instrument, called the ta-war-rang; it is about three feet in length, and has three sides, in one of which is the handle, hollowed by fire; the other sides are rudely carved with waved lines, and the instrument is principally used in dancing; being struck upon, for that purpose, with a club. The mo-go, or stone-hatchet, is sometimes used as a weapon of hostility, though generally applied to more peaceful purposes. The stone is found in the shallows near the head of Hawkesbury River; and a handle being fixed round the top of it with gum, the under part is rubbed to an edge, fine enough to divide the bark of such trees as the canoes and hunters' huts are constructed with, and even the shields, which are cut from the body of the tree itself.

The mode of retaliating an injury among these people is extremely singular, as will appear from the following anecdote, related by Mr. Collins:—"A native, of the name of Bur-ro-wan-nie, had, some time before, been beaten by two natives of the tribe of Gwe-a, at the head of Botany Bay. One of these being fixed on, he was, in return, to be beaten by Bur-ro-wan-nie; and, for this purpose, a large party attended, over night, at the head of the stream, near the settlement, to dance; at which exercise they continued from nine till past twelve o'clock. The man, who was to be beaten, danced with the rest until they ceased, and then laid himself down among them to sleep. Early in the morning, whilst he was yet on the ground, and apparently asleep, at the foot of a tree, Cole-be and Bur-ro-wan-nie, armed each with a spear and a club, rushed upon him from among some trees. Cole-be made a push at him with his spear, but did not touch him, while Bur-ro-wan-nie struck him, with his club, two severe blows on the hinder part of his head. The noise they made, if he was asleep, awaked him, and, when he was struck, he was on his legs. He was perfectly unarmed, and hung his head in silence, while Cole-be and his companion talked to him. No more blows were given, and Ben-nil-long, who was present, wiped the blood from the wounds with some grass. As a proof that Bur-ro-wan-nie was satisfied with the redress he had taken, we saw him afterwards walking in the town with the object of his resentment, who, on being asked, said, Bur-ro-wan-nie was good; and, during the whole of the day, wherever he was seen, there also was this poor wretch, with his breast and back covered with dried blood; for, according to the constant practice of his countrymen, he had not washed it off. In the evening I saw him with a ligature fastened very tight round his head, which certainly required something to alleviate the pain it must have endured."

A man, who has shed the blood of his fellow-creature, is compelled to expose his person to the spears of all who choose to throw at him, and upon such occasions the ties of friendship and consanguinity are considered as of no avail. On the demise of a person, also, the friends of the deceased are punished, as if the death had been occasioned by their neglect; and this singular custom is sometimes carried farther than can be reconcilable with any sentiments of humanity.

In cases of assassination, the injury may be revenged either on the murderer or any of his relations; and it sometimes happens that the most innocent objects become the victims of blind resentment; as will appear from the following circumstance:—One of the natives having been killed by a man named Wat-te-wal, the widow was obliged, by the custom of her country, to avenge her husband's death. Accordingly, meeting with a little girl, who was distantly related to the murderer, she took her into a retired place, and beat her so barbarously with a club and a pointed stone, that her head was cut in six or seven places, and in the course of a few days she expired. This little victim was

greatly beloved in the adjacent town, on account of her peaceable and quiet deportment, and had frequently requested that the very widow who now murdered her might be fed at the officer's hut where she herself resided. The natives, to whom this circumstance was mentioned, expressed little or no concern at it, and the child's death was not avenged, being considered as an expiatory sacrifice.

Another instance is related by Mr. Collins, to show what may follow where a native dies a natural death. "Bone-da, a fine youth, who lived at my house for several months, died of a cold, which had settled in his face, and terminated in the mortification of his upper and lower jaws. We were told that some blood must be spilt on this occasion; but six weeks elapsed before we heard of any thing having happened in consequence of his decease. After that time, however, we heard, that a large party of natives, belonging to different tribes, being assembled at Rose Bay, had spent a night in dancing and feasting; and that, early in the morning, two of the relatives of Bone-da seized upon a lad, named Tar-ra-bil-long, and with a club each gave him a wound on his head, which laid the skull bare. The sister of Bone-da also had her share in the bloody rite, and pushed at the unoffending boy with a doo-ull, or short spear. He was brought into the town, and placed at the hospital; and though the surgeon pronounced, from the nature of his wounds, that his recovery was rather doubtful, he was seen walking about the day following. On being interrogated about the business, he said, he did not weep nor cry out like a boy, but like a man named Ki-yah, when they struck him; and that the persons who had treated him in this manner were no longer his enemies, but would eat, drink, or sit with him as friends.

"Three or four days after this, a grey-headed man, apparently upwards of sixty years of age, who was related to Bone-da, came in with a severe wound in the back part of his head, given him on account of the boy's decease; neither youth nor old age appearing to be exempted from these sanguinary customs."

In all the contests hitherto seen among these people, the point of honour has been rigidly observed; no one ever attempting to take an unfair advantage of his adversary, nor throwing the spear at him, until he could cover himself with a shield. Yet, notwithstanding this honourable conduct, when opposed to each other in the field, they will sometimes steal upon their enemies at midnight, and murder them whilst asleep.

Some time before Mr. Collins quitted the country, a native of the Botany Bay district had seduced the wife of one Car-ru-ey, and carried her off; for which the husband and his relation Cole-be resolved to take an ample revenge. Accordingly they stole upon the ravisher one night, while he lay asleep, and stabbed him with their spears; but the wounds did not prove mortal; and, on his recovery, he demanded satisfaction. A day being appointed, he brought with him a large party of natives from the southern shore of Botany Bay; and the yoo-lahng, formerly used for the ceremony of tooth-drawing, was the place of rendezvous.

At night, they all amused themselves with dancing; the two parties, however, did not mix together, but one side waited whilst the other concluded their dance. Car-ru-ey seemed apprehensive of the event not proving favourable to him; for, perceiving an officer there with a musket, he strenuously urged him, if any thing should happen to him, to shoot the Botany Bay fellows: the women, also, seconded this request, and observed, that some of the opposite party had resolved to kill Car-ru-ey. Some other firearms being brought forward, the strangers appeared extremely uneasy, until assured that they were merely intended for the security of the spectators.

About ten o'clock in the forenoon, Car-ru-ey and Cole-be appeared seated at one end of the yoo-lahng, each armed with a spear and throwing-stick, and provided with a shield. Here they sat for some time; but, on one of their opponents getting up, they arose and stood upon their guard. Some of the spears, which were thrown at them, they picked up, and threw carelessly back to their adversaries, and others they returned with extraordinary violence. The affair was over before two o'clock, and, what was very remarkable, no person was wounded.

These people have great difficulty in procuring fire, and are, therefore, seldom seen without it. The process of procuring it is attended with great 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 his hands, sliding them up and down till fatigued; he is then relieved by one of his companions, who are seated in a circle, and assist in turn, until fire be procured.

Such of the natives as live on the sea-coast, being compelled to subsist principally upon fish, are very subject to a disorder which is called djee-ball, and nearly resembles the itch. In the year 1791, this distemper raged with such violence, that there was not a single native, man, woman, nor child, that approached the English settlement, but was covered with it.

In 1789, they were afflicted with a disorder which raged among them with all the virulence of the small-pox. The numbers that it swept off, by their own accounts, were almost incredible. "At that time," says Mr. Collins, "a native was living with us: and, on our taking him down to the harbour to look for his former companions, those who witnessed his expressions and agony can never forget either. He looked anxiously around him in the different coves we visited: Not a vestige on the sand was to be found of human foot; the excavations in the rocks were

filled with the 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 last, he exclaimed, 'All dead! All dead!' and then hung his head in mournful silence, which he preserved during the remainder of our excursion. Some days after, he learned that the few of his companions who survived had fled up the harbour, to avoid the raging pestilence; and when some of them were brought into the town, covered with eruptions, he fell a victim to his own humanity." That this dreadful scourge was the small-pox, there can scarcely be any doubt, as the persons seized with it were affected exactly like Europeans who have that disorder, and many that recovered bore evident marks of it on their faces.

As a proof of the sad depopulation occasioned by this disorder, Ben-nil-long informed Mr. Collins, that his friend Cole-be's tribe being reduced, by its effects, to three persons, they were under the necessity of uniting with some other tribe, not only for their personal protection, but to prevent the extinction of their tribe. It is a remarkable fact, however, that, notwithstanding the town of Sydney was at this time filled with children, many of whom visited the sick natives, not one of them caught the disorder.

The quickness with which these people recover from wounds is really surprising, and some of them have even been known to get the better, in a short time, of a fractured skull. That their skulls should often be fractured is no subject of astonishment, when we consider that their clubs seem to be applied solely to the head. Women, who are struck with this formidable weapon, always fall to the ground; but this seldom happens to the men, though the blows are, in general, more severe. Whenever they feel a violent pain, they have recourse to a tight ligature, which stops the circulation of the blood, and eases the part immediately affected.

No traces of religion can be discovered among the natives of New Holland; for it is certain that they do not worship either sun, moon, or stars; that, however necessary fire may be to them, it is not an object of adoration; and that they have no veneration for any particular beast, bird, or fish. Nor does it appear that any object, either substantial or imaginary, impels them to the commission of good actions, or deters them from the perpetration of crimes. They have, indeed, some dark notions of a future state; but these are in no sense connected with religion, having no influence whatever on their lives and manners. When interrogated as to what becomes of them after their decease, some replied, that they went beyond the great water; but the major part intimated that they ascended to the clouds. "Conversing with Ben-nil-long," says Mr. Collins, "after his return from England, where he had obtained some knowledge of our manners and customs, I wished to learn what were his ideas of the place whence his countrymen came, and led him to the subject by observing, that all the white men in the settlement came from England. I then asked him, where the black men came from? He hesitated.—Did they come from any island? His answer was, that he knew of none; they came from the clouds; and, when they died, they returned thither. He wished to make me understand, that they ascended in the shape of little children, first hovering in the tops and branches of trees; and mentioned something about their eating, in that state, their favourite food, little fishes.

The young natives who reside in the English settlements of Port Jackson are very fond of going to church on Sundays, although they know not for what purpose a congregation is then assembled. They will frequently take a book, and imitate the clergyman's gestures and manner, secretly exulting in their talents of mimicry, for which they expect the applause of many of the auditors.

It has been observed, that, in order to exalt these people at all above the brute creation, it is indispensably necessary to prove, that they knew the distinction between right and wrong, as well as between the good and bad qualities of food; because, although their senses might inform them of these latter qualities, the knowledge of right and wrong could only proceed from reason. It must certainly be acknowledged, that they had no distinction in terms for these qualities, the same words implying what was good and bad, and right and wrong. But in the use of these terms, instances have frequently occurred to describe the sensations of the mind, as well as of the senses: thus, when any European has been punished or reproved for mal-treating them, they have invariably expressed their approbation, by saying that it was *bood-yer-re*, or right; but when interrogated respecting the practice of cannibalism, they always expressed great horror at the mention, and said it was *wee-ree*. Midnight assassinations, though too frequently practised, they condemned in the same manner, but applauded acts of kindness and generosity. These few examples may suffice to establish the assertion, that they are naturally capable of distinguishing between good and evil: but this knowledge certainly never extended beyond the affairs of human life, not leading them to suppose that the practice of either virtue or vice had any relation to their future happiness.

Though destitute of all notions of religion, these people have many superstitious fancies and practices; and Mr. Collins observes, that the car-rah-dys may be properly styled their high-priests of superstition; for they not only act a principal part in the tooth-drawing scene, which has been already described, but their assistance is usually implored by the sick and dying; and Governor Phillip one

day met with a person of this description, who, with much gesticulation and mummery, pretended to extract the barbs of two spears from Cole-be's side, which never had been left there; or, if they had, required rather the aid of a knife than any incantations to extract them; Cole-be, however, was satisfied with the car-rah-dy's efforts to serve him, and thought himself perfectly relieved.

A remarkable instance of their superstition occurred among some of the colonists belonging to a boat that was lying wind-bound in the lower part of a harbour. These men had procured some shell-fish, and during the night were preparing to roast them, upon which one of the natives shook his head, and exclaimed, that the wind for which they were waiting would not rise, if they roasted the fish. This assertion was treated with contempt; but on the wind actually proving contrary, the Europeans, in their turn, gave an instance of superstition, by abusing the native, and accusing him as the author of their detention.

Another curious instance is related of a female native, who resided at the clergyman's house in the settlement, but paid occasional visits to the lower part of the harbour. From one of these excursions she returned extremely ill; and, on being interrogated respecting the cause, she said, that the women of Cam-mer-ray had watered a path which they knew she must pass; and that, when she first complained of indisposition, they told her, exultingly, what they had done. Not recovering, though bled by the principal surgeon, she underwent a curious and superstitious operation, in which 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 forehead once, 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, and with the end of it fretted her lips until they bled copiously, the patient supposing all the time that the blood came from her own head, and passed along the line until it ran into the girl's mouth, whence it was discharged into a small vessel, half filled with water. This singular operation is termed the *be-an-ny*, and is performed exclusively by females.

These people hold an opinion, that, by sleeping at the grave of a deceased person any one may be freed from all future apprehensions respecting apparitions; as the spirit of the deceased will visit the sleeper, seize him by the throat, and take out his bowels, which, however, will be carefully replaced. They acknowledge, that very few persons choose to encounter the darkness of the night, the solemnity of the tomb, and the visitation of the spirit of the deceased; but they affirm, that all who are so hardy immediately become car-rah-dys, and that all who exercise that profession have gone through this awful ceremony. They are much afraid of thunder and lightning, but imagine that, by breathing hard and chanting some particular sentences, they can dispel it. To the shooting of a star they attach a considerable degree of importance; and Mr. Collins mentions a girl, who, on an occasion of this kind, appeared greatly agitated, and predicted that some evil would befall all the white men and their habitations.

The disposal of the dead in this country varies according to the age of the deceased; for the young people are consigned to the grave, and those who have passed the prime of life are burnt. Mr. Collins having attended on both occasions, we shall present our readers with an extract from that gentleman's interesting description of the death and interment of a native, named Ba-loo-der-ry.

From being one day in apparently perfect health, he was brought in on the morrow extremely ill, and attended by Ben-nil-long, whom we found singing over him, and using those means which superstition pointed out for the recovery of his friend's health. Ba-loo-der-ry lay extended on the ground, apparently in great pain, while Ben-nil-long applied his mouth to those parts of the body which he thought were affected, breathing strongly on them, and appearing to treat his patient with much friendship and attention. Next morning he was visited by a car-rah-dy, who threw himself into various contortions, applied his mouth to different parts of the patient's body, and, at length, after appearing to labour much, spit out a piece of a bone, about an inch and a half long, which he had previously procured. Here the farce ended, and Ba-loo-der-ry's friends took the car-rah-dy with them, and entertained him with such fare as they had to give. The sick man was at this time in the English hospital; but his friends, thinking he might be better with them, placed him in a canoe, and prepared to take him to the north shore; but, whilst they were carrying him over he expired. This was immediately announced by a violent clamour among the women and children, and Ben-nil-long coming into the town soon afterward, it was agreed between him and the governor that the corpse should be interred in the governor's garden.

"In the afternoon it was brought over in a canoe, and deposited in a hut at the bottom of the garden, several natives attending, and the women and children lamenting and howling most dismally. The body was wrapped up in the jacket he usually wore, and some pieces of blanketting were tied round it with bines. The men were all armed, and, without any provocation, two of them had a contest with clubs, whilst a few blows passed between some of the women. Spears were also thrown, but evidently as part of a mere ceremony, and not with an intention of doing injury to any one. At the request of Ben-nil-long, a blanket was laid over the corpse, and Cole-be sat by it all night.

"They remained tolerably silent till about one o'clock in the morning, when the women began to cry, and con-

tinued for some time. At day-light, Ben-nil-long brought his canoe to the place, and, cutting it to a proper length, caused the body to be placed in it, with a spear, a fiz-gig, a throwing-stick, and a line, which the deceased had worn round his waist. Some time was taken up in adjusting all this business, during which the men were silent, but the women 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 unaffected sorrow.

"Every thing being ready, the men and boys all assisted in lifting the canoe from the ground, and placing it on the heads of two natives, named Collins and Yow-war-re. 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 Wat-te-wal, towards the point of the cove where Ben-nil-long's hut stood. Mau-go-ran, the father, attended them, armed with his spear and throwing-stick, while Ben-nil-long and Wat-te-wal had nothing in their hands but tufts of grass, which they waved about, sometimes turning and facing the corpse, at others waving their tufts among the bushes. When they fronted the corpse, which was carried head-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 distance, Wat-te-wal turned aside from the path, and went up to a bush, into which he seemed to look very narrowly, as if searching for something, and waving about the tufts of grass he held in either hand; but his search proving fruitless, the attendants all turned back, and went on in a quicker pace than before. On drawing near the spot where the women and children were sitting with the other men, the father threw two spears towards them, but they fell short, as he evidently intended. Here Ben-nil-long took his infant child in his arms, and held it up to the corpse, the bearers turning away their heads to avoid it. The reputed brother of the deceased, a very fine boy of about five years of age, was then called for, but he came forward very reluctantly, and was presented in the same manner as the other child. After this, they proceeded to the governor's garden.

"At the grave some delay took place, for, unfortunately, it was found to be too short; but, after some time, it being completed according to their wishes, one of the natives levelled the bottom with his hands and feet, and strewed some grass upon it, after which he stretched himself at his length in it, first on his back, and then on his right side. Ben-nil-long having earnestly requested that some drums might be ordered to attend, two or three marches were beat whilst the grave was preparing; Ben-nil-long highly approving, and pointing first to the deceased and then to the sky, as if there was some connection between them at that moment. When the grave was ready, five or six men got in with the corpse; but, being still rather too short, the ends of the canoe were cut, in doing which the lines were loosened, and the corpse, being exposed to view, appeared to be in a putrescent state. At length, however, every thing was adjusted, and the grave was filled in by the natives and some of the colonists.

"On laying the body in the grave, particular care was taken to place it in such a position that the sun might look on it as he passed, Ben-nil-long and Cole-be taking their observations for that purpose, and cutting down every shrub that could be supposed to obstruct the view. The deceased was placed on his right side, with his head towards the north-west.

"The native Yow-war-re appeared to have much to do in this ceremony. When the grave was covered in, and laid up round, he collected several branches of shrubs, and placed them in a half-circle on the south side of the grave, extending them from the foot to the head. He also laid grass and boughs on the top of it, and crowned the whole with a large log of wood, on which, having previously strewed it with grass, he laid himself at his length for some minutes, with his face towards the sky. Every rite being performed, the party retired, some of the men first speaking to the women in a menacing tone, and telling a girl who was present not to eat any fish or meat that day. Cole-be and Wat-te-wal were painted red and white over the breast and shoulders, and, on this occasion, were distinguished by the title of *Moo-by*, and we understood that, while so distinguished, they were to be very sparing in their meals.

"They enjoined us on no account to mention the name of the deceased, a custom they rigidly attended to themselves, whenever any one died: and, in pursuance of this custom, Nan-bar-ry, one of whose names was Ba-looder-ry, actually relinquished that, and adopted another name."

On the death of Ben-nil-long's wife, her husband resolved to burn her corpse, and requested Governor Phillip, the judge-advocate, and the principal surgeon of the settlement, to attend him on that solemn occasion. He was also accompanied by Collins, Ca-ru-ey, Car-rang-arrang, his sister, and one or two other females.

A spot having been chosen for the construction of the funeral-pile, and the ground having been excavated to the depth of three or four inches, the part turned up was covered with a layer of small sticks and light brushwood; larger pieces were then placed on each side of these, and so on till the pile rose to the height of three feet, the ends and sides being formed of large dry wood, while the

middle consisted of small twigs and branches thrown together. Some grass was now strewed over the pile, and the deceased, covered with an old blanket, was placed on it, with the head towards the north. A basket, with a fishing apparatus and some other small articles, was also placed near the body, and some large logs of wood being laid over it, the pile was kindled by one of the attendants. The fuel being thoroughly dry, it was quickly enveloped with flames, and the widower pointed out to his English friends a black smoke, which arose from the centre of the pile, and signified that the corpse was already consuming.

On the following day, Ben-nil-long invited some of the European gentlemen to see him rake the ashes of his wife together; and they accompanied him to the spot, unattended by any of the natives. He preceded them in solemn silence, speaking to no one until he had performed the last duties of a husband. Having, with the end of his spear, raked the calcined bones and ashes together in a heap, he laid his weapon on the ground, and formed, with a piece of bark, a tumulus that might have done credit to a European grave-digger, carefully laying the earth round, smoothing every little inequality, and paying a scrupulous attention to the exactness of its shape and proportion. On each side of the tumulus he placed a log of wood, and covered the top of it with the piece of bark with which he had so well constructed it. He then turned to his English friends, asking, "if it was good?" and appeared highly gratified with their approbation.

"His deportment," says Mr. Collins, "on this occasion, was solemn and manly; an expressive silence marked his conduct throughout the scene; whilst we attended him as silently, and with close observation. He did not suffer any thing to divert him from the business he had in hand, nor did he seem 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 minutes 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 small interval of time, many ideas presented themselves to his imagination. His hands had just completed the last service 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 formerly have fought for, and whom he now was 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 she had left him; and, when he quitted the spot, his anxiety might be directed to the child, under an idea that he might one day see his Ba-rang-a-roo revive in his little motherless Dil-boong."

A few months after the celebration of Ba-rang-a-roo's funeral, Cole-be's wife fell a victim to a consumption, brought on by suckling a little girl, who was at her breast when she breathed her last. This circumstance led to the discovery of a curious but dreadful custom, which obtains among the natives of New Holland. The mother died in the town, and, when she was taken out for interment, her body was carried to the door of every house she had been accustomed to enter during the latter part of her illness, the bearers observing the same ceremonies as were used at the funeral of Ba-loo-der-ry. When the corpse was deposited in the grave, the father himself placed the living child in it, and threw upon it a large stone, as a signal for the grave to be filled up by the natives. This extraordinary business was performed so suddenly, that the English gentlemen who were present had not time sufficient to prevent it; and, on their speaking about it to Cole-be, he endeavoured to justify the inhuman act, by asserting, that as no woman could be found to nurse the child, it must have suffered a worse death, had it not been interred with its mother.

The language of this people is very grateful to the ear, being, in many instances, both expressive and sonorous; but, with the exception of one or two instances, it has no analogy with any other known language. The dialect spoken near the settlement of Sydney is not only entirely different from that left us by Captain Cook of the people with whom he had some intercourse near Endeavour River, but also from that spoken by those natives who live at Port Stephens and on the banks of the Hawkesbury. A sensible difference may be perceived on hearing the same word sounded by two people; and, in fact, they have sometimes been observed 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.

From the various circumstances that have been related in the preceding pages, a tolerable idea may be formed of the general character and disposition of the natives of New Holland. They are revengeful, jealous, cunning, and courageous. Their midnight assassinations cannot be justly attributed to want of bravery, but rather result from the diabolical spirit of revenge, which thus expects to make surer of its object than when fairly opposed man to man in the field.

The unshaken fortitude with which they endure pain and the cheerfulness with which they always accept a challenge, are indubitable proofs of their not wanting courage

They disclaim all idea of superiority that is not personal, as will appear from the following circumstance: Ben-nil-long had a shield, made of tin, and covered with leather, presented to him by Governor Phillip; but, on his taking it with him down the harbour, the people of the north shore district immediately seized and destroyed it, deeming it unfair for any individual to cover himself with a guard so superior to the shields of his opponents.

They are evidently susceptible of friendship, and capable of feeling sorrow; but this latter sensation they are not in the habit of encouraging for any considerable time. While the funeral ceremonies were performing for Ba-looder-ry, tears were seen to stream down the sable cheek of the afflicted father; but in a little time these were dried up, and the old man's countenance indicated nothing but the lapse of many years which had passed over his head.

As they never think of making provision for the morrow, except at a whale-feast, they generally eat as long as they have any thing left, and, when satiated, stretch themselves out in the sun, where they sleep till hunger or some other cause rouses them again into action. There is, in fact, a great degree of indolence in their dispositions, and this is frequently indulged at the expense of the weaker sex; for whilst the men are enjoying a tranquil slumber, the women are often compelled to sit in their canoes, exposed to the burning heat of the solar rays, chanting their usual song, and inviting the fish beneath them to take the proffered bait; knowing that, unless they procure a sufficient meal for their tyrants, they will have but a rude reception on their landing.

It is probable they might have been honest previously to their being visited by Europeans; but from the colonists they frequently pilfer such things as they cannot otherwise obtain. And it is a remarkable fact, that they have often stolen articles, of which they could not possibly know the use. Mr. White, once being among a crowd of natives in the lower part of the harbour, had his pocket picked of a small case of instruments; but the thief, being observed, was immediately pursued, and compelled to restore his prize. It is worthy of observation, that at this time the English settlers were little acquainted with the natives, and, therefore, the depredator could not have known the contents of the case. Most probably, he considered it as a personal ornament; and Mr. Collins is of opinion that, could he have been watched to his retreat, he would have been seen to lay the case on his head, the place to which at first every thing given these people was usually consigned.

Their talent for mimicry is very great; and it is a favourite diversion even with the children to imitate the peculiarities in any one's gait, which they will generally perform with complete success.

That they are not strangers to the practice of falsehood is sufficiently obvious from the words truth and falsehood being found in their language; but, independent of this, they have very often afforded proofs of being adepts in the arts of lying and evasion. Thus, when the colonists appear to disbelieve any of their tales, they will insist with much earnestness on the truth of their assertions; but, when speaking of other natives, they will strive as anxiously to make it appear that they have told lies.

Their knowledge of astronomy is confined to the names of the sun and moon, a few stars, the milky way, and the magellanic clouds. Of the rotundity of the earth they have not the smallest conception, but imagine that the sun returns over their heads during the night to the quarter whence he begins his course in the morning.

With respect to government, the natives about Port Jackson, Broken Bay, and Botany Bay, appear to live in that state which must have been common to all men, previous to their uniting in society and acknowledging some regularly constituted authority. They are distributed into families, the head or senior of which exacts compliance from the rest. Each family, also, has a particular place of residence, from which its distinguishing name is derived.

In the early intercourse between the natives and the English colonists, the latter, on meeting with families to whom they were unknown, were always accosted by the person who appeared to be the senior of the party; whilst the women, youths, and children, stood at a distance. The word which in their language signifies father, was invariably applied to their old men; and, when they perceived the authority which the English governor held, and the obedience he exacted, they addressed him by the distinguishing appellation of *be-anna*, or father. Their conferring this title solely on him, notwithstanding they perceived the authority of masters over their servants, affords an indisputable proof that those of their countrymen who enjoyed that distinction also held the authority of a chief.

When any of these happened to come into the settlement, they were pointed out to the Europeans with an eagerness of manner that plainly intimated they were considered as persons of consequence. There is, however, another acceptation of the word *be-anna* among the natives; for it is frequently applied to men who have not any children of their own. This singular circumstance having induced the gentlemen of the colony to make some enquiries, they were informed, that in case a father should die, the nearest of kin, or some deputed friend, would take the care of his children; and, for this reason, the children styled them *be-anna*, though in the life-time of their natural parent. "Here," says Mr. Collins, "if the reader pauses for a moment to consider the difference be-

tween 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 his pity and contempt?

The same gentleman informs us, that the distinguishing name of each tribe or family in New Holland is formed by adding the monosyllable *gal* to the name of their place of residence. Thus, the southern coast of Botany Bay is called Gwea, and the people who inhabit it are known by the name of Gwea-gal; and those who live on the northern shore of Port Jackson are called Cam-mer-ray-gal, that part of the harbour being distinguished by the name of Cam-mer-ray. "Of this last tribe," says Mr. Collins, "we heard Ben-nil-long and other natives speak (before we knew them ourselves) as of a very powerful people, who could oblige them to attend wherever and whenever they directed. We afterwards found them to be by far the most numerous tribe within our knowledge. It so happened that they were also the most robust and muscular, and that among them were several of those extraordinary personages called car-rah-dys.

"To the tribe of Cam-mer-ray also belongs the exclusive and extraordinary privilege of exacting a tooth from the members of other tribes inhabiting the sea-coast, or of all such as are within their authority. The exercise of this privilege places these people in a particular point of view; and there can be no doubt of their decided superiority over all the tribes with whom we are acquainted. Many contests, or decisions of honour, 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 numbers and their muscular appearance gave them over the other tribes."

These are all the traces of government or subordination that could ever be discovered among the New Hollanders. The deference paid to the tribe of Cam-mer-ray may have been derived entirely from their superior strength and numbers; but Mr. Collins seems of opinion, that this superiority was maintained for a length of time prior to the founding of the European settlement; and that the privilege of exacting a tooth from the young men of other tribes must have been of long standing, and coeval with the obedience which was paid to them: "hence," says he, "their superiority partakes something of the nature of an authority, which has the sanction of custom to plead for its continuance."

It is almost impossible to conceive any thing more rude than the habitations of these people. The hut of the woodman is constructed 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. But, on the coast, the huts are made of several pieces of bark, about eleven feet in length, and from four to six in breadth, set up so as to form an acute angle, somewhat resembling cards set up by children. The fire is always made at the mouth of the hut, rather within than without; and the interior, in general, is the nastiest place that can be imagined. Besides these bark huts, the natives frequently make use of natural excavations in the rocks, always taking the precaution to choose such as lie out of the reach of wind and rain. At the mouths of some of these excavations the soil abounds with shells and other manure, which have proved a valuable resource to the English colonists, the shells being easily converted into lime, and the other parts serving for the improvement of the gardens.

In the above-mentioned huts and caves the natives lie down indiscriminately, men, women, and children together, and appear to possess under them much the same enjoyments as are found by the wild beast in his den,—shelter from the weather, and (if not disturbed by external enemies) the comfort of sleep.

We have already observed that midnight murders are not unfrequent in this country; and it may be added, that the extreme soundness with which the natives sleep invites jealousy, or revenge for other injuries, to arm the hand of the assassin. One instance of this kind, related by Mr. Collins, is too remarkable to pass unnoticed.

Yel-lo-way, a native who seemed to be endowed with more urbanity than the rest of our friends, having possessed himself of Noo-roo-ing, the wife of Wat-te-wal, he was one night murdered in his sleep by the latter, who could not brook the decided preference given by Noo-roo-ing to his rival. This murder Wat-te-wal afterwards atoned for in his own person, his life being taken by Cole-be, one of Yel-lo-way's friends, who stole upon him in the night, and murdered him while asleep. It is particularly worthy of observation, that Cole-be found an infant lying in Wat-te-wal's arms, whom he carefully removed before he thrust the fatal spear into the father's heart.

Conscious of the danger they ran in the night, from the prevalence of these assassinations, the natives earnestly requested the gentlemen of the colony to give them puppies of their spaniel and terrier breeds; and it appears that now not a family is without one or more of these little watch-dogs, which they consider as invaluable guardians.

Historical Account of the English Colony in New Holland.

For a series of years, those unhappy beings who had forfeited a right to enjoy the blessings of society in their own country, and yet whose crimes did not merit capital

punishment, were transported to the British plantations in America. But, after the unfortunate contest between the American colonists and the mother-country, which terminated in the independence of the former, it became necessary for British convicts, not sentenced to die, to be employed in some way that might make them sensible of the crimes they had committed, and, at the same time, free the community from the dread of their future depredations. Banishment to the coast of Africa was generally found to be a harsher sentence than death itself, and the hulks on the Thames were but ill adapted to improve the abandoned, or prevent a repetition of crime. Penitentiary houses were found equally inefficacious to answer, at once, the purposes of punishment and reformation. Government, therefore, projected the scheme of establishing a colony of convicts on the coast of New Holland; and preparations were made for carrying it into immediate execution.

Captain Phillip, of the navy, was appointed commodore of the voyage, and governor of the new colony; and the fleet began to rendezvous about the middle of March, 1787. It consisted of the Sirius frigate, Captain John Hunter; the Supply, armed tender, Lieutenant H. L. Ball; the Golden Grove, Fishburn, and Borrowdale, store-ships; and the Scarborough, Lady Penrhyn, Friendship, Charlotte, Prince of Wales, and Alexander, transports.

As this was a voyage of uncommon length, and its object was not of a temporary nature, a considerable time was necessary to equip and provide the ships, and to make such arrangements as might prevent miscarriage or avoidable danger. Besides the usual complement of sailors, a party of two hundred and twelve marines, including officers, were distributed in the different vessels, to keep the convicts in awe; and these marines had twenty-eight wives and seventeen children allowed to accompany them. The whole number of convicts amounted to eight hundred and twenty-eight, of whom five hundred and fifty-eight were males.

Governor Phillip, having hoisted his flag on-board the Sirius, as commodore, gave the signal to weigh on the 13th of May, 1787, and was accompanied to some distance by the Hyæna frigate, to carry back dispatches, if necessary.

The wind having wafted them along at a great rate, on the 20th the Hyæna returned, and brought intelligence, that the convicts in the Scarborough had formed a plan for getting possession of that ship, which the officers had timely detected and prevented. This, however, was the only attempt of the kind made during the voyage; for, when the convicts found themselves at a distance from their native shores, they gave up all thoughts of liberty, and yielded to their fate.

On their arrival at Teneriffe, the crew and convicts were indulged with every article of food that could tend to promote health, and remove disease; and the judicious plans of Captain Cook were invariably observed during the voyage, and, in general, with the best effects. It cannot, indeed, be said, that the mortality was so small, in proportion to the numbers, as under that able navigator; for numbers of the convicts were advanced in years, and their constitutions had been previously broken by dissipated habits, or the effects of a long confinement.

They spent a week at this place, during which time the governor of the Canaries paid the most polite attention to the English officers, and exerted himself to render their visit agreeable. But finding vegetables less plentiful than they expected, they weighed anchor on the 10th of June, and in eight days they came in sight of the Cape Verd Islands, whence the fleet steered for St. Jago. Unfavourable winds, however, were likely to prevent their getting into the harbour; and, that no time might be lost, the governor altered his plan, and proceeded directly to Rio de Janeiro.

They had already suffered some inconvenience from heat, attended by heavy rains: but, before they reached the equator, contrary to what might reasonably have been looked for, the temperature became more moderate, and the crews happily continued in tolerable health.

On the whole, the weather was very propitious, and they made such progress that, on the 5th of August, they came to an anchor off the harbour of Rio de Janeiro.

As soon as the viceroy was informed of the nature of Governor Phillip's commission, he gave orders that military honours should be paid him; and the officers, in general, were indulged with permission to visit all parts of the city, and even to make excursions into the country, without the prying vigilance of guards.

Provisions of every kind are so excessively cheap here, that the men were liberally victualled at less than four pence a head per day, including meat, rice, vegetables, and firing. Wine was not plentiful at that season; but a considerable quantity of rum was laid in; and such seeds and plants were procured as appeared adapted to the climate of New Holland. And, lest bread should become scarce, one hundred sacks of cassada were purchased as a substitute. This root is very generally used for bread in the tropical climates, and proves wholesome and nutritious. In its crude state it is highly poisonous; but by washing, pressure, and evaporation, becomes not only innocent but salubrious.

Though no time was lost in expediting the necessary business, a month elapsed before they were ready for sailing. At length, on the 4th of September, they weighed anchor, and, passing the fort at the mouth of the harbour, interchanged a salute of twenty-one guns.

Having again set forward on their destined voyage, they

were favoured with such propitious weather, that their progress to the Cape of Good Hope was unproductive of any events worthy of being recorded.

It was the 13th of October when they arrived in Table Bay, at the Cape. Here they took in their final refreshments, and supplied themselves with such necessaries as were to be procured. Table Bay is a very unsafe station, particularly in the winter-months; and, at that season of the year, False Bay, on the south-east side of the Cape, is generally preferred, as being more secure.

In the space of a month, no less than five hundred animals, of different kinds, were procured and put on board the fleet, and an equal stock of other necessaries was laid in, but at a high price. The country, indeed, had recently suffered from a dearth; and this naturally increased the difficulty of obtaining an adequate supply at any price.

On the 12th of November, they again set sail; but, owing to contrary winds, they found themselves no farther advanced than eighty leagues on the 25th of that month. At this time Governor Phillip went on board the Supply, in hopes of reaching Botany Bay before the rest of the fleet arrived, and of gaining time to explore the country, that a debarkation might take place without delay. Major Ross, the commandant of marines, went on board the Scarborough, and with that ship, the Alexander, and Friendship, reputed the best sailers, had orders to proceed, and to leave the rest of the convoy under the care of Captain Hunter.

From the date of this arrangement to January 3, 1788, the weather was very favourable, and the winds wafted them on with little impediment. The Supply, indeed, turned out but an indifferent sailer to what had been expected; however, she performed this voyage of seven thousand miles in fifty-one days.

The governor having landed at Botany Bay, on the 18th, an interview with the natives took place. They were all armed; but, seeing Governor Phillip approach alone, and without weapons, they returned his confidence, by laying down their arms. Amity was soon established, which happy effect was owing to the personal address of the governor. His orders, indeed, enjoined the utmost attention to conciliate the affection of the natives; and his own humane conduct rendered it delightful for all persons to obey him.

He now proceeded to examine the bay; but it was found, in every respect, less eligible than had been represented, both in itself, and in the surrounding country, which was low and swampy. He then reconnoitred Point Sutherland; but to this part of the harbour ships could not approach, nor was the soil more tempting than before.

While engaged in this necessary business, the whole fleet arrived. The Supply had not so much outsailed the other ships, as to give the governor the time he expected. The last division arrived only two days later than himself.

Finding Botany Bay unfit for the intended settlement, he resolved to examine Port Jackson, which lay about three leagues to the northward; and here all difficulties were found to be at an end. The port was deep and secure; and, after exploring the different coves, he fixed on one which had the finest spring of water, and in which ships could anchor close to the shore. This he named Sydney Cove, in honour of the noble lord of that title, who was then in administration.

Soon after the boats arrived at Port Jackson, another party of the natives made their appearance. They were armed with lances, and, at first, shewed an hostile disposition; but, by gentle means, they were prevailed on to lay aside their suspicions, and to accept some presents. One of them, who appeared to hold the authority of a chief, shewed very singular marks of confidence in the strangers, and, at the same time, much resolution. He singly attended the governor, went to a part of the beach where the men were boiling their meat, examined the contents of the pot, and, seeing himself separated from his friends, advanced to a party of marines, and, by his gestures, seemed to threaten revenge, if any advantage should be taken of his defenceless situation.

In examining a different part of the harbour, the Europeans fell in with about twenty of the natives, who, fearless and unarmed, approached to view the boats, and afterwards joined them at dinner.

Having sufficiently explored Port Jackson, and found it replete with conveniences, the governor determined to hesitate no longer, and immediately issued his orders for the whole fleet to proceed to this place.

That Botany Bay should be highly extolled by Captain Cook, may be easily accounted for. He had no views of a permanent residence, and consequently did not scrutinize its advantages. The land has certainly a picturesque effect, and the ample harvest of botanical curiosities it furnished, might entitle it to the commendation of the scientific; but something more than beauty of appearance and philosophical riches were to be regarded, in a place where a permanent settlement was to be established.

The debarkation being completed at Sydney Cove, the ground was immediately cleared for an encampment, and store-houses and other temporary buildings were begun. The labour attending this was very considerable; for the whole coast was covered with wood; and, though on this spot the trees were less thick, and not much encumbered with underwood, yet their magnitude was such, as to render the felling, and removal of them afterwards, a very arduous task, had the convicts been more active workmen than they really were.

In the evening of the 26th, the British colours were

displayed on shore, under which his majesty's health was drank with much glee. The bustle of business succeeded, and, till the end of the first week in February, all was hurry and exertion.

The materials and frame-work of a temporary residence for the governor had been brought from England; and this was speedily erected. Hospital-tents were also fitted up with all the speed that the exigency of circumstances began to demand. During the passage from the Cape, the fleet had been tolerably healthy; but, soon after landing, the dysentery prevailed, and the scurvy broke out with its most virulent symptoms. In the former complaint, however, a red gum, produced in the country, was found very efficacious.

February commenced with a violent storm of thunder and rain, during which the lightning shivered a tree, under which was a sheep-pen, and five of these animals were destroyed by its effects.

Some part of the shores of the noble harbour of Port Jackson presented a promising soil for cultivation; but, intent solely on providing the best and earliest accommodations for the colonists, the governor used all possible expedition in fixing the settlement at the head of Sydney Cove, where landing the stores was easy, and carriage unnecessary

By assiduous application, they made such rapid progress, that by the 7th of February, a spot being previously cleared, and the whole colony assembled, the governor began to assume his powers. To give all due solemnity to the proceedings, the military were drawn up under arms; the convicts stationed apart, and the principal officers surrounded the governor. Mr. Collins, the judge-advocate, then read the royal commission, by which Arthur Phillip was constituted captain-general and governor in chief of the territory, from latitude ten degrees thirty-seven minutes south, to forty-three degrees thirty-nine minutes along the coast, and of all the interior country as far as one hundred and thirty-five degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, including the adjacent islands in the Pacific, within the above latitudes. The act of parliament establishing the courts of judicature were next read; and lastly, the patents under the great seal, empowering the persons named to act, whenever it should be found requisite. Major Ross of the marines was appointed lieutenant-governor; and a triple discharge of musketry concluded this preliminary ceremony.

Governor Phillip then advanced, and, addressing the military, thanked them for their commendable conduct hitherto; and then, turning to the convicts, explained to them the nature of their present situation and future prospects. He represented that, by the lenity of the laws, their lives had been preserved, and that on their subsequent behaviour it would depend to gain a re-establishment of the rights and advantages of civil society. To proper conduct and commendable exertion, he told them, they had every inducement; and, on the other hand, he reminded them, that in such a small community their crimes could not escape detection nor punishment. All that mercy could do for them had already been experienced, and against future offences the laws would be enforced with rigour. But, while his duty obliged him to hold out the terrors of punishment, he should deem it his felicity to grant every encouragement to the meritorious. As a bar against profligacy of manners, he strongly recommended matrimony, and promised every countenance to such as should enter into that state, and evince a readiness to conform to the laws of morality and religion. He concluded with expressing an earnest desire to promote the happiness of the colony over which he was placed, and to render the settlement both honourable and useful to the mother-country.

This harangue was received with universal applause: and it had, at least in some measure, the desired effect for, in a few days, fourteen marriages took place among the convicts.

The company being dispersed, the governor proceeded to review the troops; after which he gave a dinner to the officers; and the first evening of his entry upon the offices of his government was spent in festivity, amidst reiterated wishes for its prosperity.

As February advanced, the rains began to fall with augmented violence, and the necessity for procuring shelter became very urgent. To the carpenters, all the convicts of that profession were added, and one hundred more of them as labourers, to expedite their temporary buildings; yet it was some months before they were finished, or the governor could leave his first house, which was neither impervious to wind nor rain.

Captain Cook having discovered an island in latitude twenty-nine degrees south, longitude one hundred and sixty-eight degrees ten minutes east; which he named Norfolk Island, and spoke of in terms of high commendation, a party was sent out in the Supply, about the middle of February, to settle there. To be superintendant of this subordinate colony, the governor appointed Lieutenant King, of the Sirius, an officer of approved merit and fidelity. As the island was uninhabited, this gentleman had only six marines, under a subaltern officer, a midshipman, a surgeon, two men who understood the cultivation and dressing of flax, and nine male and six female convicts. Due regulations were established for the conduct of this enterprise; and every precaution was taken to render this small colony equally happy and secure.

The governor had not been long established at Sydney Cove before he found that many individuals under his care were so lost to all sense of right and wrong, and so

regardless even of life itself, that they could not be restrained from offences against their countrymen, or kept from exposing themselves to the natives. Lenient measures having repeatedly proved ineffectual, a criminal court was convened, in which six of the convicts were condemned to die. One of the most daring was executed the same day, another was pardoned, and the remainder were banished to a small island within the bay, where they were kept on bread and water. These people had been convicted of frequently robbing the stores, notwithstanding they had a liberal allowance of provisions.

On the second of March, the governor set out in the long-boat and cutter, to examine the coast. He proceeded first to Broken Bay, about eight miles to the northward of Port Jackson. Here he fell in with a few of the natives, who appeared friendly; and, passing a bar, sailed up an extensive branch of water, which terminated in a large lagoon. The land in the upper part of this branch was low and swampy.

Crossing the bay, he sailed up the south-west branch, which he also found very extensive, and sufficiently deep for ships of any burthen; but the incessant rains prevented him from taking an accurate survey. The land here seemed to possess more elevation than at Port Jackson, and was well wooded. Large trees appeared on the very summits of the mountains, inaccessible to man. A third branch presented a very fine piece of water, which the governor named Pitt Water, in honour of the then premier. This was found deep and very extensive. Some situations in the vicinity appeared admirably adapted for agricultural improvements.

In exploring a part of Broken Bay, the boat found some difficulty in landing, which being observed by two of the natives, an old man and a youth, they appeared solicitous to render the strangers any assistance, and ran and fetched some fire to warm them. As it rained hard, the old man beckoned two of the officers to a cave, which he entered himself, and invited them to follow; but his motives being suspected, though probably without reason, they declined his invitation. He afterwards, however, showed his friendly intention; and in a short time, when the governor came to the same spot, he entertained him with a dance and a song. Several presents were given to this sociable savage, which he received with apparent satisfaction; but he soon found means to steal a spade, and was caught in the fact. The governor, thinking it necessary to evince his displeasure, pushed him away in seeming anger, and pointed to the spade as the cause. This at once destroyed their harmony. The old man instantly seized a spear, and, advancing to the governor, seemed determined to strike; but seeing his threats occasioned no alarm, he desisted from the attempt. His courage, however was eminently conspicuous: for when he meditated the assault, the governor was not alone. Next day the old man repeated his visit, in company with several of his countrymen; but, to convince him of his fault, he was little noticed, while his companions were presented with various articles.

Having thus gained some partial knowledge of the country and inhabitants, the governor returned to the settlement by sea, though it was his intention to have proceeded by land, had not the incessant rains rendered this unpleasant.

On the 19th of March, Lieutenant Ball, in the Supply, arrived from Norfolk Island, which the detachment had reached on the 29th of February; but were five days before they could find a proper landing-place for the stores and provisions. This island being completely environed by rocks, it is difficult even for a man to get on shore. However, at length they found a proper station, and the commandant wrote a very favourable account of his new territory.

In his passage to Norfolk Island, Lieutenant Ball discovered an uninhabited island, in latitude thirty-one degrees thirty-six minutes south, which he named after Lord Howe. On examination, the shores were found to abound in turtle, but to furnish no good anchorage. Part of this newly discovered island rises to a great height, and may be seen at a considerable distance.

To facilitate the cultivation from Norfolk Island, a farther detachment was sent out from Port Jackson, consisting of an officer and eight marines, twelve male, and ten female convicts. But from this digression we must return to the settlement at Sydney Cove.

During the month of March, some of the transports were unloaded and discharged; and the rest were consequently detained, till the store-houses were completed to receive the cargoes.

On the 15th of April, the governor set out on another excursion into the country, attended by several officers and a party of marines. They landed at Shell Cove, near the northern entrance of the harbour, and, after some time, arrived at a large lake, where they observed a black swan, which, though proverbially rare in other countries, is not uncommon here. It is a very beautiful species: the wings are edged with white, and the bill is tinged with red.

So many swamps and bogs impeded their progress in this quarter, that it was three days before they got to firm ground. Almost all the morasses are occasioned by the overflowing of the springs; and nothing more fully evinces the improvements that civilization and agriculture introduce, than the contemplation of such scenes, where human labour and ingenuity have never been exerted to reclaim the soil. In process of time, it is highly probable that corn may wave, and cattle feed, on those very spots which at first were almost impassible.

Behind these low marshy grounds, they came to rocks and barren tracts. The hills, however, were covered with flowering shrubs; and, at the distance of fifteen miles from the sea-coast, they had a charming view of the mountains in the interior. The various ridges obtained the appellations of Carmarthen, Landsdown, and Richmond Hills. It appeared probable that a considerable stream flowed between those mountains; but the stock of provisions being spent, it was deemed advisable to return without further examination.

The governor made another tour of the country soon after, landing in a different part of the harbour. At first they had open country; but in a short time arrived at thickets, which rendered their passage, in that direction, impracticable. They were now obliged to keep close to the banks of a small creek, by which means they passed the cover, and for the three succeeding days pursued a westward course. The country was delightfully fine, for the most part champaign, or rising into gentle eminences, which had a very beautiful and picturesque appearance. The trees seemed to grow at considerable intervals, and were entirely free from underwood.

On the 5th day they reached the top of an ascent, from which they had a prospect of Carmarthen and Landsdown Hills. This landscape was so beautiful, that the governor called it Bellevue. Being still, as they conjectured, about thirty miles from the mountains, which they purposed to reach, and being furnished with no more than six days provisions, it was again found necessary to return.

Prepossessed with a belief, that the knowledge of the country would well repay them for further attempts at exploring it, another expedition was projected, in which it was determined, if possible, to reach Landsdown Hills, where they thought it probable they might fall in with a river of such magnitude as would facilitate their communication with the inland parts; but the indifferent health of the governor, who had been injured by sleeping on the damp ground, delayed the prosecution of the journey.

The country last explored appeared so well calculated for cultivation, that it was resolved to send a detachment to settle there as soon as circumstances would permit. But though the soil was naturally so fertile, it was matter of astonishment how the natives could procure subsistence, as they were ignorant of the means of deriving any advantages from local situations, however propitious. Yet the appearance of temporary huts proved, beyond a doubt, that these parts were frequented by the natives. Near one of the huts the bones of a kangaroo were discovered, and a piece of a root, resembling that of the fern-tree, was picked up, which seemed to have been recently chewed. None of the inhabitants, however, were seen in these excursions; they either fled at the approach of the strangers, or concealed themselves.

It was seldom found that the Europeans could proceed a quarter of a mile without seeing trees that had been on fire. As violent thunder-storms are not unfrequent, some of these might have been fired by the lightning; but it is certain that the natives never are at the trouble of extinguishing a fire they have once kindled, so that it either communicates its flames to the tree, or accidentally goes out.

On his return from this expedition, Governor Phillip had the mortification to find, that five ewes and a lamb had been killed very near the camp, in the middle of the day. This accident was conjectured to have been occasioned by the dogs of the natives; but the real cause was never known. The loss, however, was serious, as it could not be easily replaced.

In the beginning of May, three of the transports which had been cleared sailed for China; and the Supply was sent out to Lord Howe's Island for turtle, in hopes of checking the scurvy, which had now made a rapid progress among the colonists.

By this time, with great labour and assiduity, eight or ten acres had been cleared, and sown with barley and wheat. Such was the first agricultural attempt, in a country where, we are now told, volunteer settlers are likely to make a competent fortune, in a few years, by the tillage of the ground alone.

On the 25th of May, the Supply returned, but had failed of procuring any turtle. She had met with rough weather, and had sustained some damage, but not of great importance.

About this time one of the convicts, who had strayed to some distance in search of vegetables, returned dangerously wounded, and reported that one of his associates, who had gone out on the same errand, had been wounded in the head, and carried off. A shirt and hat, both pierced with spears, were afterwards found in one of the huts of the natives; but no further intelligence could be procured. It is highly probable that the convicts had been the original aggressors, though this was strenuously denied by the person who made his escape.

On the 30th of May, two men, employed in collecting rushes for thatching, were found dead. One of them had four spears in his body; but the other exhibited no external marks of violence. These victims of their own indiscretion had been seen with a canoe, which they had taken from one of the fishing stations. Such misfortunes were feelingly lamented by the governor, as they frustrated his humane plan of conciliating the affections of the natives, and establishing a friendly intercourse with them.

The tools of the deceased rush-cutters being carried away, the governor thought they might lead to some discovery, and, therefore, went out with a small party, and landed at the spot where the men had been killed; but

after traversing the country for twenty miles, he arrived at Botany Bay, without even procuring a sight of any of the natives. Here, however, his party perceived about twenty canoes engaged in fishing; and when the fires were made, and preparations set about for encamping during the night, it was supposed that some of the people would have joined them, but none appeared. Next morning, though fifty canoes were drawn up on the beach, not an individual was to be seen.

The governor had now resolved to return; but, as he was proceeding along the sea-coast, he fell in with a numerous party of the inhabitants, near the mouth of a cave, and was within a few yards of them before they were perceived. The natives were armed, and one of them advancing seemed to warn the English to retire; but when Governor Phillip stepped forward to meet him alone and without weapons, he assumed a friendly confidence.

In a few minutes they were surrounded by more than two hundred men; but no signs of treachery were perceived, nor any wish to take advantage of the superiority of numbers. The moment friendship was offered, they laid down their weapons, and joined the party in the most amicable manner. Numbers of women and children were afterwards brought down by the men, and accepted such presents as were given them.

Among these people nothing was observed that could point them out as being concerned in the murder of the rush-cutters; and the governor had a fresh proof of the propriety of his conduct in treating them with a certain degree of confidence; for, had he hesitated a moment in shewing a friendly disposition, a rencounter must have ensued, and the consequences might have been fatal.

An old man, seeing the English purposed to advance, made signs that he would go before them. Having ascended a hill, he called out, holding up both his hands, the usual expression of amity, to signify to his countrymen in the next cove that friends were coming. The governor, however, did not descend to that cove, where he saw about forty men assembled. The cause of such numbers being collected was unknown; for it was calculated that they constituted a very considerable portion of the inhabitants of a great extent of coast.

In crossing the hills, on their way to Port Jackson, smoke was seen on the top of Landsdown Hills, a proof that the country was inhabited so far back, which was calculated to be fifty miles from the sea.

On a farther investigation of the fate of the rush-cutters, there appeared reason to suppose, that one of the natives had been murdered, and several wounded, before the fatal catastrophe took place. The governor, therefore, offered emancipation to any convict who should discover the aggressors; but nothing farther transpired.

His majesty's birth-day was kept with due festivity, and all the convicts were indulged with a remission from labour. At sun-rise the ships of war fired a royal salute, and at noon the marines, being drawn up, saluted with three vollies. At sun-set the same honours were repeated by the ships, and bonfires threw a lustre on the night. That every person might participate in the general joy, the four convicts, who had been banished to a small island in the centre of the harbour, received a free pardon; and it is probable there was not a heavy heart among them in this distant part of his majesty's dominions.

On the 22d of June, a slight shock of an earthquake was felt, which lasted only two or three seconds. The governor, at first, took it for the report of guns fired at a great distance; but the real cause was soon discovered.

Two days after, a convict, who had been guilty of a robbery, absconded; but soon after returned, as he found it impossible to subsist in the woods. He said, that one of the natives gave him a fish, and made signs for him to go away; that afterwards he fell in with a party of the natives, who would have roasted him; but that he fortunately made his escape. He even pretended to have seen a human body lying on the fire; but little credit could be given to such authority.

With more semblance of truth, he reported that the inhabitants were in great distress for food, and that he had seen four of them apparently perishing of hunger, who made signs for something to eat. This man was tried for his offence, pleaded guilty, and suffered with another criminal.

An account of the state of the colonists' health being delivered in, on the last day of June, by the surgeon, it was found that eight marines and eighty-one convicts and children had died from the time of embarkation; that thirty-six of the military were under medical treatment, and sixty-six of the convicts. He farther stated, that fifty-two convicts were unfit for labour, from old age or infirmities. Many of the sick, however, were in a convalescent state.

When they first landed, the chief care of the governor was to erect temporary accommodations on the spot that presented itself as freest from impediments. No regularity could be expected; but the idea of convenience, united to order, was soon at liberty to expand; and, by degrees, large spaces were opened, lines marked, and a plan drawn out for future operations. The lines of streets and public buildings were now traced, in such a situation as to admit of a free circulation of air, the convenience of water, and other comforts which are requisite in a permanent settlement.

The first huts were of perishable materials, being chiefly constructed of the soft wood of the cabbage-palm, or even of posts, wattled and plastered. But barracks and huts were afterwards formed of more durable materials.

When matters were settled in the immediate vicinity of

Sydney Cove, the governor sent a small detachment to cultivate the ground at the upper end of Port Jackson, which in one of his excursions he had found so well adapted for that purpose, and which has since obtained the appellation of Rose-Hill.

After various unimportant transactions, though uniformly beneficial to the interest of the infant colony, the natives, who had always been treated with the greatest indulgence, as far as the authority of the governor could prevail, but whose entire confidence it was found impossible to gain, made an attempt to wrest by force what certainly did not belong to them. On the 9th of July, a fishing party of the English having drawn the seine, the natives violently seized the greatest part of the fish, while a more numerous body of them stood with their spears ready poised. The cockswain very prudently permitted them to satisfy themselves, and thus hostilities were prevented. Orders had been given to allow the natives a share of whatever might be caught when they were present; and, till this time, they had been apparently well satisfied with what had been voluntarily given them. It was now considered that hard necessity, and the resentment they felt for the encroachments made on their fishing stations, might probably drive them to this desperate act; and, therefore, no notice was taken of the aggression; but a stronger force in future was always sent with the boat, which tended to prevent a repetition of the injury.

About the middle of July, the governor went out with a small party to examine the land between Port Jackson and Broken Bay. In this quarter, many hundreds of acres were free from trees, and in a state favourable to cultivation. Proceeding as far as Pitt Water, he saw several of the natives, but none of them joined him. When the party, however, returned to the boats, they found about sixty men, women, and children, assembled there. In this society some hours were spent in a peaceful and amicable manner; but, though the natives did not appear uneasy in the company of the English, they always manifested satisfaction when they were about to leave them.

Soon after his return from this excursion, Governor Phillip set out again to explore the coast towards Botany Bay. In this journey, few of the inhabitants were seen, but many proofs were observed of the distresses they laboured under from a scarcity of food. In the summer-season they shewed a dainty taste in fish, rejecting some kinds with disdain; but now a young whale, which had been driven on the coast, had been greedily devoured by them. They barely scorched the outside of their fish before they ate it; and they prepared the fern-root in a similar manner.

The first day of the year 1789 was marked as a holiday, by a suspension of all kinds of labour, and by hoisting the royal colours at the fort. But it was much to be lamented, that of all the numbers at that time in the colony, there were only two hundred and fifty employed for the public in cultivation; many were engaged in carrying on the public works, such as stores, wharfs, houses, &c.; a very considerable number were precluded by age or infirmities from working in the public grounds; and the civil establishment, the military, women, and children, filled up the catalogue of those unassisting in cultivation. The idleness of the convicts was, also, justly complained of; and some of them remained so firmly attached to those nefarious practices for which they had been banished their native country, that exemplary punishments became indispensably necessary, and the most fatal consequences frequently resulted from their going among the natives, in direct opposition to the governor's orders.

About the middle of February, Sydney Cove was, for the first time, left without a ship; a circumstance which forcibly drew the attention of the principal settlers to the peculiarity of their situation. The Sirius was gone to the Cape of Good Hope for supplies, the arrival of which was very precarious; and the Supply, having sailed to look after a dangerous reef in an unknown sea, was liable to draw upon herself the very calamity which she was seeking to instruct others to avoid. Should any misfortune have happened of so serious a nature as to render the preservation of this little vessel necessary to the salvation of the colony, how deeply must every one have been concerned in her welfare. We cannot, therefore, be surprised on hearing, that reflection on the bare possibility of miscarriage rendered every person anxious during her absence from the infant settlement. Towards the end of this month, two of the barracks, which had been nearly twelve months in hand, were completed; a brick house was also begun, on the east side, for the commissary, and preparations were made for laying the foundation of a guard-house.

The month of March was ushered in by some unfortunate accidents. Sixteen of the convicts, chiefly brick-makers, quitted their employment, and, having armed themselves with stakes, set off towards Botany Bay, in order to revenge, upon such natives as they should meet, the treatment which one of their companions had received at the end of the last month. However, they fell in with a larger party than they expected, and were soon repulsed, one of their number being killed and six others wounded. This unfortunate affair being mentioned in the settlement, the governor sent out an armed party, who found the body of the man that had been killed lying naked in the road to Botany Bay: they also found a boy who was dreadfully wounded, and had been stripped by the natives. The party, after burying the deceased convict, returned with the boy; and the other wounded people were, in the mean time, carried to the hospital. A severe punishment was afterwards inflicted on the misguided men, who had fis-

grantly broken through every order and restriction; and, at the same time, two armed parties were sent out in different directions, in order to convince the natives that their late act of violence had not intimidated or alarmed the settlers. About this time also six persons suffered death, for having repeatedly broken into and robbed the public stores.

In the beginning of April, the people who were employed in or about the harbour, reported that they daily discovered, in the excavations of the rocks, and upon the beach, great numbers of the dead bodies of the natives. The cause of this mortality was unknown, until a family was brought to the settlement, and the disorder appeared to be the small-pox.

The Supply had returned safely from Norfolk Island, and, on the 6th of April, the Sirius arrived from the Cape of Good Hope, with a quantity of flour for the settlement, and a twelve-month's provisions for her ship's company: this supply proved extremely welcome, and the return of the vessel seemed to diffuse new life throughout every part of the colony. As the flour brought by the Sirius had been packed in bags at the Cape, the coopers were immediately employed in setting up and preparing casks for its reception on shore; and this, with the erection of a new hut for the smiths' work, formed the principal labour of the convicts during this month.

Shortly after the settlement was established at Rose Hill, the governor went out with some people in a direction due south, and caused a visible path to be made; that if any person, who had strayed beyond his own marks for returning, should cross upon this path, he might have a chance of reaching this settlement. A little time before this measure was adopted, two soldiers, who had gone out in search of the sweet-tea plant, were reported to be missing, and though parties were immediately sent out in different directions, all search proved ineffectual.

The anniversary of his majesty's birth-day was observed with every possible distinction; for the first time the artillery belonging to the colony were discharged, the marines fired three vollies, which were followed by a discharge of twenty-one guns from each of the ships of war in the cove; and the governor entertained the officers at dinner in his new house, of which he had recently taken possession.

In the ensuing month, Governor Phillip paid a visit to the settlement at Rose Hill, where the convicts were found residing in very good huts, and apparently under excellent regulations. A barrack for the soldiers was erected in a small redoubt, in which also stood the provision store; and some ground had been opened on the other side of the stream of water which ran into the creek, where a small house had been erected for the use of the superintendant.

The commission of burglaries, robberies, and other offences, in the settlements of Sydney and Rose Hill, had now become so frequent, that it appeared indispensably necessary to form some plan which might effectually put a stop to these growing evils. Various measures having proved ineffectual, one of the convicts presented to the judge-advocate a proposal for establishing a night-watch, to be chosen from among the convicts, with authority to secure all persons of that description who should be found at a distance from their huts after a certain hour. This proposal being laid before the governor, and the plan properly digested, the first foundation of a police in New Holland was laid on the 8th of August. The following outlines of the plan may probably be acceptable to the reader.

The settlement was divided into four districts, over each of which were placed one principal and two subordinate watchmen. These, being selected from among such of the convicts as had borne a good character since their landing, were authorised to patrole at all hours of the night; to visit such places as might be deemed requisite for the discovery of any trespass or misdemeanor; and to secure all persons that might appear to be concerned therein. They were exhorted to use their utmost exertions to trace out offenders, on receiving accounts of any depredation; and, in addition to their night duty, they were to take cognizance of such convicts as practised gaming, or either sold or bartered their clothes or provisions, and report such persons for punishment. All the occurrences of the night were to be faithfully reported to the judge-advocate, and the military were enjoined to assist the watch in any case of emergency. The persons appointed for watchmen were each furnished with a short staff, to distinguish them during the night, and to denote their office in the colony; and they were instructed not to receive any stipulated remuneration from any individual for the conviction of offenders, but to expect that negligence or misconduct in the discharge of their duty would be punished with exemplary severity. The men promised fidelity and diligence, and entered with a confidence of success upon the office which they had voluntarily offered to undertake.

The institution of the night-watch was soon found to be of great utility, as the commission of crimes evidently became less frequent, and many incorrigible offenders were brought to justice, who might otherwise have escaped with impunity. The detestation in which the patroles were held by their fellow-convicts, afforded a sufficient proof of their assiduity in searching for offences; and it might have been justly asserted, that many streets in the British metropolis were neither so well watched nor so securely guarded as the rising town of Sydney.

Governor Phillip having frequently expressed a wish to have one or two of the natives within the settlement, that, by becoming acquainted with their language, a more ami-

cable intercourse might be opened, a boat was repeatedly sent down the harbour, but without success. At length, the master and the first lieutenant of the Sirius fortunately secured two natives, both men, and brought them safely to the settlement. Through the medium of some children, to whom they were well known, they were assured that no injury was intended to their persons. But the measures which were taken to keep them in a state of security, were so disagreeable to the elder of the two, that he privately resolved to attempt an escape; and the negligence of his attendants having given him the desired opportunity, he fled into his native woods, carrying with him the fetter which had been rivetted to his ankle. His companion intended to have joined him in his flight, but the delay of a few moments frustrated his design, and he was secured in the very juncture of bidding adieu to his captivity.

In the month of December the harvest was got in; when it appeared that the cultivated land at Rose Hill had produced upwards of two hundred bushels of wheat, thirty-five bushels of barley, and a small quantity of oats and Indian corn; the whole of which was intended to be reserved for seed. The spot of ground at Sydney, which was commonly called the governor's farm, had been sown only with barley, and produced about twenty-five bushels.

A more complete knowledge of the interior of New Holland was anxiously desired by the English colonists; but the different employments in which all hands had been necessarily engaged had hitherto precluded the possibility of making any material researches. Governor Phillip had, indeed, penetrated as far as Richmond Hill, between fifty and sixty miles inland; but, beyond that distance, the country was totally unknown and unexplored.

Lieutenant Dawes, with a small party, set out in the course of this month, (December,) with a design to reach the western mountains from the banks of the fresh-water river, first discovered by Captain Tench, and supposed to be a branch of the Hawkesbury. But the adventurers returned from their excursion on the ninth day, having met with nothing, after quitting the river, but ravines that were nearly inaccessible; yet, notwithstanding the toil and danger of travelling through such a country, they had, by computation, proceeded within eleven miles of the mountains.

Early in the year 1790, a number of convicts were sent to Norfolk Island; and, in the beginning of March, the governor directed his attention, in a particular manner, to the regulation of the people who were left at Sydney, and to the preservation of the stock in the colony. For these purposes he visited the different huts and gardens which were now become vacant, distributing them to such convicts as were either in miserable hovels, or destitute of any shelter at all. By this arrangement, indeed, the sons of indolence found themselves provided for by the labour of the industrious; but they were at the same time assured, that unless they kept in due cultivation the gardens which were now bestowed upon them, they would be turned out from the comforts of a snug hut, to live under a rock or a tree. That they might have time for this purpose, the afternoon of Wednesday, and the whole of Saturday in every week, was given to them. Similar regulations were made at Rose Hill: the garden-grounds were enlarged; those convicts who were in bad huts were removed to better ones, and every measure was taken which seemed likely to stimulate them to industry.

The colony had for some time been distressed by a scarcity of provisions; and when the Supply returned from Norfolk Island, a general consternation was diffused by the sad account of the loss of the Sirius, which happened in the following manner:—Captain Hunter was extremely fortunate in having a short passage to Norfolk Island; and the soldiers, and a considerable part of the convicts, were directly landed in Cascade Bay. Bad weather, however, immediately ensued, and, continuing for several days, the provisions could not be sent on shore, so high was the surf occasioned by it. This delay, together with a knowledge that the provisions on the island were very inadequate to the additional numbers that were now to be victualled, rendered the captain particularly anxious for the landing of the provisions. The bad weather had separated the Sirius from the Supply; but, meeting with a favourable slant of wind, Captain Hunter gained the island from which he had been driven, and stood for the south end of Sydney Bay, where he found the Supply; and, on its being signified by signal from the shore, that the landing might be effected with any boat, he brought to the windward part of the bay, with the ship's head off the shore, got out the boats, and loaded them with provisions.

When the boats had put off, it being perceived that the ship settled very much to leeward, the tacks were got on board, and every sail set that was possible to get her free from the shore: but it appeared that she could not weather the reef off the south-west end of the bay, the wind having unfortunately shifted two points. The ship was then thrown in stays, which she missed, being with great difficulty wore clear of the breakers, and brought to the wind on the other tack, when every sail was again set. Finding that she still drifted fast upon the shore, another attempt was made to stay her; but, being out of trim, it did not succeed. All the sheets and halliards were then ordered to be let fly, and an anchor to be cut away; but, before it reached the ground, she struck with violence on the reef, very soon bulged, and was irrecoverably lost. Her officers and people, however, were all fortunately saved, being dragged on shore, through the surf, on a grating.

This sad catastrophe was no sooner announced at Sydney,

than a general melancholy prevailed in the settlement, and all the officers, civil and military, were assembled to determine on what measures must now be adopted. Accordingly, after mature deliberation, it was declared indispensably necessary to reduce still lower what was already too low: the weekly ration was to be no more than two pounds and a half of flour, two pounds of pork, one pint of peas, and one pound of rice, for each person. This allowance was to be issued to all descriptions of people in the colony, except children under eighteen months of age, who were only to have one pound of salt meat. Every possible exertion was to be made in fishing for the public benefit; every effort was to be used to prevent the nefarious practice of robbing gardens; and every measure was to be put in practice that could save any of the salt provisions in store.

The inevitable consequences of a dearth soon ensued; labour was almost suspended for want of energy to proceed, and the hardships of the people were strongly marked on their dejected countenances. But, on the 3d of June, every countenance was suddenly cheered, and every heart enlivened, by the arrival of a vessel, which proved to be the Lady Juliana transport from London. The news brought by this ship, however, was of a very distressing nature. It appeared that she had sailed in July, (ten months from the time of her arrival,) with two hundred and twenty-two female convicts on board; and that in the month of September following his majesty's ship Guardian, commanded by Lieutenant Riou, also sailed from England, having on board, with what was in the Lady Juliana, two years' provisions for the settlement; a supply of clothing for the marines, a large quantity of sails and cordage; several chests of medicines; fifteen casks of wine; a quantity of bedding and blankets for the hospital; and an ample supply of unmade clothing for the convicts; with a large assortment of tools and agricultural implements. A quantity of live-stock was also taken on board at the Cape of Good Hope, and a garden completed, which had been prepared under the direction of Sir Joseph Banks, and contained nearly a hundred and fifty fruit-trees. But, on the 23d of December, this richly-freighted vessel unfortunately struck against an island of ice, and received so much injury, that the greatest part of her cargo was obliged to be thrown overboard, to prevent her from immediately sinking. The stock, consisting of horses, cows, sheep, goats, and deer, was all killed; the beautiful garden destroyed; and the vessel herself saved only by the interposition of Providence and the prudent conduct of the commander.

When the female convicts were disembarked, and the stores landed, it appeared that twenty casks of flour were utterly spoiled. This was a serious loss to the colony, when only four pounds of flour could be allowed to each man for seven days. In a short time, however, they were effectually relieved from their distress by the safe arrival of the Justinian store-ship from England; when all things seemed getting into their former train: the full ration was ordered to be issued, and the drum for labour was to beat, as usual, at one o'clock in the afternoon.

In the course of a few days arrived the Surprise, the Neptune, and Scarborough, transports, laden with convicts; but it was a sensible mortification to the gentlemen of the colony, that most of the prisoners in these ships were in a pitiable situation, many of them labouring under the complicated diseases of the scurvy and dysentery, and others yielding to the sad effects of a violent fever. Several of these unfortunate beings died in the boats, as they were rowing on shore, and even those who did not require medical assistance appeared extremely emaciated. The sick, however, were landed with all possible expedition; and wine and other necessaries were distributed among those who appeared to stand in need of such comforts.

Shortly after the landing of the convicts, the governor laid down the lines of a regular town at Rose Hill. The principal street was to be about sixty-eight yards wide, and to extend one mile, commencing near the landing-place, and running in a westerly direction to the foot of an eminence, on which his excellency designed to erect a small house for his own residence whenever he should visit the settlement. On each side of this street were to be erected a number of huts, capable of containing ten persons each, at the distance of twenty yards from each other; and a certain proportion of ground for gardens was to be allotted in the rear. Meanwhile the labouring convicts at Sydney were employed in erecting a new brick storehouse, discharging the transports, and forming a road from the town to the brick-kilns.

During the general consternation occasioned by the late scarcity of provisions, Ben-nil-long (the native whom we have already mentioned as secured at government-house) found means to make his escape; and since that time nothing worthy of notice had occurred among the other natives. In the beginning of September, however, the amicable intercourse which the governor had always laboured to open with these people was purchased by a circumstance which seemed at first to threaten the colony with a very serious loss.

One morning, on hearing that Ben-nil-long had been seen at Broken Bay, and had sent him, as a present, a piece of a whale which was then lying on the beach, Governor Phillip immediately went down in a boat, and landed at the place where the whale was lying; and here he not only saw Ben-nil-long, but Cole-be also, who had escaped from government-house soon after his capture. It appeared that the few months Ben-nil-long had been away had so altered his person, that the governor, until joined

by Mr. Collins and Lieutenant Waterhouse, did not perfectly recollect his features. Several articles of wearing-apparel were now given to the savages, and Ben-nil-long requested the governor to return in two days with more clothes, and also with some hatchets or tomahawks.

The cove was nearly filled with natives, drawn together by the attraction of a whale-feast; and it being observed, during the conference, that twenty or thirty of these people were drawing themselves into a circle round the governor and his unarmed companions, it was proposed to retire gradually to the boat, where some of the Europeans laid on their oars, to be ready in case of accident. At this juncture, Ben-nil-long, who had already presented several natives by name, pointed out one, whom the governor stepped forward to meet, and, in token of friendship, held out both his hands towards him. The savage, not understanding this civility, but supposing that he designed to seize him as a prisoner, immediately fixed a spear on his throwing stick, and darted it at the governor with such force, that it entered a little above his collar-bone, and the barb of it came through on the other side. Several other spears were thrown, but happily without effect. The spear was then broken by Mr. Waterhouse; and whilst the governor was leading down to the boat, his attendants landed with their arms, but of four muskets which they took on shore, one only could be discharged. Extraordinary exertions were now made to reach the settlement, which was five miles distant; but in the course of two hours the governor was safely conveyed to his house, and the spear extracted without shewing any alarming symptom. On the tenth day, indeed, his excellency was so far recovered as to repeat his visit to the cove; but he now took the precaution of being attended by several officers well armed. Ben-nil-long asserted, that he had severely beaten the aggressor; and added, that his throwing the spear at the governor was entirely the effect of his fear, and done from the impulse of self-preservation. These assurances were graciously received by the governor; and a considerable quantity of fish was distributed among the natives, in order to convince them that no animosity was retained on account of the late accident.

In the beginning of October, Ben-nil-long and three of his companions paid a visit to the settlement; and the welcome reception they met with inspired them with such confidence, that their visit was soon repeated, and, after a little time, Ben-nil-long intreated the governor to build him a hut at the eastern extremity of Sydney Cove. This request was cheerfully granted, and an effectual opening was consequently made to the long desired intercourse between the natives and the gentlemen of the colony.

Early in July, 1791, the colonists heard, with great satisfaction, that the English government had resolved on sending out convicts at two embarkations in every year, at which time provisions were also to be sent, that the settlement might not again be reduced to the melancholy situation from which it had been lately relieved. It was also reported that a cargo of grain might be expected from Bengal, and a transport, with live-stock, from the north-west coast of America.

About the same time, the convicts, whose terms of transportation had expired, were collected, and informed that such of them as wished to become free settlers should receive every encouragement; that those who did not, were to work for their provisions, stipulating that their labours should be continued for twelve or eighteen months certain; and that such as preferred returning to England, were at liberty to follow their inclinations whenever they could procure a passage, but that they were not to expect any assistance on the part of government to that end. The wish, however, for returning to their native country appeared to be the prevailing idea, as very few gave in their names as settlers, and none were found willing to labour for a stipulated time.

In the month of September, a public seal was received from England, to be affixed to all instruments drawn in his majesty's name; and also a commission under the great seal, empowering the governor for the time being, to remit, either absolutely or conditionally, the term for which convicts should have been, or might be hereafter, transported. In determining the device for the seal of the colony, attention had been evidently paid to its local and peculiar circumstances. On one side were his majesty's arms, with the royal titles in the margin; on the reverse, a group of convicts landing at Botany Bay, and received by Industry, who (surrounded by a bale of merchandise, a bee-hive, a shovel, and a pick-axe) appears releasing them from their fetters, and pointing to a town, rising on the summit of a hill, and oxen ploughing the adjacent land.

The month of April, in 1792, commenced with a dreadful sick-list, and with death, making rapid strides among the convicts; and, notwithstanding every possible exertion, the mortality was not much decreased till the beginning of June. The public works at Sydney and Paramatta, and the new town at Rose Hill, went on but slowly. At Sydney, however, the workmen finished a tank, capable of containing seven thousand nine hundred and ninety gallons of water, with a well in the centre fifteen feet deep. Brick huts were erecting for the convicts, in room of the miserable hovels which had been put up at their first landing, and many of which were found to interfere with the new streets now laying out. At Paramatta, a foundation for an hospital was laid, a house erected for the master-carpenter, and roofs prepared for the different huts which were building in various directions.

In September it was determined to begin the new bar-

racks in the vicinity of Sydney Town. For the private soldiers there were to be five buildings, each one hundred feet by twenty-four in front, and connected by a slight wall. At each end were to be two apartments for officers, seventy-five feet by eighteen, each apartment containing four rooms, with a passage of sixteen feet. Kitchens, and other convenient offices, were to be erected in the rear, and a considerable portion of garden-ground laid out at the back.

Towards the end of November, Governor Phillip, in consequence of ill health, signified a determination of returning to England, and, on the 10th of December, he went on board the Atlantic, and relinquished a charge in the execution of which he had manifested a zeal and perseverance that must ever reflect the highest honour upon his name. Indeed, we cannot adduce a more convincing proof of the love and respect which this gentleman's conduct had ensured, than by stating that two of the natives, Ben-nil-long and Yem-mer-ra-wan-nie, voluntarily determined to accompany him to England.

The government of the colony now devolved upon Francis Grose, Esq. the lieutenant-governor. This gentleman had no sooner assumed the government, than he issued out the following order, for regulating the mode of carrying on the duty at Parramatta:

"All orders given by the captain who commands at Parramatta, respecting the convicts stationed there, are to be obeyed; and all complaints or reports that would be made to the lieutenant-governor when present, are, in his absence, to be communicated to Captain Foveaux, or such other captain as may be doing duty with the detachment."

By this order the military was substituted for the civil officer. Formerly, all complaints had been laid before the civil magistrate, who, in the governor's absence, punished such slight offences as required immediate cognizance; and all orders and directions respecting the convicts went through his hands.

The military power had hitherto been considered as necessary only for the protection of the stores, and the discharge of such duties as belonged immediately to their profession, without having the smallest share in the civil government of the colony; but, as it was provided by his majesty's commission, that, in case of the death or absence both of the governor and lieutenant-governor of the territory, the officer next in rank on service in the colony should exercise the functions of a governor until further instructions should be received from England, Mr. Grose thought proper to publish the above order, placing the captain commanding the detachment at Parramatta, in the direction of the civil duties of that settlement.

Similar regulations took place at Sydney, where it was ordered, that the captain of the day should report to the commanding officer, all convict prisoners, stating the author and cause of their confinement. And, after a few days, this order was enforced by another, which directed, that all enquiries by the civil magistrate should, in future, be dispensed with, until the lieutenant-governor had given directions on the subject; and the convicts were not upon any account to be punished without his especial order.

Early in the month of July, 1793, the Rev. Mr. Johnson, having long lamented the want of a proper place for the performance of divine worship, began one under his own direction, and chose the situation for it at the back of the huts on the east side of Sydney Cove. The front was seventy-three feet by fifteen; and, at right angles with the centre projected another building, forty feet by fifteen. The edifice was constructed of strong posts, wattles, and plaister, and the roof was to be thatched. This building was soon completed, and divine service was performed in it for the first time on the 25th of August. Upon this occasion the worthy clergyman lamented that the urgency of public works had prevented any undertaking of the kind before, and had thus thrown it upon him: he declared that his only motive in coming forward upon the business, was that of establishing a place where public worship might be performed without the congregation being exposed to the inclemency of the weather; and he added, that although the uncertainty of a place where they might attend had hitherto prevented many from assembling for the purposes of devotion, he now hoped the attendance would be full whenever he preached there.

The town of Sydney had increased considerably by the ensuing Christmas; about a hundred and sixty huts, and five barracks having been added since the departure of Governor Phillip. Some of these huts were tolerably large, and, to each of them, upwards of fourteen hundred bricks were allowed for a chimney and floor.

Among the various conveniences now enjoyed in the colony, we must notice the introduction of passage-boats, which, for the benefit of settlers and others, were allowed to go between Sydney and Parramatta. These were the property of convicts, whose terms of transportation had expired. Each person availing himself of these conveniences was charged one shilling for his passage; luggage was paid for at the rate of one shilling per hundred weight, and the entire boat might be hired for the sum of six shillings.

It soon appeared that the permission given to officers to hold lands had proved of very considerable benefit to the colony. They were liberal in their employments of people to cultivate those lands; and they had exerted themselves so arduously, that it appeared nine hundred and eighty-two acres had been cleared by them since the permission had been granted. Mr. Alt, having taken a survey in

April, 1794, reported that there had been cleared, since Governor Phillip's departure, two thousand nine hundred and sixty-two acres and one quarter; which, added to seventeen hundred and three acres and a half that were cleared at that time, made a total of four thousand six hundred and sixty-five acres and three quarters of cleared ground. It must also be observed, that, in the short period of fifteen months, the officers, civil and military, had cleared more than half the quantity of ground that had been cleared by the government and the settlers from the establishment of the colony to the date of Governor Phillip's departure.

On the 25th of October, the Surprise transport arrived from England, having on board sixty female and twenty-three male convicts, some stores and provisions, and three settlers for the colony. By this vessel advice was brought that Governor Hunter, with two ships, intended to be employed in procuring cattle for the colony, might be expected to arrive in about three months. It was also stated, that the two natives in England were in good health, but they had made very little improvement in the English language.

On the 15th of December, the lieutenant-governor and his family went on board the Dædalus, to return to England, and with him embarked Mr. White, the principal surgeon of the colony; the Rev. Mr. Bain, the chaplain; Mr. Laing, assistant-surgeon of the settlement; three soldiers, two women, and nine men. The master of the transport had permission to ship twelve men and two women, whose term of transportation had expired.

Previous to the lieutenant-governor's departure, such convicts as were confined in the cells, or who were under orders for punishment, were set at liberty; several small portions of land were granted to such soldiers as had made application for them; and some leases of town lots were given.

The direction of the colony, during the absence of the governor and lieutenant-governor, devolving upon the officer highest in rank then in the colony, Captain William Paterson took the oaths prescribed by his majesty's letters patent for the person who should so assume the government of the settlement. But as this officer was in expectation of the early arrival of Governor Hunter, he made no alteration in the mode of carrying on the various duties of the settlement now entrusted to his care.

The new governor arrived on the 7th of September, 1795; but he did not assume the exercise of his authority until the 11th, when his majesty's commission was publicly read by the judge-advocate, all descriptions of persons being present. His excellency, in a very appropriate speech, declared the expectations he had from every one's conduct, delicately touching on that of some persons who had been lately transported for seditious practices, and strongly urging the necessity of a general unanimity in support of his majesty's government. He was afterwards sworn in by the judge-advocate, and received a complimentary address from the civil and military officers of the settlement.

The governor, knowing the importance of being thoroughly acquainted with the state of the colony, ordered a general muster to be taken by the commissary; appointing different days at Sydney, Parramatta, and the Hawkesbury, that correct accounts might be easily obtained of the number and distribution of all persons in those districts, the military excepted; and, at the same time, he declared his intention of going in person to inspect the state of the different farms. He exhorted all persons holding lands in cultivation to plant with Indian corn as much of them as might not at that time be under any other grain; urging them not to let the proper season pass by, as the grain recommended to their attention formed an essential article.

Early in the ensuing month the report of this muster was laid before the governor; and, after mature deliberation, his excellency deemed it advisable to make some regulations in the assistance afforded by government to settlers, and others holding grants of land. The officers occupying lands were permitted to retain the men allowed by lieutenant-governor Grose; viz. ten for the business of agriculture, and three for domestic purposes. Although this number far exceeded what had in England been thought necessary, the governor was unwilling to reduce it, whilst he saw the ground planting with Indian corn, and knew that a wheat-harvest was approaching. He felt it his duty, however, to explain that a reduction must take place, as government could not be expected much longer to maintain and clothe those men who tilled the ground, and at the same time pay for the produce of their labours, particularly when every public work was likely to stand still for want of labourers. To the settlers who arrived in the Surprise he allowed five male convicts; to the superintendants, constables, and store-keepers, four; to settlers from free people, two; and to settlers from prisoners, one.

The attention of the natives in the vicinity of the settlement was now principally engrossed by Ben-nil-long, who had returned from England with Governor Hunter. On his first landing, he behaved with a polished familiarity towards his sisters and other relations; but to his acquaintance he appeared remarkably distant and consequential. He declared, in an authoritative tone, that he should no longer suffer them to fight and murder each other, as they had done; but that he should introduce peace among them, and teach them to love one another. He also desired that, when they visited him at Government-house, they would endeavour to be more cleanly in their persons, and less coarse in their manners; and he appeared highly

offended at the indelicacy of his sister, who, hearing of his arrival, came in such haste from Botany Bay, with a little nephew on her back, that she left all her habiliments behind her.

Ben-nil-long had certainly been very observant of the English manners; and it was obvious, on his return, that he had no desire to renounce the habits and comforts of the civilized life which he had so readily adopted. He conducted himself with great propriety at table, particularly in the observance of those little attentions which are chiefly practised in the company of females; and although he frequently laid his clothes aside when about to visit his countrymen, his dress appeared to be an object of no small concern to him.

Immediately on his arrival he enquired after his wife, and found her living with another man, named Carruey; but, on his producing a rose-coloured jacket and petticoat, and a bonnet of the same colour, she deserted her paramour. In a few days, however, she returned to Carruey; and Ben-nil-long, after giving his rival a sound beating, declared his intention of looking out for another wife.

Some imperfect accounts having been received of the existence of some cattle which were lost in 1788, two of the convicts resolved to ascertain the truth of these reports, and endeavour to discover the place of their retreat. On their return from their first excursion, they affirmed they had seen them; and a subsequent report proved so satisfactory, that the governor resolved to go in person to that part of the country where they were said to have been found. Accordingly, he set off from Parramatta, attended by a small party; and, after travelling two days, and crossing the river Nepean, he actually fell in with a fine herd of cattle, about forty in number, grazing in a pleasant and fertile pasturage. The day being far advanced, he determined to pass the night in the neighbourhood, hoping, in the morning, to be gratified with a sight of the whole herd. A supposition was now started of their being cattle produced from what had been formerly brought from the Cape of Good Hope. The governor was anxious to ascertain the truth of this suggestion, and accordingly he desired his attendants, next morning, to endeavour to get near enough to kill a calf. This they found to be impracticable; for, whilst they were lying in wait for the whole herd to pass, they were furiously attacked by one of the bulls. This animal, however, was fortunately killed, and completely answered the desired purpose; for he had all the marks of the Cape cattle when full grown, such as wide spreading horns, a moderate rising between his shoulders, and a short thin tail.

After a little reflection, the question how these cattle strayed to this part of the country appeared easy of solution. The few that were lost in 1788 might travel without interruption, in a western direction, until they reached the banks of the Nepean, and, by fording that river, they would come at once into a fertile and irriguous country, from which they could have no incitement to remove. It was a circumstance equally important and gratifying to have in the woods of New Holland a thriving herd of wild cattle. Some proposals were made for bringing them into the settlement; but it was considered that, if these should be sacrificed on any temporary emergency, the benefit would be but small to the colony; whereas, if permitted to remain undisturbed for a few years longer, they might prove sufficient for the inhabitants of the country, and, perhaps, not only for their own consumption, but also for exportation.

On the 20th of June, 1796, the governor, with a few attendants, undertook a second excursion to this part of the country, and he saw the cattle ranging as before, though not exactly in the same spot; and he had the satisfaction to observe that their numbers had increased, as ninety-four were at this time counted.

The frequent commission of the most daring crimes, together with the turbulent and dissipated behaviour of the convicts, having recently called aloud for redress, the governor resolved, in the month of September, to enforce the most rigid discipline, and to construct a capacious log-prison at each of the towns of Sydney and Parramatta. It being indispensably necessary that these should be erected as speedily as possible, he called upon every settler, officer, and housekeeper, to furnish a certain number of logs for this purpose; and he had, in a very short time, the pleasure of seeing materials brought in much faster than the carpenters could put them together. In the course of the ensuing month, Ben-nil-long, who had returned to all his native habits, claimed the protection of the governor from several of his countrymen, who, he affirmed, had, under the false pretence of punishing him for murder, laid an ambush in the brick-fields near the town of Sydney, with a view to kill him. Governor Hunter accordingly sent him to the place, with some of the military, where he explained to his countrymen, that he was not guilty of the crime laid to his charge; and that the soldiers were sent with him, as a proof that the governor would not suffer him to be ill-treated on any false pretence; but that he was resolved to drive every native from Sydney who should presume to attempt it. This threat had the desired effect, and the fears of Ben-nil-long soon subsided.

In the month of January, 1797, the governor resolved to visit that part of the settlement which was situated on the banks of the Hawkesbury. Accordingly he set off, with a party of officers, to Broken Bay, when he sailed up the river till he arrived at some farms, which had been recently evacuated, in consequence of the depredations that the owners had been exposed to from several parties

of natives. The ground in the vicinity was now carefully examined, to see if it would admit such a number of settlers as might be sufficient for the purposes of mutual assistance and protection; but it was found inadequate to that end.

The governor and his attendants now proceeded up the river to Richmond Hill, on the summit of which a large smoke was made at noon, and at the same time a similar smoke was made on Prospect Hill, to ascertain the relative situation of the two hills. This bearing, which was thirty-five degrees south-east by compass, gave, with the latitude observed in each, a distance of eighteen miles between the hills in a direct line.

Towards the end of the month, the governor made an excursion to Botany Bay, in order to explore George's River as far as practicable, and to examine the soil upon its banks, which he found to be of good quality, and considerable extent. This river, which was observed to run in a westerly direction about twenty-five miles from Botany Bay, was highly picturesque, and many of its branches were navigable for small craft for at least twenty miles up; and some of its creeks reached within a short distance of Prospect Hill.

The convicts and other people belonging to the crown were employed during the month of March in a variety of works, at different places. At Sydney, a gang was employed in making bricks, where also the log-prison and a large granary were erecting. All the public brick edifices were likewise undergoing a repair, such as the barracks, officers' dwellings, store-houses, &c. At Toongabbe, upwards of a hundred men were employed in agriculture; and at Parramatta a considerable number of stone-masons and carpenters were engaged in preparing materials for a windmill.

Early in the month of June, Governor Hunter paid a visit to the settlement at Parramatta, for the purpose of examining that part of the country which he intended to cultivate on the public account, and to observe how the convicts, who had been recently sent thither, were provided for.

The ground proposed to be cleared on the public account was not more than two miles and a half from Parramatta, and most charmingly situated with respect to fresh water, having a chain of excellent ponds in its vicinity. The deputy-surveyor having accompanied the governor, a spot was marked out for the erection of the necessary buildings; and the whole received the name of Portland Place, in honour of his grace the Duke of Portland.

Towards the latter end of this month, the new prison was completed at Sydney, and enclosed with a strong and high fence. This building was eighty feet in length: the sides and ends were constructed of strong logs, a double row of which formed each partition. The floor and the roof were of the same solid materials, over which was a coat of stiff clay, eight inches deep, and the roof, besides, was thatched. The whole was divided into twenty-two cells, and in the prison-yard was a distinct brick building for debtors, fenced off from the felons' side by a strong and high paling.

The beginning of December was marked by a circumstance which gave rise to much conversation in the town of Sydney, and excited much commotion among the natives. Two of these people, Cole-be and Ye-ra-ni-be, having had some misunderstanding, met and attacked each other in the town. For some time they fought without gaining any advantage; but, on closing on each other with their clubs, Ye-ra-ni-be's shield fell from his hand, and, while stooping to take it up, his antagonist struck him on the head, and treacherously repeated the blow, whilst he was in that defenceless situation.

Conscious that this behaviour would ensure him the appellation of coward, and that the most serious consequences might result from the death of his opponent, Cole-be thought proper to abscond for some time. Meanwhile Ye-ra-ni-be was constantly attended by some of his male and female acquaintance, particularly by his two friends, Collins and Mo-roo-bra. One night, when a dismal song of lamentation had been sung over him, his male friends suddenly started up, and, seizing their weapons, rushed out, fully determined on revenge. As they knew pretty well where to meet with Cole be, they gave him a severe beating, but would not kill him until the fate of their friend should be decided.

Six days after the affray between Cole-be and Ye-ra-ni-be, the latter died, and his body was interred next day by the side of the public road, below the military barracks.

Cole-be, finding that he must either submit to the trial usual on such occasions, or remain in continual dread of assassination, resolved, at length, to come forward, that the business might be settled one way or the other. Having intimated this resolution, he repaired, on a certain day, to the place of rendezvous, and it is highly probable that he would have expiated his offence with his life, had it not been for the interposition of the military, before whose barracks the affair took place; for, although extremely active in the use of the shield, he was soon overpowered by his enraged assailants, and, sinking beneath their spears, was on the point of receiving his death-wound, when his friends, the soldiers, lifted him from the ground, and carried him into the barracks.

Ben-nil-long, the particular friend of Cole-be, was present on this occasion, but it was supposed that he did not intend to take any part in it; but, when the soldiers rushed in to save the life of his friend, his conduct became utterly inexplicable; for, on a sudden, he chose to be in a rage

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with something, and threw a spear at one of the soldiers with such tremendous force, that it immediately passed through his back, and came out at his belly, close to the navel. He was then dragged away, boiling with rage, and it became necessary to confine him during the night, both to prevent the mischief with which he threatened the white people, and to save him from the resentment of the military.

It was a singular fact that this man, instead of evincing the least gratitude for the numerous attentions he had received, had now become a most insolent and troublesome savage. As it was sometimes utterly impossible to avoid reprimanding him for his ill behaviour, he had been known to walk about armed, and he had even the audacity to declare that it was for the express purpose of spearing the governor, whenever an opportunity should offer. His last outrage had rendered him altogether detestable to the colonists; and as the natives, who had received many comforts in the settlement, were now afraid of appearing, under the idea that all might be punished for the crime of an individual, it was supposed that Ben-nil-long would soon receive that punishment which he had long deserved.

Notwithstanding the severe trial which Cole-be had been exposed to for the death of Ye-ra-ni-be, the friends of the latter appeared to consider themselves still bound to prosecute their revenge: and in the month of January, 1798, Mo-roo-bra, and some other natives, meeting with Cole-be, made an attack upon him, with a determination to take away his life. Cole-be, not yet recovered of the wounds he had lately received, was unable to make much resistance, and, after receiving several blows on the head, he fell down apparently lifeless; but Mo-roo-bra, as they were quitting him, perceived him attempt to rise, and immediately returned to finish his butchery. This ungenerous behaviour so exasperated another native, that he snatched up a spear, and threw it with all his force at Mo-roo-bra. The wound inflicted by this weapon soon proved mortal; and the native who threw it was compelled to submit to the usual trial; in which, notwithstanding his gallantry and agility, he was speared twice through the thigh, once through the leg, and once in his right-hand.

In the month of July, a young woman, nearly related to Ben-nil-long, who had resided from her infancy among the gentlemen of the colony, was inhumanly murdered by some of her countrymen; and, about the same time, a native of the Botany Bay district ran a spear through the body of a lad, named Nan-bar-rey. These circumstances occasioned much violence on the part of the friends and relations of the sufferers, among whom were Cole-be and Ben-nil-long. The former happening to meet the man who had wounded Nan-bar-rey, revenged his treatment of him so severely, that he died of his wounds the next morning. In consequence of this, Ben-nil-long was attacked by two men; and, after he had defended himself for some time with equal address and agility, one of the savages slipped behind, and threw a spear into his side with such force, that it penetrated seven inches into the cavity of his body, and, from its direction, was supposed to have wounded his intestines. However, by the care and attention of his European friends, he was soon recovered; and, on hearing that a body of the southern natives had offered battle to those of Sydney, for the purpose of revenging the death of the young man who had slain Nan-bar-rey, he appeared and fought as the friend of Cole-be.

The beginning of the new year, 1799, was marked by a drought and suffocating heat, which proved highly detrimental to cultivation: and the month of March was ushered in by an accident, which, though not so ruinous as the drought to the colony at large, proved very destructive to the settlers in the vicinity of the Hawkesbury. That river, in the course of a few hours, rose to the height of fifty feet above its common level, and with such force as to bear down every thing before it. The government storehouse was swept away, with all the provisions that it contained; hogs, poultry, and the domestic effects of the people, were hurried away by the torrent; and many of the inhabitants were taken from the ridges of their houses, by a few boats, just in time to save their lives: for most of the dwellings were completely inundated, and the whole country appeared like an extensive lake.

This was a very serious calamity, and rendered particularly distressing by the settlers being unprepared for any thing of the kind. No cause had appeared, either at or near the settlement, to indicate an approaching overflow of the river. It is highly probable, however, that a heavy fall of rain had taken place in the interior of the country, among the mountains; and that, in consequence of the long drought, it had not been any where absorbed, but had run down the sides of the hills, filling all the branches of the river; which, from its serpentine form, could not give vent so fast as the waters rushed in. It was generally expected, however, that this inundation would eventually prove beneficial to the grounds it had overflowed, and that the luxuriance of their subsequent productions would amply repay the losses which the sufferers had sustained.

In the evening of the 4th of June, which had been observed as his majesty's birth-day with every demonstration of loyalty and cheerfulness, the weather became extremely tempestuous, and continued for three days blowing a violent gale from the southward, attended with a deluge of rain, which occasioned some considerable damages to the new buildings erected by government, and, in particular, the new mill at Sydney was so much injured, that it be-

came necessary to pull it down, and to lay the foundation a second time.

For some time the gale subsided, but, about the middle of the month, it returned from the southward with increased violence, and attended by another deluge of rain. The south side of the church-tower was entirely destroyed, though the clock fortunately escaped; the new Government-house at Parramatta received some material injury; and, in short, the ravages of the storm were so great, that the settlement was thrown back nearly twelve months in several public works, which were just on the eve of being completed. To add to the distress of the governor and his friends at this juncture, some very serious inconveniences were likely to result from an unproductive harvest, from an exhausted store in the important articles of clothes and bedding, and from the immoral and indolent habits of the greater part of the colonists. Some great exertions, however, were immediately made to remedy the misfortunes occasioned by the tempestuous weather, and it was hoped that most of them would be surmounted by the end of the year

In the month of July, a general muster was made of all the inhabitants in the settlement; and the governor himself collected from the settlers an account of their respective farms and cultivated lands. This he did with a view of transmitting the exact state of the colony to the British government; and from the result of his laborious investigation it appeared, that there were two thousand five hundred and forty-four acres and a half in wheat, and nine hundred and seven acres for maize, in the district of the Hawkesbury; five hundred and thirty-eight acres in wheat, and three hundred and sixty-five acres and a half for maize, in the Sydney districts; and one thousand two hundred and fifty-nine acres and a half in wheat, and six hundred and sixty-three acres and a half for maize, in the district of Parramatta: making a grand total of four thousand three hundred and forty-two acres and a half in wheat, and one thousand nine hundred and thirty-six acres for maize, in the three principal districts of the settlements.

At the Hawkesbury the greatest quantity of land cultivated by any individual, who had from a convict become a settler, were fifty-one acres, of which forty-six were sown with wheat. A man, who had been left in the care of some ground which a Mr. Hogan had purchased in 1796, had, at this time, two hundred, and an agent of the commissary had nearly three hundred acres in wheat. There were but few sheep in this district, and only about two hundred and forty goats. Hogs, however, were very numerous, there being nearly two thousand remaining after all the slaughter which had recently taken place among them. The fertility of the district had induced about a hundred and eighty persons to become landholders; and it is probable that, when they shall have learned to place their dwelling-houses and barns at a proper distance from the river, to secure them from the effects of a sudden inundation, their exertions will be amply remunerated.

The settlers in Parramatta had less ground in cultivation, and were fewer in number, than those in the vicinage of the Hawkesbury. Among the individuals who had devoted their principal attention to the rearing of stock, we cannot omit mentioning a man of the name of Elliot, who, having resolutely withstood every temptation to sell them, had, at this time, no less than a hundred and sixteen sheep, all derived from one ewe, which had been given to him by Governor Phillip in the year 1792. We have also to add that George Barrington, whose uniform good conduct had induced the governor to put him in a respectable office, was now possessed of fifty-five goats, thirteen sheep, and two mares, and had nearly twenty acres of land in cultivation. The number of settlers in this district was one hundred and four.

The quantity of ground under cultivation in the neighbourhood of Sydney was considerably less than in either of the other districts; a circumstance which seems to have been owing to the inferiority of the soil near the coast to that of the interior. The number of settlers, at the time alluded to, was only seventy-one, and the greatest portion of land cultivated by any individual did not exceed thirty-three acres. With respect to the live-stock, there were about thirty-eight sheep, two hundred and ninety goats, and three hundred and sixty hogs. It is necessary to observe, however, that the farms and stock of the civil and military officers were not included in this statement.

In the beginning of April, the governor made an excursion from Prospect Hill to a settlement which he had established on the banks of George's River. Having previously examined the country between Parramatta and that river, he now traced it in another direction, and had the pleasure of finding it equally favourable to cultivation with what had been before observed. The settlers appeared to be doing extremely well, and had not suffered any molestation from the natives. From thence he went down the river to Botany Bay, and then proceeded by land to Sydney, between which places the ground was covered with a profusion of flowering heath.

On the 24th of September his excellency resolved to make another excursion in quest of the wild cattle. Accordingly, having quitted Parramatta, and crossed the Nepean, he and his party traversed a new tract of country, which was not only beautiful to the eye, but admirably adapted for cultivation.

On their arrival at the Cow-pasture plains, they fell in with about twenty head of cattle, which were so extremely fierce, that had it not been for their dogs, the Europeans would probably have been attacked. These dogs having been set at the cattle by some of the party, the ani-

mals were dismayed at the appearance, and made off; but a bull-calf, about six months old, being detained by the dogs, bellowed so loudly for the herd to return, that it was deemed expedient to shoot him through the head. This was accordingly done, and the whole party regaled themselves upon veal, which was at this time a rare dish in New Holland. On quitting the Cow-pasture plains, the party crossed the river again, higher up than they had formerly done, and proceeded for about four miles over a mountainous country, but well calculated either for cultivation or pasturage. They then crossed a tract of level country, remarkably well watered, and clothed with the most luxuriant grass.

In the beginning of November, the wheat-crops, which were nearly ready for the reaper, wore a most promising appearance, particularly in the district of the Hawkesbury, where the stalks were literally bowed down by the finest ears of corn that were, perhaps, ever beheld in the most fertile countries. But no crop could ever be relied on till after harvest. About the middle of the month there came on a violent storm of thunder and lightning, attended with a shower of hail from the south-east, which beat all the fruit off the trees, and utterly destroyed many in the vicinity of Sydney, though it was not felt more than two miles from that place. A heavy storm of wind and rain also took place at the Hawkesbury, which beat down much of the wheat, and destroyed one end of the public store. These destructive storms, having subsided for a few days, recommenced on the 20th, and continued almost incessantly till the 25th; when, to increase the public distress, myriads of young caterpillars were found destroying the young maize.

About ten o'clock of the night preceding Christmas-day, the log-prison at Parramatta was wilfully set on fire, and utterly consumed. The prisoners were with difficulty rescued from the flames, and many of them, in spite of every exertion, were most miserably scorched. This building was a hundred feet in length, and had been constructed with much labour and expense. This, however, was not the first time that such a circumstance had occurred in the settlement; the gaol at Sydney having been destroyed in the same infamous manner by a set of wretches, who must surely have been lost to every sense of feeling and common humanity.

About the middle of January, 1800, some of the settlers at the Hawkesbury resolved to revenge the murders of two of their associates, and accordingly fixed on three unoffending young natives, who resided among them. Having informed them that they thought they could find the guns belonging to the white men, they were dispatched for that purpose, and in a short time brought them in. The inhuman settlers now began their work of vengeance. They drove the poor boys into a barn, where they tied their hands behind their backs, and then stabbed them in several places, until two of them sunk lifeless under their hands. The third, making his escape, jumped into the river; and although he could only use his feet in swimming, yet, under this disadvantage, and with the murderers of his companions repeatedly firing at him, he actually reached the opposite bank, and soon joined his countrymen.

The governor was no sooner apprised of this infamous murder, than he sent to the place, where the two unfortunate boys were found dreadfully mangled and buried in a garden. The guilty settlers were immediately taken into custody; and the subsequent evidence brought before the court having fully established the perpetration of their crime, they were pronounced "*guilty of killing two natives;*" but, as some doubts were entertained respecting the light in which *natives* were to be held, the court applied to the governor for such information as he could furnish upon the subject. Accordingly, his excellency sent them the orders which from time to time had been given respecting these people, and a copy of an article in his majesty's instructions, which, in strong and direct terms, places them under the protection of the British government, and enjoins that, if any of them should be wantonly destroyed, or unnecessarily molested in the exercise of their several occupations, the offender or offenders should be brought to punishment, according to the degree and nature of their offence. Notwithstanding this communication, however, the court were still divided in their sentiments respecting the nature of the offence; and, instead of passing sentence of death, a special reference was made to his majesty's minister, and the monsters, who had so wantonly embrued their hands in innocent blood, were admitted to bail! It was natural to suppose that the other natives would be highly incensed at seeing the prisoners return to their farms without receiving any sort of punishment; and indeed some of them loudly threatened to burn the crops, as soon as an opportunity should offer. "Fire," as Mr. Collins justly observes, "in the hands of a body of irritated and hostile natives, might, with little trouble to them, ruin the prospect of an abundant harvest; and the present circumstance proved that they were not ignorant of having this power in their hands; though, as it fortunately happened, they did not put their threats in execution."

It having been for some time observed that a number of idle and suspicious persons were strolling about the town of Sydney, at improper hours of the night, and much property having been recently stolen, the centinels on duty were enjoined not to suffer any persons to pass their posts after ten o'clock at night, unless they could give the counter-sign; in which case the centinel was to detain them until the relief came round, and then, if the corporal should not be perfectly satisfied with the account they might give of themselves, they were to be taken to the guard-house

until liberated by proper authority. The patrole of constables were also directed to be particularly strict in their rounds, and to apprehend all suspicious persons whom they might meet with during the night.

In the month of March, some accounts of an alarming nature were received from the districts of George's River and the Hawkesbury. The weather had, unfortunately for the maize, been extremely bad for three weeks, the wind blowing a heavy gale, accompanied with torrents of rain, which soon swelled the rivers beyond their banks, laying all the adjacent lands completely under water. By this unexpected accident the prospect of an abundant maize-harvest was utterly destroyed, and every other work was of necessity suspended, to prepare the ground a second time for wheat. To expedite this important business, all descriptions of people were required to give their assistance; and all idle persons, who were wandering about the colony, were ordered to be apprehended, and, if found unwilling to work at a reasonable hire, they were to be compelled to labour for the public.

About the beginning of May, several officers were induced to suspect that some person, who had recently arrived from Ireland, had not left behind them those principles which had occasioned their transportation, but were carrying on seditious correspondences, and holding unlawful meetings. This being reported to the governor, he held a council with four military gentlemen and the several magistrates of the district; and, after mature deliberation, it was resolved to make a general search among the persons suspected, in all parts of the colony at one hour, and to secure all their papers. This plan seems to have been the best that could have been devised, and it was accordingly put in execution on the 15th of the month; but nothing was found which could furnish the smallest proof of the supposed sedition.

Next day, a convict, who had endeavoured to propagate a report that a great number of pikes had been fabricated, and privately sunk in a certain part of the harbour, was examined before some of the magistrates; when he declared that he knew nothing of what he had asserted, as he was intoxicated at the time. Notwithstanding this prevarication, the magistrates ordered him to be severely punished, as he must certainly have had some mischievous design in attempting to spread such a report among the convicts.

In the course of a few days, an information was laid against one Harold, a Popish priest, who was said to have been concerned in some seditious conversations; but, from the secrecy with which, it is probable, the business might have been conducted, the magistrates could not discover any thing by which he could be criminated. The governor, however, deemed it necessary, in consequence of his conjectures to extract the ds of the late cts against illegal assemblies and seditious correspondence, and to publish them in the form of a proclamation, that none might plead ignorance of the existence of such laws. The proclamation was accordingly published in the usual manner, and it was also read in church after the performance of divine service on a Sunday morning.

About this time it appeared, that some proposals had been made, and a correspondence entered into between the secretary of the Bengal government and a gentleman who had been employed as the private agent of the officers of the settlement, relative to the transportation of Indian criminals to New Holland. It was proposed by the government of Bengal to victual and maintain their convicts for one year after their landing, after which they were to be supported by the settlement. Such a description of people might certainly have proved very useful to the colony, and, in all probability, would be more manageable than the convicts from England or Ireland: but no step could be taken in this matter until the approbation of his majesty's ministers could be obtained.

In order to check, as far as possible, that encouragement which had been too long given by settlers and others to the vagrants who infested the different districts, the governor thought proper to order that, when any one wished to travel from one place to another, he was to apply to a magistrate for a pass, in which the business he was going on was to be specified; and all persons found without such written permission were to be apprehended, and obliged to answer for their wilful disobedience. About the same time, a proclamation was read in the church, preparatory to issuing a process of outlawry against the numerous house-breakers, sheep-stealers, and other public depredators, who still continued their nefarious practices, notwithstanding all the recent efforts of government. The various orders, also, which had been issued respecting a due observance of the Sabbath, had been so little regarded, that, on the 25th of August, it was judged necessary to give out a new order, pointing out the duties of the superintendants, overseers, and constables, in this particular instance; and warning them, that a further neglect on their part would occasion their immediate dismission from their respective situations.

About this time, information was received of the death of a young man, named Wilson, who, whilst a convict, and after the period of his transportation had elapsed, preferred the life of a vagabond to that of an industrious man. He had spent the greatest part of his time in the woods, and was sometimes suspected of having excited the natives to commit depredations on the settlers. In consequence, however, of a proclamation from the governor, he surrendered himself, and, on promising to amend his conduct, he was allowed to accompany such parties as made occasional excursions into the woods and, at other times,

to shoot kangaroos and birds, the latter of which formed his principal subsistence.

Sensible that the wood natives were much less acute than those who reside upon the sea-coast, he presumed upon their mental imbecility, and had sufficient influence to persuade them that he had once been a black man, and even persuaded a credulous old woman to acknowledge him as her son. His superior powers, for some time, commanded respect, mingled with a kind of awe; but, on his appropriating a young female to his own accommodation against her will, her friends took an opportunity of thrusting a spear through his body; thus convincing him, when it was too late, that however deficient these poor savages might be in reasoning faculties, they were susceptible of injuries, and knew perfectly well how to take a complete revenge.

In the beginning of September, fresh rumours were circulated, that the prisoners, lately sent from Ireland for their seditious practices, had formed a plan for possessing themselves of the colony; that their arms were in great forwardness, and their plan of attack nearly arranged. Hereupon a committee of officers was appointed, who, in the course of their investigations, saw occasion to imprison Harold, the Romish priest. This man was no sooner apprehended than he confessed that the late reports were founded on facts; and, at the same time, he offered to discover several hundreds of pikes, which had been fabricated and concealed since his arrival in the colony. In the course of his confession, he implicated several of his countrymen, and these having accused several others, the committee adjudged them all to be deserving of punishment.

Harold, however, was never able to fulfil his promise of discovering the pikes. At first he affirmed they were buried in the ground belonging to a certain settler; but, after the most strict search had been made in every part of it, nothing like a pike could be found. He then said they were sunk in the lower part of the harbour, but even there all research proved equally fruitless. He then tampered with an Irishman to make a few, which he might produce in support of his assertion; but the man, having been transported for dealing in pikes, declared he would not involve himself a second time. At length, he prevailed on a man to fabricate a single pike out of an old hinge of a barn-door; but this bore too evidently the marks of imposition to allow any credit to his tale. There was certainly a design to alarm the government, and this man, by pretending that he alone, by virtue of his office, could come at the facts, might probably hope to render himself of some importance in the colony.

In consequence of these alarms, it was deemed expedient to increase the armed force of the colony, and accordingly a certain number of the most respectable inhabitants formed themselves into two volunteer associations, of fifty men each, and received the appellation of the "Sydney and Parramatta Loyal Associated Corps." Each was commanded by a captain, with two lieutenants, and a proportionate number of non-commissioned officers. The whole were properly supplied with arms and ammunition, and their alarm-post was fixed at the front of Government-house.

It having been previously reported, that coal had been discovered upon the banks of George's River, the governor now visited the place in person, and, on minute examination, he found many indications of the existence of that useful fossil, of which a vein was afterwards discovered on the west side of Garden Island Cove.

Towards the end of the month, the governor, having determined to return to England, and having left the direction of the colony in the hands of the lieutenant-governor of Norfolk Island, who happened to be on the spot, embarked, with several other gentlemen, in his majesty's ship Buffalo.

The governor's embarkation afforded a striking proof of the general respect and veneration which he had ensured himself among the decent and rational members of the colony, by his humane and lenient administration. The road to the wharf was completely lined on each side with troops, and he was accompanied thither by all the officers of the civil and military departments, and by a great concourse of the inhabitants, who exhibited every possible mark of attachment to his person, and regret for his departure.

At this period there were four thousand six hundred and sixty-five acres of wheat, two thousand nine hundred and thirty acres of maize, and eighty-two acres of barley, in cultivation, besides a considerable quantity of garden-ground, occupied by potatoes, vines, &c. It appears, however, from the most respectable authority, that the poverty of the settlers, and the exorbitant wages demanded for labour, caused much land to be unemployed this year. Some of the inferior farmers, also, were almost ruined by the prices which they were compelled to pay for such necessaries as they required from those who had been long in the habit of monopolizing every article brought to the settlement for sale.

As it was utterly impossible to put a stop to this infamous practice without the positive interference of the British government, several representations were made to his majesty's ministers; and, at length, they appeared to have gained some attention, as, in several of the last arrivals from England, a variety of articles, consisting of agricultural implements, stores, and clothing, had been consigned to the governor, to be retailed for the use of the colonists; and it was understood that this system was, in future, to be adopted in all the vessels laden with con-

viets or stores to New Holland. With respect to the live-stock in the colony, there were, at Governor Hunter's departure, sixty horses, a hundred and forty-three mares, three hundred and thirty-two bulls and oxen, seven hundred and twelve cows, four thousand and seventeen hogs, six thousand one hundred and twenty-four sheep, and two thousand one hundred and eighty-two goats.

By subsequent dispatches it appears, that the quantity of salt provisions remaining in store in the beginning of the year 1801 was so inconsiderable, that the governor deemed it necessary to send his majesty's ship the Porpoise to Otaheitee, for the purpose of salting pork for the colony; and, as it was indispensably necessary to send thither a quantity of salt for this purpose, he fortunately was enabled to buy about fifteen tons from the master of a whaler, which happened to put in from one of the Cape de Verd Islands.

On this voyage the Porpoise sailed in the month of May, and her commander, Lieutenant Scott, was furnished with a letter from the governor to the king of Otaheitee, intreating him to protect and assist Mr. Scott in the execution of the business entrusted to his care; and urging him to extend his favour to such of the English missionaries as were still on the island. It was particularly pointed out to him, that such conduct would certainly conciliate the esteem of his Britannic majesty. Mr. Scott was also provided with a quantity of such articles as were likely to excite the admiration of the people he might have to deal with; and, for a present to his Otaheitean majesty, he took a handsome mantle, and some other articles of dress, decorated with red feathers, together with six muskets and a quantity of ammunition.

Meanwhile, accounts being received of the union between Great Britain and Ireland, that event was celebrated, on his majesty's birth-day, with every demonstration of loyalty and cheerfulness; and the governor embraced that opportunity of liberating several of the seditious Irishmen who had been in confinement. On this day, also, the new union flag was, for the first time, displayed in New Holland.

About this time some great encouragements were held forth to promote the growth of wool, fit for the purpose of manufacturing; as it appeared that three hundred and six yards of blanketing had been made from what had been produced in the year 1800, from the flocks belonging to government and to individuals. It is also particularly worthy of notice, that four hundred and seventy-two yards of flax had been manufactured into linen in the short space of five months.

Having thus given a brief account of the foundation and gradual increase of the British colony in New Holland, we shall dismiss the subject by observing, that, on the 30th of June, 1801, there were in the settlement five thousand five hundred and forty-seven persons of all descriptions, including seven hundred and seventy-six children. And at Norfolk Island the whole number of persons was nine hundred and sixty-one; making a grand total of six thousand five hundred and eight persons.

SECTION II.

PAPUA, OR NEW GUINEA.

This country was discovered, in 1528, by Alvaro de Saavedra, a Spanish captain, who called it New Guinea, as being opposite on the globe to Guinea in Africa. Roggewein, a Dutchman, coasted the north part in 1722; and the navigator who next touched here was Captain Carteret; but he had only a distant intercourse with the inhabitants. Captain Cook made the coast of this island in September, 1770, in latitude six degrees twelve minutes south, and longitude one hundred and thirty degrees east. And to him we are indebted for the following account of the country and its inhabitants.

"When we arrived on the coast of New Guinea, on the 30th August, we made many attempts to get near enough to go on shore, but without success; and having now lost six days of fair wind, at a time when we knew the south-east monsoon to be nearly at an end, we began to be impatient of farther delay, and determined to run the ship in as near to the shore as possible, and then land with the pinnace, while she kept plying off and on, to examine the produce of the country and the disposition of the inhabitants. Being within about three or four miles off, and in three fathoms water, we brought to. The pinnace being hoisted out, I set off from the ship with the boat's crew, accompanied by Mr. Banks, who also took his servants, and Dr. Solander, being in all twelve persons, well armed: we rowed directly towards the shore, but the water was so shallow, that we could not reach it by about two hundred yards; we waded, however, the rest of the way, having left two of the seamen to take care of the boat. Hitherto we had seen no signs of inhabitants at this place; we, therefore, thought it necessary to proceed with caution, lest we should fall into an ambuscade, and our retreat to the boat be cut off. We walked along the skirts of the wood; and, at the distance of about two hundred yards from the place where we landed, we came to a grove of cocoa-nut trees, which stood upon the banks of a little brook of brackish water. The trees were of a small growth, but well hung with fruit; and near them was a shed or hut, which had been covered with their leaves, though most of them were now fallen off: about the hut lay a great number of the shells of the fruit, some of which appeared to be just fresh from the tree. We looked at the fruit very wishfully, but not thinking it safe to climb,

we were obliged to leave it, without tasting a single nut. At a little distance from this place we found plantains and a bread-fruit tree, but it had nothing upon it; and having now advanced about a quarter of a mile from the boat, three savages rushed out of the wood with a hideous shout, at about the distance of a hundred yards; and, as they ran towards us, the foremost threw something out of his hand, which flew on one side of him, and burnt exactly like gunpowder, but made no report; the other two instantly threw their lances at us; and, as no time was now to be lost, we discharged our pieces, which were loaded with small shot. It is probable that they did not feel the shot; for, though they halted a moment, they did not retreat; and a third dart was thrown at us.

"As we thought their farther approach might be prevented with less risk of life than it would cost to defend ourselves against their attack, if they should come nearer, we loaded our pieces with ball, and fired a second time: by this discharge it is probable that some of them were wounded; yet we had the satisfaction to see that they all ran away with great agility. As I was not disposed forcibly to invade this country, either to gratify our appetites or our curiosity, and perceived that nothing was to be done upon friendly terms, we improved this interval, in which the destruction of the natives was no longer necessary to our own defence, and with all expedition returned towards our boat. As we were advancing along the shore, we perceived that the two men on board made signals that more savages were coming down; and, before we got into the water, we saw several of them coming round a point, at the distance of about five hundred yards: it is probable that they had met with the three who first attacked us; for as soon as they saw us they halted, and seemed to wait till their main body should come up. We entered the water, and waded towards the boat; and they remained at their station, without giving us any interruption. As soon as we were aboard, we rowed abreast of them, and their number then appeared to be between sixty and a hundred. We now took a view of them at our leisure: they made much the same appearance as the New Hollanders, being nearly of the same stature, but having their hair more bushy: like them, also, they were all naked; but we thought the colour of their skin was not quite so dark; this, however, might, perhaps, be merely the effect of their not being quite so dirty. All this while they were shouting defiance, and letting off their fires by four or five at a time. What these fires were, or for what purpose intended, we could not imagine: those who discharged them had in their hands a short piece of stick, possibly a hollow cane, which they swung sideways from them, and we immediately saw fire and smoke, exactly resembling those of a musket, and of no longer duration.

"This wonderful phenomenon was observed from the ship; and the deception was so great, that the people on board thought they had fire-arms; and, in the boat, if we had not been so near that we must have heard the report, we should have thought they had been firing volleys. After we had looked at them attentively some time, without taking any notice of their flashing and vociferation, we fired some muskets over their heads: upon hearing the balls rattle among the trees, they walked leisurely away, and we returned to the ship. Upon examining the weapons they had thrown at us, we found them to be light darts, about four feet long, very ill made of a reed or bamboo-cane, and pointed with hard wood, in which there were many barbs. They were discharged with great force; for though we were at sixty yards distance, they went beyond us; but in what manner we could not exactly see: possibly they might be shot with a bow; but we were in general of opinion, that they were thrown with a stick, in the manner practised by the New Hollanders.

"The land here, like that in every other part of the coast, is very low, but covered with a luxuriance of wood and herbage that can scarcely be conceived. We saw the cocoa-nut tree, the bread-fruit, and the plantain-tree, all flourishing in a state of the highest perfection; though the cocoa-nuts were green, and the bread-fruit not in season; besides most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are common to the South Sea Islands, New Zealand, and New Holland.

"Soon after our return to the ship, we hoisted in the boat, and made sail to the westward, being resolved to spend no more time upon this coast, to the great satisfaction of a very considerable majority of the ship's company. But I am sorry to say, that I was strongly urged by some of the officers to send a party of men ashore, and cut down the cocoa-nut trees, for the sake of the fruit. This I peremptorily refused, as equally unjust and cruel. The natives had attacked us merely for landing upon their coast, when we attempted to take nothing away; and it was, therefore, morally certain, that they would have made a vigorous effort to defend their property, if it had been invaded; in which case, many of them must have fallen a sacrifice to our attempt, and, perhaps, also some of our own people. I should have regretted the necessity of such a measure, if I had been in want of the necessaries of life; and certainly it would have been highly criminal, when nothing was to be obtained but two or three hundred of green cocoa-nuts, which would, at most, have procured us a mere transient gratification. I might indeed have proceeded farther along the coast, to the northward and westward, in search of a place where the ship might have lain so near the shore as to cover the people with her guns when they landed; but this would have obviated only part of the mischief; and, though it might have secured us, it would probably, in the very act, have been fatal to the natives.

As the two countries lie very near each other, and the intermediate space is full of islands, it is reasonable to suppose that they were both peopled from one common stock: yet no intercourse appears to have been kept up between them; for if there had, the cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, plantains, and other fruits of New Guinea, which are equally necessary for the support of life, would certainly have been transplanted to New Holland, where no traces of them are to be found. The Author of the "Histoire des Navigationes aux Terres Australes," in his account of La Maire's voyage, has given a vocabulary of the language that is spoken in an island near New Britain; and we find, by comparing that vocabulary with the words which they learnt in New Holland, that the languages are not the same. If, therefore, it should appear that the language of New Britain and New Guinea are the same, there will be reason to suppose, that New Britain and New Guinea were peopled from a common stock, but that the inhabitants of New Holland had a different origin.

A more recent account of this island is that of Captain Forest, who visited it in 1775. The design of the voyage he undertook, in the Tartar galley, was to forward what the Honourable East-India Company had recommended, to settle at Balambangan, an island situated near the promontory of Borneo, in consequence of intelligence received, that cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, pepper, and clove-bark, might be introduced into Balambangan with facility.

"When we arrived on the coast of New Guinea," says this writer, "on the 27th of January, some of the natives, in their boats, brought us abundance of excellent fish, also turtle, which the Mahometans I had on board would not eat. They also brought us limes, and small lemons. We stood on towards Dory Harbour, and, off the mouth of the bay, a boat with two Papua men came on board, and after having conversed with our linguist at a distance, and being satisfied we were friends, they hastened on shore, as I suppose, to tell their countrymen; for, in a short time, many of the Papua men came on board, and were perfectly easy and familiar. As soon as the ship was at anchor, I fired some swivel-guns; the grown people did not regard this, or seem frightened, but the boys and girls ran into the woods.

"One night a Papua boat came near the shore, and alarmed the large tenement opposite to which we lay; the strangers being in search of their wives and children, who had taken to the woods from a neighbouring village when we were there. In the boat were about twenty persons. Tuan Hadjee, a Mahometan of rank, who accompanied me on this voyage, wanted me to fire upon them, which I would by no means do: in the morning the mistake was cleared up, and they went away satisfied. Soon after, a boat came off with fifteen Papua men: some of them spoke a little of the Malayan language. Others set off in their canoes to fetch provisions. They were those to whom I had advanced cloth. They left their wives and children under the care of some of the old men. In each boat was generally a small fox-looking dog.

"We lost out of our shed a china jar; but, on my complaining to a Papua man about the theft, it was next day put in its place. Two boats brought some sago, plantains, &c. for their families: they were unwilling to dispose of any of them. They also brought some birds of Paradise, which I purchased from them.

"Some of our people found a nutmeg-tree, not a hundred yards from our shed-house. We cut it down, but the fruit was not ripe; it was just such a tree as I found and cut down at an adjacent island; and the people of Dory said there were many such trees about the country; at the same time they did not seem to know that the nutmeg was an object of consequence, and regarded it no more than any wild kind of fruit that is of no general use; whereas, on the plantain, the cocoa-nut, the pine-apple, and bread-fruit of two sorts, they set a proper value. They allowed that to the eastward many nutmegs were gathered; but I could not learn what was done with them, or to whom they were sold. I was, therefore, inclined to go farther down the coast; but Tuan Hadjee objected to it, as he did likewise to making any inland excursion, to visit a people called the Haraforas.

"The Papua people did not seem willing that we should have any intercourse with the Haraforas, who, it seemed, were kept under by the Papuas. When I asked any of the men of Dory why they had no kalavansas, which articles they were continually bringing from the Haraforas, I learnt, after many interrogatories, that the Haraforas supplied them with these articles, and that the Papua people do not give goods for these necessaries every time they receive them; but that an ax or chopping-knife given once to a Harafora man renders his lands or his labour subject to an eternal tax of something or other for its use; such is the value of iron: and a little way farther east, I was told, they often use stone-axes, having no iron at all. If a Harafora man loses the instrument so advanced to him, he is still subject to a tax; but if he breaks it, or wears it to the back, the Papua man is obliged to give him a new one, or the tax ceases. The Papua men generally build their houses on trees, to which they ascend, with great agility, by a long notched stick, and often pull their ladder after them, to prevent the intrusion of followers. I was, however, glad to find, before we sailed, that the people of Dory were convinced we meant them no harm, and that we did not intend to entrap them, or carry them off, as is sometimes done by the Mahometans of the Moluccas, who, I was told by Tuan Hadjee, fit out vessels with no other design.

"The promontory of Dory, the sea-coast of which ex-

tends about fourteen leagues, is of a middling height; the grounds every where ascend gradually. It may be said, like Malay countries in general, to be covered with wood: but it differs in one respect; there being no underwood, it is very easy travelling under the shade of the lofty trees. The country abounds with small fresh-water rivulets, and there is good grass, but in no large tracts. It is very temperate, being so near the mountains of Arsak, where the clouds seem always to settle; so that it is by far the best country hitherto visited on the voyage.

"Of vegetable productions in this country, are the plantain, the cocoa-nut, the pine-apple, the bread-fruit of two kinds, and the nutmeg, which last, as before observed, the natives hold not in any estimation. The quadrupeds are hogs, dogs, and wild cats. I saw no domestic ones. Dory afforded us neither fowl nor goat. A little wild hog, which I got there occasionally, was all the refreshment I could procure, except fish, greens, and fruit.

"The birds of Paradise, which so much excite the curiosity of speculatists, are found in New Guinea. They were denominated "Birds of the Sun." By some they were called "the Birds of God." To an island, called Linty, on this coast, the birds of Paradise come at certain seasons in flocks, and, settling on trees, are caught with bird-lime, after which their bodies are dried with the feathers on, as they are seen in Europe It appears further, that the account of these birds having no legs, being constantly on the wing, and living on the air, which gave rise to the custom of cutting off their legs when offered to sale, is without foundation. The natives kill them as soon as taken. They have formidable bills, and defend themselves with great resolution. But what they subsist on has not been yet discovered. There are six distinct species of these birds, and they have afforded great scope for the speculation of naturalists. There are various kinds of fish on the coast, and particularly the albacore; and turtles here are in great plenty, so that the natives neglect agriculture.

"The Papua men wear their hair bushed out so much round their heads, that its circumference measured about three feet, and, where least, two feet and a half. In this they stuck their comb, consisting of four or five long diverging teeth, with which they 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. 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 black Surat baftas round their middle, not as a petticoat, but tucked up behind like the men, so that the body and thighs were almost naked. The boys and girls go entirely so.

"The people to the eastward of Dory bore the nose, and wear ear-rings. They are fond of glass and china beads of all colours: both sexes wear them about the wrists, but the women only at the left ear.

"As to the disposition of these people, I have the greatest reason to think it was fierce and hostile; although they are reputed to deal honestly with the Chinese, who trade with them, and advance them goods for several months before the returns are made.

"Near the place where we anchored stands one of their great houses, which is built on posts, fixed several yards below high-water mark, so that the tenement is always above 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; it has two doors, one opening to the stage towards the land, the other in 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 the tide, if the Haraforas attack from the land; if they attack by sea, they take to the woods. The married people, unmarried women, and children, live in these large tenements, which 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 so it may be called, are built, in still deeper water, and on stronger posts, houses where only bachelors live. At Dory are two large tenements of this kind, about four hundred yards from each other, twelve or six on a side.

"The cabins in these tenements are miserably furnished; a mat or two, a fire-place, an earthen pot, with perhaps a china plate or basin, and some sago-flour, constitute the whole apparatus. As they cook in each cabin, and have no chimney, the smoke issues at every part of the roof; so that, at a distance, the whole roof seems to smoke. The natives have a method of stuffing the intestines of the turtle with the yolk of its eggs. So filled, they roll it up in a spiral form, and roast, or rather dry it, over a slow fire: it proves then a long sausage. They have a species of green, about an inch and a half long, and a quarter of an inch broad: it breaks short, being thick, and has a salt taste when eaten raw. It becomes very palatable with oil and vinegar, and proves very good when boiled.

"In one of the houses I visited, 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 pot, so formed, they burnt with dry grass, or light brush-wood. I have often observed the women, with an axe, or chopping-knife, fixing posts for the stages, while the men were sauntering about idle. Early in a 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*. Among small islands, the wild hogs often swim in a string from one island to another, the hog behind leaning his snout on those before, so that the sportsmen kill them with ease.

"The Papua men are exceeding good archers, and some of their arrows are six feet long. The bow is generally of bamboo, and the string of split rattan.

"They purchase their iron tools, chopping-knives, axes, blue and red baftas, china-beads, plates, basins, &c. from the Chinese. They also trade in slaves, ambergris, tortoise-shells, small pearls, birds of Paradise, and many other kinds of dead birds, which the Papua men have a particular method of drying. At Krude and the islands adjacent, though iron is almost unknown, great quantities of tortoise-shell may be procured, and, indeed, every where on this coast; but it requires time to collect it, and the merchant must advance the commodities of barter. The Chinese cheat, but are seldom cheated by, the Papuans. There were slaves offered me for sale, which I might have had very cheap; but, being crowded on board, I did not choose to purchase them. If I had, several would have expected the same indulgence. The slaves had the gristle between the nostrils pierced with a piece of tortoise-shell, and were natives of New Guinea, at some distance to the east of Dory.

"In one of the cabins I entered, two of the women were humming a tune, on which I took out a German flute, and played; they were exceedingly attentive, all work stopping instantly as I began. I then asked one of the women to sing; she complied, and the air she sung was melodious, and of a species much superior to Malay airs in general, which dwell long on a few notes, with little variety of rise or fall. I observed that the children did not snatch, or seem too eager to receive, but waited patiently, and modestly accepted what I offered, lifting their hands to their heads.

"Their courtship and marriage-ceremonies are attended with very little formality. The bachelors, if courting, come freely to the common hall, and sit down by their sweethearts. The parents or friends of the women call out at a distance, Well, are you agreed? If they agree before witnesses, they kill a cock, which is procured with difficulty, and then it is a marriage. Their funeral-ceremonies are as concise. We found on the island, close by the beach, a Papua burial-place, rudely built of coral rock. On it was laid the wooden figure of a child, about eight years old, represented completely clothed. A real skull was put into the upper part, on which ears were cut in wood."

SECTION III.

NEW BRITAIN.

To the north of New Guinea is New Britain, which is situate in four degrees of south latitude, and one hundred and fifty-two degrees nineteen minutes of east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent till Captain Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

M. Bougainville represents the natives of this island as entirely black, with frizzled woolly hair; and, in their persons, they were tall, active, and robust. The hair of these savages was painted red, and some white; some were adorned with feathers, ear-rings made of the seed of some herb, or circular plates depending from their necks; others had the nose pierced, and rings run through it; but the general ornament was a bracelet made of the half of a shell. The French could only procure from the natives a few yams. No European had ever yet any friendly intercouse with the inhabitants of this island.

SECTION IV.

NEW IRELAND.

New Ireland and the Solomon Islands were supposed, by Dampier, who sailed round its northern coast, to be a part of New Britain. That navigator called the most southern point of it Cape St. George, which, together with Cape Orford, in New Britain, were thought to be the two points that formed a deep bay, which he called St. George's Bay. But Captain Carteret, who sailed round it in 1767, found it to terminate in a narrow channel, to which he gave the name of St. George's Channel. This island is a long narrow slip of land, lying north-west and south-east, in extent about eighty leagues. The harbour, called by Captain Carteret English Cove, lies in

latitude five degrees south, longitude one hundred and fifty-seven degrees nineteen minutes east. There is another harbour, about four leagues to the westward, which he named Carteret Harbour.

The crew of the Swallow, who at that time were, in general, perishing with sickness, obtained relief from some cocoa-nuts found upon this island, as they did also from some rock-oysters and cockles, which they procured from the rocks at low water.

The upper part of the tree which bears the cocoa-nut is called the cabbage. This is a white, crisp, juicy, substance; it tastes somewhat like a chesnut; but, when boiled, is superior to the best parsnip, and is, perhaps, the most powerful antiscorbutic in the world. For every one of these cabbages which were obtained, they were forced to cut down a tree, which was done with great regret; but this depredation on the parent stock was unavoidable. These almost expiring navigators likewise received great refreshment from the fruit of a tall tree, that resembles a plum, and particularly that which, in the West-Indies, is called the Jamaica plum.

The shore about this place is rocky, and the country high and mountainous, but covered with trees of various kinds, some of which are of an enormous growth. Among others, the nutmeg-tree was found in great plenty. Captain Carteret gathered a few of the nuts, but they were not ripe. They did not appear to be the best sort, but he imputes that to their growing wild, and being too much in the shade of taller trees. The woods abound with pigeons, doves, rooks, parrots, and a large bird, with a black plumage, which makes a noise somewhat like the barking of a dog.

The only quadrupeds seen on this island by the crew of the Swallow were two of a small size, which were supposed to be dogs; they were very wild, and ran with great swiftness. Here were seen centipedes, scorpions, and a few serpents of different kinds.

The country appeared mountainous, the soil light, yet producing several kinds of fine timber-trees. The pepper-tree is said to be common. Here was found a very extraordinary insect, about three inches long; almost every part of its body was of such a texture as to appear like a leaf, even when closely viewed. Each of its wings forms one half of a leaf; and, when the two are closed together, it appears like an entire leaf. The under side of its body resembles a leaf of a more dead colour than the upper one. It has six legs, of which the upper joints are likewise similar to parts of leaves. Several shocks of an earthquake were felt here, which lasted about two minutes, and were very distinctly noticed on board, as well as on shore.

Captain Carteret was in so enfeebled a state of body, as to be prevented from attending circumstantially to a description of the country. However, in English Cove he took possession of it for his Britannic Majesty, and nailed upon a high tree a piece of board, faced with lead, on which was engraved an English union, with the name of the ship and her commander, the name of the cove, and the time of her coming in and going out of it. M. de Bougainville touched here about a year after, and gave it the name of Port Prassin. He found part of Captain Carteret's inscription, which seemed to have been taken down and defaced by the natives.

Captain Carteret found the natives of New Ireland very hostile, having lances headed with flint. Their faces were streaked with white, and their hair daubed 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, 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 1575.

The Solomon Islands, as laid down in Mr. Arrowsmith's chart of the Pacific, may be considered as a large groupe, extending from Lord Anson's Isle, or the Bouka of Bougainville, in the north-west of the isle called Egmont, by Carteret, in the south-east. 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 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.

SECTION V.

NEW CALEDONIA.

This island was called New Caledonia, by Captain Cook, in consequence of his having discovered it in 1774, after many fruitless endeavours to learn from the natives the Indian name. It is probable that it was not known by one general name, as it has been represented as the largest island that has been discovered in the Southern Pacific Ocean, New Zealand and New Holland excepted; extending from nineteen degrees thirty-seven minutes to twenty-two degrees thirty minutes of south latitude; and

from one hundred and sixty-three degrees thirty-seven minutes to one hundred and sixty-seven degrees fourteen minutes of east longitude. Its length is computed to be eighty-seven leagues, in the direction of north-west and south-east; but its breadth, in any part, does not exceed ten.

The discovery of this island by Captain Cook is thus related:—

"We had hardly got to an anchor before we were surrounded by a great number of the natives, in sixteen or eighteen canoes, most of whom were without any sort of weapons. At first they were shy of coming near the ship; but in a short time we prevailed on the people in our boat to get close enough to receive some presents. These we lowered down to them by a rope, to which, in return, they tied two fish, that stunk intolerably, as did those they gave us in the morning. These mutual exchanges bringing on a kind of confidence, two ventured on board the ship; and, presently after, she was filled with them, and we had the company of several at dinner in the cabin. Our peas-soup, salt beef, and pork, they had no curiosity to taste; but they ate of some yams, which we happened to have yet left, calling them *oobee*. This name is not unlike *oofee*, as they are called at most of the islands, except Mallicollo. We found these people spoke a language new to us. The men, like all the nations we had lately seen, were naked, except such a wrapper as is used at Mallicollo. They were curious in examining every part of the ship, which they viewed with uncommon attention. They had not the least knowledge of goats, hogs, dogs, or cats. They seemed fond of large spike-nails and pieces of red cloth, or indeed any other colour; but red was their favourite.

"I went on shore with two armed boats, having with us one of the natives, who had attached himself to me. We landed on a sandy beach, before a vast number of people; many of them had not a stick in their hands; consequently we were received with great courtesy, and with the surprise natural for people to express at seeing men and things so new to them. A chief appeared, who had been seen in one of the canoes in the morning. His name, we learnt, was Teabooma; we had not been on shore above ten minutes before he called for silence. Being instantly obeyed by every individual present, he made a short speech; and soon after another chief, having called for silence, made a speech also. It was pleasing to see with what attention they were heard. Their speeches were composed of short sentences; to each of which two or three old men answered by nodding their heads, and giving a grunt, significant, as I thought, of approbation. It was impossible for us to know the purport of these speeches; but we had reason to think they were favourable to us, on whose account they doubtless were made. I kept my eyes fixed on the people all the time, and saw nothing to induce me to think otherwise. We heard the crowing of cocks, but saw none. Some roots were baking on a fire, in an earthen jar, which would have held six or eight gallons, nor did we doubt its being their own manufacture. I found that we were to expect nothing from these people, but the privilege of visiting their country undisturbed; for it was easy to see they had little else than good nature to bestow.

"Next morning we were visited by hundreds of the natives, some coming in canoes, and others swimming off, so that before ten o'clock our decks, and all other parts of the ship, were quite full. My friend brought me a few roots; but all the others came without eatables. Some few had with them their arms, such as clubs and darts, which they exchanged for nails, pieces of cloth, &c.

"The watering party, and a guard, under the command of an officer, were sent on shore; and soon after a party of us went to take a view of the country. As soon as we landed, we made known our intentions, by signs, to the natives, and two of them, undertaking to be our guides, conducted us up the hills by a good path. In our route we met several people, most of whom turned back with us; so that, at last, our train was numerous. Some we met who wanted us to return; but we paid no regard to their signs, nor did they seem uneasy when we proceeded. At length we reached the summit of one of the hills, from which we saw the sea in two places, between some advanced hills, on the opposite or south-west side of the land. This was an useful discovery, as it enabled us to judge of the breadth of the land, which, in this part, did not exceed ten leagues.

"The plain or flat land, which lies along the shore, appeared from the hills to great advantage; the winding streams which ran through it, the plantations, the little straggling villages, the variety in the woods, and the shoals on the coast, so variegating the scene, that the whole might afford a picture for romance. If it were not for those fertile spots on the plains, and some few on the sides of the mountains, the whole country might be called a dreary waste. The mountains and other high places are, for the most part, incapable of cultivation, consisting chiefly of rocks, many of which are full of mundicks. The little soil that is upon them is scorched and burnt up with the sun; it is, nevertheless, coated with coarse grass, and other plants, and, in some places, with trees and shrubs. The country, in general, bore great resemblance to some parts of New Holland, under the same parallel of latitude; several of its natural productions seeming to be the same, and the woods being without underwood, as in that country. The reef on the coast, and several other similarities, were obvious to every one who had seen both countries. We observed all the north-east coast to be covered with

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shoals and breakers, extending to the northward, beyond the Isle of Balabea, till they were lost in the horizon. Having made these observations, and our guides not choosing to go farther, we descended the mountains by a road different from that by which we ascended.

"They set fire to the grass, &c. which overrun the surface. Recruiting the land by letting it lie fallow is observed by all the nations in this sea. But they seem to have no notion of manuring their ground, or of renovating it, by adding to it a better soil: at least, I have no where seen it done.

"A fish being struck by one of the natives near the watering-place, my clerk purchased it, and sent it to me after my return on board. It was of a new species, something like a sun-fish, with a large, long, ugly head. Having no suspicion of its being of a poisonous nature, we ordered it to be dressed for supper; but, very luckily, the operation of drawing and describing took up so much time, that it was too late, so that only the liver and roe were dressed, of which the two Mr. Forsters and myself tasted. About three o'clock in the morning, we found ourselves seized with an extraordinary weakness and numbness all over our limbs. I had almost lost the sense of feeling; nor could I distinguish between light and heavy bodies, of such as I had strength to move; a quart pot, full of water, and a feather, being the same in my hand. We each of us took an emetic, and after that, a sweat, which gave us much relief. In the morning one of the pigs brought from the other islands, which had eaten the entrails, was found dead. When the natives came on board, and saw the fish hang up, they gave us to understand it was not wholesome food, and expressed the utmost abhorrence of it; though no one was observed to do this when the fish was to be sold, or after it was purchased.

"Next day I received a message from the officer, acquainting me that Teabooma, the chief, was come with a present, consisting of a few yams and sugar-canes. In return I sent him, amongst other articles, a dog and bitch, both young, but nearly full grown. The dog was red and white; but the bitch was all red, or the colour of an English fox. I mention this, because they may prove the originals of their species in that country. When the officer returned on board in the evening, he informed me that the chief came, attended by about twenty men, so that it looked like a visit of ceremony. It was some time before he would believe the dog and bitch were intended for him; but, as soon as he was convinced, he seemed lost in an excess of joy, and sent them away immediately.

"In order not to be too much crowded, our people drew a line on the ground, and gave the others to understand they were not to come within it. This restriction they observed; and one of them soon after turned it to his own advantage. For happening to have a few cocoanuts, which one of our people wanted to buy, and he was unwilling to part with, he walked off, and was followed by the man who wanted them. On seeing this, he sat down on the sand, made a circle round him, as he had seen our people do, and signified that the other was not to come within it, which was accordingly observed.

"As Teabooma, the chief, had not been seen since he got the dogs, and I wanted to lay a foundation for stocking the country with hogs also, I took a young boar and sow with me in the boat, and went up to the mangrove creek to look for my friend, in order to give them to him; but not finding him, I offered them to a grave old man, thinking he was a proper person to entrust them with; but he shook his head; and he, and all present, made signs to take them into the boat again. When they saw I did not comply, they seemed to consult with one another what was to be done; and then our guide told me to carry them to the *areekee* or chief. Accordingly I ordered them to be taken up, and we were conducted by him to a house, wherein were seated, in a circle, eight or ten middle-aged persons. I and my pigs being introduced, with great courtesy they desired me to sit down. In the mean time, two men, having left the company, soon returned with six yams, which were presented to me. I then took leave, and went on board.

"I observed some cultivated land, regularly laid out, planted with taro or eddy-root, yams, sugar-canes, and plantains. The taro plantations were watered by little rills, continually supplied from the main channel at the foot of the mountains, whence these streams were conducted. They have two methods of planting these roots; some are in square or oblong patches, which lie perfectly horizontal, and sink below the common level of the adjacent land; so that they can let as much water on them as they think necessary. Others are planted in ridges about three or four feet broad, and two to two and a half high. On the middle or top of the ridge is a narrow gutter, along which is conveyed, as above described, a little rill, that waters the roots planted on each side of the ridge. The taro or eddy-root is very wholesome food, and the tops make good greens, and are eaten as such by the natives. On these plantations, men, women, and children, were employed.

"On a large tree, which stood close to the shore near the watering-place, I had an inscription cut, setting forth the ship's name, date, &c. as a testimony of our being the first discoverers of this country; as I had done at all others at which we had touched, where the ceremony was necessary. We then took leave of our friends, and returned on board, when I ordered all the boats to be hoisted in, in order to be ready to put to sea.

"The French ships under the command of Admiral

D'Entrecasteaux, on leaving Cape Diemen, in New Holland, in 1792, directed their course to New Caledonia, in order to explore the south-west coast of that island. On their approach to it, the weather was remarkably tempestuous, so that it became necessary to use the utmost caution to keep the two ships at a little distance from each other, but near enough to acquaint one another of the danger into which they might fall on this coast, lined with shoals, all of them unknown to navigators.

"During the night," says the writer of this narrative, "the currents had carried us nearer to the reefs we thought we had weathered. We were standing in for the land, when the day fortunately broke, and shewed us all the danger of our situation. Surrounded by shoals, there remained but very little room to ply in. We in vain attempted to tack, each effort served only to bring us nearer the reef. We saw the ship drifting on the rocks, where the sea, ready to swallow us up, rose to a prodigious height. Already each of us was casting his eye on the object which he might seize hold of, in order to escape from an almost inevitable death: in short, destruction stared us in the face, when, by a fortunate, though unexpected, event, an attempt to tack succeeded, and it was with inexpressible joy that we saw the ship standing away from this dangerous coast.

"Next day we stood in for the land, hoping to discern some inlet that might permit us to anchor under the shelter of a barrier, against which the sea was breaking in a tremendous manner; a considerable column of smoke, which rose near the foot of a hill, not far from the sea-side, indicated that this part of the island was inhabited. Passing to the north-west, some hills were observed almost destitute of vegetables, rising, in the form of an amphitheatre, to an enormous degree in perpendicular height, the direction of which was constantly to the north-west. The cold that is felt at these heights, no doubt subjects the inhabitants to the necessity of warming themselves. We perceived several large fires, which they kindled while we stood off from the land in the night.

"The ensuing morning afforded us a more pleasing prospect than the preceding day; we saw some trees rising from the bottom of the gullies, with which the hills were surrounded. We found, from a fire lighted on the coast, that these barren shores were not entirely destitute of inhabitants, and we soon perceived some of them. We had also a view of some mountains, covered with trees to their very summit; and six fires, which we perceived in the vicinity of the coast, announced a great concourse of savages; they were probably attracted by the sight of our ships, which contrary winds kept almost in the same place. We perceived near the beach a groupe of twelve of the natives, whose looks were turned towards us, and who seemed to behold with astonishment our ships at so short a distance from their island. Three natives formed another groupe, and kept very near two fires, which they had just kindled. A good glass convinced us that they were entirely naked. They did not appear tempted to put a canoe into the water in order to approach us; besides the reefs opposed to them a barrier which they would have been unable to clear, so as to reach our ships. We made but a slow progress in our survey of the coast, on which we had seen several fires lighted, probably by the same natives who had kindled the others. The word *survey* is not here, nor in several parts of this narrative, to be understood in a literal sense. To survey a coast, according to my ideas, is to take a geometrical plan of it, in which every place is assigned its true signification. In my application of the word *survey*, I am justified by the authority of Captain Cook and other circumnavigators.

"In the direction of the lands of New Caledonia, we discovered several islands, surrounded by reefs, connected with each other by sand-banks and shoals. During the time we were endeavouring to explore the coast, the winds had set us so far to leeward, that we lost sight of the northern extremity of New Caledonia, which we found to be in the latitude of twenty-nine degrees fifty-eight minutes south, and longitude one hundred and sixty-one degrees ten minutes east.

"This island presents a chain of mountains, which occupy, from south-east to north-east, an immense extent. Captain Cook, who discovered it, saw only its north-east side. It was important to navigation to explore its south-east coast, as it is extremely dangerous at all times, but much more so with the south-east winds, which had singularly thwarted us in the survey of it. The small number of fires which we perceived on this land, and its apparent sterility, incline me to think that it is thinly inhabited. We saw not a canoe, although it is easy to navigate here under the reefs, where the sea is very smooth. When we quitted this coast, we congratulated ourselves on having terminated a dangerous and fatiguing navigation, in order to enter into an open sea, where we could prosecute our voyage with much more facility, and much less danger."

This island was again visited by Admiral D'Entrecasteaux, in the year 1793. The account of the country, and the incidents that occurred during the stay of the French navigators, is thus related:—"On our departure from the island of Tanna, we discovered, to the south-west, the high mountains of New Caledonia. Although we were near the coast, we did not perceive Observatory Island, which left us for some time uncertain whether we were opposite to the place where Captain Cook had cast anchor in 1774; but our observations at noon proved that we were very near, and it was not long before we discerned, the island, though it is extremely low; we then stood on to reach the anchorage. A double canoe got under sail to come off

to us: she was manned by eleven natives, who conducted her in such a manner as to give us no high idea of their knowledge in the art of navigation. They addressed their discourse to us, and held up some pieces of white cloth, which they waved about, still keeping at the distance of upwards of two hundred meters from our ship. In a short time they returned towards the coast. Next day, four canoes were under sail, and coming towards our ships: the people in them betrayed some fears when they got near us. One of the savages, who conducted them, coming on board, was followed by almost all the others. We were surprised that they set more value on our cloths than on nails or hatchets, which they called *toguee*. Yet they were acquainted with iron, which they designated by the name of *pitiou;* but the very hard stones which they employ render the use of it much less necessary to them than to many other islanders of the South Sea. We shewed them some cocoa-nuts and yams, desiring them to bring us some; but, so far from going to fetch us any, they wished to purchase ours, and offered us in exchange their darts and clubs, letting us know that they were very hungry, at the same time putting their hand on their belly, which was extremely lank. They expressed some fear on seeing the hogs that we had on board; which made us presume that they did not possess this quadruped, although Captain Cook left with one of their chiefs a male and a female; but, as soon as they saw our poultry, they imitated the crowing of the cock sufficiently well to leave us no doubt of their having some in their island.

"None of the women who were in these canoes would consent to come into our ship; and, when we wished to make them a present, the men undertook to carry the articles to them. We weighed, in order to warp towards Observatory Island, and were immediately surrounded by canoes, conducted by the natives, who came on board, and sold us a variety of their articles. Some of them had brought a small number of cocoa-nuts and sugar-canes, which they persisted in not parting with, although we offered a great price for them. The inhabitants had no longer any occasion for their canoes to come and see us, most of them leaping into the water, loaded with the articles which they wished to sell us.

"When we went on shore, we were surrounded by a great number of inhabitants, who had just come out of the middle of the woods, through which we penetrated at different times without going far from the sea-shore. It was not long before we came to a few insulated huts, three or four hundred yards distant from each other, and shaded by a small number of cocoa-nut trees. We observed, near some of these dwellings, small heaps of earth, raised and covered towards the middle with a very open lattice-work. The savages call them *nhouet*, and gave us to understand that this was a burial-place. They inclined their head on one side, supporting it with the hand: they then shut their eyes, to express the repose enjoyed by the remains of the persons here deposited.

"On our return to the landing-place we found upwards of seven hundred natives. They asked us for cloth and iron in exchange for their goods, and some of them very soon proved that they were most audacious thieves. Among their different tricks, I shall mention one which was played me by two of these sharpers. The one offered to sell me a small bag, filled with oval stones, which he carried at his girdle. He immediately untied the bag, and pretended to give it to me with one hand, while with the other he received the value we had agreed on. At the same instant another savage, who was placed behind me, set up a loud cry, in order to make me turn my head towards him. Immediately the knave ran away with his bag and my property, endeavouring to hide himself in the crowd. We did not wish to punish him, although we were armed with muskets. Yet it was to be feared, that this act of lenity would be considered by these people only as a mark of weakness, and render them still more insolent. What happened shortly afterwards seemed to confirm this idea. Several of them were so audacious as to throw stones at an officer, who was not above two hundred yards distance from us. Still we did not wish to break with them; for Cook's narrative had prepossessed us so strongly in their favour, that we yet required further evidence to destroy the good opinion which we entertained of the mildness of their disposition; but we had soon incontestible proofs of their ferociousness. One of them having in his hand a bone newly broiled, and devouring the remains of the flesh which was still upon it, advanced towards one of the officers, and invited him to partake of his meal. The latter, supposing that the savage was offering him a piece of some quadruped, accepted the bone, which was then covered only with tendinous parts; and, having shewn it to me, I conceived that it had belonged to a youth of fourteen or fifteen years of age. The natives who surrounded us pointed out on a child the situation of these bones: they made no scruple to avow, that the flesh which had covered them had served as a meal, and they gave us to understand, that they considered it as a very choice dish. This discovery threw us into the greatest uneasiness respecting the fate of our people, who were still in the woods. However, we had, some time after, the pleasure to see ourselves all assembled in the same place, and we had no longer the smallest fear that any of us should fall a victim to the barbarity of these savages. When we came on board, few of the persons belonging to the expedition, who had remained in the ship, would believe the account which we gave them of the barbarous propensity of these islanders; for they could not be persuaded that these people, of whom Captain

Cook had drawn so flattering a picture, were degraded by such a horrible vice; but it was not difficult to convince the most incredulous. I had brought with me the bone, which our surgeon recognized to be that of a girl. I presented it to the two natives whom we had on board; and immediately one of these *anthropophagi* seized it with avidity, and tore with his teeth the ligaments and cartilages which yet remained: I then gave it to his countryman, who still found something to gnaw.

"The different signs which were awkwardly made to them, to obtain a confession that they ate their fellow-creatures, were the cause of a great misunderstanding. Immediately an extreme consternation was depicted in their features; they no doubt conceived that we also were *anthropophagi;* and, supposing that their last hour was come, they wept bitterly. We were not able to remove their apprehensions completely, although we did every thing in our power to dispel this idea. One of them got out at a port-hole, and clung to the fore-chains, ready to drop into the water; the other jumped overboard, and swam to one of the boats that was lying the farthest astern: however, they soon recovered from their fright, and came again into the ship.

"On the following day, we landed early in the morning on the nearest part of the coast, where we found some savages, who were already taking their meal. They invited us to partake with them some meat newly broiled, which we perceived to be human flesh. The skin that was on it still preserved its form entire, and, in several parts, even its colour. They signified to us, that they had cut off this joint from the middle of the arm, and gave us to understand, by very expressive signs, that, after having pierced with their darts the individual whose remains we saw in their hands, they had dispatched him with their clubs. They no doubt wish[illegible] make us comprehend that they are only their enemies; in fact, how could it be possible that we should have fo[illegible] so many inhabitants in this country, if hunger was the[illegible]ole inducement to devour each other?

"We proceeded towards the south-south-east, and for a little way passed over a rather low tract of country, in which we saw several plantations of yams and sweet potatoes. The heat was excessive, and we had not yet found any water. At length we saw a very limpid stream. We stopped at this place, and the natives came and sat down by us. We gave them some biscuit, which they readily ate, though it was worm-eaten; but they would not taste our cheese. They preferred water to brandy or wine, of which they drank in a whimsical manner. Stooping their head to within seven or eight decimeters of the surface of the water, with their hand they threw some seven or eight times successively towards their face, at each time opening their mouth wide to receive what reached it; thus they soon quenched their thirst. It may be easily conceived that the most dexterous of these drinkers could not fail to wet a great part of their body. As they disturbed our water, we begged them to drink a little lower down, which they immediately did.

"Some of them came up to the most robust of us, and felt the muscular parts of our arms and thighs, exclaiming *Kapareek!* with an air of admiration, and even something more, which was not very pleasant to our feelings; they, however, gave us no cause of complaint.

"In these places I remarked a variety of plants belonging to the same genera as those of a great number of others which I had before collected in New Holland, although the distance that separates the two countries is very considerable.

"At a third of the way up the mountain, we saw, with surprise, little walls, raised one above another by the natives, to prevent the soil from falling down in the lands which they cultivate. I have found this custom very general among the inhabitants of the mountains of Asia Minor.

"When we had got half way up the mountain, the natives who followed us begged us not to proceed farther, informing us, that the inhabitants on the other side of that chain would eat us. We continued, however, to ascend as far as the summit; being well armed, we had nothing to fear from those cannibals. Doubtless those who accompanied us were at war with the others, for they would follow us no farther. The mountains over which we clambered rise in the form of an amphitheatre, and are a continuation of the great chain that runs the whole length of the island. Their perpendicular height is about two thousand four hundred feet above the level of the sea. We saw them rise gradually towards the east-south-east, and extend as far as a very high mountain, about twenty-four feet distant from our anchorage. We found the principal component parts of these masses to be quartz, mica, a steatite more or less hard, green schorl, granite, specular iron-ore, &c.

"We were extremely surprised at the rapidity with which one of the natives ascended the cocoa-nut tree; holding the trunk of the tree with his hands, he ran up all its length with almost as much ease as if he had been on a horizontal plane. I had never had an opportunity of remarking such agility among the other islanders whom we before visited.

"The children of these savages watched the moment when we had emptied the cocoa-nuts of their juice, to ask them of us, finding still means to make something of them. They tore with their teeth the fibrous husk of these young fruits, the nut of which was not yet formed; and they then ate the tender part which it enclosed, and which was much too sour for us to be able to relish.

"On our arrival on board, and night coming on, all our

boats were alongside: yet two of the officers were still on shore, with two of the ship's company; but they soon arrived on the beach, followed by a great many of the inhabitants. The admiral's barge was immediately sent for them, and brought them on board. They informed us, that the savages, who had assembled round them to the number of upwards of three hundred, had, on seeing that all the boats had left the shore, behaved towards them with the greatest effrontery. One of them having snatched from an officer his sabre, the latter attempted to pursue him; but the other natives instantly lifted up their clubs to defend the thief. Indeed, all our ship-mates were robbed in the most impudent manner. However, when our barge arrived to their assistance, two chiefs, who had probably prevented the other savages from proceeding to still greater excesses, requested to take a passage in her. They brought two small bundles of sugar-canes and some cocoa-nuts to the admiral, who made them a present of a hatchet and several pieces of cloth. These chiefs, who are called *Theabouma* in their language, had on their head a cap of a cylindrical form, ornamented with feathers, shells, &c. Being open at the top, it could not be worn to protect them from the rain.

"Lasseny, the astronomer, having gone on shore in order to make observations, had been obliged to return on board, almost immediately, not having been able to disperse a crowd of savages who appeared to be resolved to seize upon his instrument, notwithstanding he was armed, and was also accompanied by two assistants, and several of the boat's crew.

"The gunner of the Espérance, who landed with a part of the crew sent on shore to procure wood, went a shooting in the forest, and perceived, about noon, in a large glade, and at a short distance from the place where our people were cutting wood, upwards of two hundred natives praetising to throw the dart, at the same time performing different evolutions. He retired, without having been discovered, and ran towards us, to inform us of what he had just seen. Immediately an officer belonging to our ship set off with four marines, to observe the motions of these savages; but the latter advanced upon him and his party as soon as they discovered them, and obliged them to return precipitately towards our wood-cutters. The savages soon arrived at the same spot, and made us sensible of the plan they had formed of getting possession of the hatchets, which had been placed in the middle of our people, while they were assembled to take their meal. The commanding officer immediately ordered these tools to be carried into the launch; but the sailor that had them on his shoulder was attacked by the islanders, who were on the point of taking them away from him, when he fired several balls at them. One of the most audacious, having been brought to the ground, had yet strength enough left to crawl into the woods. All the others fled immediately, and with their slings threw at us a shower of oval-cut stones, which they carried in small bags suspended to their girdle; but, as they kept a great distance, none of us were dangerously wounded. This is not always the case when they fight with each other, they then being doubtless not afraid to come closer. In their battles they frequently knock out each other's eyes in this manner, as we were informed by several of the inhabitants, who had lost an eye. When they throw stones with their slings, they make with them only half a turn above their head, which is as quick as if they threw them with their hand. These stones, being cut out of a pretty hard steatite, are very slippery; for which reason they take the precaution of wetting them with their saliva, in order that they may not slide off from within the two little cords, of which the bottom of their sling is formed.

"The different movements of the savages having been noticed from on board the Recherche, the admiral ordered two guns to be fired at them, which dispersed them immediately into the woods; but shortly after one of their chiefs advanced towards us, alone and unarmed, holding in his hand a piece of white cloth, made of the bark of a tree, which the commanding officer received as a pledge of peace and good understanding. Immediately four other natives came and sat down in the midst of us, with as much confidence as their chief, behind whom they placed themselves; but he appeared very much enraged at several who came afterwards, calling them robbers several times.

"Some of the inhabitants having approached our landing-place, two lines were drawn on the sand, beyond which they were forbidden to pass. We had the satisfaction to see that they were obedient to these orders. We gave most of them bits of biscuit, which they asked of us, holding out one hand, while with the other they pointed to their belly, naturally very lank, but the muscles of which they contracted as much as they could, in order to draw it in still more. I saw, however, one of them, who already had his stomach well filled, but who, nevertheless, ate in our presence a lump of very soft steatite, (which is a mineral of a greenish colour,) as big as his two fists. We afterwards saw a number of others eat quantities of the same sort of earth: it serves to deaden the sense of hunger, by filling their stomach, thus supporting the viscera attached to the diaphragm: and although this substance does not afford any nutricious juice, it is yet very useful to these people, who must be often exposed to be long in want of food; for they apply themselves little to the culture of their lands, which are, besides, very steril.

"The inhabitants of New Caledonia make choice of this earth from its great friability, as it does not remain long in their stomach and intestines. I should never have imagined that cannibals would have had recourse to such an expedient, when pressed by hunger.

"Three women, having come and joined the other savages who surrounded us, gave us no very favourable idea of their music: they sang a trio, keeping very good time; but the harshness and discordance of their voices excited in us very disagreeable sensations.

"The gardener sowed in the woods different sorts of seeds brought from Europe; he had some remaining, which he gave to a savage, under a promise that he would sow them.

"In an excursion into the country, we met with several huts, all separated from each other, and in which we were surprised to find no inhabitants. Farther on we found a heap of ashes; probably one of the dwellings had been recently burnt by the fire which these savages kindle in them to drive away the muskitoes. Two tombs, which were very near it, had received no damage. I saw there two human bones, each suspended by a string to a long stick, fixed in the ground; the one was a tibia, and the other a thigh-bone.

"A few fires, burning very near the top of the neighbouring mountain, apprised us that it was a place of retreat for some inhabitants. When we reached the landing-place, we found a great number of savages, who had assembled there since our departure. They informed us, that several of the inhabitants had been wounded in the contest which they had had with us the day before, and that one of them had already died in consequence of his wounds. A boat belonging to the Espérance, which was lying at some distance to the eastward, had been attacked a few hours before our return by another party of savages, who had thought that they were sufficiently strong to make themselves masters of it; but, fortunately, their attempt had not succeeded.

"Having formed a plan, with several persons belonging to both ships, to go and visit the back of the mountains, which were situated to the south of our anchorage, we assembled on the beach early one morning, to the number of twenty-eight. We had agreed all to go armed, in order to be able reciprocally to assist each other, in case the savages should venture to attack us. We walked for a long time in paths well beaten, and were accompanied by a few of the inhabitants.

"The inhabitants of these mountains appeared to us to live in the greatest misery; they were all extremely meagre. They sleep in the open air, without being tormented by the muskitoes; for these insects are driven from the heights by the east-south-east winds, which blow here constantly. The same winds so materially obstruct the growth of trees, that they are to be met with only under the form of shrubs; the trees on the lower grounds grow very tall.

"On surveying from the summit of these mountains an immense extent of reefs, which bar all approach to this land, we discovered another channel, not far distant, to the westward of that by which we had reached the anchorage where our ships then lay. To the south our view extended over a fine valley, surrounded by large plantations of cocoa-palms, whence we saw the smoke rising in columns from the fires lighted by the savages. Vast tracts of ground, which appeared cultivated in the lowest spots, announced a great population.

"In returning towards our ships, we passed through a little hamlet, the inhabitants of which came out unarmed from their huts. They let us examine the inside; and one of them made no difficulty in selling us the human bones which were suspended above one of their tombs. When we reached the sea-side, we found a group of natives, who followed us, asking for something to eat; but, our provisions being expended, I regaled them with pieces of green and very soft steatite, which I had brought from the summit of the mountains: of this some ate voraciously.

"When I came on board, I found we had received a visit from several of the natives, who swam off to the ship. They took care to assure us, that they were not on the number of those who had committed acts of hostility against us, and they told us that they had eaten two of those thieves, one of whom received a ball through the thigh, and the other through the body, in the affair that had happened between them and us. We had not till now been able to learn the use of an instrument called *nbouet;* these savages informed us, that it served to cut off the limbs of their enemies, which they share after battle. One of them demonstrated its use on a man belonging to our ship, who lay down on his back at the other's request. He first represented a battle, in which he signified to us that the enemy fell under the stroke of his dart, and the blows of his club, which he wielded with violence; he then performed a sort of Pyrrhic dance, holding in his hand this instrument of murder; and he shewed us that they began by opening the belly of the vanquished with the *nbouet*, and that they threw away the intestines, having taken them out by means of another instrument, which is formed of two human *ulnæ*, tapered, well polished, and fixed in a mat of very substantial tresses of bat's hair. He then shewed us, that the legs and arms were taken off at the joints, and distributed, as well as the other parts, to each of the combatants, who carried them to his family. It is difficult to depict the ferocious avidity with which he expressed to us, that the flesh of this unfortunate victim was devoured by them, after they had broiled it on the coals. This cannibal let us know, at the same time, that the flesh of the arms and legs was cut into thick slices, and that these people considered the most musculous parts a very agreeable dish. It was then easy for us to explain why they frequently felt our arms and legs, manifesting a violent

longing; they then uttered a faint whistling, which they produced by closing their teeth, and applying to them the tip of the tongue; afterwards, opening their mouth, they smacked their lips several times in succession.

"A party of us set off from the ship, to the number of twenty-eight, all well armed, with an intention of crossing over a very lofty mountain, situated to the south-south-east, in order to descend afterwards, if the weather proved favourable, into a fine valley, which we had already perceived very far behind this mountain

"We proceeded till a heavy shower obliged us to seek a shelter in the cavities of the rocks, where we remained for some time. We invited the savages who accompanied us to partake of our repast; but we were very much surprised to see that these cannibals would not eat the salt pork which we offered them.

"I found on my arrival on board a chief, who had dined at the gun-room table. He had come in a canoe with his wife, whom he would not suffer to ascend the ship's side, notwithstanding the reiterated entreaties that had been made him.

"On landing on another excursion, we followed the beach, advancing towards the west, and penetrating occasionally into the woods; we saw the inhabitants abandon their huts on our approach, and leave behind them a net, which they had spread out to dry. It appears that this implement for fishing, which is commonly twenty-four feet long, by four wide, is very scarce among these people. They shewed us very few during the time we were in their island, and none of them would part with a net for any price. The women are principally engaged in catching the shell fish. We saw several of them wade into the sea up to the middle, and gather great quantities, which they found by means of a pointed stick that they thrust into the sand.

"We had not hitherto met with any tombs of these savages, except near their huts; but we now saw one which was far distant from any habitation, on the side of the road that we followed. It differed from the others in being built of stone from its foundation to the middle of its height.

"We had just caught two sea-adders, which we broiled on the coals and ate; but we found their flesh very tough, and by no means well-flavoured.

"We had not proceeded far from our ships, when fresh traces of devastation made us again lament the fate of these unfortunate inhabitants, whom revenge often hurries to the most horrible excesses. They had destroyed all the principal habitations, and topped all the cocoa-nut trees surrounding it.

"As the day was far spent, we proceeded towards the south, in search of a convenient spot where we might pass the night, and we soon fixed upon an eminence, the difficult access to which secured us from the danger of any surprise on the part of the savages. We lighted a fire; for on these heights it was piercing cold, and of this we were the more sensible, as we had experienced in the plain very intense heat during the day. We supped, and then went to sleep, two of us watching alternately, and keeping a good look-out, for it was to be feared that the light of our fire might attract some of the islanders towards us. Near the foot of the mountains we perceived the light of several torches, with which some savages were advancing eastward, and approaching our retreat. In an instant every one of us was on foot, to observe their motions; and we prepared to give them a warm reception, in case they should think proper to come and attack us; but, after crossing several hills, they went down towards the sea-side, marching to the eastward, and going farther from us. Probably these cannibals were proceeding to undertake some expedition against their enemies, whom they generally attack by night. As we did not seem to be the object of their search, we went to sleep again, relying on the vigilance of our sentries.

"The next morning, at day-break, we ascended towards the south-east, and soon reached the brow of the mountain, when we discovered, on the sea-shore, the great opening of the channel which runs through the plain that we proposed to visit.

"We had now only a few hills to cross, in order to arrive at the plain; when several of our party, being afraid that, should we proceed any farther, we might run short of provisions, and, perhaps, meet some numerous band of savages, left us, in order to return the same day on board of our ships. By this desertion our number was reduced to fifteen, but, nevertheless, we continued our journey.

"At length, we entered the plain, and presently the melancholy spectacle of a habitation entirely destroyed, and several cocoa-palms cut short off at the root, convinced us anew of the barbarity of the inhabitants.

"All our provisions being now expended, we felt the necessity of returning on board, and reached the ship about the middle of the day. Alongside I observed a double canoe, carrying two sails, constructed in the same manner as those of the inhabitants of New Caledonia; but the natives who were in her spoke the language of the inhabitants of the Friendly Islands. They were eight in number, seven men and a woman, all very muscular. They told us that the island from which they came was situated to the eastward, a day's sail from our anchorage, and was called *Aouwea*. It was undoubtedly the Island of Beaupré they meant, which had been discovered by our engineer in our passage from the New Hebrides to this island. These islanders, who were entirely naked, were acquainted with the use of iron, and appeared much more intelligent than the savages of New Caledonia.

"I was not a little surprised to see one of the planks of their canoe paid with a coat of varnish. It appeared to have belonged to some European ship, and of this I had no doubt, when I discovered that white lead had formed a principal ingredient in the composition of the varnish. This plank undoubtedly came from a ship belonging to some civilized nation, which had been lost on their coasts. I requested these savages to relate to us what they knew on this subject; they immediately set sail to the westward, promising to return next day, and bring us back the information required, but did not keep their word, and we had not afterwards an opportunity of seeing them.

"We were informed, on our return, that on the day we left the ship to make the excursion which we had finished, some savages had attempted to carry off the hatchets of our wood-cutters, and had attacked them with stones, but that two musket-shots had been sufficient to disperse them.

"In a short time we reached a hut, whence came out a native, holding in his hand a mask, which he agreed to sell for two joiners' chissels. This mask was cut out of a cocoa-nut tree, but better carved than the different figures which we had seen at other places, on the planks at the entrance of their dwellings. He repeatedly covered his face with it, and looked through the holes which he had perforated in the upper part. It had no appearance at the eyes, but only at the mouth. These people are, probably, in the habit of making use of masks of this sort, that they may not be recognised by their enemies, when they undertake any hostilities against them.

"In a hut, which we entered, I observed a fire, and two children, who were regaling themselves with spiders, of a new species, which I have very frequently remarked in the woods, where they spin threads so strong that we were often exceedingly incommoded by them in our excursions. The children first killed them, by shutting them up in a large earthen vessel, which they were heating over a good fire; then they broiled them on the embers, and ate them. They swallowed, at least, a hundred of them. We found on the same island several other inhabitants searching eagerly for this sort of food.

"I perceived some of the inhabitants falling upon our fishermen, in order to take from them their net, with the fish which they had just caught. We were obliged to fire at least twenty muskets before we could succeed in dispersing them entirely. They stood firm on the beach during all this time, repelling the attack with their slings, and severely wounded the gunner of the Espérance in the arm with a stone; they then took to their heels, and in a few moments they again returned to the charge: however, when they saw two of their party brought to the ground by musket-shots, and wounded so as not to be able to crawl into the woods but with much difficulty, the panic became general; they fled, and not one of them any longer thought of attacking us.

"The voracity of which the Caledonians had afforded us proof, prevented the admiral from giving them the he and she goat which he had intended for them. Doubtless they devoured the two hogs and the two dogs, of which Captain Cook made a present to one of their chiefs, before they suffered them to multiply. Scarcely did they pay the smallest attention to their fowls: I saw only three hens and a cock during our stay in the island.

"We did not observe in their possession any of the articles given to them by Captain Cook. Perhaps, these riches have occasioned the unhappiness of the inhabitants of this coast, by exciting their neighbours to come and plunder them.

"I remarked, with astonishment, that the authority of the chiefs had always seemed nugatory, in the different skirmishes we had had with these savages; but I was not less surprised to see them exercise a considerable share of power, when their personal interests were at stake; for they generally seized upon the articles which their subjects had received from us.

"The natives of this island are a strong, robust, active, and well-made people; some of them measuring six feet four inches. Their complexion is similar to that of the people of the New Hebrides, New Holland, and New Guinea; but they do not, like those of New Holland, cover themselves with charcoal-dust: some were remarked who had blackened part of their breast, by wearing on it broad stripes, disposed obliquely. They have thick lips, flat noses, and full cheeks, and, in some degree, the features and look of a negro. Two things contributed to the forming of such an idea; first, their rough mop-heads, and, secondly, their besmearing their faces with black pigment. Their hair and beards are generally black, and the former is very much frizzled; so that, at first sight, it appears like that of a negro, only that it is coarser, stronger, and rather longer. Some, who wear it long, tie it up on the crown of the head; others suffer only a large lock to grow on each side, which they tie up in clubs; many were observed, who, wishing to appear with very long hair, had fastened to it two or three braids made of grass, and covered with the hair of the bat, which reached down to the middle of the back.

"Some of these savages had tubercles behind the ears, in the shape of a sweet-bread, and as large as a man's fist. They made it grow by means of a caustic, which, no doubt, had for some time occasioned a considerable degree of irritation, the inferior lobe of their ears being down to their shoulders. Some had introduced in it leaves of trees, and others a piece of wood, to enlarge it still more. Several had the same lobe cut into shreds; it had probably been torn in battle, or in their excursions

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through the forests. A man was seen by Captain Cook's people, both ashore and alongside the ship, as white as a European. They were given to understand, that his whiteness did not proceed from hereditary descent, but from chance or some disease.

"We saw coarse garments amongst them, made of a sort of matting, but they seemed never to wear them, except when out in their canoes and unemployed. Some had a kind of concave, cylindrical, black cap, which appeared to be a great ornament among them, and, we thought, was only worn by men of note, or warriors. A large sheet of strong paper, when they got one from us, was generally applied to this use.

"The women's dress is a short petticoat, made of the filaments of the plantain-tree, laid over a cord, to which they are fastened, and tied round the waist. The petticoat is made at least six or eight inches thick, but no longer than necessary for the use designed. The outer filaments are dyed black; and, as an additional ornament, the most of them have a few pearl oyster-shells fixed on the right side. The general ornaments of both sexes are ear-rings of tortoise-shell, necklaces, or amulets made both of large shells and stones, and bracelets, made of large shells, which they wear above the elbow. Their necklaces are mats of plaited hair, and they commonly suspend to them, by a string, a small piece of bone, rudely carved. Their bracelets are cut out of shells, or of quartz and other hard stones. They have punctures, or marks on the skin, on several parts of the body; but none are black, as at the eastern islands.

"With respect to the origin of this nation, they seem to be a race between the people of the New Hebrides and New Holland; their language, in some respects, being a mixture of both.

"Their offensive weapons are clubs, spears, darts, and slings for throwing stones. The clubs are about two feet and a half long, variously formed; some like a scythe, others like a pick-axe; some have a head like a hawk, and others have round heads; but all are neatly made. Many of their darts and spears are not less neat, and ornamented with carvings. The slings are simple, but they take some pains to form the stones they use into a proper shape, which is something like an egg, supposing both ends to be like the small one. They use a becket, in throwing the dart, which is much used in striking fish, &c. In this they seemed very dexterous; nor, indeed, have they any other method of catching large fish; for I neither saw hooks nor lines among them.

"The ingenious method these people have invented for accelerating the velocity of their darts is admirable. For this purpose they use a very elastic piece of cord, made of cocoa-nut bass and the hair of the bat. They fix one of the extremities to the end of the fore-finger, while the other, which is terminated by a sort of round button, embraces the dart on which it is disposed, in such a manner, that it flies off the weapon as soon as it is thrown. These warlike people pay the greatest attention to the manufacture of their weapons, which they polish remarkably well.

"Their houses are mostly circular, like a bee-hive. The entrance is by a small door, or long square hole, big enough to admit a man bent double. The side-walls are about four feet and a half high; but the roof is lofty, and peaked to a point at the top; above which is a post, which is generally ornamented either with carving or shells, or both. The framing is of small spars, reeds, &c.; and both the sides and roof are thick and closely covered with thatch, made of coarse long grass. In the inside of the house are posts, to which cross-spars are fastened, and platforms made, for the conveniency of laying any thing on. The floor is laid with dry grass, and mats are spread for the principal inhabitants to sleep or sit on. In most of them we found two fire-places, and commonly a fire burning; and, as there was no vent for the smoke, but by the door, the whole house was both smoky and hot, insomuch that we, who were not used to such an atmosphere, could hardly endure it a moment. This may be the reason why we found these people so chilly when in the open air, and without exercise. We frequently saw them make little fires, and hustle round them, with no other view than to warm themselves. Smoke within doors may be a necessary evil, as it prevents the musquitoes from coming in, which are numerous here. In some respects their habitations are neat; for, besides the ornaments at the top, I saw some with carved door-posts. Upon the whole, their houses are better calculated for a cold than a hot climate.

"They have no great variety of household utensils; earthen jars being the only article worth notice. Each family has, at least, one of them, in which they bake their roots, and perhaps their fish, &c. The fire by which they cook their victuals is on the outside of each house, in the open air. There are three or five pointed stones fixed in the ground, their pointed ends being about six inches above the surface. Those of three stones are only for one jar; those of five stones, for two. The jars do not stand on their bottoms, but lie inclined on their sides. The use of these stones is obviously to keep the jars from resting on the fire, in order that it may burn the better. They have a basket, which they fill with tubercles, which resemble those of the roots of a species of sun-flower.

SECTION VI.
NEW ZEALAND.

New Zealand was first discovered by Tasman, in the year 1642. He traversed the eastern coast, and entered the strait which divides the two islands, since called Cook's Strait; but, being attacked by the natives soon after he came to anchor in the place, to which he gave the name of Murderer's Bay, he never went on shore. Tasman gave the country the name of Staaten Land, or the Land of the States, in honour of the States-General; but it has since been distinguished by the name of New Zealand. As the whole of this country, except that part of the coast seen by Tasman, has, till the voyage in the Endeavour, undertaken by our renowned navigator, Cook, in 1769, remained totally unknown, it was supposed to be part of a southern continent: but it was found by him to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait, which is about four or five leagues broad.

Situation, Climate, Soil, &c.] New Zealand is situated between thirty-four and forty-eight degrees of south latitude, and between one hundred and sixty-six and one hundred and eighty degrees of east longitude.

The climate is temperate and tolerably salubrious, and the weather in general is good, but sometimes windy, and attended with heavy rains, which, however, are never excessive nor of long continuance. From various observations, it appears, that the winds from the south-east are generally moderate, but attended with cloudy weather, or rain. The south-westerly winds blow very strong, and are also attended with rain, but they seldom last long. The north-west winds are the most prevailing, and are almost constantly attended with fine weather.

The land in the vicinity of Queen Charlotte's Sound is exceedingly mountainous, rising abruptly from the sea into large hills, with pointed tops. At considerable distances there are some valleys, each terminating toward the sea in a small cove, with a pebbly or sandy beach; and behind this are small flats, where the natives generally erect their huts. The bases of the mountains, toward the shore, are composed of a brittle sand-stone, which is naturally of a yellowish cast, but acquires a bluish tinge when washed by the sea. In some places it runs in horizontal, and at others in oblique, strata, being frequently divided by veins of coarse quartz, which generally follow the direction of the other, though they sometimes intersect it. The soil which covers this is also of a yellowish cast, somewhat like marl; and its quality is best indicated by the luxuriant growth of its productions.

Vegetables.] The noble trees which crown the mountains of New Zealand are chiefly of two sorts: one of them is of the size of our largest firs, and grows much after the same manner, but the leaves and small berries on their points have a nearer resemblance to those of the yew. The other tree is somewhat like a maple, and frequently grows to a very great size, but it only served the Europeans for fuel, as the wood was found too heavy for masts, yards, &c.

On the small flat spots behind the beaches, there is a greater variety of trees, among which are two that bear plums, about the size of prunes; the one yellow, called *karracca*; and the other black, called *maitao*, but neither of them have a very agreeable flavour. Those of the first sort grow on small trees near the sea; but the others are gathered from larger trees, that stand farther within the woods. On some of the eminences which jut out into the sea, there is a tree, bearing flowers almost like those of myrtle; and a species of Philadelphus, the leaves of which have a very pleasant smell, and are said to make an excellent substitute for tea.

Among a variety of edible plants, which grow plentifully in almost every cove, we must mention wild celery, and a sort of scurvy-grass, with jagged leaves, and small clusters of white flowers. A species of long pepper is found in great plenty, but it has little of the aromatic flavour that makes spices valuable. The flax-plant, of which the natives make their garments, grows every where near the sea, and, in some places, a considerable way up the hills, in tufts or bunches, with sedge-like leaves, bearing yellowish flowers, which are succeeded by a long roundish pod, filled with very thin black seeds. Here are also above twenty different sorts of ferns, entirely peculiar to the place; with several different kinds of mosses; besides a great variety of other plants, whose characters and uses are not yet accurately known.

Animals.] The birds, as well as the vegetable productions, are almost entirely peculiar to the country; and although it is very difficult to follow them, on account of the great quantity of underwood and climbing plants, which render travelling extremely fatiguing, yet a person, by remaining in one place, may shoot as many in a day as will serve six or eight others. The principal sorts are large brown parrots, with greyish heads, green parroquets, with red foreheads; and large wood-pigeons, brown above, with white bellies, and the bill and feet red.

Here also are two sorts of cuckoos, one as large as our common sort, of a brown colour, variegated with black; the other not larger than a sparrow, of a bright green hue above, and beautifully varied with waves of green, brown, white, and golden colours below. A goose-beak, about the size of a thrush, of a brown colour, with a reddish tail, is very frequently seen here; as is also a small greenish bird, whose notes are so varied and melodious, that an attentive auditor might suppose himself surrounded by a hundred different sorts of birds at once. Robins and king's-fishers are sometimes seen, about the size of the English ones, but their plumage is somewhat different.

The rocks about the shore are much frequented by seapies and red-bills; and crested shags, of a lead-colour, with the upper part of a velvet-black, tinged with green, and the wings prettily spotted. There are, also, about the shore, some blue herons, a few sea-gulls, small penguins, and some sand-larks.

Among the fish offered to sale by the natives, were large conger-eels; a sort of sea-bream, of a silver colour, with a black spot on the neck; and a fish somewhat like a bream, but so large as to weigh six or seven pounds. The principal fish caught by the Europeans were mullets, elephant-fish, soles, flounders, a sort of small salmon, skate, and a curious fish of a reddish colour, with a little beard, which was called the *night-walker*, from the greatest number being caught in the night. Among the shell-fish, which abound on the rocks, there are periwinkles, limpets, wilks, sea-ears, oysters, cockles, and muscles, the latter of which will sometimes measure above a foot in length.

It is very remarkable, that in this extensive country there are no quadrupeds, excepting a few rats, and a sort of fox-dog, the latter of which seems to be, in some measure, domesticated by the natives. The insects most worthy of notice are two sorts of dragon-flies, small grasshoppers, several sorts of spiders, and great numbers of scorpion-flies, with whose chirping the woods frequently resound. The only reptiles are two or three sorts of lizards, one of which is said to be of a monstrous size.

Minerals.] New Zealand does not afford any mineral worthy of attention, except a green jasper, or serpent-stone, of which the natives fabricate their tools and personal ornaments; and it appears that they hold some superstitious notions respecting the method of its generation. It is sufficiently obvious, however, wherever it may be found, that it is disposed in the earth either in thin layers, or detached pieces, like our flints; for the edges of those pieces which have not been cut are covered with a whitish crust, like these. A piece of this sort has been seen about eighteen inches long, a foot broad, and nearly two inches thick; which yet appeared to be only the fragment of a larger piece.

Language.] The language of the New Zealanders, which nearly resembles that of the Otaheiteans, cannot be properly called harsh or disagreeable; for although the pronunciation is frequently guttural, it is certain that whatever qualities are requisite in any other language to make it musical, obtain to a considerable degree here. It is also sufficiently comprehensive, though in some respects deficient, if compared with the languages of Europe, which owe their perfection to long improvement.

The language of the northern and southern parts of New Zealand differs chiefly in the pronunciation, as the same English word is pronounced *gate* in Middlesex, and *geäte* in Yorkshire: and as the southern and northern words were not written down by the same person, one might possibly use more letters to produce the same sound than the other.

It may also be observed, that it is the genius of the language, especially in the southern parts, to put some article before a noun, as we do *the* or *a*; the articles used here were generally *he* or *ko*; it is also common here to add the word *ieia* after another word, as an iteration, especially if it is an answer to a question, as we say *yes indeed, certainly*; this sometimes led the officers into the formation of words of an enormous length, judging by the ear only, without being able to refer each sound into its signification.

Government, Religion, &c.] That some form of government prevails in this country is evident from the chart and information of Toogee, one of the natives who resided at Norfolk Island, as we have before observed. He informed the European visitors, that Ea-hei-no-mawe, the place of his residence, and the northern island of New Zealand, is divided into eight districts, governed by their respective chiefs, and others who are subordinate to them. The largest of these districts is T' Souduckey, the inhabitants of which are in a constant state of warfare with other tribes, in which they are sometimes joined by the people of three neighbouring districts, though the whole of them are oftener united against T' Souduckey, the bounds of which large district Governor King conceived to be from Captain Cook's Mount Egmont to Cape Runaway. They are not, however, without long intervals of peace, at which times they visit, and carry on a traffic for flax and the green tale-stone, of which latter they make axes and ornaments. As a further proof of the existence of a government, it appears, from Governor King's account, that Toogee's residence was on the north side of the Bay of Islands, in the district called by him Ho-do-do, which he said contained about a thousand fighting men, and was subject to seven chiefs, one of whom, Tee-koo-roa, was the principal chief's son. Governor King observes, that, according to the information of Toogee, the inferior classes were perfectly subordinate to their superiors; and such he supposed to be the case, by the great deference paid by Toogee himself to Hoodoo.

Of the religion of these people, it cannot be supposed that much could be learnt; they acknowledge the influence of superior beings, one of whom is supreme, and the rest subordinate; and give nearly the same account of the origin of the world, and the production of mankind, as the natives of Otaheite: Tupia, however, seemed to have a much more extensive knowledge of these subjects than any of the people here; and, whenever he was disposed to instruct them, which he sometimes did in a long discourse, he was sure of a numerous audience, who listened, in profound silence, with such reverence and

attention, that we could not but wish them a better teacher.

What homage they pay to the deities they acknowledge could not be learnt, but no place of public worship was seen, like the morais of the South-Sea Islands; yet, near a plantation of sweet potatoes, was a small area, of a square figure, surrounded with stones, in the middle of which one of the sharpened stakes, which they use as a spade, was set up, and upon it was hung a basket of fern-roots: upon enquiry, the natives said, it was an offering to the gods, by which the owner hoped to render them propitious, and obtain a plentiful crop.

The New Zealanders believe that, the third day after the interment, the heart separates itself from the corpse, and that this separation is announced by a general breeze of wind, which gives warning of its approach, by an inferior Eatooa, or divinity, that hovers over the grave, and who certainly carries it to the clouds. In this chart, Toogee has marked an imaginary road, which goes the lengthways of Ea-hei-mo-mawe, from Cook's Strait to the North Cape, which Toogee calls Tevey-inga. They believe, that while the soul is received by the god Eatooa, an evil spirit is also in readiness to carry it to Terry-inga, whence it is precipitated into the sea.

Whatever their principles of religion may be, its instructions appear to be very strongly inculcated into them from their very infancy. Of this there was a remarkable instance, in the youth who was first destined to accompany Taweiharooa, in Captain Cook's second voyage. He refrained from eating the greatest part of the day, on account of his hair being cut, though every method was tried to induce him to break his resolution; and he was tempted with the offer of such victuals as he was known to esteem the most. He said, if he ate any thing that day, the Eatooa would kill him. However, towards evening, the cravings of nature got the better of the precepts of his religion, and he ate, though but sparingly. It had often been conjectured, before this, that they had some superstitious notions about their hair, quantities of it having been frequently observed tied to the branches of trees, near some of their habitations; but what these notions are could not be learned.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of New Zealand do not exceed the common stature of Europeans; and, for the most part, their limbs are not so well made. This, however, may probably be the effect of sitting on their hams, and of being confined, by the hilly nature of the country, from using that exercise which contributes to render the body straight and well-proportioned. Their complexions vary from a deep black to an olive tinge. Their faces, in general, are round, with full lips, remarkably broad teeth, and large eyes. Their noses are not flat, but they become rather thick toward the point. In the young, the countenance is generally open and ingenuous; but in many of the elder men it is marked with a peculiar sullenness or reserve. Their hair is black, straight, and strong, generally cut short on the hind part, with the rest tied on the crown of the head: in some individuals, however, it is of a brown colour, and seems naturally inclined to curl. The women are, for the most part, smaller than the men; but they have few peculiar graces, either in form or features, to distinguish them.

Their ordinary dress consists of an oblong garment, about five feet long and four broad, which is made from the flax-plant already mentioned. They bring two corners of this garment over the shoulders, and fasten it on the breast with the other part that covers the body. Sometimes they ornament it with large feathers, or with pieces of dog-skin, which seem to be wrought into the cloth when it is made. Over this garment, some of the natives wear mats, which reach from the shoulders almost to the heels; but, in general, the outer covering consists of a quantity of the flax-plant, badly dressed, which, being thrown about the shoulders, falls down, on all sides, as low as the middle of the thighs.

Their heads are commonly decorated with feathers, or combs of bone and wood; and in the ears, both of men and women, are hung bits of cloth, beads, or small pieces of jasper. They generally wear long beards, but seem to be fond of having them shaved. Some of them are stained in the face with curious figures, of a black, or deep blue colour; but the women, who are thus marked, have the puncture only on their lips, or a small spot on their chin. Both sexes besmear their heads and faces with a red paint, made of grease and martial ochre; and the females sometimes wear necklaces of shark's teeth, or bunches of long beads, which appear to be made from the leg-bones of small birds. A few, also, have little triangular aprons, fastened round the waist with two or three cords, and adorned with feathers, bits of pearl-shells, &c.

It appears that they subsist principally by fishing, making use either of nets, or of wooden fish-hooks, pointed with bone; but these last are so oddly made, that a stranger is at a loss to discover how they can answer such a purpose. When they dare not venture to sea, they supply the want of other fish with muscles, sea-ears, &c., and sometimes they contrive to kill a few penguins, shags, and rails, which help to vary their diet. Mr. Anderson informs us, that they are equally filthy in their persons and in their method of feeding. "They used to devour, with the greatest eagerness," says he, "large quantities of stinking train-oil, and blubber of seals, which we were melting at the tent, and had kept nearly two months; and, on board the ships, they were not satisfied with emptying the lamps, but actually swallowed the cotton and fragrant wick, with equal voracity. It is worthy of notice, that

though the inhabitants of Van Diemen's Land appear to have but a scanty subsistence, they would not even taste our bread; whereas these people devoured it greedily, when both mouldy and rotten. This, however, must not be imputed to any defect in their sensations; for I have observed them throw away things which we eat, with evident disgust, after only smelling to them.

As they are totally ignorant of the art of boiling, they always bake their fish in a large hole, which is dug in the earth for that purpose, and serves instead of an oven. In the same manner they dress the root and part of the stalk of the large fern-tree, which, on being split open, yield a fine gelatinous substance, like boiled sago-powder, but somewhat firmer. A smaller fern-root, which seems to be their substitute for bread, is beaten with a stick till it becomes pretty soft, when they chew it sufficiently, and spit out the fibrous parts, the other having a mealy and very agreeable taste.

They shew as much ingenuity, both with respect to invention and execution, as any uncivilized nation under similar circumstances; for, although wholly destitute of metal tools, they fabricate their clothing, warlike weapons, and fishing implements, with a tolerable degree of neatness. Their chief mechanical tool is formed exactly after the manner of an English adze, and is made of the green jasper. Their substitute for a knife is a shell, or a bit of flint; and, in boring holes, they supply the want of an auger by fixing a shark's tooth in the end of a small piece of wood. They have also a small saw, made of some fishes jagged teeth, and fixed on the convex edge of a piece of wood, nicely carved: but this is said to be only used for cutting up the bodies of the unfortunate prisoners whom they take in battle.

The warlike weapons of these people are spears, patoos, and halberts, or, sometimes, stones. The first of these are made of hard wood, pointed, and of different lengths, from five to twenty or even thirty feet. The short ones are used for throwing, as darts. The *patoo* is of an elliptical shape, about eighteen inches long, with a handle made of wood, green jasper, or the bone of some marine animal, and seems to be their principal dependance in battle. The halbert, or long club, is about five or six feet long, tapering at one end, with a carved head, and at the other broad or flat, with sharp edges.

Their cordage for fishing-lines is equal, in strength and evenness, to that made by Europeans; and their nets are not at all inferior. But they particularly excel in carving, which is found upon the most trifling things; and, in particular, the heads of their canoes are sometimes ornamented with it in such a manner, as not only shows much ingenuity of design, but also affords a striking example of their great labour and patience in execution. Their boats are well constructed, of planks raised upon each other, and fastened with strong withes, which also bind a long narrow piece on the outside of the seams, to prevent their leaking. Some of these vessels are nearly fifty feet long, and of sufficient breadth to sail without an outrigger; but the smaller sort generally have one; and the natives sometimes fasten two together, by rafters, to form what is called a double canoe. These boats will carry from five to thirty men; and have frequently a large head, curiously carved and painted, with a figure, resembling a man whose features are distorted by rage. Their paddles are long and narrow, and with these, when they keep proper time, the canoe is pushed along pretty swiftly. The sail is made of a mat of a triangular shape, having the broadest part above; but this is seldom used.

No people have a quicker sense of injuries, and none are more ready to resent them, than the natives of New Zealand; but this may be rather regarded as the effect of a vindictive disposition, than of personal courage; for they will embrace every opportunity of being insolent, when they think themselves secure from punishment. They also appear to be naturally mistrustful and dishonest; for they were, at first, extremely loth to enter the European vessels; and they not only pilfer every thing they can lay their hands on, but also take every possible advantage in trading, and seem to exult when they think they have tricked the persons with whom they are dealing. This conduct, however, might, in some measure, be expected in a country where there is but little subordination, and few laws to punish transgressions; for no man's authority appears to extend beyond his own family; and when they have occasion to unite for mutual defence, or other purposes, the command is vested in those who are most eminent for their prudence and bravery.

Their public contentions are almost perpetual; for it appears, from the number of their weapons and their dexterity in using them, that war is their principal profession. "From my own observations," says Captain Cook, "and from the information of others, it appears that the New Zealanders must live under perpetual apprehensions of being destroyed by each other; there being few of their tribes that have not, as they think, sustained wrongs from some other tribe, which they are continually upon the watch to revenge; and, perhaps, the desire of a good meal may be no small incitement. I am told that many years will sometimes elapse before a favourable opportunity happens, and that the son never loses sight of an injury that has been done to his father. Their method of executing their horrible designs is by stealing upon the adverse party in the night; when, if they find them unguarded, they kill every one indiscriminately, not even sparing the women and children. When the massacre is completed, they either feast themselves on the spot, or carry off as many of the dead bodies as they can, and devour them at

home, with acts of brutality too shocking to be described. If they are discovered before they can accomplish their sanguinary purpose, they generally steal off again; and are sometimes pursued and attacked by the other party in their turn.

"Their perpetual state of war, and destructive method of conducting it, operate so strongly in producing habitual circumspection, that one hardly ever finds a New Zealander off his guard, either by night or by day. Indeed, no other men can have such powerful motives to be vigilant, as the preservation both of body and soul depends upon it; for, according to their system of belief, the soul of the man whose flesh is devoured by an enemy, is doomed to a perpetual fire; while the soul of the man, whose body has been rescued from those who killed him, as well as the souls of all who die a natural death, ascend to the habitations of the gods. I asked, whether they ate the flesh of such of their friends as had been killed in war, and whose bodies were saved from falling into the enemy's hands? But they answered in the negative, expressing some abhorrence at the very idea."

When preparing for battle, they join in a war-song, to which they all keep the most exact time, and soon raise their passion to a degree of frenzy, attended with the most horrid distortions of their features, which, to a stranger, makes them appear rather like demons than men, and might almost chill the boldest with emotions of terror. To this succeeds a circumstance, equally horrid and disgraceful to human nature, which is that of cutting in pieces the bodies of their enemies, and, after dressing them on fire, devouring the flesh, with a peculiar satisfaction.

It might be naturally supposed, that people capable of such brutal cruelty must be destitute of every humane feeling, even for their friends; and yet it is a remarkable fact that they lament the loss of their relatives with a violence of expression which seems to argue the most tender remembrance of them. Both sexes, upon the death of their friends, bewail them with the most doleful cries; at the same time cutting their cheeks and foreheads with shells or pieces of flint, until the blood flows plentifully, and mixes with their tears. They also carve little images out of their green stone, and hang them about their necks, as memorials of those for whom they had an affection.

The New Zealanders seem to be perfectly satisfied with the little knowledge they possess, without expressing the least desire to improve or augment it. Neither are they remarkably curious in their observations or their enquiries. New objects do not strike them with such a degree of surprise as might be naturally expected; nor are there many things capable of even fixing their attention for a moment.

Polygamy is allowed amongst these people; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives. The women are marriageable at a very early age; and it appears that those who are single can with great difficulty procure a subsistence, and are, in a great measure, unprotected, though they frequently stand in need of a very powerful protection.

Their children are initiated, at a very early age, into all the practices and customs of their fathers; so that a boy or girl of nine or ten years old is able to perform all the motions, and to imitate the horrid gestures, by which the more aged inspire their enemies with terror, keeping the strictest time in their war-song. They likewise sing, on certain occasions, the traditions of their ancestors, their military exploits, and other subjects, of which they are immoderately fond.

SECTION VII.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

This country, which the Dutch navigator, Tasman, called Van Diemen's Land, in honour of the Dutch governor-general in the East-Indies, is the last great division of Australasia. It has been discovered to be an island, in the form of an oblong square, about a hundred and sixty miles in length, by half that breadth; being divided from New Holland by a channel, which, in modern maps, is called Bass's Strait.

For the following particulars we are indebted to Captain Furneaux, who accompanied Captain Cook in his second voyage round the world:

"Directing our course for Van Diemen's Land, on the 1st of March, 1773, we proceeded on till the 9th, when, being in the latitude of forty-three degrees thirty-seven minutes south, we saw the land, about eight or nine leagues distance. The morning of the 10th being calm, the ship four miles from the land, sent the great cutter on shore, with the second lieutenant, to find if there was any harbour or good bay. They landed, but with much difficulty, and saw several places where the Indians had been, and one they lately had left, where they had a fire, with a great number of pearl scallop-shells round it. The soil seems to be very rich; the country well clothed with wood, particularly on the lee-side of the hills; plenty of water, which falls from the rocks in beautiful cascades, for two or three hundred feet perpendicular into the sea; but they did not see the least sign of any place to anchor in with safety. Hoisted in the boat, and made sail for Frederick Henry Bay. From noon to three P. M. running along shore, at which time we were abreast of the westernmost point of a very deep bay, called, by Tasman Stormy Bay. From the west to the east point of this bay

there are several small islands and black rocks, which we called the Fryars. Being abreast of a fine bay, and having little wind, we came to anchor. We first took this bay to be that which Tasman called Frederick Henry Bay; but afterwards found that his is laid down five leagues to the northward of this.

"At day-break the next morning, I sent the master in-shore to sound the bay, and to find out a watering-place; at eight he returned, having found a most excellent harbour, clear ground from side to side. We weighed and turned up into the bay, and anchored in seven fathoms water, to the westward, the north point of the bay, which we supposed to be Tasman's Head, and the easternmost point, which we named Penguin Island, from a curious one we caught there; the watering-place, about one mile from the shore on each side; Maria's Island, which is about five or six leagues off, shut in with both points; so that we were quite land-locked, in a most spacious harbour.

"We found the country very pleasant; the soil black and rich, though thin; the sides of the hills covered with large trees, and very thick, growing to a great height before they branch off. They are, all of them, of the evergreen kind, different from any I ever saw. The land-birds we saw were a bird like a raven; some of the crow kind, black, with the tips of the feathers of the tail and wings white, their bill long and very sharp; some paroquets; and several kinds of small birds. The sea-fowl were ducks, teal, and the sheldrake. I forgot to mention a large white bird, that one of the gentlemen shot, about the size of a large kite, of the eagle kind. As for beasts we saw but one, which was an *opossum;* but we observed the dung of some, which we judged to be of the deer kind. The fish in the bay are scarce; those we caught were mostly sharks, dog-fish, and a fish called, by the seamen, nurses, like the dog-fish, only full of small white spots; and some small fish, not unlike sprats. The lagoons, which are brackish, abound with trout; and several other sorts of fish, of which we caught a few with lines, but, being much encumbered with stumps of trees, we could not haul the seine.

"While we lay here, we saw several smokes and large fires, about eight or ten miles in-shore to the northward, but did not see any of the natives, though they frequently come into this bay, as there were several wigwams or huts. They seem to be quite ignorant of every sort of metal. The boughs, of which their huts are made, are either broken or split, and tied together, with grass, in a circular form, the largest end stuck in the ground, and the smaller parts meeting in a point at the top, and covered with fern and bark, so poorly done, that they will hardly keep out a shower of rain. In the middle is the fire-place, surrounded with heaps of muscle, pearl, scallop, and cray-fish shells, which are their chief food, though we could not find any of them. They lie on the ground, on dried grass, round the fire, and have no settled place of habitation, but wander about in small parties, from place to place, in search of food, and are actuated by no other motive. We never found more than three or four huts in a place, capable of containing three or four persons each only; and, what is remarkable, we never saw the least marks either of canoe or boat, and it is generally thought they have none, being altogether, from what we could judge, a very ignorant and wretched set of people, though natives of a country capable of producing every necessary of life, and a climate the finest in the world. We found not the least signs of any minerals or metals.

"Intending to coast it up along shore, till we should fall in with the land seen by Captain Cook, and discover whether Van Diemen's Land joined with New Holland, we passed Maria's Islands, so named by Tasman; they appeared to be the same as the main land. Having passed Schouten's Islands, we hauled in for the main land, and stood along shore, at the distance of two or three leagues off. The country here appeared to be very much inhabited, as there was a continual fire along shore as we sailed. The land hereabouts is much pleasanter, low, and even; but no signs of a harbour or bay where a ship might anchor with safety. The weather being bad, and blowing hard, we could not send a boat on shore to have any intercourse with the inhabitants."

Van Diemen's Land was visited by Captain Cook, in his last voyage, in 1777, and, in his passage from Kerguelen's Land to New Zealand, where he had instructions from the Board of Admiralty to ship provisions necessary for the prosecution of his voyage. The particulars are thus related:

"On the morning of the 24th of January, we discovered the coast of Van Diemen's Land. There are several islands and high rocks lying scattered along this part of the coast, the southernmost of which is the Mewstone. It is a round elevated rock, five or six leagues distant from the south-west cape.

"About a league to the eastward of Swilly is another elevated rock, that is not taken notice of by Captain Furneaux. I called it the Eddystone, from its very great resemblance to that light-house. Nature seems to have left these two rocks here for the same purpose that the Eddystone light-house was built by man, viz. to give navigators notice of the dangers around them. For they are the conspicuous summits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the sea, in many places, breaks very high. Their surface is white with the dung of sea-fowls: so that they may be seen at some distance, even in the night. On the north-east side of Storm Bay, which lies between the South Cape and Tasman's Head, there are some coves or creeks, that seemed to be sheltered from the sea-winds;

and I am of opinion, that, were this coast examined, there would be found some good harbours.

"A breeze springing up at south-east, put it in my power to carry into execution the design I had, upon due consideration, formed, of carrying the ships into Adventure Bay, where I might expect to get a fresh supply of wood, and of grass for the cattle, of both which articles we should, as I now found, have been in great want, if I had waited till our arrival in New Zealand. We therefore stood for the bay, and anchored. Wood and water we found in plenty, and in convenient situations. Next morning I sent Lieutenant King to the east side of the bay, with two parties, one to cut wood, and the other to cut grass, under the protection of the marines, whom I judged it prudent to land as a guard; for although, as yet, none of the natives had appeared, there could be no doubt that some were in our neighbourhood, as we had seen columns of smoke, from the time of our approaching the coast; and some now was observed at no great distance up in the woods.

"We were agreeably surprised, at the place where we were cutting wood, with a visit from some of the natives, eight men and a boy. They approached us from the woods, without betraying any marks of fear, or rather with the greatest confidence imaginable: for none of them had any weapons, except one, who held in his hand a stick, about two feet long, and pointed at one end.

"The natives received every present we made them, without the least appearance of satisfaction. When some bread was given, as soon as they understood that it was to be eaten, they either returned it, or threw it away, without even tasting it. They also refused some elephant-fish, both raw and dressed, which we offered to them. But upon giving some birds to them, they did not return these, and easily made us comprehend that they were fond of such food. I had brought two pigs ashore, with a view to leave them in the woods. The instant these came within their reach, they seized them, as a dog would have done, by the ears, and were for carrying them off immediately, with no other intention, as we could perceive, but to kill them.

"Being desirous of knowing the use of the stick which one of our visitors carried in his hand, I made signs to them to shew me, and so far succeeded, that one of them set up a piece of wood as a mark, and threw at it, at the distance of about twenty yards. But we had little reason to commend his dexterity; for, after repeated trials, he was still very wide from the object. Omai, who was returning to his native country, to shew them how superior our weapons were to theirs, then fired his musket at it, which alarmed them so much, that, notwithstanding all we could do or say, they ran immediately into the woods. One of them was so frightened, that he let drop an axe and two knives that had been given to him. From us, however, they went to the place where some of the Discovery's people were employed in taking water into their boat. The officer of that party, not knowing that they had paid us so friendly a visit, nor what their intent might be, fired a musket in the air, which sent them off with the greatest precipitation.

"Thus ended our first interview with the natives. Immediately after their final retreat, judging that their fears would prevent their remaining near enough to observe what was passing, I ordered the two pigs, being a boar and sow, to be carried about a mile within the woods, at the head of the bay. I saw them left there, at the head of a fresh-water brook. A young bull and a cow, and some sheep and goats, were also, at first, intended to have been left by me, as an additional present to Van Diemen's Land. But I soon laid aside all thought of this, from a persuasion that the natives, incapable of entering into my views of improving their country, would destroy them. If ever they should meet with the pigs, I have no doubt this will be their fate. But as that race of animals soon becomes wild, and is fond of the thickest cover of the woods, there is great probability of their being preserved. An open place must have been chosen for the accommodation of the other cattle; and, in such a situation, they could not possibly have remained concealed many days.

"We had observed several of the natives sauntering along the shore, which proved that, though their consternation had made them leave us so abruptly the day before, they were convinced that we intended them no mischief, and were desirous of renewing the intercourse. It was natural that I should wish to be present on the occasion.

"We had not been long landed before about twenty of them, men and boys, joined us, without expressing the least sign of fear or distrust. There was one of this company conspicuously deformed; and who was not more distinguishable by the hump upon his back, than by the drollery of his gestures, and the seeming humour of his speeches, which he was very fond of exhibiting, as we supposed, for our entertainment; but, unfortunately, we could not understand him, the language spoken here being wholly unintelligible to us. It appeared to me to be different from that spoken by the inhabitants of the more northern parts of this country, whom I met with in my first voyage; which is not extraordinary, since those we now saw, and those we then visited, differ in many other respects. Nor did they seem to be such miserable wretches as the natives whom Dampier mentions to have seen on the western coast.

"Some of our present groupe wore, loose round their necks, three or four folds of small cord, made of the fur

of some animal; and others of them had a narrow slip of the kangaroo skin tied round their ankles. I gave to each of them a string of beads, and a medal, which I thought they received with some satisfaction. They seemed to set no value on iron, or on iron tools. They were even ignorant of the use of fish-hooks, if we might judge from their manner of looking at some of ours, which we shewed to them.

"We cannot, however, suppose it to be possible, that a people who inhabit a sea-coast, and who seem to derive no part of their sustenance from the productions of the ground, should not be acquainted with some mode of catching fish, though we did not happen to see any of them thus employed; nor observe any canoe or vessel in which they could go upon the water.

"Many heaps of muscle-shells we saw in different parts near the shore, and about some deserted habitations near the head of the bay. These were little sheds or hovels, built with sticks, and covered with bark. We could also perceive evident signs of their sometimes taking up their abode in the trunks of large trees, which had been hollowed out by fire, most probably for this very purpose. In or near all these habitations, and wherever there was a heap of shells, there remained the marks of fire, an indubitable proof that they do not eat their food raw.

"From Lieutenant King I learnt, that I had but just left the shore when several women and children made their appearance, and were introduced to him by some of the men who attended them. He gave presents to all of them, of such trifles as he had about him. These females wore a kangaroo skin, in the same shape as it came from the animal, tied over the shoulders and round the waist. But its only use seemed to be to support their children, when carried on their backs; as they were, in all other respects, as naked as the men, and their bodies marked with scars in the same manner. But in this they differed from the men, that though their hair was of the same colour and texture, some of them had their heads completely shorn or shaven; in others, this operation had been performed only on one side, while the rest of them had all the upper part of the head shorn close, leaving a circle of hair all around.

"The land is, for the most part, of a good height, diversified with hills and valleys, and every where of a greenish hue. It is well wooded, and, if one may judge from appearances, and from what we met with in Adventure Bay, is not ill supplied with water. We found plenty of it in three or four places in this bay. Fire-wood is to be got with great ease in several places.

"The only wind to which this bay is exposed is the north-east. But as this wind blows from Maria's Islands, it can bring no very great sea along with it; and, therefore, upon the whole, this may be accounted a very safe road. The bottom is clean, good holding-ground; and the depth of water from twelve to five and four fathoms.

"Captain Furneaux's sketch of Van Diemen's Land, published with the narrative of my last voyage, appears to me to be without any material error, except with regard to Maria's Islands, which have a different situation from what is there represented."

CHAPTER XII.

POLYNESIA.

According to the best and latest authorities, the following appear to be the principal divisions of the wide expanse of Polynesia:

1. The Pelew Isles.
2. The Ladrones, a chain extending in a northerly direction, the small islands in the Pacific seeming to be chiefly the summits of ranges of mountains.
3. The Carolines, a long range, extending from east to west.
4. The Sandwich Isles.
5. The Marquesas.
6. The Society Isles, so named in honour of the Royal Society; and
7. The Friendly Isles.

There are, also, several isles scattered in different directions, which it would be difficult to class with any groupe, and indeed none of them seem to merit a particular description.

SECTION I.

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

Discovery, &c.] Various conjectures have been formed respecting the first discovery of these islands by Europeans; but the only account on which we can safely rely was compiled

by Mr. Keate, from documents furnished by Captain Henry Wilson, of the Antelope, a packet belonging to the East-India company, which was wrecked upon one of these islands in August 1783. And, as by that accident a people have been brought to light, whose amiable manners and virtuous qualities evince no small progress in social refinement, and whose humane behaviour to our distressed countrymen is justly entitled to the warmest gratitude, we shall take the liberty of laying before our readers a brief account of the above-mentioned shipwreck, and the subsequent intercourse between the European mariners and the natives, which we flatter ourselves will be found particularly interesting.

The Antelope was fitted out in England by the court of East-India directors in the summer of 1782, as was then generally understood, for a secret expedition. But whatever may have been her destination, as she was proceeding homeward from Macao in squally weather, on the 10th of August, 1783, the man on watch suddenly called out breakers! and the sound of the word had scarcely reached the officer on deck, before the ship struck, and in less than an hour she bulged, and filled with water up to the lower deck hatchways.

During this scene of horror and dismay, the seamen intreated their commander to give them some directions, and assured him that his orders should be obeyed with the utmost alacrity. Accordingly, Captain Wilson desired them to secure the gunpowder and small arms, and to get on deck the bread, and such other provisions as were liable to be spoiled by the water. He also directed that the mizen mast, with the main and fore-top masts should be cut away, and the fore and main yards lowered, to prevent the vessel from oversetting.

The boats were now hoisted out, and loaded with provisions, small arms, and ammunition; and two men were put into each, with directions to keep them under the lee of the ship, and to be ready to receive their companions, in case the vessel should part by the violence of the wind and waves, as it then blew a very strong gale.

Every thing being at length done which prudence could dictate in so distressful a situation, the officers and people assembled on the quarter deck, (that part being highest out of the water, and best sheltered from the rain and sea by the quarter-boards,) and waited for day-light, in hopes of seeing land; for as yet they had not been able to discern any. During this dreadful interval, the anxiety and horror of which may be easier imagined than described, Captain Wilson endeavoured to revive the drooping spirits of his crew, by reminding them, that shipwreck was a misfortune to which navigators were always liable; and that although theirs was rendered peculiarly trying by its happening in an unknown sea, yet he wished to remind them, that this consideration should only rouse them to greater activity, in endeavouring to extricate themselves: and, above all, he wished to impress on their minds, that whenever misfortunes such as theirs had happened, they had generally been rendered much more dreadful than they would otherwise have been, by the despair of the crew, and by their disagreement among themselves. To prevent such a circumstance, he most earnestly requested them not to taste any spirituous liquor, on any account whatever; and he had the satisfaction to find his salutary advice readily adopted.

As the crew, however, were almost worn out by the excessive labour they had undergone, two glasses of wine and some biscuit were given to every man aboard; and they waited for day-break with the utmost anxiety, in hopes of discovering land. Meanwhile they endeavoured to support each others spirits as much as possible, and, by the captain's direction, put on as many clothes as possible to carry with them, in the event of getting safe from the wreck. We have also the pleasure to add, to the honour of this crew, that the utmost cordiality prevailed amongst them. None attempted, in the hour of confusion, to touch his neighbour's property, nor to make free with what had been interdicted.

The dawn discovered to their view a small island, at the distance of about three or four leagues to the southward; and as the day-light increased, they saw more islands to the eastward.

They now began to feel apprehensions on account of the natives, to whose dispositions they were utter strangers. However, after manning the boats, and loading them in the best manner they were able, for the general good, they were dispatched to the island, under the direction of Mr. Benger, the chief-mate, who was earnestly requested to establish, if possible, a friendly intercourse with the natives, if he found any; and carefully to avoid all disagreement with them, unless reduced to it by the most urgent necessity. As soon as the boats were gone, those who were left in the ship began to get the booms over-board, and to make a raft for their security, if the ship should go to pieces, which was hourly expected. At the same time, they were under the most painful apprehensions for the safety of the boats, on which all depended, not only with respect to the natives, but also with regard to the weather, as it still continued to blow extremely hard.

In the afternoon, however, they were relieved from their fears on this head, by the return of the boats, with the welcome news of their having landed the stores in safety, and left five men to take care of them; and that there was no appearance of inhabitants being on the island where they landed: that they had found a secure harbour, well sheltered from the weather, and also some fresh water. This favourable account revived them, and they proceeded in completing the raft with fresh vigour, having been allowed

another glass of wine, with biscuit. A very distressing accident, however, happened this day; the mizen-mast being found near the ship's stern, and part of the rigging entangled with the mizen-chains, one of the quarter-masters was employed to clear it, and, while he was thus employed, unluckily slipped overboard. The boats were immediately sent to his assistance, but without effect.

Having finished the raft, they loaded it, together with the jolly-boat and pinnace, with as many stores and provisions as they could bear, consistently with the safety of those who were to be carried off; and, as the day was advancing, the captain summoned all the people aboard. Indeed, so busily were they employed in bringing as much as possible with them, that it required some pains to get them all collected. The stoutest of the hands were put on board the pinnace, which took the raft in tow, and moved slowly on, till they had cleared the reef; while the jolly-boat, which was of little service to the raft, proceeded along to the shore, and joined their companions that had been left in the morning. They found a tent ready for their reception, and a spot of ground cleared for the stores.

The situation of those aboard the pinnace and the raft, till they cleared the reef, was extremely alarming; for the swelling of the sea was so violent, that they repeatedly lost sight of each other, and those on the raft were obliged to tie themselves to the planks with ropes, to prevent their being washed off; whilst the horror of the scene was increased by the screams of the Chinese mariners, who were not accustomed to the perils of the ocean.

When they had fairly cleared the reef, they got into deep smooth water, in the channel running between the reef and the islands; but, on approaching the land, they found a very strong current, which drove them considerably to leeward. They soon found that they could not resist its impetuosity, and therefore, having brought the raft to a grapnel, all the hands got aboard the pinnace, to relieve the rowers; while Captain Wilson was returning in the jolly-boat, to assist those aboard the pinnace. The night was by this time dark, and the captain, overhearing them at a distance, hailed them. Those aboard the pinnace, overjoyed at the near prospect of relief, returned the halloo in a manner so unusual, that Captain Wilson immediately concluded they were natives. He was the readier to form this idea, as he had just learned from those on shore, that, from various circumstances, they had reason to conclude there had been natives on that spot very lately; he therefore retreated to the shore with the utmost precipitation. Fortunately, however, they were soon relieved by the arrival of the pinnace, when all the company shook hands together with great cordiality; prepared a homely supper; and, having lighted a match by the discharge of a pistol, they kindled a fire in the cove, by which they dried their clothes, and warmed themselves. The night proved very uncomfortable, as the weather was exceedingly tempestuous; while the fear of the ship going to pieces, before they could save other necessaries from the wreck, considerably heightened their distress.

Next forenoon they attempted to bring off the raft, but, as the weather proved very stormy, they were obliged to leave it, carrying with them, however, the sails and the remainder of the provisions. In the afternoon the weather was more moderate, and the boats were dispatched to the ship to bring off what they could; while those on shore were employed in brushing up the small arms.

The evening set in very squally, and as the boats did not return from the ship till about ten o'clock, those on shore began to be alarmed for their safety; nor were they much easier, when, on their return, they learned that the vessel was in such a situation as made it exceedingly probable she could not hold together till morning.

Next morning it blew exceedingly strong, so that the boats could not go off to the wreck. The men, therefore, employed themselves in drying their provisions, and forming better tents from the materials which they had brought from the ship the day before. About eight o'clock, the people being employed as above, and in clearing the ground from the wood which was behind the tents, Captain Wilson, with Thomas Rose, the linguist, being on the beach, saw two canoes, with men in them, coming round the point into the bay. This gave such alarm, that the people all ran to their arms: however, as there were but few of the natives, Captain Wilson desired them to keep out of sight, until they should perceive what reception he met with, but to be prepared for the worst. They soon perceived that the natives had seen the captain and his companion, for they conversed together, and kept their eyes stedfastly fixed on that part of the shore where the English were. The natives advanced very cautiously towards them; and, when they came near enough to be heard, Captain Wilson directed the linguist to speak to them in his own language, the Malay, which they, at first, did not seem to understand; but they stopped their canoes, and soon after one of them asked, in the Malay tongue, who the strangers were, and whether they were friends or enemies? Rose was directed to reply, that they were Englishmen, who had lost their ship on the reef, but had saved their lives, and were friends. On this they seemed to confer together for a short time, and then stepped out of the canoes into the water, and went toward the shore. Captain Wilson instantly waded into the water to meet them, and embracing them in the most friendly manner, led them to the shore, and presented them to his officers and unfortunate companions. The natives were eight in number, two of whom, it was afterwards known, were brothers to the rupack, or king, of the neighbouring islands; and one was a Malay, who had been shipwrecked

in a vessel belonging to a Chinese, resident on the island of Ternate, one of the same groupe of islands: he had been kindly treated by the king, who, he said, was a good man; and that his people also were very courteous. He told them, also, that a canoe, having been out a fishing, had seen the ship's mast; and that the king, being informed of it, sent off these two canoes, at four o'clock that morning, to see what was become of the people who had belonged to her; and they, knowing of the harbour which the Englishmen were in, had come directly thither.

Being about breakfast-time, Captain Wilson, Thomas Rose, and only a few others, breakfasted with them, to prevent suspicion; and, in the course of their short conversation, a wish was hinted to be informed by what means the Malay they had brought with them had reached their islands. The Malay, who could indistinctly speak a few sentences both in broken Dutch and English, gave some farther account of himself; but, from his future conduct and behaviour, there was great reason to suspect his veracity. It was, however, peculiarly fortunate that they found a person with whom their linguist could converse.

From this first interview, as well as what happened afterwards, it was evident that the natives had never before seen a white man, and were ignorant of the existence of any such. The natural surprise at seeing them may, therefore, be easily conceived.

The appearance of clothes was quite new to them. At first, indeed, they were at a loss to determine, whether the man and his dress were not of the same substance.

Nothing afforded them greater surprise than the sight of two dogs belonging to the ship, which immediately on their approach set up a loud bark, to the great delight of the natives, who answered them in a shout almost as violent. In these animals they took great delight, as, except a few grey rats, there are no quadrupeds on the island.

They seemed very desirous that one of the English should go with them in their canoes to their sovereign, that he might see what sort of people they were. Every one agreed that this step would be advisable; but, as difficulties arose concerning who the person should be that should venture himself, the captain requested his brother, Mr. Matthias Wilson, to undertake the office. This proposal was readily acceded to; and about noon one of the canoes left the harbour, having Mr. Wilson with them. The other canoe, with four persons, among whom was Raa Kook, the elder of the king's brothers, and who was also general of his armies, remained with the English, until the canoe returned with Mr. Wilson.

The captain directed his brother to inform the king who they were; to relate to him, as well as he could, the nature of their misfortune; and to solicit his friendship and permission to build a vessel to carry them back to their own country. He also sent a present by him of a small remnant of blue broad cloth, a canister of tea, another of sugar-candy, and a jar of rusks. The last article was added at the particular request of the king's two brothers.

During the absence of Matthias Wilson, the Europeans had an opportunity of getting more intimately acquainted with Raa Kook, whom they found a most amiable character. Observing a piece of polished bone around his wrist, they took occasion to enquire into the meaning of it. He informed them, it was a mark of great distinction, conferred only on the blood royal and principal officers of state; and that he enjoyed it as being the king's brother, and commander in chief of the forces both by sea and land. Raa Kook's friendship was cultivated with all imaginable assiduity; and he, in return, shewed himself attached to them by a most attentive politeness: he imitated them in all their actions, and on every occasion evinced how high an opinion he had formed of them. The Malay, on his first arrival, had requested to be indulged with a jacket and trowsers, which were readily granted; and an uniform-coat, with trowsers, were at the same time given to Raa Kook, who put them on, but was soon wearied of them, as he found them cumbersome.

In the morning of the fourteenth, two canoes arrived, in which were Arra Kooker, the king's other brother, and one of the king's sons. They informed Captain Wilson, that his brother was on his way back; but that the canoe in which he was could not make so much speed against the wind as theirs, which occasioned the delay. The king, by their means, offered the strangers a hearty welcome to his territories, and assured them of his friendship and protection; he also gave them free permission to build a vessel, in any part of the island which they might think proper, and assured them, that he and his subjects would afford them every assistance in their power. Raa Kook then took his nephew, and introduced him particularly to the captain and his officers, and conducted him round the cove, explained every thing agreeable to the information he himself had just received, and seemed much pleased with his friend's astonishment. This young man was very well made, but had a slit in his nose, probably the consequence of a wound in battle, or a scrophulous taint, which was common among the natives.

In the forenoon two boats were dispatched to the wreck. They found a number of the natives, in about twenty canoes, busied in examining the vessel: these Raa Kook soon dispatched, and on this, as well as on every occasion, did every thing in his power to convince the English of his friendship and protection.

Meanwhile the Europeans were highly entertained with Arra Kooker, who proved to be a most facetious entertain-

ing man, possessing uncommon talents for mimickry and humour. He described, by many diverting signs, the terror of Matthias Wilson, while at Pelew; who, it seems, had been under very great apprehension. But they were all revived with his appearance, and the account he gave them of his embassy, to the following effect:—

"On the approach of the canoe in which I went to the island where the king lives, a vast concourse of the natives ran out of their houses to see me come on shore. The king's brother took me by the hand, and led me up to the town, where a mat was spread for me, on a square pavement, and I was directed to sit down on it. In a little time the king appeared, and, being pointed out to me by his brother, I rose, and made my obeisance after the manner of eastern nations, by lifting my hands to my head, and bending my body forward; but he did not seem to pay any attention to it. I then offered him the presents which my brother had sent by me, and he received them in a very gracious manner. His brother now talked a great deal to him, the purport of which, as I conceived, was to acquaint him with our disaster, and the number of us; after which the king ate some of the sugar-candy, seemed to relish it, and distributed a little of it to several of his chiefs; and then directed all the things to be carried to his own house. This being done, he ordered refreshments to be brought for me.

"A great crowd of the natives had by this time surrounded me, who were curious and eager to examine my clothes and person. But, as it began to be dark, the king, his brother, myself, and several others, retired into a large house, where supper was brought in, consisting of yams, boiled whole, and others boiled and beaten together, as we sometimes do potatoes. There were, likewise, some shell-fish, but I could not determine what they were.

"I spent the next day in walking about the island, and observing its produce, which consisted chiefly of yams and cocoa-nuts; the former they cultivate with great care, in large plantations, which are all in swampy watery ground, such as the rice-fields in India. The cocoa-trees grow very near the houses, as do also the betel-nuts, which they chew as tobacco."

Matters proceeding in this favourable train, the captain suggested the propriety of staving the liquor casks on board the wreck, lest either the natives or marines, by indulging to excess, might be thrown off their guard, and give occasion to misunderstandings. This advice was instantly complied with; and nothing can give a higher idea of the regular conduct of the crew, and the affection they bore their commander, than their readiness to make so considerable a sacrifice, which they did without a murmur.

In a short time after this, the English were informed, that the king was coming; and, in less than an hour, they saw a great number of canoes turning the point which formed the harbour. But the king stopped as soon as he got within the bay, and directed one squadron of the canoes, which were all armed, to retire to the back of the island; thinking, probably, that so great a number of armed people would create an alarm among the strangers. He then advanced with the rest in great form, and with much parade, as far as the tide would permit; and it was signified to Captain Wilson, by the king's brothers, that he should then go and meet him.

Accordingly, two of his own people took him on their shoulders, and carried him through the water to the king's canoe, which he was requested to enter; and he and the king, whose name was Abba Thulle, embraced each other with the utmost cordiality of friendship.

The captain then related the nature of their misfortune, by means of the two Malays, and repeated his request to be permitted to build a vessel to carry them home; and the king again, in a very courteous manner, gave his assent to the request to build it, either where they were, or at the island where he resided, but recommended the latter; adding, that the island on which they had landed was unhealthy, which was the reason it was not inhabited; and that he apprehended they would be ill, when another wind began to blow, which he said would be in two moons. The captain informed him, that they had a person with them, whose business it was to cure diseases; and that it would be very inconvenient to them, if they removed farther from the wreck of their vessel, because they could not then procure from her such things as they might want, without much trouble and loss of time. To these reasons the king assented; and, making signs that he wished to land, the captain was carried on shore by his people, and Abba Thulle, stepping into the water, followed him.

On his landing, he looked about him with a good deal of apparent suspicion, which, however, was soon removed. Raa Kook made up to him, and a sail being spread for him, according to the custom of the country, the chiefs of his company sat down, forming a square; and his other attendants, to the amount of about three hundred, enclosed them in a circle, squatting down, at the same time, in such a position, as that they could rise in an instant. Captain Wilson offered the king some tea, which he did not seem to relish, and then made him a present of a piece of cloth and some ribbons, which pleased him very much. He carried a hatchet of iron on his shoulder, which was so adapted to it, that it appeared to give him no inconvenience.

Abba Thulle was introduced by Captain Wilson to the officers and all his men; and upon being told that Mr. Benger, the chief mate, was second in command, he called him the kickaray rupack, supposing Captain Wilson to be the king of some country; but, when he was

made to understand that he belonged to a mighty sovereign, and that he was only his captain, he readily got hold of the word captain, by which name he constantly saluted him afterwards, and Mr. Benger he called kickaray captain, as second in command.

The king then enquired for Captain Wilson's badge of supremacy, which put him to a stand. Luckily, however, Mr. Benger slipped his ring into his hand, which being produced, and the manner of wearing it shown, pleased Abba Thulle not a little, as it carried some affinity to their own mark of dignity.

Raa Kook having examined every thing belonging to the English very minutely, took much pains in pointing them out to the king; they went through the tents, in which every thing surprised them; nor did the difference between the Chinese and English escape their observation. Raa Kook, at the same time, gave his brother to understand, that there were many different nations and classes of mankind on the earth, who were frequently at war with one another, as he often was with his neighbouring islanders.

But nothing seemed to strike Abba Thulle with more astonishment than the fire-arms, with which Raa Kook endeavoured to make him acquainted. He expressed much anxiety to see them used, which Captain Wilson ordered immediately to be done. He desired Mr. Benger to cause the sailors to go through their exercise, drawn up on the sea-beach, being then low water, while he explained their motions to the king. The men went through various evolutions, with great readiness, marching backwards and forwards, and concluded with three vollies, in different positions.

The astonishment of the natives on hearing the report of the muskets is not easily conceived; indeed, their hooting and hallooing produced a noise little inferior to it. Captain Wilson judged it expedient to be guilty of a little profusion of his powder on this occasion, in order to impress the minds of the natives with a more enlarged idea of the power of the English; a design which was fully answered by it. But, still farther to shew them the effects of their fire-arms, Mr. Benger ordered one of the live doves which they had to be let loose, at which he fired, and immediately brought it down, with a leg and a wing broken. This surpassed every thing, in their estimation; indeed, they now seemed to be completely absorbed in wonder and amazement.

Raa Kook was, by this time, pretty well acquainted with such articles as the English had about them, which he took great pains in pointing out to the king, his brother: that which seemed principally to attract their notice was a grindstone, which they turned round with great satisfaction, observing the effect it had upon pieces of iron; they also examined the tents and the culinary utensils. But the dogs were the greatest fund of entertainment to them, with whose barking they were so much delighted, that they kept a continual uproar with them, and it was found necessary to confine them. The king examined the English as to provisions, and was presented with a piece of ham and a live goose, which had been saved.

Abba Thulle was highly gratified with what he had seen, and proposed going away. This was notified to his attendants by a loud shriek from one of his officers, which gave not a little alarm to the English. It was instantaneously obeyed. They all rushed to their canoes with great alacrity, and the king, with the greater part of the natives, took leave of them.

Raa Kook remained with the English all night, as did the king's son and a few of their attendants. Captain Wilson ordered two tents to be pitched, one for the principal people, and the other for the commonalty. He continued himself with Raa Kook and his party, after the guard was set for some hours. The natives in the distant tent, anxious to pay all attention to their visitors, prepared to sing a song, according to their country mode.

Their method of tuning their voices for this purpose was attended with sounds so very harsh and dissonant, that the English thought they were beginning their war-hoop, or giving a signal to the king and those with him to attack them. Impressed with this idea, every man seized his musket, and ran to the tent where Captain Wilson was, supposing him to be in the most imminent danger. But they were soon agreeably undeceived, and attended to the song, which was conducted in the following manner:—A chief gave out the line, which a company next him took up, and completed the verse. The last line they repeated; and it was taken up by the next party, who also sung a verse. They continued their song some time, and made signs for our people to repay them in kind, which was done by a lad, named Cobbledick, to their great satisfaction. The manner of this lad's singing was afterwards mentioned to the king, who, upon hearing him, was so much pleased, that he never met with him afterwards without desiring him to sing, which, of course, was complied with.

We come now to mention a circumstance which presents these natives of Pelew in a light that could not have been preconceived; a circumstance which discovers such nice feelings, as, on the one hand, displays human nature in a very pleasing attire, in her native dress; while, on the other, it may put to the blush many individuals possessing the blessings of Christian light and civilization. The English had no other means for again revisiting their native homes, but by constructing a small schooner; and, for this purpose, had only a few instruments saved from the wreck. These they carefully concealed from the natives, who had shown a particular attachment to iron, and instruments made of

that metal. Accidently a chief had observed where they were, and requested a cutlass from Captain Wilson. The captain was loth to part with it, but, fearing worse consequences in case he refused, thought it best to give it. As they went out of the tent, Raa Kook observed it with great displeasure, took it from him, and returned it to Captain Wilson.

In a few hours the Malay coming ashore, told the captain he had given great offence by offering a cutlass to an inferior officer, and neglecting the king and his brothers. In order to make up matters, Captain Wilson thought it best to present each of the king's brothers with some cloth and ribands, which were very coolly received—they seemed to be unhappy. In the afternoon the king came round from the back part of the island, where he had spent the night, and Captain Wilson went out in the jolly-boat, with the linguist, to meet him. Now Abba Thulle, who had been so happy and pleased the day before, appeared with a gloomy reserve, and the poor Englishmen trembled in anticipating the effects of his displeasure, which they thought he was meditating. But the real cause of the uneasiness, which evidently depressed them all, was nothing more than a struggle in their own breasts, how they should ask a favour from strangers, almost wholly in their own power, without having the appearance of a command. This marks a delicacy of mind, which ranks the natives of Pelew high in refinement.

It appeared that a neighbouring nation had injured them; and, as they meant to attack them in battle in a few days, they very justly foresaw the advantages which would arise from the presence of a few of the English sailors with fire-arms. At length, with much evident confusion, Abba Thulle hinted it to Captain Wilson, who immediately assured him, he might at any time command his men, who were entirely at his service. No sooner was this answer notified by the interpreter, than every countenance brightened up, and cordiality and happiness were restored. The king immediately dubbed the captain a brother rupack, intreated him to send some of his people to the part of the island where he lived, to carry him whatever provisions they needed, and concluded with assuring him, that the natives were entirely at his service, to assist in constructing his vessel, or any thing else in their power.

He immediately retired to the opposite side of the island, promising to return next morning for the men. Nor was the happy settlement of this affair less agreeable to the English than the natives. The fear of having incurred the displeasure of those, whose favour was so necessary, had distressed them not a little; and each strove to evince his zeal by wishing to be selected for the expedition proposed. At length, five young men were chosen and properly equipped. They were headed by Mr. Cummin, the third mate.

Meanwhile every preparation was made to build a schooner, in wh' .. they might return to China; and the alacrity every person showed to lend his assistance in this important business, was an earnest of their future success. Many necessaries were recovered from the wreck, and trees were felled to supply the rest.

On the 25th, the five English warriors returned in safety, after acquitting themselves to the satisfaction of the king, and putting his enemies to flight, by the effect and terror of their fire-arms. For this important service the island of Oroolong, where they then resided, was given to the English by Abba Thulle.

On the 31st of August, Captain Wilson paid a visit to Pelew. Mr. Devis, Mr. Sharp, and Henry Wilson, accompanied the captain on this visit. The English went in their jolly-boat, attended by Raa Kook, and other natives, in a canoe.

About one o'clock they reached Pelew, fired six muskets, and fixed their colours at the end of the causeway where they landed. Raa Kook conducted them to a house, where they waited the arrival of Abba Thulle. Meantime the natives thronged into the house, to have a view of the English, bringing along with them various refreshments and sweetmeats. In a little time the king's arrival was announced, when, notwithstanding the multitude then present, the greatest silence prevailed. Captain Wilson embraced the monarch, as at first meeting, and presented him with a few trinkets, which were very graciously received.

Abba Thulle now proposed to conduct them to the town, which is about a quarter of a mile from the landing-place where they were. The English, in order to assume some little formality, carried their colours before them. They passed through a wood, and then came to a fine pavement, or causeway. There are large broad stones laid in the middle, for the ease of walking, and lesser ones on the sides. This led them to the town, where they were conducted to a large square pavement, surrounded by houses. In the centre stood a larger house than the rest, which was allotted to the English for their accommodation. In it there was a number of women, of superior rank, being wives to the rupacks, or principal officers of state, who received them very politely, and presented them with cocoa-nuts and sweet drink, of which all partook.

In a little time, the king, after a suitable apology to Captain Wilson, retired to bathe; and a message was sent from the queen, expressing a wish to be favoured with their company at her house. Thither they all repaired, and were seated in a little square before the house. It appeared that this lady was the principal wife of Abba Thulle, and great attention was paid to her by all. The king resided almost constantly at her house. She appeared at the window, and, by means of Raa Kook, examined

into the various peculiarities in the appearance of the English, which struck her. She sent them a broiled pigeon, which is the greatest rarity the island produces, and is held in such particular estimation, that it is unlawful for any but rupacks and their wives to taste it.

After satisfying her curiosity, they were conducted by the general to his house, where they met with a most gracious reception, and had an opportunity of observing the benevolent heart of this worthy man in domestic life. In his house they were treated with the greatest kindness, and with the most expressive tokens of real welcome; but what particularly gratified them on this occasion, was the endearing behaviour of Raa Kook to his wife and children. These last he fondled on his knees, and caressed with all the genuine marks of parental affection. The night being now pretty far advanced, they retired to their house, where no pains had been spared to render their accommodation comfortable. Their kind friend, the general, procured plenty of mats for them to sleep on, kindled fires to defend them from the mosquetoes and damps, and ordered some of his own men to sleep at the other end, to protect them from any of the natives, who might be led to disturb them from motives of curiosity. Next morning they were attended, as usual, by Raa Kook, and, after walking about for some time, were ordered to attend the king to breakfast, in the queen's house, where they had been the day before.

They were received with a peculiar etiquette, which was never afterwards practised. The house was all in one apartment; at one end of which hung a screen of mats, which, when drawn up, discovered the king and queen seated. They breakfasted on yams and fish, very agreeably. After breakfast, Mr. Sharp, the surgeon, accompanied by Mr. Devis, set out to visit a child of Arra Kook's, which was sick. His house was about three miles distant. This gave them an opportunity of examining the country, which they had not before done. This visit was very acceptable, and the rupack thought he could not sufficiently repay them. Mr. Sharp examined the child's body, which was almost entirely covered with ulcers, but could not prescribe any thing, having no medicines. He approved of the mode of cure they had adopted, which was chiefly fomentation. Arra Kook then loaded several servants with provisions, &c. in baskets, to be sent to the boats, and assured them, when they left the island, they should have his whole roost of tame pigeons. This was the greatest compliment he could possibly offer them; and sufficiently shows the uncommon gratitude with which his bosom was warmed. Indeed, our readers, on many occasions, must have anticipated the remark, that the finer feelings and virtues which adorn humanity, shone in these natives in no common degree. They returned to Captain Wilson, at Pelew, the same evening.

The request which had been previously hinted by the king, was now formally made to Captain Wilson, by desire of a council of rupacks, that he would allow them ten men to accompany them to a second engagement at Artingall; which was readily complied with. Captain Wilson mentioned, at the same time, that it would be obliging were the men detained as short time as possible, not to hinder the progress of their schooner. To this Abba Thulle replied, "That it was not his wish to detain them longer than was absolutely necessary, but, after doing him so much service, he must at least keep them a day or two, to rejoice with him." The council had met in the forenoon on this business. Every rupack, or chief, was seated on a stone, that for the king being higher than the rest, and disputed from side to side as it happened, without any regular order of speakers. It appeared that every thing was decided by a majority, so that their government bears no small affinity to our own.

The remainder of the time the English spent at Pelew was very agreeably employed. One day, when in company with a great number of the natives, Mr. Devis, who was an excellent draughtsman, took out his pencil, and was busily employed in taking the likeness of a woman, who had attracted his attention. The lady no sooner observed him, than she retired in great confusion; but, on the drawing being shown to the king, he immediately ordered two women to come forward, and stand in a proper position for Mr. Devis to take their likeness. The sketches were soon finished, and presented to the king, who was highly entertained, and, calling the women, showed them their portraits, with which they were much pleased. Abba Thulle desired the artist to give him his pencil and paper, on which he scratched a few figures, very rudely, but sufficiently to show his conception of what had been done: so that, while he thus displayed his own inferiority to the artist, he, at the same time, gave evident proofs of the sense he had of it, and his wish to possess those qualifications, with which he was so highly delighted.

Captain Wilson and his companions were carried to see their method of building canoes, and observed some which were just returned from a skirmish, in which they had proved victorious. They had captured a canoe, which was considered as great a trophy as a first-rate man of war would be in Britain. On this occasion the English had an opportunity of observing their method of celebrating such exploits, or keeping a day of festivity. There was a great feast prepared for the warriors, previous to which they danced, in the following manner:—they ornamented themselves with plantain-leaves, nicely pared into stripes, which, being of a yellowish colour, had a good effect on their dark skins; then, forming themselves into circles, one within another, an elderly person began a song, or long sentence, and, on his coming to the end of it, all the

dancers joined in concert, dancing along at the same time; then a new sentence was pronounced and danced to, which continued till every one had sung, and his verse had been danced to.

Their manner of dancing does not consist so much in capering, leaping, or other feats of agility, as a certain method of reclining their bodies, and yet preserving their balance. During the dance, a pleasant beverage was handed about, and, when it was finished, an elegant supper was brought in.

Mr. Sharp carried Captain Wilson, one afternoon, to see his favourite, Arra Kook, who received them with great joy, and entertained them very kindly. They went through several plantations on their way, and were much surprised to find the country so highly cultivated. They observed a tree, named, by the natives, *ri'a'mall*, which the English supposed to be a species of the bread-fruit. After enjoying plentifully this good man's bounty, they returned to Pelew, highly delighted with their agreeable excursion. In the course of such observations as they had an opportunity of making, they found the employments of the men generally to be making darts, hewing trees, and building canoes; while the women looked after the yams, wrought the mats and baskets, nursed their children, and dressed the victuals.

On Thursday, the 4th of September, they left Pelew, loaded with presents, and amidst the loud acclamations of a vast number of the natives. They arrived safely at the cove, about nine in the evening, and found all their companions in good health, and proceeding in their work with the utmost alacrity. The captain immediately informed them of the request the natives had made for ten men, and every one was again anxious to be of the party. At length they were determined upon, and ordered to be in readiness on a call from the king.

Soon after, his majesty paid them another visit at Oroolong, and, after inspecting the progress they made in their vessel, he returned with the desired reinforcement of ten Englishmen.

As the king had, some days before, sent information to Artingall of his proposed attack, which is customary here, and, at the same time, terms of peace, he now ordered a canoe, with four men in it, to proceed to the island, and enquire whether they were to submit or to fight.

The messengers soon returned, informing him that they refused the offered terms. Immediately Abba Thulle ordered the conch to be sounded, and waved his stick in the air, the signal for forming the line of battle. Meantime the enemy collected their canoes, but kept close by the shore, showing an evident disinclination to come to battle.

Abba Thulle had dressed himself in the scarlet coat which Captain Wilson had given him, and kept one of the Englishmen in his canoe. The other nine were dispersed through the fleet, in nine different canoes, armed with muskets, cutlasses, bayonets, and pistols.

As the enemy appeared unwilling to advance, and their present situation was very unfavourable for the attack, the king ordered a party of canoes to go round a neck of high land, and lie there concealed. He then ordered the remainder to exchange a few darts in their present position, and retreat with apparent precipitancy; by these means he expected to draw the enemy from their shores, and the concealed squadron could then get betwixt them and the land, and thus hem them in on all sides.

This stratagem took the effect as he wished. The enemy rushed out to pursue the apparent fugitives, and the canoes coming round the high land, surrounded them on all sides. The mistake, however, was soon discovered, for those who fled now turned about, and, by means of the fire-arms, threw the enemy into the utmost confusion. The noise of the muskets, their friends dropping they knew not how, and the triumphant shout which the natives of Pelew set up, totally discomfited them. They retreated with precipitation, rushed through the canoes that were betwixt them and the land, as there were but few of them, and by that means all escaped but six canoes, and nine natives, who were captured. The victory, however, was considered as very complete.

It is very seldom that any canoes are taken, and two or three prisoners are generally the greatest number. The dead bodies are carefully carried off the field of battle, lest they should fall into the hands of the conquerors to expose them. It is with pain we add, that the prisoners are invariably murdered. This is the only trait of inhumanity that disgraces a people otherwise remarkable for their mildness.

A little before this engagement, Mr. Sharp was requested by Raa Kook to go along with him to Pelew, to inspect his son's foot, which was very dangerously hurt by a spear, which, having sunk deep into the flesh, was broke off in attempting to pull it out; and the barb of the spear, having got in among the small bones, could not be extracted. Meantime, his foot swelled amazingly, to the great distress of the young man. One of the natives, reputed among them as a man of skill, began to cut away the flesh. But, after mangling his foot in a terrible manner, he was obliged to desist, as the effusion of blood became so great, that he could not continue the operation. They had recourse, therefore, to their fomentation, of which Mr. Sharp much approved, and desired it to be continued till he saw him, which he could not propose at that time, three of the ablest men being sick.

Mr. Sharp's account of his excursion to see this young man, some time after, is as follows:

Immediately on his landing, he went to his father's house, who met him with visible distress in his countenance. Mr. Sharp acquainted him, that he was come to see his son, and had brought such instruments with him as would enable him, he hoped, to administer relief. He smiled approbation, and conducted him to his house, where Abba Thulle and several of the principal people were assembled. After paying his respects to them, Mr. Sharp was informed, that during Raa Kook's stay at Oroolong, the swelling had subsided, by means of the fomentation, and they had forced the spear through his foot, as the only method of extracting it. At this time the whole army was setting out on a third expedition, which the young man hearing, could not bear the thoughts of being absent from. He, therefore, insisted upon being carried to his canoe, where, though he could not stand on his feet to fight, he could raise himself sufficiently to throw a spear. He, therefore, went along, and very early in the engagement fell a sacrifice to his magnanimity, a spear, entering through his throat, occasioned his immediate death. It is impossible to pass over in silence the unhappy fate of this gallant youth. A spirit more truly heroic, history has not left on record; nor need we hesitate to say, that there was more real valour displayed in this action, which accident only has brought on record, than in many feats which have attracted the admiration of ages. Success again crowned the natives of Pelew, by the assistance of the English, though the enemy behaved with great resolution.

Soon after, Raa Kook desired Mr. Sharp and the boatswain to accompany him to the water-side, where two canoes were waiting, into which they went, accompanied by about twenty rupacks, whom they had not formerly seen, as they belonged to another island, though friendly to Abba Thulle. Mr. Sharp knew not whither they were going, but suffered himself to be conducted by his friend. They landed upon an island about four miles distant from Pelew, and proceeded to a small uninhabited village, where there were four or five houses, surrounded by a neat pavement.

After resting about an hour here, they set forward to a town about half a mile distant, where a great many people of both sexes were assembled, and an entertainment prepared. Immediately after this the women retired; and, soon after, their attention was drawn to the sound of distress at a little distance; the voices appeared to be principally those of women. Raa Kook immediately led Mr. Sharp from the company to the place whence the noise proceeded. They found a great multitude of women attending a dead corpse, which was neatly wrapped in a mat, and supported by four men. They kept up a constant lamentation, and were just about to lay it down, when the strangers joined them. The body was immediately deposited in the grave, without any ceremony, while the men who had borne it on their shoulders proceeded to cover it quickly with the dust. The women then kneeled down, and their cries became so much louder, that they appeared anxious to tear up the body again, which had been just interred.

A heavy shower of rain obliged Mr. Sharp to leave this interesting scene, to seek shelter; but he never could learn the cause of Raa Kook's behaviour on this occasion; as, notwithstanding the uncommon regard he had for his late son, whose body they were convinced it was, he preserved the most profound silence on the subject; nor did he appear particularly interested. The most probable conjecture they could form was, that he considered it below that dignity of mind, which he on all occasions wished to support, to appear concerned on an occasion which generally produces those feelings that betray what the Pelewites consider as human weakness.

As the night proved very stormy, they could not return to Pelew, but spent the evening with Raa Kook. In the morning, Raa Kook carried Mr. Sharp and the boatswain to a little hut, contiguous to the place where his son had been buried. Here they found only an old woman, to whom the general spoke for some time. She then went out, but soon returned, bringing with her two old cocoa-nuts, some red ochre, and a bundle of betel-nut, with the leaves. He took the cocoa-nuts, and crossed them with the ochre, placing them one on each side by him; after which he seemed to offer up a prayer. He then crossed the betel-nut in the same manner, and sat musing over it a little, when he gave them to the woman, who carried them out, as Mr. Sharp supposed, to the grave; he wished to follow her; but as Raa Kook appeared under great agitation, and not inclined to rise, he did not leave him, nor make any enquiries.

Mr. Sharp entertained his friends with the inspection of his watch and surgical instruments, with which they were greatly pleased, as well as with the description he gave them of the mode of performing various operations.

Meanwhile their countrymen, whom they had left at Pelew, were in great distress about their absence. They had been witnesses to the funeral of another young man, who had been slain in the same battle. As they were accidentally straggling through the fields, about two miles from Pelew, they observed a great number of the natives going towards a village, with Abba Thulle at their head. They came to a large pavement, where the king was seated, and a great concourse of people surrounded him. Those who bore the corpse moved slowly on before the king, who addressed them in a speech, probably recapitulating the qualifications of the deceased.

His oration was delivered with great solemnity; and the respectful silence of all the auditors added a considerable

degree of affecting grandeur to the scene. The body was then carried to the grave, attended by women only, and thither Mr. Matthias Wilson followed. He observed an aged woman getting out of the new-made grave, whom he supposed to be the mother, or some near relation of the deceased, who had been examining if every thing was properly prepared to her mind.

The last offices they always commit to the women; as the men who are nearly interested, or relations, might be led to discover some exterior marks of grief, which they consider as derogatory to the dignity of manhood. Immediately on the body being deposited in the grave, the women set up loud lamentations, as in the case of Raa Kook's son, and Mr. Wilson left them.

The graves were formed in the same manner as in Europe; and some had a flat stone laid horizontally on the grave, to prevent any person from trampling upon it. It appears, also, that they have particular spots of ground set apart for the purpose of burying their dead.

As it would exceed our limits to relate all the various turns which took place during the contests between the natives of Pelew and those of Artingall, we shall merely observe on this head, that Captain Wilson lent every aid to his friends, and obtained and deserved their esteem. Soon after his return to Oroolong, he found that the cook had misbehaved exceedingly, appropriating a great part of the small portion of meat they were allowed to himself and his assistant. And as it was requisite, in their present situation, that the strictest discipline should be exercised, Captain Wilson, by a court martial, ordered him a punishment called *cobbing*, which is inflicted by a thin flat piece of wood, something like a battledore.

The tenderness of Raa Kook's disposition, who was present, appeared eminently on this occasion. When he saw the man stripped to the waist, and his hands tied against a tree, to keep them extended, he intreated Captain Wilson to pardon him; but, when he saw the punishment inflicted, and the man bearing it patiently, he was reconciled, standing by and encouraging him all the time.

A Chinese was also punished in the same manner, for wounding one of his countrymen with a stone. But he set up such a hideous cry, that Raa Kook was greatly entertained with his cowardice, or rather despised him for his want of fortitude.

On the 17th of October, Abba Thulle arrived with the agreeable news, that the chief minister of Artingall had been at Pelew, with overtures of peace, which had been accepted, to the great joy of Raa Kook and the other natives. Abba Thulle brought his youngest daughter with him, named Erre Bess, of whom he appeared exceedingly fond. He conducted her through all the cove, and explained the use of every thing, with much attention. He also brought with him, on this visit, Ludee one of his wives, a very beautiful woman, young, and greatly superior to any the Europeans had hitherto seen. She had with her eight or ten females, who were all escorted by Raa Kook, and were shown the forge, vessel, guns, tents, and other curiosities, with which they were greatly surprised. The king had also brought some of his artificers or tackle-boys, as he called them, to observe the progress of the vessel, and the manner of working. He seemed peculiarly anxious that they should pay attention to the schooner, which all ranks agreed in considering as the *ne plus ultra* of human mechanism.

After their curiosity had been fully satisfied, the captain prepared an entertainment for them in the tent, consisting principally of fish, and boiled rice, sweetened with molasses, of which they appeared very fond.

A good deal of conversation took place on this visit, between the king and Captain Wilson, on various subjects. Abba Thulle acknowledged that the English muskets had now procured him peace with almost all his neighbours; and at the same time requested, that the captain would leave ten muskets with him, when he left the island. The captain replied, that he could not oblige him in this respect, as Britain was at present engaged in war with several different nations, with whose vessels they might fall in on their return homeward, and so require defensive weapons; but he promised him five, which greatly pleased him.

Abba Thulle then enquired what quantity of powder they had; but, observing that Captain Wilson was not disposed to answer him readily, he very politely changed the subject.

The captain then desired he would assure his neighbouring islanders, that the English, deeply sensible of the kind usage they had received from the inhabitants of Pelew, were determined to return very soon, in a much larger ship, and with a greater number of men, and fully avenge any insult that might be offered, either by the people of Artingall or any other island.

Abba Thulle then informed him, that he had come, at this time, to get the guns from the wreck, which should either be placed at Oroolong or Pelew, as the English pleased. Captain Wilson, having previously consulted his officers, desired him to take them all to Pelew, except one, which they might, perhaps, need in the schooner. Accordingly, next day, the king ordered some of his people to go to the wreck, in order to remove them. Having no tackle, they found it a very difficult job, and were forced to send for assistance from their friends. The Englishmen speedily lodged them in the canoes, to the surprise of the natives, who could not conceive it possible to handle these heavy pieces with such apparent ease.

The king lodged at the back of the island, carrying with him all his attendants, tha the English might be as

little interrupted as possible. He had not been long there, when he sent for Captain Wilson, to give him ten large fish, part of a quantity his people had taken. Of these he would only receive four, which would fully serve all his people for supper; and such is the nature of the climate, that no fish will keep fresh above five or six hours. The king then ordered the remaining six to be dressed for keeping, and sent to the cove in the morning. Their method of cleaning and dressing them is as follows: the fish is first well cleaned, washed, and all the scales taken off; then two sticks are placed lengthways of the fish, in order to keep it straight, in the same manner as sticks are placed across salmon in this country, when kippering. It is then bound round with broad plantain-leaves, and smoked over a slow fire. In this state it will be eatable for at least two days, though not very pleasant to those unaccustomed to such a mode of preserving.

Next morning the king went to the wreck, and returned to the cove, and breakfasted on tea with Captain Wilson, three Artingall people being also of the party. After breakfast, the strangers were led through the works, and their surprise was nothing inferior to any that had yet been expressed. The guns particularly interested them, as the means by which so many of their countrymen had died, in a manner then incomprehensible.

In a few days they had a farther opportunity of seeing the effects of the muskets, by Mr. Benger's killing some pigeons while on the wing; they ran to the carcases, and examined them very attentively, and, upon noticing the wounds, observed, that it was with such holes as these their countrymen died. On this occasion the Pelewites seemed to exult a little over their neighbours, on the ignorance which they shewed of the use of fire-arms. The people of Artingall, however, retained no animosity on this account, but seemed perfectly happy and at ease.

The schooner being now nearly completed, a consultation was held, to fix on the safest method of launching her, which was agreed to be lay-ways. They had neither pitch nor rosin to pay her with. This want necessity taught them to supply, by burning coral-stone into lime; then, sifting it thoroughly, they mixed it up with grease, and found it an excellent succedaneum.

Some time before this, Madan Blanchard, one of the common sailors, about twenty years of age, who had accompanied the natives in their different expeditions, had expressed a desire, to some of his comrades, to be left behind. At first it was supposed he was not in earnest; but when the captain was apprised of his real inclination, he endeavoured to dissuade him from such an unaccountable step. Finding, however, that no arguments could make any impression on his mind, or shake his resolution, he determined to make a merit of necessity; and, therefore, when Abba Thulle came down to Oroolong, to attend the launching of the vessel, he signified to his majesty, that, as a return for the hospitality with which the English had been treated, they would leave him one of their comrades, who was fully qualified to manage the great guns and other things that were to be presented to him at their departure. The idea was by no means thrown away; the king was gratified beyond measure.

All the crew were extremely sorry to part with Blanchard; and they lost no opportunity to speak in his behalf to the natives. It is, indeed, very difficult to conjecture what motives could urge him to forsake that class of mankind, among whom he had hitherto lived, and be separated from them, perhaps, for ever.

What rendered his resolution the more extraordinary was, its being known that he had formed no particular attachment on the island; but man often displays singular freaks, and, perhaps, his real motives will ever remain unknown. He certainly was courageous in an eminent degree, and no quality is more valued among the natives. Unfortunately, he could neither read nor write; else, should succeeding navigators fall in with him, he might have been able to furnish memoirs, which would have interested every admirer of simple nature; and every heart of sensibility must feel an anxious desire to know the fate of a man, who made himself a voluntary recluse from the rest of the world.

As Abba Thulle, Raa Kook, and the natives in general, considered his remaining among them as a very great compliment, they were resolved to render him happy; and promised to make him a rupack; and to give him two wives, together with a house and plantations.

We come now to contemplate a scene peculiarly interesting. On the appointed day the English proceeded, at an early hour, to make ready for the launch: it need scarcely be mentioned, that uncommon pains were taken to put every thing in the most favourable train for getting the vessel afloat. About seven o'clock, the king and his attendants were desired to be present, and in a little time the schooner was safely launched, to the general joy of every spectator, and, by Abba Thulle's desire, was named the Oroolong. Never was there a more affectingly happy scene. Every eye seemed to sparkle with a lustre borrowed for the occasion. Every countenance beamed with animating joy and heart-felt satisfaction; but few among them could utter their feelings. Looks of congratulation circulated around, while every one shook his comrade's hand with warmest fervor. Home, wives, parents, children, friends—all—all seemed as within grasp. But description is unequal to this task. The behaviour of their Pelew friends, however, must not be forgotten. In their joy, which was also unbounded, real philanthropy was to be seen. They saw, by this occurrence, those friends, whom they valued, about to leave them; those friends by

whom they had been so much benefited, and from whom they had learned so much.—But they saw them happy.—They knew their whole comfort depended upon the success of this event, and, therefore, their benevolent hearts participated in the general joy.

After a very happy breakfast, they proceeded to carry every thing aboard, with all possible expedition, and in the afternoon, the flood-tide coming in, the ship was hauled into the basin, a deep place of four or five fathoms water; and, in the course of the day, they got on board all the provisions and stores, such only excepted as were to be given in presents to the king; and in the morning they took on board their anchors, cables, and other necessaries, making bits, and fitting a rail across the stern of the vessel.

The weather and wind appearing favourable, the captain informed Abba Thulle, that they purposed sailing the next day. This very much distressed him; for he had sent word to the neighbouring rupacks, that the day following that now mentioned by the captain was the day the English meant to sail; in consequence of which they were to come to Oroolong the next night, to furnish them with provisions, and bid them farewell. This information only seemed to strengthen the captain's resolution of setting sail in the forenoon, as the number of canoes to be expected would greatly incommode them. He, therefore, apologized in the best manner he could to the king, who appeared greatly disappointed. Abba Thulle then begged that the captain and officers would dine with him and his brothers on shore. With this they cheerfully complied, and, after dinner, the king signified his intention of investing the captain with the order of the BONE, and making him a rupack of the first rank. The captain expressed his acknowledgments for the intended honour, when the bone was drawn over his left hand, with great solemnity, by the chief minister and Raa Kook, on which the whole assembly testified their joy. The king then, addressing the captain, told him, "that the bone should be rubbed bright every day, and preserved as a testimony of the rank he held among them; that this mark of dignity must, on every occasion, be valiantly defended, nor suffered to be torn from his arm, but with the loss of life."

Our readers may probably smile at this simple badge of dignity; but they may at the same time recollect, that the object and the end are every where the same; and that a star on the breast, or a bone on the arm, in themselves are equally insignificant. All public honours hold out a prize to merit, and in this light only should they be regarded.

As a farther proof of Abba Thulle's confidence, he proposed entrusting Captain Wilson with the care of his second son, Prince Lee Boo, whose affecting story will soon be recorded. The king's object in this was to improve the young man in the knowledge which he saw the English possess in an eminent degree, and to render him useful to his native country in future. Raa Kook also solicited permission to accompany them; but this request was refused from motives of policy.

Arra Kook, who, from the first, seemed to have set his heart on the Newfoundland dog, so warmly importuned the captain for his favourite, that it was impossible to resist his solicitations. But the general's intention was far otherwise employed. He was already building a ship in imagination; and, to realize his design, wished them to leave their launching-ways, saying he would go to work in the same place.

The king had laughed at the insignificance of Arra Kook's request of the dog; but the subject of shipbuilding caught his most serious attention. It was of national importance, and of course demanded the patronage of a good prince.

In the midst of their discourse, a battle on board the ship, between two sailors, called for the presence of the captain. The damage proved no greater than a bloody nose, which being settled, Mr. Wilson again returned. When the circumstance was explained to the king, he observed that there were, no doubt, bad men in all countries.

Permission was now obtained to hoist an English pendant on a tree near the cove, with the following inscription, on copper, to be placed on another tree adjacent:

THE HONOURABLE
ENGLISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY'S SHIP,
THE ANTELOPE,
HENRY WILSON, COMMANDER,
WAS LOST UPON THE REEF NORTH OF
THIS ISLAND,
IN THE NIGHT
BETWEEN THE 9TH AND 10TH OF AUGUST;
WHO HERE BUILT A VESSEL,
AND SAILED FROM HENCE
THE 12TH OF NOVEMBER, 1783.

Captain Wilson explained the purport of this inscription to Abba Thulle, who was greatly pleased with it; and, having explained it to his people, he assured the English, that it should carefully be preserved in remembrance of their visit.

The conversation this day was principally confined to the approaching separation. "When you are gone," said the king, "I much dread that the Artingalls will redouble their attempts against me; and, deprived of your aid, I shall probably feel the effects of that animosity they have always had against my people, and, having no more the

English to support me, I shall not be a match for them, unless you leave the few muskets you promised me.

The captain was willing to comply with this request immediately; but most of the officers, who still had apprehensions, were extremely loth to give up the arms till the last moment. That unlucky suspicion of being detained, which had so ungenerously taken possession of them, had been so rivetted in their minds, that it was not easily dislodged It is necessary, however, not to condemn our countrymen too hastily. They had been accustomed to see roguery so generally and so scientifically practised, that distrust and suspicion are naturally instilled among the first principles of education; and it was not easy for them to conceive that the same species should be so very different, even at opposite quarters of the globe; but here they saw the open undisguised actions of nature, knowing no deceit, and dreading none.

Abba Thulle was too quick-sighted not to observe their distrust; and it is not easy to express the agitation which laboured in his breast, on finding that doubts were harboured of his sincerity. "Why," said he, "should you distrust me? I never refused you my confidence. If my intentions had been hostile, you would have known it long ago, being entirely in my power. But, on the contrary, you have had my utmost assistance; and yet, at the very last, you suspect me of bad designs!"

The earnestness of his manner spoke his feelings more than his words; nor can we doubt that a little recollection brought the blush into the countenances of those whom he addressed. The man who had uniformly behaved with such disinterested unsuspecting benevolence—the man who had freely committed his own son to their care, to be doubted within a few hours of their parting, was a stab, which the sensibility of Abba Thulle could not support. The severity and truth of his reproach, and the noble dignity with which he supported himself, brought the daring thought, which some had entertained, of murdering him and his brothers, to view, and gave a most captivating picture of the mild, yet forcible, triumph of virtue. They found themselves guilty, and saw evidently, that virtue will flourish in whatever soil she is implanted. Without farther hesitation, they sent on board for all the arms that could be spared; and, on the boats' return, presented him with five muskets, five cutlasses, more than half a barrel of gunpowder, and flint and ball in proportion. Once more harmony was restored, and the generous Abba Thulle forgot, or seemed to forget, their unjust suspicions.

The king's second son, Lee Boo, arrived in the evening, under the care of his elder brother, and was presented by Abba Thulle to the captain and the officers. He advanced in so easy and polite a manner, having much good humour and forcible expression in his aspect, that every one was immediately prepossessed in his favour. As it was now growing dark, the officers went on board, leaving the captain behind, at the king's request. Next day Mr. Wilson informed them, that neither he, the king, nor the rupacks, enjoyed much rest, the affectionate father employing the moments in giving advice to his son, and in recommending him to the care of the captain; not, however, from the smallest fear that he would be ill-treated: "I would wish you," said he, "to shew my son every thing that is useful, and make him an Englishman. The fine things he will see may probably induce him to slip away from you in search of less confined gratifications; but I beg that you will contrive to calm and subdue the rashness and impetuosity of his youth. I well know, from the different countries he must pass through, that he will be liable to dangers, and even to diseases, that we never heard of, which may kill him; but I also know that death is the common lot; and whether he dies with you, or at Pelew, is of no moment. I know you are a man of humanity, and am, therefore, confident, that if my son be sick, you will look on him with kindness. But should that happen, which your utmost care cannot prevent, let it not deter you or your brother, or any of your countrymen, from returning, for I shall rejoice at the sight."

The captain assured the king, that he might rest satisfied of the care and affection with which his son would be treated. Before Mr. Wilson came on board, he admonished Blanchard (the man who had resolved to renounce his country) as to his conduct among the natives. He desired him to be watchful of the arms and ammunition that would be left behind, that they might defend themselves from their enemies. He begged him not to go naked, like the natives, as it might lessen his importance with them as an Englishman, and countenance an evident indecency; and that he might have no excuse from the want of clothes, all that could be spared was left him, in order that, if he accepted the king's offer of wives, he might be enabled to dress them somewhat after his own custom. The captain did not forget to enforce on him the absolute necessity of continuing his religious duties, and to be particular in keeping the christian sabbath. After this, he was requested to ask any favour that might tend to his future comfort; on which he begged to have one of the ship's compasses, and the masts, sails, and oars, belonging to the pinnace, which also was intended to be left behind.

Early on Wednesday morning, an English jack was hoisted at the mast-head of the Oroolong, and a swivel fired, as a signal for sailing; which being explained to the king, he ordered all the provisions on board which he had brought for the voyage. A great number of canoes surrounded the vessel, loaded with presents, so that it was with difficulty they could avoid being overstocked. When just ready for sea, a boat was sent on shore for the cap-

tain, who then took Blanchard and the men of the boat into a temporary hut that had been erected, and, making them kneel, offered up thanksgivings to that Divine Being who had supported their fainting spirits through so many hazards and toils, and at last opened to them the door of deliverance. He repeated his advice to Blanchard, earnestly begging him not to forget his religion.

About eight o'clock the captain went on board, attended by Abba Thulle, Lee Boo, the rupacks, and Blanchard. It being doubtful, as the vessel was heavily laden with provision, whether she would be able to get over the reef, it was resolved to land the two six-pounders, and leave the jolly-boat behind, as they had nothing wherewith to repair her, and she was almost worn out. In her room Abba Thulle was at great pains to procure them a proper canoe.

Captain Wilson had recommended Mr. Sharp, the surgeon, to Lee Boo, as his *sucalic*, or friend, and the young man stuck by him with the greatest attention, attending him to wh- ver part of the vessel he moved, as his mentor on all occasions. Blanchard now got into his pinnace, in order to take the vessel in tow, and parted from his old ship-mates with as much composure as if conscious that they should meet again after a short absence. He shook hands with them with the same indifference as if they were to sail down the Thames on a coasting voyage —a striking contrast to what followed!

The vessel now proceeded towards the reef, laden with Abba Thulle's bounty, to a degree of superfluity, and surrounded by great numbers of the natives in their canoes, who had every man brought his present for their good friends the *Englees*. What a luxurious sight to a feeling heart!—There was no room for them, yet every one exclaimed, "Only this from me, only this from me;" and, if refused, they repeated their requests with supplicating countenances and tears in their eyes. Indeed, their generosity and affection were so urgent, that a few trifles from the nearest of them were accepted; while the others, unable to bear the seeming neglect, paddled a-head, and put their little presents into the pinnace.

Several canoes went before the vessel to point out the safest track; and others were waiting at the reef to shew them the deepest water; from all these precautions, which were directed by the king, the reef was fortunately cleared without any accident.

The king now came along-side, and gave Lee Boo his fervent blessing, which the youth received with great respect and tenderness. He next embraced the captain, in much apparent distress, and then cordially shook hands with all the officers, crying "You are happy because you are going home, and I am happy because you are so, but still very unhappy at your going away." Once more renewing his assurances of regard and good-will, he left the vessel, and went into his canoe. The natives, who were to return with the king, looked up to the vessel eagerly, with the most expressive countenances, and half dissolved in tears. This proof of delicate sensibility, and of unfeigned affection, operated so strongly on the feelings of all aboard, that it was with much difficulty they summoned resolution enough to give three cheers at their final departure.

Raa Kook remained, with a few of his attendants, to see them out of danger beyond the reef; but he was so deeply dejected, that the vessel had gone a great way before he thought of summoning his canoes to return. As he had been their first friend, the captain gave him a brace of pistols, and a cartouch-box with cartridges; and the moment of separation being now come, he appeared so much affected, that it was some time before he could speak. Pointing to his heart, he said it was there he felt the pain of bidding them adieu. He endeavoured to converse with Lee Boo, his nephew; but, being unable to proceed, he precipitately went into the boat, and giving them an expressive glance, as if his mind was convulsed, he instantly dropped astern; and thus terminated the connection with the natives of Pelew, after a residence among them from Sunday the 10th of August, 1783, to Wednesday the 19th of November following.

Situation, Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The Pelew Islands are situated between five and nine degrees of north latitude, and between one hundred and thirty and one hundred and thirty-six degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a north-east and south-west direction. From the description of the country it appears to be mountainous, but some of the valleys are represented as very beautiful, and affording many delightful prospects; and the climate is temperate and agreeable.

All that part of the country which Captain Wilson and his crew had an opportunity of seeing, was covered with trees of various kinds and sizes, some of which must have been extremely large, as the natives formed their trunks into canoes capable of carrying twenty-eight or thirty men. Among the timber-trees were noticed the ebony, and a tree which, on being pierced or otherwise wounded, yielded a white liquor, of the consistence of cream. Here was also a species of the manchineel-tree, the sap of which frequently blistered the skin of the Europeans, who were employed in felling it. This the natives reckoned among their unlucky trees, and advised the strangers not to use it.

But the most curious tree noticed at Pelew was one, in its size and manner of branching; not unlike the cherry-tree, but, in its leaves, resembling the myrtle. Its chief peculiarity was, that it had no bark, but only an outward coat, of about the thickness of a card, which was darker than the inside, though equally close in texture. Its colour was nearly that of mahogany, and the wood was so

extremely hard, that few of the tools belonging to the Europeans could work it. Besides the above-mentioned trees, the English found cabbage-trees, the wild bread-fruit, oranges, lemons, and a tree whose fruit bore some resemblance to an almond; but yams and cocoa-nuts, being their principal articles of sustenance, claimed their chief attention.

No quadrupeds were found in these islands except rats; but, with respect to birds, there were great numbers of common cocks and hens, which, though not domesticated, kept running about near the houses and plantations; and what appears extremely singular is, that the natives had never made any use of them till our people told them they were excellent eating. Pigeons they accounted a great delicacy; but none except those of a certain dignity were permitted to eat of them. The English left them two geese, which were the only remains of their live-stock. It seems, that no river was observed at Pelew; the supplies of fresh water being obtained from small streams and ponds, which are pretty numerous.

Few parts of the globe are better supplied with fish of all kinds, particularly mullets, crabs, oysters, muscles, &c.; but the fish most esteemed among the natives is the shark, the greater part of which they reckon extremely delicious. Several kinds of shell-fish they eat raw, in preference to dressed. They have no salt, and have but little conception of seasoning to any thing they eat. When they eat any thing raw, however, they generally squeeze a little orange or lemon juice upon it.

Customs, Manners, Government, &c.] The natives of the Pelew Islands are in general stout, well made, and athletic. Many of them appeared to be uncommonly strong. They are in general about the middle size, and universally of one tinge as to complexion, not wholly black, but of a very deep copper-colour. The men have their left ear bored, and the women both. They wear a particular leaf, and at times an ornament of shell in the perforated ear. Their noses are also ornamented by a flower or sweet shrub, stuck through the cartilage between the nostrils. This custom is not peculiar to Pelew, but is found in many oriental nations, and probably proceeds from their great desire for sweet scents; and though at first it appeared rather disagreeable from want of use, it is certainly a more pleasant and becoming refreshment to the nose than the use of tobacco, either in substance or in snuff.

Their teeth are dyed black; but the English could never learn the method by which it was done, nor farther than that it was accomplished by means of some herbs, when young, and that the operation was very painful. The tatooing the body is also done in youth, though not altogether in childhood.

The only appearance of any thing like dress among these natives is in the female sex, who generally wear a piece of mat, or the husks of cocoa-nuts, dyed, about nine or ten inches deep, round their waist. Some of these aprons are very neatly made, and ornamented with a kind of beads. Abba Thulle's daughter, Erra Bess, gave Henry Wilson a present of a very neat one, to carry to his little sister.

From the most attentive observations and enquiries the English could make, they were able to collect that the inhabitants of Pelew believed in one Supreme Being, and a future state of rewards and punishments, but had few religious rites or ceremonies.

It was very clear that they had some strong fixed ideas of divination. When Lee Boo set out to sea, he was, for several days, uncommonly sick; and he then told Mr. Sharp, he was sure his father and friends were very sorry for him, for they knew what he underwent. He was also prepossessed with the same notion when near his dissolution.

That they understood the spirit existed after death, Lee Boo declared while he was in Britain. For when Captain Wilson informed him, that the intention of going to church was to reform men's lives, and that they might go to heaven; he replied, that, at Pelew, bad men stay on earth, and good men grow very beautiful, and ascend into the sky.

One particular mode of divination was observed, and considered to be peculiar to the king, as none of his subjects ever used it. There is a plant, not unlike the bulrush, by splitting the leaves of which, and applying them to the middle finger, he judged of the success of any occurrence of moment. Before the first expedition to Artingall, it was noticed that the answer was very favourable; but, when about to sail on the second, the oracle did not appear altogether so agreeable. Abba Thulle, therefore, would not suffer his people to enter their canoes until he had twisted his leaves in such a manner as he thought appeared more favourable.

As the general character of the natives of Pelew must be now pretty well imprinted on the reader's mind, a very few additional observations may suffice. Humanity is the prominent feature in the picture. The English were cast upon their territories, in a state the most helpless that can well be conceived; twenty-seven men, without even the common necessaries of life, entirely dependent on their bounty; fed, supported, assisted in their labours, and every thing done for them that was in their power. Let us only for a moment consider the hourly bounty which was poured in upon them, not of their useless provender, but, as the English had many occasions to observe, their best provisions were cheerfully given to the strangers, while many, perhaps, were scanty enough at home. Only recollect the parting scene. See the crowding canoes

holding out presents, not the distant effects of complaisance, but the warm effusions of philanthropy!—Could ostentation, pride, or the hope of retribution, influence them? By no means; it was kindness to men they never expected to see again.

Here it may not be unseasonable to make a few general observations on the different characters of Abba Thulle and Raa Kook, to whom our countrymen owed so many obligations.

Never was a prince more formed to attract and retain the love and admiration of his subjects than Abba Thulle: his appearance was majestic, and he commanded with authority; while his affability and easy access rendered him almost an object of adoration to all his subjects. In his councils there was as much respect paid to his naked unadorned person as to an European potentate, amidst all his trappings and pageantry, from the surrounding sycophants. His nice honour and quick feeling were very discernible on many occasions; never was there a reproof more delicate, and yet more poignant, than what he gave the English, on occasion of the affair with the muskets. He was far from one of those harmless beings who hurt nobody because they have not a sense of injuries; while the warmth and sensibility of his heart won the love of all around him, his dignity of manner, and propriety of conduct, taught them to approach him with respect. He possessed a contemplative mind, and few objects came within his observation without being attentively considered. The prosperity of his subjects was the principal object of his attention. It was this that led him to part with his son Lee Boo, whom he tenderly loved—for this he was at so much pains in examining every thing about the English that might be serviceable to his people—in fine, his whole time was taken up in forming and executing plans for the good of the nation and individuals. In domestic life he appeared to peculiar advantage, and took a particular charge of all his own relations; the misbehaviour of his nephew, in an affair of some importance, seemed to give him the greatest pain; while, as the husband and parent, his heart seemed awake to every finer feeling which adorns humanity.

His brother, Raa Kook, was a prince of so universally engaging demeanour, and whose every action expressed something so truly valuable, that Englishmen or natives equally admired him. He was so much a friend to the English, that it may be suspected their account of him is partial; therefore, little shall here be said, and that little not exaggerated.

His natural temper was cheerful and pleasant, though without that mimickry and humour for which his brother Arra Kook was remarkable; at the same time he was far from averse to a hearty laugh, when a proper occasion offered. As commander-in-chief, he was beloved by all: he dispensed his orders calmly and smoothly; but would not tolerate neglect. No man better understood the necessity of strict discipline: so that, while he encouraged his inferiors to use all becoming freedom with him, he kept them at that proper distance, which is the true key to cheerful obedience. In principles of honour he was by no means inferior to his brother; and not only wished that the English should hold him in an honourable point of view, but all the nation; thus it was that he could not bear the least idea of pilfering among them, and, if any thing were missing, Raa Kook soon discovered and punished the delinquent. One day, a chief rupack sought a cutlass from Captain Wilson, in his hearing; the frown instantly appeared, nor would he suffer it to be given. He was exceedingly delicate in receiving favours himself: and though, from his particular disposition, in enquiring after causes and effects, many things about the English were highly prized by him, he was particularly attentive that nothing should betray any desire for what he thought might not be proper to be given.

His deportment in his family was remarkably pleasant, even to a degree which many, in this age of dissipation and stoicism, might reckon silly; but let it be noticed, that, though the finer feelings shone in the natives of Pelew to a length many in Britain would call effeminate, yet, in fatigue, pain, distress, and death, they appeared as heroes indeed.

Their native politeness was constantly observable; and although they possessed a degree of curiosity beyond any of the South Sea islanders, they never knowingly intruded, when it was inconvenient. In them it was evident that good manners are the natural result of good sense.

The attention paid by the men of Pelew to their wives, is very uncommon in most parts of the world; and gives a very amiable idea of their domestic lives.

Their marriages seemed to consist in a serious solemn contract, without any formal ceremony; but they are strictly faithful to each other, and the utmost decency of behaviour is uniformly supported. A plurality of wives is allowed, though the common people generally confine themselves to two, a rupack to three, and the king to five. They name the children soon after they are born, without any ceremony. One of Abba Thulle's wives bore him a son while the English were there, which he named Captain, in honour of Captain Wilson. They are far from being naturally lascivious, and the utmost decency is preserved among them. One of the English, endeavouring to show a marked attention to a female, was repulsed in a manner that prevented any farther attempts.

They are, in general, an active laborious set of people, possessing the greatest resolution in cases of danger, patience under misfortunes, and resignation at their death.

Except a few rupacks, there was but little subordina

tion of rank; consequently their employments were pretty much the same. Fencing their plantations, planting yams, making hatchets, building houses and canoes, mending and preparing fishing-tackle, forming darts and warlike weapons, with domestic utensils, and burning chinam, may be said to comprise the whole routine of their avocations.

Those who had a particular turn for mechanical operations, or any uncommon pieces of work, they called tacklebys: it was to them the king often gave particular orders to observe the building of the schooner. Idleness was tolerated in none; the women were as laborious as the men, and the king and rupacks were as much employed as any. Abba Thulle was the best maker of hatchets in the island; and generally laboured at them when disengaged from affairs of state. They had no idea of unemployed time, and therefore it is, that, without the proper tools for finishing a fine piece of work, practice had taught them, even with their coarse implements, to execute what a British artist could not have conceived practicable. Their mats, baskets, and ornaments, are so curiously wrought, that, when their simple tools are considered, the ingenuity is more to be admired than much superior productions, executed under the advantages which are possessed by European mechanics.

That equality of station which appeared evidently among them, and ignorance of those luxuries which civilization introduces, proved no inconsiderable sources of their happiness. The one prevented that ambition which is too often destructive to society, and the other those cares which are generally awakened by affluence. In all the connection which the English had with them, robbery or rapine was never named. Nature, it is true, allowed them little, but that little they enjoyed with content. Human nature here shone in most amiable colours. Men appeared as brethren. Uninformed and unenlightened, they grasped at nothing more than competency and health. Linked together as in one common cause, they mutually supported each other. Courteous, affable, gentle, and humane, their little state was cemented in bonds of perfect harmony.

The king was the chief person in the state, and all the homage of royalty was accordingly paid to his person. He was supreme in the greater part of the islands which came within the observation of the English; but Artingall, Pelew, Emungs, and Emellegree, appeared to be independent, though, from any thing that could be observed or heard, their form of government was exactly similar.

The general mode of making obeisance to the king, was by putting their hands behind them, and bowing towards the ground; and this custom prevailed, not only when passing him in the streets and fields, but when they passed the house in which they supposed him to be. His carriage and demeanour was stately and dignified, and he supported his station very becomingly. He devoted the forenoon to public business, and decided every matter of state in a council of rupacks. They assembled on a square pavement in the open air; the king being placed in the centre, on a stone of larger size than those of the rupacks. They seemed to deliver their minds with freedom, as matters occurred; and the assembly was dissolved by the king rising up.

The afternoon was devoted to receiving petitions, hearing requests, and deciding controversies. These, it may easily be supposed, seldom occurred; for as their property was small and of little value, and as there were no lawyers nor their emissaries to foment disputes, the proper barriers of right and wrong were easily defined. Wrangles and fighting seldom happened, for even a dispute between children was checked by a severe frown, and their impetuosity bridled. When any real injury was done by any one to his neighbour, it was a pleasing sight to see how justice was administered. Their laws were the simple dictates of conscience, as to right and wrong between man and man. No artful eloquence, nor enticing words of wisdom, were used to mask vice under the cloak of virtue. None of these subterfuges could be employed, by which fraud and oppression could be screened. Oaths were unknown, and the simple dictates of truth directed the judge; nor were there any punishments of a corporal kind. To be convicted of injuring a neighbour, was to them more galling and disgraceful than any pillory yet invented by European ingenuity.

Messages were transmitted to the king with great ceremony. The messenger never was admitted into the presence, but delivered it to an inferior rupack, who reported the message to his majesty, and brought his answer.

The general was next in authority to the king, and acted for him in his absence. He summoned the rupacks to attend when needed, and had the chief command of all the forces; though, it was observed that, in actual engagement, when the king was present, he himself took the lead.

The general was to succeed the king in case of his death, and on his demise Arra Kook; when the sovereignty would again revert to Abba Thulle's eldest son, then to Lee Boo, and so on. The king had always an attendant, who, though not so high in office as the general, was more constantly about his person. He was considered as the principal minister, and a man of judgment. He never bore arms, nor went on military expeditions. It was remarked, that he had only one wife, and never invited any of the English to his house.

The rupacks were very numerous, and considered in the same light as the nobility are in Britain. They were of different orders. They all attended the king on command, every one bringing with him a certain number of dependants, with their canoes, spears, and darts.

Our readers may here trace a similitude to the feudal system; but as the knowledge the English acquired of these

matters was very superficial, nothing conclusive can be ascertained. These, and many other things, must be left for time to develope. All that can be said farther at present is, that, whatever was their precise mode of government, it was admirably adapted for the people.

All the island appeared populous, but the number is not easily conjectured. There were four thousand active men in the expedition against their enemies; and, it was evident, many more were left at home, whose service was not deemed necessary.

The method they took for building houses, was very ingenious. They raised them three feet from the ground, in order to prevent damp. This space they filled up with solid stone, and overlaid it with thick planks, as a floor. The walls were built of wood, very closely interwoven with bamboos and palm-leaves, so that no cold or wet could possibly come through. The roof was pointed in the same manner as village-houses are in England. Their windows come down on a level with the floor, answering also the purpose of doors; and have a sort of shutters, which are occasionally used. Their fires are kindled in the centre of the room, for all the house is in one room, the fire-place being sunk lower than the floor.

Their canoes are made of the trunks of large trees, in the same manner as those throughout the South Seas, but with surprising neatness. They ornament them with shells, and paint them red. They are of different sizes, but the largest will not carry more than thirty people. The natives row with great ability, insomuch that the canoes made on purpose for swift sailing seem scarcely to touch the water, moving with a velocity almost inconceivable.

Their domestic implements are few in number, and very simple. They are the evident productions of necessity, well calculated to answer the ends intended, without much ornament.

Their knives are made of shells, which they sharpen to such an edge as fully answers all common purposes. Their drinking cups are made of cocoa-shells, which they polish with great art.

Their articles for ornament were far from being numerous. The king had a very fine tureen, somewhat in shape of a bird, and finely ornamented with various devices, very neatly cut out upon it. This he presented to Captain Wilson. It held about thirty-six English quarts.

The tortoise-shell they wrought into various little dishes, spoons, trays, and other vessels. The shell they have in these islands is of a very beautiful kind, but their manner of working it the English could never get an opportunity of observing.

Historical Account of Prince Lee Boo, a Native of the Pelew Islands.

This amiable young prince had cheerfully thrown himself into the protection of a handful of men, concerning whose existence he had, but a few weeks before, been utterly ignorant; deserting his native country, his friends, and his all, in order to obtain such knowledge among the Europeans as might probably enable him, on his return, to render some important services to his royal father and his beloved countrymen.

As the English were on their way to China, Captain Wilson instructed him as to decency in his appearance, and desired he would dress as they did. He did so; but soon threw off his coat and jacket, as insupportably cumbersome; though he retained the trowsers, as decency required, and would never afterwards part with them. As they began to advance into a colder climate, he soon resumed the coat and jacket.

His notions of delicacy, from what had been told him, and from what he observed among the English, gradually increased, so that he would not so much as change any part of his dress, unless when by himself. He washed himself several times a day, and kept his clothes, and every thing about his person, remarkably clean.

On their arrival at Macao, the Portuguese governor paid Captain Wilson and his crew every possible attention, and sent plenty of provisions, of all kinds, to the men on board the ship; informing them, at the same time, that peace was re-established in Europe.

Captain Wilson, Lee Boo, and the officers, had lodgings appointed them on shore, except Mr. Benger, who took the command on board. An express was immediately forwarded to the company's supercargoes at Canton, informing them of their arrival and situation.

Mr. M'Intyre, an old acquaintance of Captain Wilson's, paid them uncommon attention, and insisted on their lodging in his house. He had a Portuguese gentleman in company with him, who invited them to his house, in their way to Mr. M'Intyre's, principally on Lee Boo's account, whom he wished to introduce into his family. His house was, therefore, the first into which Lee Boo entered, and his surprise on this occasion cannot be easily described. The rooms, the furniture, and ornaments, crowded so many new objects on his mind at once, that he was perfectly lost in amazement. It was remarkable, however, that, amidst all his confusion, his behaviour was perfectly easy and polite; and, as he observed that he excited the same curiosity in others that they did in him, he very politely permitted them to examine his hands, described the tatooing, and appeared highly gratified with the attention paid him.

On their way to Mr. M'Intyre's, Lee Boo displayed his native benevolence very remarkably. Observing the poor Tartar women, with their children tied to their backs, begging, he distributed among them all the oranges and other things he had about him.

When they reached Mr. M'Intyre's, it was late, so that the table was covered for supper, and the room elegantly illuminated. A new scene here burst upon Lee Boo's attention, and the whole seemed to him as the effect of magic. A large mirror, at the upper end of the room, particularly attracted his notice. He saw his complete person, and supposed it to be somebody behind, very like himself. He looked, laughed, and looked again, not knowing what to think. Indeed, the mirror had a surprising effect on more than Lee Boo. The Englishmen had seen every one his neighbour's face, during all their distress, but no body had seen his own. The hollow-eyed long-visaged appearance they now made, to what they formerly recollected, cast rather a melancholy impression upon their minds.

The next day Lee Boo spent mostly in examining Mr. M'Intyre's house, in which he found abundance of new objects to surprise him. The other gentlemen, in the mean time, went about purchasing such little commodities as they stood in need of, and every one bought some little trinket for Lee Boo. Among the rest was a string of large glass beads, which almost distracted the poor prince with surprise and admiration. He conceived himself possessed of greater treasures than all the Pelew Islands could afford: he ran to Captain Wilson, enraptured with his property, and begged that a small Chinese vessel might be hired to transport them to Pelew, and desired his father might be informed, the Englees had carried him to a fine country, from whence he would soon send him some other presents; at the same time adding, that if the persons Captain Wilson should employ faithfully and expeditiously executed their trust, he would reward them with two glass beads.

While at Macao, Lee Boo had frequent opportunities of seeing people of different nations, but soon gave a decided preference to the English, especially the ladies. It has been already mentioned that there are no quadrupeds at the Pelew Islands, and that the Newfoundland dog left there was the first of the species they had seen. They called him Sailor, which name Lee Boo now applied to every quadruped he saw. Horses were his great favourites, he called them clow sailor, or great sailor. He would often go to the stable, and stroke their mane and neck, and soon ventured to mount them. He intreated Captain Wilson to send a horse to his uncle, Raa Kook.

In a few days Captain Wilson received letters from Canton; the supercargoes desiring him to draw for what money he needed, and ordering the men to be supplied with every necessary in abundance. The kindness shewn them on this occasion, by all ranks, at Macao and Canton, all the officers and men acknowledged in the warmest terms. Captain Wilson and his company embarked for Whampoa, in the Walpole, Captain Churchill, leaving Mr. Benger to take care of the Oroolong, and dispose of her.

In a few days they arrived at Canton, having been entertained all the way by Lee Boo, whose admiration of, and sensible remarks upon, every new object, astonished all who had an opportunity of conversing with him. He was greatly surprised at the various dishes of meat which he saw successively set before him, alledging, that his father, though a king, was happy to serve himself with a few yams and cocoa-nuts; while here the gentlemen had a great many dainties, and servants attending them while they were eating. Observing a sailor in a state of inebriety, he said he would not drink spirits, as they were not fit for a gentleman.

An instance of Lee Boo's strong attachment to those he knew may be here mentioned, which will serve to point out this striking feature, not in his character only, but in all his countrymen. One day, while sitting at a window, which looked towards the sea, he observed a boat making towards shore, in which were Mr. Benger and Mr. M'Intyre. His joy was so great, that he did not take time to tell Captain Wilson or any other in the room the cause of his emotion; but, springing from his seat, flew to the shore in a twinkling. Immediately on their landing, he shook hands with them so heartily, and with such warm expressions of friendship, as sensibly affected them.

Lee Boo became a universal favourite wherever he appeared; as his good-natured and pleasant behaviour made him acceptable in every company. He one day surprised a company of gentlemen with his dexterity in throwing the dart. A party was formed to have a trial of skill in the factory-hall. They hung up a gauze cage, and a bird painted in the middle. They stood at a considerable distance, and with much difficulty hit even the cage. When Lee Boo's turn came, he took up his spear very carelessly, and, with the greatest ease, struck the little bird through the head. He had one day an opportunity of seeing some blue glass, which greatly delighted him. It was a colour he had not before seen. The gentleman, in whose house it was, made him a present of two jars, of the same colour, which greatly delighted him. "O! were it possible," he exclaimed, "that my friends at Pelew could see them!"

As the time was now near at hand when the company's ships would sail for England, Captain Wilson laid before his people an account of the produce from the Oroolong, and other articles, which had been sold, and, giving to every one an equitable share, he addressed the whole company nearly as follows: "Gentlemen, the moment being now arrived, when every one may advantageously follow his own inclination, I cannot part with you without testifying my approbation at the spirited, judicious, and manly, conduct you have preserved amidst our trying difficulties;

and be assured that, on my arrival in England, I will represent you to the company as entitled to their particular regard, and I make no doubt but they will reward your toils."

If mutual adversity be supposed capable of reconciling the most inveterate enemies, surely the sufferings of friends must rivet a more forcible affection; and every one now appeared to feel the weight of the remark; for a tender concern was manifest in every countenance. The conduct of Mr. Wilson had been so mild and prudent, and his example so animating, that they still wished him for their commander. But it was not now a time for choice. Necessity and reason pointed out their course. Lee Boo and the captain came home in the Morse, and the surgeon in the Lascelles; while others embarked in different vessels.

The Morse was commanded by Captain Elliot, with whom Lee Boo made himself very happy. His spirit of enquiry, concerning various objects which he saw, began now to be directed more to their utility than formerly; and he evinced no small anxiety to obtain as much knowledge as possible, with regard to such articles as would be useful at Pelew. His method of keeping his journal was extremely singular. He had a string, on which he tied a knot for every remarkable object he wished to imprint on his memory. These knots he examined daily, and, by recollecting the circumstances which occasioned their being cast, he fixed the transactions firmly on his memory. The officers of the Morse humourously remarked, when they saw him referring to his hempen tablet, that he was reading his journal.

Early in the voyage, he asked for a book, that, with assistance, he might learn the English alphabet, which was given him: and, on being taken to see a school at St. Helena, he appeared so conscious of his own deficiency, that he begged he might learn like the boys. While here, he had some opportunities of riding on horseback, of which he was very fond. He galloped with great ease, and sat his horse very gracefully.

Before the Morse sailed from St. Helena, the Lascelles arrived there, so that he had an interview with his first friend, Mr. Sharp. He was exceedingly happy with that gentleman, for whom he had the most affectionate regard.

When the Morse approached the British Channel, the number of ships that passed confounded his journal, and he was obliged to discontinue his memorandums. But, on landing at Portsmouth, the objects which met his view were so stupendous and grand, that he was involved in silent astonishment, and ceased to ask questions.

The captain, being impatient to see his family, proceeded immediately to London, and left Lee Boo under the protection of his brother; who, however, soon after, set off in a stage-coach with his charge. Describing his journey, he said he had been put into a little house, which horses run away with, and that, though he went to sleep, he did not stop travelling.

On his arrival in the British metropolis, he appeared extremely happy to meet with his mentor, his new father, whom he was afraid he had lost. Being conducted to his chamber, he could not conceive the use of the bed, it being a four-post one, and, of course, different from what he had seen on board. Before he would repose himself, he jumped in and out of it several times, to admire its form, and intimated that in England there was a house for every thing. It was all fine country, fine streets, fine coach, and house upon house up to the sky; for, the huts at Pelew being only one story, he considered every floor in London as a distinct house.

Captain Wilson introduced Lee Boo to some of the East-India directors, and to most of his friends; and, at the same time, shewed him the most conspicuous public buildings; but his prudent conductor kept him from theatrical and other exhibitions, lest the heat of the place might communicate the small-pox; but the sequel will shew that all precaution was unavailing.

He was sent to an academy at Rotherhithe, where he was very assiduous in learning to read and write; and his remarkable gentleness and affability soon rendered him the favourite of all his school-fellows. During the hours of recess, he amused his benefactor's family by mimicking such peculiarities as he observed in the boys at school. He said that, when he returned to Pelew, he would keep an academy himself; and he imagined the great men of his country would think him very wise, when he showed them their letters.

He always called his patron captain; but he would address Mrs. Wilson no otherwise than his mother, although he was told to the contrary, conceiving it a tender expression.

When he saw the young asking charity, he was highly offended, saying they ought to work; but the supplications of the old and infirm met his natural benevolence.—"Must give poor old man;" said he, "old man no able to work."

At this time he appeared to be about twenty years of age, and of a middle size. His expressive countenance, great sensibility, and good humour, instantly prejudiced every one in his favour. His eyes were so strikingly expressive, that, though he knew very little English, his meaning was easily understood.

His quickness of manner and readiness of apprehension were astonishing. A young lady, with whom he was one day in company, sat down to the harpsichord, in order to discover how it affected him. To the music he paid little attention, but he was greatly interested to discover how the sounds were produced. He at the same time sung a song in the Pelew style, but it was very harsh.

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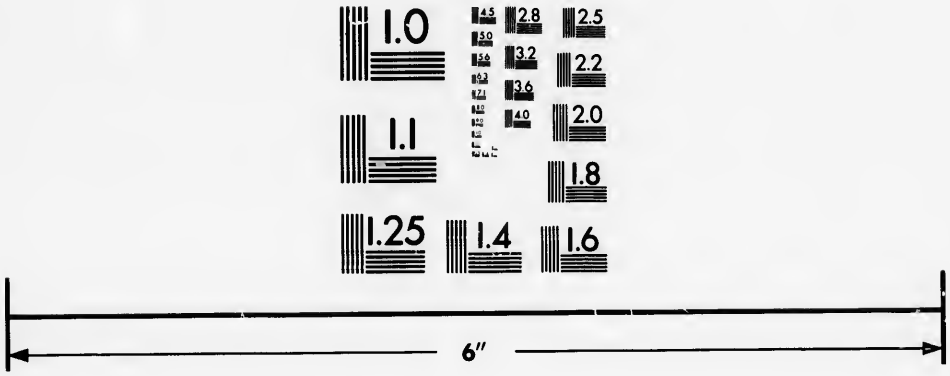

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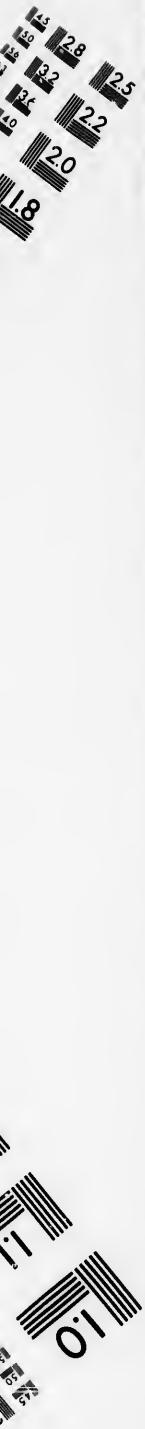
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We have already observed, that he was naturally polite. One day, at dinner, Mrs. Wilson desired him to help her to some cherries, when Lee Boo very quickly proceeded to take them up with his fingers. She pleasantly hinted his error, when he immediately took up a spoon, his countenance at the same time being suffused with a blush.

Captain Wilson, one day, happening to rebuke his son for some trifling neglect, in the presence of Lee Boo, the generous prince was not happy till he had joined their hands, which he did with the tears of sensibility streaming from his eyes.

He was very fond of going to church, because he understood it was a religious duty, the object and final end being the same both at Pelew and in England.

He preferred riding in a coach to every other conveyance, as it allowed people, he said, an opportunity of talking together.

He was present at Lunardi's aerial ascension; and remarked, that it was a ridiculous mode of travelling, as it could be done so much easier in a coach.

He narrowly examined all plants and fruit-trees, and said he should take some seeds of each to Pelew. Indeed, in all his pursuits, he never lost sight of what might prove serviceable in his own country.

Being shown a miniature of Mr. Keate, to whom he was introduced, he immediately recognised the face; and, as a proof that he understood the intention of the mimic arts, he observed, "that when Misser Keate die, this Misser Keate live." His own likeness was taken by a daughter of that gentleman.

It is with extreme pain we add, that in the midst of Lee Boo's innocent researches, he was taken ill of the dreadful small-pox. Dr. Carmichael Smith immediately attended him, and, in the first stage of the disorder, predicted the fatal consequences which ensued. He cheerfully took the medicines that were administered, and willingly dispensed with the sight of Captain Wilson, when he was told that he never had the disorder, and that it was infectious. In the midst of his illness, hearing that Mrs. Wilson was confined to her chamber, he cried—"What, mother bad?—Lee Boo get up to see her:" which he actually did.

Viewing himself in a glass just before his death, he turned his head away in disgust, at the appearance of his face, which was sadly swelled and disfigured. Getting worse, and sensible of his approaching fate, he fixed his eyes attentively on Mr. Sharp, the surgeon of the Antelope, and said:—"Good friend, when you go to my country, tell my father that Le Boo take much drink to make the small-pox go away, but he die—that captain and mother very kind—all English very good men—was much sorry he could not tell Abba Thulle the great many fine things the English got." He then enumerated all the presents he had received, which he begged the surgeon to distribute among his friends and the rupacks.

The dying discourse of this amiable prince so affected Tom Rose, who attended him, that he could not help sobbing most piteously, which Lee Boo observing, asked "Why he should cry so, because Lee Boo die?"

The dreadful moment of separation being at length arrived, he told Mr. Sharp he was going away; and yielded his last breath without apprehension, and with that native innocence and simplicity which had marked his every action.

The family, the servants, and those who knew him, could not withhold the tears of affectionate regard, when informed of the melancholy event.

The East-India Company ordered Lee Boo to be buried in Rotherhithe church-yard, with every possible mark of respect. The pupils at the academy, and all who knew him, attended the funeral; and the concourse was otherwise so great, that it might be supposed his good qualities had been publicly proclaimed, instead of being privately communicated. A tomb, with the following inscription, was, soon after, erected by the East-India Company:

To the Memory
Of Prince Lee Boo,
A Native of the Pelew, or Palos Islands;
And Son to Abba Thulle, Rupack or King
Of the Island Coorooraa;*
Who departed this Life on the 27th of December, 1784,
Aged 20 Years,
This Stone is inscribed,
By the Honourable United East-India Company,
As a Testimony of Esteem
For the Humane and Kind Treatment
Afforded by his Father to the Crew of their Ship,
The Antelope, CAPT. WILSON,
Which was wrecked off that Island
In the Night of the 9th of August, 1783.

Stop, Reader stop! Let Nature claim a tear;
A Prince of mine, Lee Boo, lies buried here.

This amiable young prince, whose residence here was only five months, conformed himself to the English dress in every instance, except his hair, which he continued to wear after the fashion of his own country. His countenance was so expressive, that it depicted the best qualities of a virtuous mind. His eyes were lively and intelligent; and his whole manner gentle and interesting. He had the natural politeness of a gentleman, without the drudgery of study, or the observance of established forms of ceremony. After his death, it was found that he had carefully saved all the seeds or stones of fruit he had eaten after his arrival, with a view to plant them at Pelew.

* Coorooraa is the proper name of the Island, of which Pelew is the capital town.

Since the publication of Captain Wilson's voyage, we have received some further accounts of the Pelew Islands, tending to corroborate what has been already advanced. Two armed ships, under the command of Captain M'Cluer, were, by order of the court of directors, fitted out at Bombay, in 1790, for the purpose of surveying these islands, and furnishing the natives with domestic animals, and such other things as might add to the comforts of life.

The reception of the captain and his officers was highly gratifying, and the natives again vied with each other in expressions of friendship to the *Englees*. Abba Thulle, indeed, appeared grieved at the relation of his son's death; but, after a short pause, he exclaimed, "*Weel, weel*, weel a trecoy!" "Good, good, very good!" and observed, that he never doubted the goodness of the English, but rested assured that they would cherish and take care of his son. He said, that he had counted upon a line one hundred knots, or moons, and then, despairing of ever seeing his son or Captain Wilson again, he had caused the line to be buried. On his receiving the presents, consisting of hardware, swords, grindstones, shovels, saws, &c. he appeared lost in thought for upwards of an hour; but, at length, broke forth in expressions of gratitude to the English rupacks, as he styled the Honourable Company; and declared, that his whole country, if it were possible to send it, would not be a sufficient return for the articles before him.

Madan Blanchard was stated to have rendered himself contemptible, after the departure of the Oroolong, by his idleness and dissipation, and to have fallen, with several of Abba Thulle's family, in an engagement with the people of Artingall.

It only remains to observe, that an English fort has been erected upon one of the islands; and, although the benevolent Abba Thulle has paid the debt of nature, the most uninterrupted harmony still subsists between the natives and our countrymen.

SECTION II.

THE LADRONE ISLANDS.

This appellation implies the Isles of Robbers, and was given by that distinguished navigator Magellan, who first discovered these islands in 1521, the natives shewing a great disposition to pilfer, and much address in the execution of their designs.

According to the Jesuit Gobien, who has published a particular history of these islands, the inhabitants, till the arrival of the Spaniards, regarded themselves as the only men in the world. 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.

In the reign of Philip IV. of Spain, these islands were also called the *Marians*, in honour of his queen, Mary of Austria. The Ladrones are computed to be twelve or fourteen in number, but not above three or four are inhabited. That now deemed the principal is Guam, where a governor resides, and where there is a very strong garrison kept. At this island the Manilla register-ship generally takes in fresh provisions and water, in her passage from Acapulco to the Philippines.

Guam is pleasantly situated, and affords a fine landscape, when viewed from the sea. Rice is produced but in small quantities, on account of the dryness of the soil; but there are several kinds of excellent fruit, particularly pine-apples, melons, and oranges. They have also plenty of cocoas, yams, and a fruit about the size of an apple, which, when baked, is exceeding good, and is used instead of bread.

Though Guam is the largest of the Ladrones, Tinian, for a considerable time after Anson's voyage round the world, attracted more of the public attention. This arose from the exaggerated accounts of the journalists of that voyage, as it is very reasonable to conceive that mariners, who have been long at sea, and suffered many diseases, and a privation not only of the comforts but even the necessaries of life, would be infinitely delighted with any verdant land, and find beauties, at least in imagination, where none existed. That this was the case is evident from the observations of Byron, Wallis, and subsequent navigators. The ingenuity of these islanders in the construction of their vessels, called flying proas, is universally admitted by navigators, who acknowledge them to be singular specimens of naval architecture. It appears from M. de la Perouse's narrative of his voyages, that some of these islands are volcanic.

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 twenty-nine degrees twenty minutes north, the longitude one hundred and forty-two degrees twenty-three minutes 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."

The inhabitants of the Ladrone Islands are of a good stature, well-proportioned, and considerably fairer than those of the Philippines. Their food consists entirely of fish, roots, fruits, &c.; yet they are so remarkably fat, that, to strangers, they appear swelled; but this does not seem to render them less nimble and active. They are generally healthy, and instances of longevity are by no means rare among them; for they often live to the age of a hundred years, in full possession of all their faculties. The women wear their hair very long; but the men generally shave it close, excepting a single lock on the crown of the head, after the Japanese manner. They are remarkably ambitious of having black teeth and white hair; and hence one of their principal occupations is to keep their teeth black, by the help of certain herbs, and to whiten their hair, by sprinkling it with a particular liquid.

Their language is very agreeable to the ear, having a soft and easy pronunciation. One of its chief graces consists in the facility of transposing words, and even all the syllables of one word, and thus furnishing a variety of double meanings, with which these people are greatly delighted. A poet is, with them, a character of the first eminence; and they are said to have some fables in their possession, which serve them for history.

When the Ladrone Islands were first discovered, the natives were totally unacquainted with any country besides their own, and, having no account of their own origin, supposed that the author of their race was formed out of a rock on the little island of Funa. Many things, looked upon by us as absolutely necessary to our existence, were utterly unknown to them. They had no animals, but one species of birds, resembling turtle-doves; and these they never killed, but only tamed them, and taught them to speak. They were evidently astonished at the sight of a horse, which a Spanish captain left among them, in the year 1673. But, what is most astonishing, they seem to have been utterly unacquainted with fire, till Magellan, provoked by their repeated thefts, burned one of their villages. When they saw their huts enveloped in flames, they thought that the fire was a beast, which fed upon the timber; and some of them, who came too near, being burnt, the rest stood at a considerable distance, fearing lest they should be devoured, or poisoned by the breathings of that terrible animal.

SECTION III.

THE CAROLINES.

This is the most extensive range of islands in the Pacific Ocean, and appears to have been first discovered, in 1686, by the Spaniards, who named it after their monarch, Charles II. The isles are about thirty in number, and very populous, except three, which are 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 particulars. According to the letters of the Jesuits, each isle was subject to its chief, but all respected a monarch, who resided at Lamurec.

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.

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.

The most considerable of the Carolines is Hogoleu, about ninety miles in length by forty in breadth. Next is Yap, in the western extremity 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 groupes have been discovered in their eastern extremities, which may properly be classed in the same range.

SECTION IV.

THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Discovery, &c.] The voyage of discovery undertaken by M. de la Perouse, who touched at these islands in May, 1787, has confirmed the honour of their discovery to the Spaniards; and has established the certainty, that the islands called in the Spanish charts *Los Majos*, and *Santa Maria de la Gorta*, laid down in the map of Lieutenant Roberts from eighteen degrees thirty minutes to twenty-eight degrees north latitude, and from one hundred and thirty-five to one hundred and forty-nine degrees west longitude, are the same with those which have since received the name of the *Sandwich Islands*, in honour of the Earl of Sandwich, who was first Lord of the Admiralty at the time they were visited by Captain Cook.

"It appears certain," says La Perouse, "that these islands were discovered, for the first time, by Gaetano, in 1542. This navigator sailed from port La Natividad, on the western coast of Mexico, in twenty degrees north latitude, steering to the westward; and after having run nine hundred leagues on that point of the compass, (consequently without changing his latitude,) he fell in with a groupe of islands, inhabited by savages, almost naked. These islands were surrounded with coral, and stocked with cocoa-nuts, and several other fruits, but possessed neither gold nor silver: he called them the Islands of the Kings, probably on account of the day when the discovery was made; and he named that which he discovered about twenty leagues farther west, the Island of Gardens. From this account it would be impossible for geographers not to place the discoveries of Gaetano precisely in the same spot where Captain Cook afterwards found the Sandwich Islands. But the Spanish editor adds, that these islands are situated between nine and eleven degrees latitude, instead of between nineteen and twenty-one, as navigators must conclude from the track pursued by Gaetano.

"Was the omission of these ten degrees an error in the figures, or a contrivance of the policy of the Spanish court, which had a great interest, a century ago, in concealing the situation of all the islands in this ocean? I am inclined to believe, that it is an error in the figures, for it would have been very bad management to have published that Gaetano departed from twenty degrees latitude, and steered due west. Had it been their intention to have concealed the true latitude, they might, with as little difficulty, have ascribed his course to another point of the compass.

"However this may be, every thing coincides, except the ten degrees, which must be added to the latitude given them by Gaetano. The distance from the coast of Mexico, the people, their natural productions, the coast equally surrounded with coral, and, lastly, the extent from north to south, is the same: the bearing of the Sandwich Islands being nearly between nineteen and eleven degrees, as that of Gaetano is between nine and eleven degrees."

The discovery of these islands by the Spaniards, however, was of no essential service to the world, nor to those who have traversed the Southern Ocean. Having been inaccurately laid down in their maps, it was believed, till the time of Perouse, that they had no existence in reality; and it is not improbable that the Spaniards themselves had lost the remembrance of them, otherwise they would not have failed to avail themselves of the bay of *Karakooa*, as a convenient port in the traffic which they have so long carried on betwixt South America and their islands in the East-Indies. It is to Captain Cook we are indebted, if not for the original discovery, for almost the whole of what is known relating to the Sandwich Islands; and although the stock of information respecting them has been increased by subsequent navigators, we only pay the tribute due to the talent and veracity of Cook, and of the men of science who accompanied him, when we assert that every thing they have recorded relative to this groupe has been confirmed by those who have since visited them. Ignorance, as La Perouse observes, may discover, by chance, a few islands; but it belongs to superior minds to leave unexplored nothing which pertains to them.

Having left the Society Islands, and crossed the equator, Captain Cook fell in with two small islands, on neither of which he landed. On the 18th of February, 1788, he discovered an island, not far distant from the two former, called, by the natives, *Atooi*. On approaching the shore, some of the inhabitants in their canoes made towards him, but could not be prevailed upon to come on board. They showed, however, by exchanging several articles, that they had some idea of barter. Proceeding along the coast, in search of an anchoring-place, he passed several villages, and on the 20th stood in for land. Some of the natives in their canoes ventured on board. "None of the inhabitants," says the captain, "we were ever conversant with in any other country or island, were so astonished as these people, upon entering our ship. Their eyes were incessantly rolling from one object to another; and the wildness of their looks and gestures fully indicated their ignorance with respect to every thing they beheld, and strongly proved to us, that they had never till the present time been visited by Europeans, nor been acquainted with any of our commodities, except iron. Of these they were so ignorant, that when some beads were shown them, they asked what they were, and whether they were to be eaten." In the end, they rejected them, as of no use, and refused a looking-glass for the same reason. In their behaviour they were naturally polite, or, at least, cautious of giving offence; for though, at first, they attempted to take away every thing they could lay hands on, from the supposition that their visitors would not resent such behaviour; yet, on being convinced of their mistake, they became less active in appropriating to themselves what did not belong to them.

The English vessels came to an anchorage in Wymoa Bay, on the south-west side of the island, and the captain, with twelve marines, went on shore. On his landing, the natives prostrated themselves on their faces; a ceremony, which afterwards, when he made an excursion up the country, was every where repeated. In their commercial transactions, they manifested little disposition to defraud; and they were very serviceable in assisting the mariners to take in a supply of water. After continuing for some days off and on Atooi, Captain Cook steered to the eastward, for Oneehcow, which lies about five leagues from

the former island. The reception he met with at this place was similar to that shown him by the natives of Atooi; and he continued at it for some days, during the course of which he made excursions into the country.

Woahoo, Oreehoua, and a little uninhabited isle, called Tahoora, were at this time discovered. But it was not until the month of November of the same year, on the return of Captain Cook from Beering's Straits, that other islands were known to be connected with this groupe.

The first of these now touched at was Mowee. The English reached it on the 26th, and continued for four days trading with the natives. Having been apprised of the visit of the strangers to the neighbouring islands, they showed no symptom of surprise when Captain Cook appeared off their coast, but readily came on board, offering their hogs, fish, potatoes, bread-fruit, &c. in exchange for nails and iron.

Owhyhee was discovered on the evening of the 30th. The English, without landing, received supplies from the Indians, when the weather would permit; and it was not until the 17th of January, owing to very boisterous weather and the heavy surf which set in upon the shore, that the Resolution and Discovery came to an anchorage, in a bay on the west side of the island, called Karakakooa. They continued here till the 4th of February, receiving the most hospitable treatment, and presents of every thing which the island afforded. The natives, and particularly the priests, treated Captain Cook in the kindest manner, and heaped upon him honours of every kind, which we may probably have occasion to notice, in describing the manners of the inhabitants.

The British vessels having unmoored, bore away for Mowee; but owing to heavy gales of wind which they encountered upon the coast, and which carried away the foremast of the Resolution, Captain Cook resolved to return to Karakakooa Bay, which he reached on the 11th. The reception now met with was very different from that which the English experienced on their first arrival. Instead of the crowds upon the beach, which formerly welcomed them, canoes paddling, and young and old swimming towards their vessels in every direction, they now found themselves in a bay, solitary and deserted. Of the causes of this extraordinary appearance, various conjectures were formed. Some were of opinion that there was at this time somewhat very suspicious in the behaviour of the natives; and that the taboo, or interdiction of the bay, on account of the king's absence from the island, (a reason assigned by one of them for the unusual appearances,) was an artful contrivance to afford time for the king to consult in what manner the strangers should be received. The subsequent behaviour, however, of Tereeoboo seemed to indicate that his friendly disposition towards the English had suffered no abatement. Caution on the part of the English might produce suspicion among the natives; and in this state of things, when circumstances in themselves trifling are generally magnified according to the impression of the moment, the mind, once set upon the defensive, naturally forebodes and prepares itself for the worst. On an impartial review of the transactions which took place from this period to the 14th of February, that memorable day which concluded with the murder of Captain Cook, we must confess it would be unjust to attribute to the natives the guilt of preconcerted assassination. The measures which they adopted may be fairly called measures of defence; and these the unusual caution of the English, and the steps taken to secure themselves from the supposed hostile plans of their former friends, may easily account for.

It is unnecessary to detail the circumstances attending the murder of the illustrious Cook, as they are generally known to those who know any thing of that hero. His death was an irreparable loss to science, and his discoveries will hand down his fame to posterity. "He had," says his biographer, "led his gallant crews twice round the world; reduced to a certainty the non-existence of a southern continent, about which the learned of all nations were in doubt; settled the boundaries and demonstrated the impracticability of a north-west passage from the Atlantic to the great Southern Ocean, for which our ablest geographers had contended, and in pursuit of which vast sums had been spent in vain, and many valuable mariners had perished. His death was doubtless premature, yet he lived to accomplish the great undertaking for which he seemed particularly designed."

During the existence of hostilities, which were unhappily protracted for several days after the death of Captain Cook, a great number of the natives, and several of their chiefs, were killed; and the village of Kouraua, and with it the dwelling of the priests, who had all along shown themselves sincerely attached to the English, were burnt to the ground. Directions had been given to the mariners to destroy only a few straggling houses, which afforded shelter to the islanders in annoying the seamen when taking in supplies of water. But, in the execution of these orders, resentment for repeated insults, as well as the death of their beloved commander, hurried the party into unnecessary acts of devastation and cruelty.

In this unfortunate warfare, the natives displayed great bravery. One trait of heroism we cannot forbear to notice. A number of the islanders had made an attack upon the morai, where a party of the British, under Mr. King's orders, were stationed, to protect the astronomical observatory. After a warm encounter they were beat off, and one of their number killed. A native, on perceiving his friend fall, boldly turned back, amidst the fire of the whole party, with a view of carrying off the dead body; he re-

ceived a wound, which obliged him to quit it and retreat. A few minutes afterwards, he returned; he received another wound, and was again under the necessity of retiring. Faint with the fatigue he had undergone, and with the loss of blood which was still streaming from his wounds, he approached the third time. Mr. King, at this moment informed of what had happened, immediately gave orders to desist from firing. The islander was suffered to carry off the body of his friend; and he was just able to accomplish it, when he fell down, and expired.

The English had eight or ten men, besides their commander, killed. The mangled remains of Captain Cook were sent on board the Resolution, now under the command of Captain Clerke, and they were solemnly committed to the deep.

By the 22d of February, a perfect reconciliation had taken place. Many of the chiefs came on board, and expressed their sincere grief for what had happened—others sent presents; and, when the vessels were unmooring and preparing to depart, several of the natives took their leave in a very affectionate manner.

About twenty leagues from Karakakooa Bay, in the direction of north-north-east, Captain Clerke passed a small uninhabited island, called Tawrooa. He again touched at Mowee, where the intelligence of what had taken place at Owhyhee had already reached. The natives, however, discovered no symptom of resentment. Ranai, another of the Sandwich groupe, was descried on the 25th, and the following day, Morotoi. Captain Clerke landed on neither of these, but shaped his course to Woahoo, which he reached on the 27th.

Next day he bore away for Atooi, and in the afternoon cast anchor in the old station. Several canoes came to the ships. It was evident, however, from the countenances of the natives, as well as their subsequent conduct, that they could have dispensed with this second visit of the English; and not without reason: for, notwithstanding all the precautions which Captain Cook had taken to prevent it, these friendly islanders were contaminated with the venereal disease, of which great numbers had already died. The humane mind will not be surprised at the contemptuous treatment the English now received from the natives; and had not the former prudently exercised that forbearance which the fatal events at Owhyhee had shown to be necessary, matters might here also have taken a very serious turn. The people demanded a hatchet for every ton of water of which the vessels stood in need, and imposed contributions upon the English officers who came ashore: from the critical situation of affairs, these demands were necessarily complied with. Had it not been for the fortunate arrival of the chiefs, who had for some time been absent from Atooi when the English landed, it is probable that the necessary supplies of water and provisions would not have been procured. The king, however, and some other chiefs, came on board, and apologized for the conduct of the people, who after this gave the English no further trouble. Captain Clerke left Atooi in the middle of March; and, after searching in vain for an island named Modoopappapa, which he had been informed lay to the south-west, he bade a final adieu to these islands on the 17th of March, 1779.

In May, 1785, the Sandwich Islands were again visited by the unfortunate La Perouse, who seems to have possessed the talents, as he was doomed to be heir to the fate of his illustrious archetype. He was only sixteen days upon these coasts, fourteen of which were spent in ascertaining their identity with the islands visited by the Spaniard, Gaetano, in 1542. It was certainly of importance to geography, to remove from our maps six or seven islands which have no real existence; and the most patient labour, accurate calculation, and nautical skill, were displayed, before he drew the conclusion.

Mowee was the only island of the cluster this navigator touched at. It was one of those upon which Captain Cook, during the four months he spent in these parts, had not landed, and he coasted it, too, in a direction his precursor had not taken. He had thus an opportunity of describing the whole of the southern coast, and of detecting the inaccurate representation given of it in Cook's chart; but to its correctness in those parts which Cook himself had an opportunity of surveying, he gives decided testimony.

In coasting, as we have said, the south-east side of Mowee, La Perouse observed, about eight leagues to the westward, a small island; but he was at too great a distance to discover whether it was inhabited; and he did not deviate from his track in order to ascertain it.

Having doubled the southern point of Mowee, the French vessels stood north-north-west, and found anchorage in twenty-three fathoms of water, about a mile from the shore, very imperfectly sheltered from the winds, which were constantly shifting. On this account they were next morning under the necessity of removing a little farther northward, and cast anchor in a very deep bay; but it proved little superior to their former station.

On the landing of the French, the Indians flocked around their visitors, with hogs, potatoes, bananas, &c. which they bartered for iron, the chief object of their desire. They had acquired, since Captain Cook's time, considerable knowledge of exchange, which they evinced by never bringing into the market a large quantity of any of their commodities at one time, and by their demanding a distinct price for every article. However they maintained, in these dealings, the strictest honesty, and a high degree of confidence in their visitors.

The intelligence respecting the north-west coast of

America, which the voyages of Cook had given to Europe, quickly attracted the attention of the mercantile world, and a new emporium of a lucrative branch of commerce excited the rivalship of Spain, Britain, and America. The trade in furs was formerly confined to the British and the Russians; the great market for both, but especially for the latter, was China. It was an object worthy the consideration of the British government, to endeavour to undersell their rivals; and to supply themselves with the vast quantities of teas, which they were annually obliged to order from China, by giving in exchange this commodity, instead of gold and silver. It became necessary, therefore, to procure from Nootka large supplies of that article, which they formerly imported in very small quantities from Hudson's Bay and Canada.

A company of opulent merchants in London being incorporated by royal charter, and invested with the exclusive privilege of trading to Nootka, they fitted out, in the year 1785, two vessels of large burden, and placed them under the command of Captains Portlock and Dixon. To these gentlemen, and to others in the same trade, we are indebted for a variety of facts, respecting the islands now under consideration. Their geographical situation, the friendly disposition of the natives, and the necessary supplies with which they abound, render them an indispensible point of rendezvous to all vessels in their passage through the Pacific Ocean to the fur coast. Captain Vancouver, who sailed from Britain in 1790, besides the settlement of the differences which had arisen with Spain, respecting the right of possession to the north-west territory of America, had it also in charge from the British government, to make a new examination and survey of the Sandwich Islands. For an enterprise of this kind he was naturally well qualified; but he had also the advantage of having formerly traversed the Southern Ocean, in company with the illustrious Cook. As the voyage of Vancouver was a professed voyage of discovery, science had more to expect from the result of his labours, than the mere transient observations of a commercial enterprise; and the expectation was gratified.

Vancouver, in the course of this voyage, made three visits to the Sandwich Islands; during the last of which, the English commander had, by his affability and kindness, so far ingratiated himself into the esteem of the chiefs, that Tamaahmaaha, the sovereign, offered to surrender the island of Owhyhee to Vancouver, in the name of the king of Britain, and the offer was accepted. The main object of the Owhyheeans in this cession seems to have been the securing of the English as an ally against their enemies, whether of the neighbouring isles, or of any other country. It appears that, since the commencement of the trade for furs on the American coast, various foreign vessels had landed on these islands, by some of which the natives had been maltreated. And it would seem to be necessary, now that the Sandwich Islands are daily becoming of more consequence, that they should be under the protection of some maritime power, to secure them from the mischiefs which may be introduced among them, by the conduct of different mercantile adventurers.

Situation, Climate, Soil, &c.] The Sandwich Islands lie at about an equal distance to the north, with the Society Islands on the opposite side of the Equator. The groupe stretches in a line from the south-east to the north-west, between two hundred and two hundred and three degrees of east longitude, and between nineteen and twenty-one degrees of north latitude. They consist of twelve islands, called, by the natives, *Owhyhee, Mowee, Woahoo, Atooi, Morotoi, Ranai, Oneeheou, Oreehoua, Tahourowa, Morotinnee, Modoopapapa,* and *Tahoora*; all of which are inhabited, except the last four.

OWHYHEE is the most easterly, and, in point of extent and population, it is the most considerable of the whole. Its circumference is about two hundred and ninety-three English miles; its greatest breadth, from the west side to the most easterly point, is twenty-four leagues; and its extreme length, from north to south, twenty-eight and a half. Its form is that of a triangle nearly equilateral, the angles of which are its northern, eastern, and southern, extremities.

The whole island is divided by the natives into six districts, viz. *Amakoou* and *Aheedoo*, which comprehend the country from the northern to the eastern point; *Kaoo* and *Apoona*, stretching from the east to the south; and *Akona* and *Koarra*, which comprise all the territory on the west side of the island.

Of the interior of the country, little is known. At Owhyhee, as in other islands, where the want of cattle supersedes the necessity of pasture lands, and where the inhabitants are impelled towards the ocean for a principal means of subsistence, it is only near the sea-coast that we must look for the settlements of the natives; and these extend little farther than six or eight miles from the shore.

The only circumstance known with certainty respecting the interior, is the existence of two very high mountains, one situated in the northern, and the other in the southern part of the island.

That in the northern division is called *Mouna Kaah*, and may be seen at the distance of forty leagues from the shore, rising into three peaks, which are perpetually covered with snow: it is very steep, and the bottom of it is clothed with wood. The altitude of its summit is about eighteen thousand four hundred feet, an elevation considerably greater than the Peak of Teneriffe.

Mouna Kaah is higher by two thousand three hundred and eighty feet than that situated to the southward of it

about twenty miles, called *Mouna Roa*, or the extensive mountain. The summit of the latter, which is flat, is also perpetually involved in snow. The intense cold of the atmosphere, occasioned, no doubt, by the winds blowing from off these mountains, is so great, that a party of the English, who attempted to penetrate into the country as far as Mouna Roa, with a view to explore it, were obliged to desist from the enterprise, after having got within fourteen miles of the object of their journey. This may be another reason, added to those already mentioned, why the native settlements extend so short a distance from the coast.

From the aspect of the country to the southward, it is evident that Mouna Roa must, at some period, have been a volcano. The whole district of *Kaoo* exhibits a most dismal and dreary prospect. It is totally covered with cinders, and, in many places, intersected with blackish streaks, which seem to mark the progress of a lava from the mountain to the sea; and the southern promontory appears like the mere dregs of a volcano. For sixteen or eighteen miles to the eastward of it, the ground, which is split into deep fissures, is covered with loose burnt stones, that break under the feet.

The district of *Apoona* is by far the most beautiful part of the island. Towards the north-east, the coast is rather low and flat, and, in the inland part, the acclivity is gradual, and the country abounds with bread-fruit and cocoa-nuts: but the hills to the south-west rise with more abruptness from the sea. The sides of these hills are covered with verdure. But, notwithstanding the natural beauty which characterises this district, the adjacent country is thinly inhabited: for, owing to the heavy surf which sets in upon the shores of Apoona, the district is not conveniently situated for fishing; and the natives, from necessity, prefer the dreary region of Kaoo, which is better adapted for this purpose, as well as for the cultivation of plantains. Amidst the volcanic ruins of Kaoo are many spots of fertile soil, which the inhabitants have laid out in plantations to great advantage; and the neighbouring seas abound with a variety of excellent fish. On this account, the district of Kaoo contains more villages, and a larger population, than the beautiful mountains of Apoona.

Those parts of the district of Akona, which lie to the south-west, and border on Kaoo, lie about an equal distance from Mouna Roa, and are in their bleak appearance much the same with Kaoo. Along the coasts scarcely any thing is seen but fragments of black scorched rocks, behind which the ground rises gradually for the space of twenty-two miles. The whole district seems to have been once entirely covered with loose burnt stones; but, towards the north, the industry of the natives has cleared the soil frequently to the depth of three or four feet, and its fertility has amply rewarded their labour. Cloth-plants and potatoes are here produced in abundance. Groves of cocoa-nuts are scattered among the fields, and beyond these, upon the higher grounds, the bread-fruit flourishes with amazing luxuriance. This part of the district has been cultivated to the highest pitch of perfection, and is the most populous part of the whole island. To this, no doubt, the advantages which the district derives from the beautiful bay of Karakakooa, the only safe harbour which the island possesses, has contributed. This bay extends about a mile in depth. At the head of it stands the village of Kakooa, and, at its entrance, upon the north, that of Kowrowa.

The district of Koarra, which extends from the most westerly point to the northern extremity of the island, lies immediately to the north of Akooma. The whole of its shore forms itself into an extensive bay, and two hills bound it on the north. The country appears fertile, and tolerably populous; but no fresh water is to be found near the bay. The soil is nearly similar to that of Kaoo.

The two districts that remain to be noticed are Amakooa and Aheedoo. The former joins itself to the northern point of Koarra, and the latter stretches to Apoona, on the south. These two districts are separated by Mount Kaah. To the northward of this mountain, the coast is composed of lofty and abrupt cliffs, and rendered highly picturesque by many beautiful cascades. The country rises gently to the bottom of Mount Kaah, and is intersected by narrow and deep chasms. It is populous and well cultivated. The coast of Aheedoo is moderately elevated, and the interior of this district is more level in its nature than the country to the north-west of it.

Mowee is next in size to Owhyhee, from which it is situated about eight leagues to the north-north-west. It is one hundred and forty miles in circumference. A low isthmus divides it into two peninsulas, of which that to the west is twice as large as that to the eastward. The former of these is named Whamadooa; the latter, Owhyrookoo. The northern shores have the same aspect of fertility and verdure as those of Owhyhee, and, like them also, they afford no soundings. To the southward of the eastern point, the sea forms an extensive bay, where vessels may anchor. The natives told Captain Cook, that there was upon this coast a harbour superior to that of Karakakooa. They, perhaps, meant, that it was superior in size, as La Perouse, who carefully examined these shores, could find no other anchorage than the above bay, and this was none of the best. The shores from the eastern to the southern point form nearly a line, and the country upon this coast, particularly to the eastward, is the most beautiful part of the island. The torrents rush in cataracts from the lofty summits of the mountains, and discharge themselves into the sea, watering in their course

the habitations of the natives, which are so numerous, that a space of three or four leagues seems to form only one village. The houses are all situated by the sea-side, and the mountains run so close upon them, that the habitable skirt seems to be no more than half a league in breadth. Most of the habitations are surrounded with banana-trees, and the hills are covered with a charming verdure. Approaching the south point, the scene becomes less interesting, the hills retire inwards, the population diminishes, and the villages are very small; and, towards the north-west, the eye beholds nothing but a frightful shore, from which lava formerly rolled, like the cascades that now fall from the precipices in the eastern part. In both divisions of the island, the mountains rise, almost perpendicularly, to a very great height, and may be seen at the distance of thirty leagues, exhibiting a variety of peaked forms. Their sides, as well as the deep chasms which divide them, are prettily feathered with bananas and bread-fruit trees; but their summits are perfectly bare, and of a reddish brown hue.

The soil of the country is wholly composed of lava and other volcanic matter. The water is bad, and to be had only from small wells, which do not afford to the inhabitants more than half a hogshead each day. Inland from the bay, on the south-west coast, are three or four villages, the houses of which are built of straw, not unlike those of the lowest class of English peasants—the roofs in the form of a pent-house. The door is placed at the gable end, and admits of no entrance without stooping.

RANAI is situated to the south-west of the passage between Mowee and Morotoi, about nine miles distant from both. Towards the south, the country appears elevated and craggy; but the rest of the island has a better appearance, and its population is considerable. Edible roots, such as yams, taro, and potatoes, grow here in abundance; but plantains and bread-fruit trees are very scarce.

In the direction of west-north-west from Mowee, and distant from it about seven miles, lies MOROTOI, which appears to be destitute of wood. Its south-western coast is very low; but the land behind is considerably elevated. On the south and west the coast contains several bays, which afford shelter from the trade-winds.

TAHOOROWA is situated off the south-western part of Mowee, from which it is distant about nine miles. It is a small island, destitute of wood, of a sandy and sterile soil.

Between this and Mowee stands the little isle of Morotinnee, which has no inhabitants.

WOAHOO lies about seven leagues, in a north-westerly direction, from Morotoi. The Bay of Whyteete, on the west side of the island, affords very good anchorage, and is, perhaps, the most secure of any of the Sandwich Islands. The shores on this side are populous and well cultivated. The villages are numerous; and the surrounding country is interspersed with pleasing valleys. A well formed causey, about eight feet wide, lined by a ditch on each side, runs northward from the village of Whyteete, and opens an easy communication with the numerous plantations of the Indians. They are finely laid out in small enclosures, planted with taro, between which and the mountains a spacious plain intervenes, somewhat similar to a large English common. The sides of the hills are rocky and barren, but the intermediate valleys are inhabited, and well cultivated. By a large aqueduct from the mountains, the enclosures can be inundated at pleasure, in order to hasten the growth of the taro. The dykes are raised several feet above the ground, to serve as roads in time of an inundation. The soil is very good, and the land richly cultivated. Though not so fertile as that of Otaheitee or Tongataboo, where the luxuriant crops are reaped with less labour, it is, upon the whole, a very delightful island, and one of the most beautiful of the Sandwich groupe.

Its eastern shores, like those of Ranai, consist of rocky and high precipices. Its northern point is a remarkable promontory, the top of which resembles a volcanic crater. There is another nearly similar on the southern part of the island. The coast to the northward consists of detached hills, which ascend perpendicularly from the sea, the sides of them are covered with wood, and the intermediate valleys are fertile and well cultivated.

ATOOI, though only thirty miles in length, is, perhaps, of more importance to Europeans than any other part of this archipelago, as it is capable of affording to navigators a more plentiful supply of provisions and fresh water than others of larger exteut. Excepting the coast to the north-east and north-west, a beautiful variegation of hill and dale delights the eye in every direction. Agriculture is here in the highest perfection, and the soil amply remunerates the easy labours of the husbandman.

In the interior, the mountains are very high; but their desceut towards the shore is gradual, and they are susceptible of cultivation to their very summits. Towards the bottom they are clothed with wood. The ground, from the woody part to the sea, is covered with fine grass, about two feet high, sometimes growing in tufts, and which might be easily converted into fine hay. The soil, in the low grounds, is of a loose darkish brown; but, on the high grounds, it is more red, stiff, and clayey. The valleys produce taro larger than that of the other islands of the Pacific; the more elevated ground furnishes sweet potatoes, of from ten to fourteen pounds weight. In the low grounds, the plantations are regularly divided by deep ditches, the fences are formed with considerable neatness, and the roads through them are such as would not disgrace the skill of an European.

In a valley to the north of the village of Wymoa, there is a piece of wicker-work, in the form of a pedestal, about twenty feet high, very curiously wrought. It is placed in the middle of a morai, which resembles those of Otaheitee and other islands.

Wymoa Bay lies on the south-west side of the island. Although not fully sheltered from the trade-winds, it affords, otherwise, good anchorage.

About sixty-one miles from the north-east point of Atooi, Vancouver observed a small islet, uninhabited.

ONEEHEOW is the most westerly of this archipelago, if we except the small isle Tahoora. It is about six leagues west of Atooi. Its eastern coast rises abruptly from the sea, and is pretty high: the other parts of the island are generally low. Its chief produce is yams, and a sweet root, called *tee*. The only anchorage-place it possesses is situated in twenty-one degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and one hundred and ninety-nine degrees forty-five minutes east longitude.

OREEHOUA and TAHOORA are two small islands, in the neighbourhood of Oneeheow. The first of these is wholly composed of one naked rock, to all appearance destitute of soil, and without inhabitants. It lies close upon Oneeheow, to the north. The other lies to the south-east of it, at some small distance, and is also uninhabited.

The Sandwich Islands, though situated in the same latitude with some of those in the West-Indies, which are visited by earthquakes and hurricanes, appear to be free from these dreadful convulsions of nature. The winds blow here generally from the points between the north-east and south-east; and from these the villages of the Indians, which in all the islands are commonly situated to the windward, are protected by the mountains, which occupy a large portion of the interior country. The atmosphere all around the coast is warm and serene, and forms a complete contrast with that of the high land of the interior, where clouds and rain alternately embosom the hills, above which are seen the high summits of Kaah and Roa, perpetually enveloped in a mantle of snow. The contrast in this respect is not greater than the sudden transition from heat to cold so frequently experienced at Owhyhee, in a difference of situation not more than ten or twelve miles.

So piercing is the atmosphere for fifteen or twenty miles around Mount Roa, that an English party, were totally deprived of sleep for some nights, although only twelve miles distant from the bay, where the mean height of the thermometer at noon was eighty-three degrees. In Wymoa Bay it was commonly about seventy-six. At Owhyhee they have a regular ebb and flow of the tide every six hours; but at Atooi, and the other islands to the north-west, a regular tide is barely discernible. The currents preserve no regularity in their courses, setting sometimes to windward, and sometimes to leeward, without appearing to be directed in any measure by the winds.

Animals, Vegetables, &c.] The Sandwich Islands are not infested by any beast of prey. Their quadrupeds are confined to three sorts; namely, hogs, dogs, and rats. The dogs are of the same species, though not so numerous, as those at Otaheitee. Their domestic qualities are here unknown, and will probably remain so, as the islands contain no objects of chace: they seem to be kept merely for the table; and, on this account, are turned out to feed and herd with the hogs. The last of these are of a larger breed than those of the Society Isles, and so numerous, that Owhyhee alone afforded to Captain Cook's frigates about one hundred and twenty puncheons, of five hundred weight each, without seeming in the least exhausted. Birds, though not in great variety, are seen in vast numbers, and some of them remarkably beautiful: among these are four species, that seem to belong to the trochili, or honey-suckers, of Linnæus. One of them, called by the natives *koohoo*, is of a glossy black, and a little larger than a bullfinch; and a second, named *ceeeve*, is of a bright scarlet, with black wings, white on the edges; another is variegated with brown, yellow, and red; the fourth is entirely green, with a yellow tinge, and is called *akaiearooa*. Thrushes, parroquets, ravens, common water hens, and large white pigeons, besides curlews, petrels, plovers, and owls, are also inhabitants of this groupe.

The vegetable productions of the Sandwich Islands are much the same with others of the Pacific Ocean. Bread-fruit trees are not found here in the same abundance as at Otaheitee, but they yield a double produce; and the taro-root is superior to any found in the South Seas. Large brown roots, the juice of which is an excellent succedaneum for sugar, and which the natives use as a common article of food, are found at Oneeheow. These seem to be indigenous to the Sandwich groupe. The sugar-canes grow to an uncommon size. One of them was seen at Atooi, which had fourteen feet eatable, and was eleven inches and a quarter in circumference.

Buildings, &c.] The houses or huts, in which the Sandwich islanders reside, are of various dimensions, from forty-five feet long and eighteen feet broad to twenty-four feet long and two feet broad. They are thatched, on the outside, with straw, and their appearance and shape differ very little from that of English hay-stacks; but they are not so high on the sides for support of the roof. The doors are necessarily low, and are placed either in the gable end or sides of the hut. In most of the islands, some houses are built for the accommodation of strangers or travellers, which are about fifty feet in length by thirty in breadth. Some of the best habitations have a court-yard before them, very neatly railed in, and, around this,

small habitations are erected for the servants. In this area the family usually eat and sit in the day-time.

The inside of their abodes are kept remarkably clean, and the floor is usually strewed with dried grass, over which is thrown a mat, on which the inmates both sit and sleep. At one end is placed a bench, for the purpose of holding the household utensils, which consist of gourd-shells, wooden bowls, and trenchers of various sizes. The shells are used as bottles for holding water, and as baskets to contain various small articles.

In the sides of the rocks, in various places, are dug large caves, which seem to be inhabited. These fastnesses are meant as places of retreat, in case of invasion or otherwise. They are defended in front by strong wicker-work, and still more effectually secured within by a wall, placed near the opening.

Huts of this kind, built without any regularity, to the number of one and sometimes two hundred, compose a village. The houses are placed close to each other, but so disposed as to allow a winding path to extend through the middle of the village. Loose detached walls, intended for shelter and defence, flank them generally on the side that lies next the sea.

Arts, Manufactures, &c.] In the construction of their canoes, the inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands display much neatness and ingenuity. They are made of a single tree, and are from twelve to forty or fifty feet long. The hollowing of the trees, and bringing each end to a proper point, with rude unfashioned tools, must be a work of time and unremitting attention: they are, in general, about an inch thick, and heightened with additional boards, neatly fitted round the sides. The single canoes are steadied by an outrigger, and the double ones are held together by semicircular poles, firmly lashed to each part of the canoe: over these, and parallel with the canoe, is a kind of platform, which serves to carry hogs, vegetables, or any thing they want to convey from one place to another, and, at the same time, is a convenient seat for the principal persons of both sexes, whilst the towtows, who paddle, always sit in the body of the canoe. Their paddles are about four or five feet long, and bear some resemblance to a baker's peel.

The natural ingenuity of these people is in nothing more evident than in the manufacture of their cloth. Its excellence is certainly adequate to the means and advantages which they possess, and the staining or painting of it does honour to the taste of the females, to whom this branch is entrusted. It is made of the morus papyrifera: the first stage of the process is the same as at the Society Islands. That which they intend to paint is of a strong and thick texture, several folds being beaten and incorporated together; after which they cut it in breadths, two or three feet wide, and then paint it in a great variety of patterns, with such regularity and comprehensiveness of design, as evinces an extraordinary portion of taste and ingenuity. The exactness with which the most intricate patterns are continued is really astonishing, as they have no stamps, and the whole is performed with a piece of bamboo-cane, dipped in paint; the hand being supported by another piece of the same sort of cane. They extract their colours from the same sort of berries, and other vegetable articles, which are used at Otaheitee for this purpose. The operation of staining or painting their cloth is denominated *kipparee;* which term is also used in speaking of European writing. The young women, it is said, would frequently take the pen from the hand of their English visitors, telling them that they were better acquainted with the use of it than themselves, and that our pens were inferior to theirs. They considered a sheet of paper, which had been written on, as a piece of cloth striped after the English manner; and it was with difficulty they could understand, that our figures contained a meaning, of which their's were destitute.

Their mats, which are commonly the workmanship of the erees, are made of the leaves of plantains; and these, as well as their cloths, are beautifully wrought in various patterns, and stained with divers colours. Some of them have a ground of straw-colour, embellished with green spots; others are of a pale green, spotted with squares or rhomboids of red; and some are ornamented with elegant stripes, either in straight or waved lines of red and brown. In this branch of manufacture, whether we regard the fineness, beauty, or strength, these islanders may be said to excel most civilized nations.

The neatness, as well as the strength, of their fish hooks, considering the materials of which they are made, is amazing; and they answer their purpose better than those in use among Europeans. They are formed of bone, or mother-of-pearl, shaped like a fish, and serve for both hook and bait. Those intended for catching the shark are made of wood, larger by four inches than those commonly used for taking small fish. Of the bark of the cloth-tree they form the lines which they use for fishing, for making nets, and for some other purposes. They are of different degrees of fineness, and may be continued to any length. They have also a sort made of the bark of a shrub named *areemah;* and the finest is composed of human hair: this last, however, is principally used in the way of ornament. They likewise make cordage of a stronger kind, from cocoa-nut fibres, for the out-rigging of their canoes.

The warlike weapons of these islanders are daggers, which they call by the name of *pahooa,* spears, slings, and clubs. The pahooa is made of a black heavy wood, that resembles ebony: it is commonly from one to two feet in length, and has a string passing through the handle, by

which it is suspended from the arm. The blade is somewhat rounded in the middle; the sides are sharp, and terminate in a point. This weapon is intended for close engagements; and, in the hands of the natives, it is a very destructive one. Their spears are of two kinds, and are formed of hard wood, which, in its appearance, is somewhat like mahogany. One sort is from six to eight feet in length, well polished, and increasing gradually in thickness from the extremity till within the distance of six or seven inches from the point, which tapers suddenly, and has five or six rows of barbs. It is probable, that these are used in the way of javelins. The other sort, with which the warriors at Atooi and Owhyhee are chiefly armed, are from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and, instead of being barbed, terminate towards the point, in the manner of the daggers. Their slings are the same with European ones, except in this respect, that the stone is lodged on matting, instead of leather. Their clubs, which are formed indifferently of several kinds of wood, are of various sizes, and of rude workmanship.

The method universally practised to dress their victuals is baking, which is done in the following manner: a hole is dug in the ground, sufficiently deep to answer the purpose of an oven, at the bottom of which a number of hot stones are laid: these being covered with leaves, whatever they want dressed is laid on them; more leaves are then laid on, and another layer of hot stones being added, the oven is covered. If a hog is baked, the belly is filled with hot stones. Custom has rendered this mode of dressing victuals so very familiar, that they can tell the exact time when any thing is sufficiently done; and it must be owned, that, in baking their taro or yams, they far excel us; they also dress the young tops of taro so as to be an excellent substitute for greens, though their English visitors never could boil them to their own satisfaction.

The ingenuity of man naturally guides him, in every climate, to the supply of his natural wants; and invention is not less displayed in the calabash of the Sandwich Islands, than in the more elegant utensils of polished nations. The ground, it is true, every where furnishes the raw materials of earthen-ware; but, without the furnace, how shall it be calcined?—and where iron is not to be had, it is plain that ingenuity could not discover the process. Nature, however, has given to the South Seas gourds of such enormous magnitude, that some of them will contain twelve gallons. In order to adapt them the better to their respective purposes, the natives give them different shapes, by means of bandages, fastened around them during their growth. Thus some of them, in the form of a dish, serve to hold puddings, vegetables, and salted provisions; others, of a cylindrical form, contain their fishing-tackle; and others, resembling a long-necked bottle, contain water. They have the appearance of being painted with a variety of elegant designs, by being singed with a heated instrument.

The pans in which they make their salt are formed of earth, lined with clay: they are commonly about six or eight feet square, and two-thirds of a foot deep. They are elevated on a bank of stones near the high-water mark, whence the salt-water is conducted to the bottom of them in trenches, out of which they are filled, and in a short time the sun performs the process of evaporation. The salt obtained at Karakakooa is the best, and is also procured in great quantities.

In the art of sculpture these islanders have made considerable proficiency. The bowls out of which the erees drink their yava are formed of wood, and finely polished. These are in general eight or ten inches in diameter, and perfectly round. They are supported by three or four small human figures, represented in different attitudes, very neatly finished, and accurately proportioned; even the anatomy of the muscles is well expressed.

Their knives are of different kinds. Those used in killing and dressing hogs are made of sharks' teeth. They seem to answer the purpose very well; and are handled by the natives with equal dexterity and dispatch.

Both sexes make use of fans and fly-flaps, of very curious workmanship. The former are usually made of cocoa-nut fibres, neatly woven; the mounting is of a square form, the handle frequently decorated with hair. The handle of the fly-flap is ornamented with an alternate mixture of wood and bone; the upper part, or, more properly, the fan itself, is composed of the feathers of the man-of-war bird.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Sandwich islanders are in their persons rather taller than Europeans. Their physiognomy is not marked with any of that fierceness which characterizes the savages of Maouna, and which we are apt to ascribe to uncivilized tribes in general. Their eyes, on the contrary, are expressive of sweetness and sensibility, in a greater degree than that of any other Indians of the Pacific Ocean, if we except those of the Pelew Isles. Their complexion is somewhat darker than that of the Otaheiteans. Their dark brown hair is not inclined uniformly to curl, like that of the African, nor is it, like that of the American, uniformly straight, but varies, in these respects, like our own. They walk in an upright graceful manner, are capable of undergoing much fatigue, and run with great agility. But, upon the whole, they are not quite so handsome as the natives of the Society Islands. Like them, the erees of this groupe are superior in person to the common people; but the immoderate use of the yava frequently debilitates their chiefs, covers them with a white leprous scurf, and paralizes their limbs, producing, at the same time, an uncouth redness of the eyes, and a disability to raise the head erect. The

towtows, or common people, are free from these calamities, being prohibited the use of this pernicious drug; but they are subject to scorbutic eruptions, which may probably result from their living too much upon salt provisions, of which they are so fond. At Atooi, as at the Friendly Islands, the yava is drank diluted with water; and the chiefs of this island are on this account a much finer set of men than those of Owhyhee. The pernicious effects of this root, however, are not so lasting as those of British spirits; for whenever the use of it is left off, even after very long habit, the powers of the body quickly revive, and the skin resumes its pristine colour. The constant use of it does not appear to shorten life, but it invariably occasions a premature and decrepit old age.

In the size and figure, as well as the colour, of both sexes, there is a remarkable conformity. The delicacy of feature that usually distinguishes the female, is here scarcely discernible; and the limbs of the women are not so handsomely formed as those of the Otaheitean females. They are far, however, from being ugly; and they possess a lively open countenance. Both sexes enjoy a frank cheerful disposition, equally remote from the sedate cast of the inhabitants of Tongataboo, and the fickle levity of those of Otaheitee. Husbands are here not the tyrants but the protectors and helpmates of their wives. Maternal tenderness is lively and strong, nor does it exceed the anxious care of the father for his children. That same respect, however, for the female character, which is observed in some of the other islands, and which is undoubtedly a criterion of civilized manners, is not common here; and in general the women live in a detached manner by themselves.

The custom of tatooing or puncturing the body is also common in the Sandwich Islands, but the practice of ornamenting the face in this manner is peculiar to them and to New Zealand. Contrary to the general custom of the southern islands, they do not perforate or wear any ornament in the ear. They adorn their neck, however, with plaitings of small black cord, and sometimes with strings of small shells, or of the dried flowers of the Indian mallow. The men sometimes adorn their heads with the feathers of the tropic bird, or of the cock, fastened round some neatly-polished sticks. Other ornaments for the head are in use, which vary according to the fancy of the wearer: and the same is observed with regard to their mode of wearing or plaiting the hair. They almost universally permit the beard to grow; some, however, wear it on the upper lip only, while a few cut it off entirely.

The common dress of the men of all ranks consists of a piece of thick cloth, called the maro, about a foot in breadth, which passes between the legs, and is fastened round the waist. Their mats, which are, for the most part, about five feet in length, and four in breadth, are thrown over their shoulders, and brought forward before. These, however, are rarely worn, except in time of war, for which purpose they appear to be better calculated than for common use, as they are of a thick heavy texture, and capable of breaking the blow of a stone, or of any blunt weapon. They generally go bare-footed, except when they travel over burnt stones, when they secure their feet with a sandal, made of cords, twisted from cocoa-nut fibres.

Besides their ordinary dress, there is another, which is appropriated to their chiefs, and worn only on extraordinary occasions. It consists of a feathered cloak and cap, or helmet, of uncommon magnificence. These cloaks are of different lengths, according to the rank of the person who wears them; some trailing on the ground, and others reaching no lower than the middle. The chiefs of inferior rank have likewise a short cloak, which resembles the former, and is made of the tail-feathers of the cock, the man-of-war bird, and the tropic bird, having a broad border of small red and yellow feathers, and also a collar of the same. Others are composed of white feathers, with variegated borders. The cap, or helmet, has a strong lining of wicker-work, sufficient to break the blow of any warlike weapon; for which purpose it is evidently intended. These feathered dresses seem to be very scarce, and to be worn only by the male sex on some remarkable occasion.

In the common dress of the men, and that of the women, there is but little difference. The latter wear a piece of cloth wrapped round the waist, which descends half way down their thighs; and sometimes, during the cool of the evening, they throw loose pieces of fine cloth over their shoulders, like the females of Otaheitee. They have another kind of dress, called the *pan*, which consists of the thinnest and finest cloth, wrapped several times about the middle, and reaching down to the leg; so that it has the appearance of a full short petticoat.

The singular taste of these islanders with regard to ornaments displays itself in various forms. Both men and women wear below the knee, and sometimes upon the arm, a sort of belt, round which are hung rows of shells, that make a tinkling noise when they move. At times the men wear a sort of mask, composed of a large gourd, having holes cut in it for the eyes and the nose, the top of it being stuck full of green twigs, and pieces of cloth depending from the bottom of it in front.

The animal-food of the common people is chiefly fish. The flesh of hogs and dogs, dressed after the manner of the Society Isles, is reserved for the chiefs and people of distinction. Fowls are sometimes used, but they are not held in estimation. The vegetable diet consists of plantains, yams, taro, bread-fruit, sweet potatoes, and sugar-canes. They are fond of salt provisions, and the chiefs consider pickled pork as a great delicacy. They also salt their fish, and preserve them in gourds and large shells.

At their meals they are remarkably cleanly; and their mode of dressing both animal and vegetable food, Mr. King informs us, is far superior to ours. The higher orders among them begin their meals with a draught of yava, or of the extract of pepper-root. The women, who eat apart from the men, are interdicted from eating pork, turtle, and some species of the plantain.

These people are subject to very few diseases, excepting those brought on by their own imprudence. Such, at least, is the opinion of all modern travellers who have visited them, except La Peronse, who, in his comparison of these Indians with those of Easter Island, represents them, either from their being liable to many other maladies, or from the effects of those we have mentioned, being more general and more fatal than other navigators seem to believe, as enfeebled and greatly emaciated. But his acquaintance with the Sandwich Islands was so transient and his observations upon the whole founded on a call of six or eight hours only, at one of the islands, that the particulars wherein he differs from his fellow-voyagers cannot be stated as facts

In the division of their time between rest and labour, the natives of the Sandwich Islands, like other Indian tribes, follow what appears to be the design of Nature: they come forth from their cabin at sun-rise,—the tow-tow to prosecute his labours in the field, and the eree to the manufacture of mats, or the construction of his canoe. They retire to rest, after enjoying the cool of the evening, an hour or two after sun-set. None of the Europeans who have visited them seem to have ascertained how much of the day is spent in labour: but it is not difficult to ascertain, although they had given us no other information respecting this people than their simple state with regard to clothing, and the natural fertility of their soil, that their labours must be easy in proportion to the fewness of their wants, and their abundant means of supplying them. In this respect, perhaps, they are happier than more civilized nations, for it is very problematical whether, if the improvements such nations have made in science have increased their happiness, they have increased their leisure. The sweat of the brow, with which the Indian earns his bread, is the necessary aliment of health, and the manly discipline of nature; while more polished nations, in the decrepitude of old age at the prime of life, are wasting their strength to gratify an unnatural appetite, or to supply a factitious want.

It is the common practice among the inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands, to eat their meals without doors, frequently under the shade, and generally alone. They have certain ideas of delicacy in this matter, which are foreign to Europeans; and, at this season, they enjoy none of the pleasures resulting from the conversation of friends. Their friendly and convivial hours are not those of eating and drinking; and in a state of society like theirs, where a very limited share of knowledge gives them but few topics of conversation, amusement must necessarily fill up the vacuity.

The youth of both sexes are particularly fond of dancing; and, on certain occasions, they entertain themselves with wrestling and boxing matches, performed after the manner of the natives of the Friendly Islands; to whom, however, they are greatly inferior in these respects. Their dances are generally introduced with a solemn kind of song, in which the whole number join, at the same time slowly moving their legs, and striking gently upon their breasts; their attitudes and manner being very easy and graceful. After this has continued about the space of ten minutes, they gradually quicken their motions and tune, and do not desist till completely tired. This part of the performance is the counter-part of that of the inhabitants of New Zealand; and, as among those people, the person whose action is the most violent, and who continues this exercise the longest, is applauded by the spectators as the best dancer. It must be remarked, that, in this dance, women only engage; and the dances of the men resemble those of the small parties at the Friendly Isles; and which may, perhaps, more properly, be termed the accompaniment of songs, with correspondent motions of the whole body. But as some boxing exhibitions are seen, of the same kind with those that occur at the Friendly Isles, it is not improbable, that they have here likewise their grand dances, wherein both men and women are performers. Their music, on these and other occasions, is of a rude kind; for the only instruments observed among them, are drums, of various sizes. Their songs, however, which they are said to sing in parts, and which they accompany with a gentle motion of their arms, have a very pleasing effect.

Both sexes are very expert in swimming; an art which, among these people, is deemed necessary, and constitutes their favourite diversion. One particular method, in which they sometimes amuse themselves, is worthy of notice: The surf that breaks on the coast round the bay extends about one hundred and fifty yards from the shore; and, within that space, the surges of the sea are dashed against the beach with great violence. Whenever the impetuosity of the surf is augmented to its greatest height, they make choice of that time for their amusement, which they perform in this manner:—about twenty or thirty of the natives take each a long narrow board, rounded at both ends, and set out in company with each other from the shore They plunge under the first wave they meet, and, after they have suffered it to roll over them, rise again beyond it, and swim farther out to sea. They encounter the second wave in the same manner with the first. The principal difficulty consists in seizing a favourable opportunity of diving under it; for, if a person miss the proper mo

ment, he is caught by the surf, and forced back with great violence; and his utmost dexterity is required to prevent his being dashed against the rocks. When, in consequence of these repeated efforts, they have gained the smooth water beyond the surf, they recline themselves at length upon the boards, and prepare for their return to shore. The surf being composed of a number of waves, of which every third is observed to be considerably larger than the rest, and to flow higher upon the shore, while the others break in the intermediate space; their first object is to place themselves upon the top of the largest surge, which drives them along with astonishing rapidity towards the land. If, by mistake, they happen to place themselves on one of the smaller waves, which breaks before they gain the shore, or find themselves unable to keep their board in a proper direction on the upper part of the swell, they remain exposed to the fury of the next; to avoid which they are under the necessity of diving again, and recovering the place whence they set out.

Those who succeed in reaching the shore are still in a dangerous situation; for, as the coast is skirted by a chain of rocks, with a small opening between them in several places, they are obliged to steer their plank through one of these openings; or, in case of ill success in that respect, to quit it before they reach the rocks, and, diving under the wave, make their way back again as well as they are able. This is considered as highly disgraceful, and is attended with the loss of the plank, which is frequently dashed to pieces, at the very instant the native quits it. The amazing courage and address with which they perform these dangerous achievements are almost incredible. The following accident evinces at how early a period they are so far accustomed to the water, as to lose all apprehensions of its perils, and even set them at defiance.—A canoe, in which were a woman and her children, happening to overset, one of the children, an infant of about four years old, appeared to be greatly delighted, swimming about at its ease, and playing a number of tricks, till the canoe was brought to its former position. Among the amusements of the children, there is one that is frequently played at, and which shows a considerable share of dexterity. They take a short stick, through one extremity whereof runs a peg, sharpened at both ends, extending about an inch on each side; then throwing up a ball, formed of green leaves, moulded together, and fastened with twine, they catch it on one of the points of the peg; immediately after which, they throw it up again from the peg, then turn the stick round, and catch the ball on the other point. Thus, for some time, they continue catching it on each point of the peg alternately, without missing it. They are also equally expert at another diversion of a similar nature, throwing up in the air, and catching, in their turns, many of these balls; and the little children thus keep five balls in mo... at the same time.

The common method of showing respect to their chiefs is prostration; and a very high degree of deference, amounting to religious adoration, is expressed by throwing over the shoulders a piece of red cloth, the same with which they array their idols, and by presenting an offering of a hog. This ceremony was gone through the first time that Captain Cook landed at Owhyhee. Another very strange piece of homage was offered to the captain at this place, which we will give in the language of Mr. King, who was present. It seems requisite, however, in the first place, to give a brief description of the morai at Karakakooa, where the scene chiefly lay.

This morai consists of a square solid pile of stones, forty yards long, twenty broad, and fourteen feet high. The top of it is flat, and it is surrounded with a wooden railing, whereon are displayed the skulls of those natives who have been sacrificed on the death of their chiefs. A ruinous wooden building is situated in the centre of the area, connected with the railing by a stone-wall, dividing the whole space into two parts. Five poles, about twenty feet high, support an irregular kind of scuffold, on the side next the country; and on that towards the sea are two small houses, with a covered communication.—"To the top of this pile," says our author, "we were conducted by Koah, one of the priests. At our entrance, we saw two large wooden images, with distorted features, having a long piece of wood, of a conical form, inverted, proceeding from the top of their heads. Here Captain Cook was received by a tall young man, having a long beard, who presented him to the images, and chaunted a kind of hymn, in which he was assisted by Koah. We were then led to that side of the morai where the poles were erected; at the foot of which twelve images were placed, and ranged in the form of a semi-circle; the middle figure having a high table before it, on which we saw a putrid hog; and under it some cocoa-nuts, plantains, potatoes, bread-fruit, and pieces of sugar-cane. Captain Cook was conducted under this stand by Koah; who, having taken down the hog, held it towards him; when, having again addressed him in a long and vehement speech, he suffered it to fall to the ground, and ascended the scaffold with him, though every moment in danger of falling.

"We now beheld, advancing in solemn procession, and entering the top of the morai, ten men, bearing a live hog, and a piece of cloth of considerable dimensions. Advancing a few paces, they stopped, and prostrated themselves; and Kaireekeea, the tall young man already mentioned, approaching them, received the cloth, and carried it to Koah, who wrapped it round the commodore, and made him an offering of the hog. The commodore was now aloft, in a situation truly whimsical, being

swathed in red cloth, and hardly able to keep his hold on the rotten scaffolding. In this situation he was entertained with the chaunting of Koah and Kaireckeea, sometimes alternately, and sometimes in concert. After this service was performed, Koah let the hog drop; upon which he immediately descended with Captain Cook. He then conducted him to the images just mentioned, to each of which he expressed himself in a sneering tone, and snapped his fingers at them as he passed. He then presented him to that in the centre, which, from its being habited in red cloth, appeared to be held in the highest estimation. Before this Koah fell prostrate, and requested of Captain Cook to do the same, which he readily submitted to, being determined to follow Koah's directions throughout the whole of a ridiculous ceremony, in which his curiosity and vanity were equally gratified. We were now conveyed into the other division of the morai, where a space of about twelve feet square was sunk three feet below the level of the area. When we had descended into this, the commodore was seated immediately between the two idols, one of his arms being supported by Koah, and the other by Mr. King. A second procession of natives at this time arrived, with a baked hog, a pudding, some cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, and other vegetables. As they drew near, Kaireekeea placed himself before them, and presented the hog to the commodore in the usual manner, chaunting as before, and his companions making regular responses; but we observed their speeches and responses grew gradually shorter; and, towards the conclusion, Kaireekeea's did not exceed three or four words, which was answered by the word *orono*. This was a common appellation among the natives, sometimes applied to an invisible being inhabiting heaven; at others used as a title of high rank in the island. At the conclusion of this offering, the natives seated themselves opposite to us, and began to cut up the baked hog, to break the cocoa-nuts, and to peel the vegetables. Others were employed in chewing the yava, and making the liquor, in the same manner as it is extracted at the Friendly Isles. Kaireekeea then chewed part of the kernel of a cocoa-nut, and wrapped it in a piece of cloth, with which he rubbed the captain's head, face, hands, arms, and shoulders. The yava was afterwards handed round; and, when we had all tasted it, Koah and Pareea pulled the flesh of the hog in pieces, and proceeded to put some of it in our mouths. Mr. King had no particular objection to being fed by Pareea, who was remarkably cleanly in his person; but Captain Cook, to whom a piece was presented, could not swallow a morsel, the putrid hog being strong in his recollection; and as the old man, from motives of civility, had chewed it for him, his reluctance was much increased. This ceremony being concluded, we quitted the morai, after distributing among the populace some pieces of iron and other articles, with which they were much delighted. We were then conducted, in procession, to the boats, the men with wands attending, and pronouncing sentences as before. We returned on board full of the idea of what we had seen, and perfectly satisfied with the honest dispositions of our new friends."

That the religious system of these people has the same origin with that of the inhabitants of the Society and Friendly Islands is clearly evident; for their morais and whattas, their hymns and orations, their priests, oblations, and ceremonies, are all the same. The worship of birds, which obtains in different degrees in all the islands of the Pacific, is here chiefly appropriated to the raven. Two of these, which to appearance had been tamed, were seen by Mr. Banks. The Indians told him to be cautious of touching them, as they were eatooas; and though he could have bought all their whattas, or idols, for two or three nails a piece, these ravens they would not part with at any price. The crude notions respecting the Creator, which prevail in the Otaheitean creed, are not more definite in that of Owhyhee. His residence must be limited to a certain place; and, after the arrival of Captain Cook at these islands, the inhabitants conceived such a notion of the superior power of the English, that they were of opinion the great Eatooa had his abode in *Pretané*, the name they give to our island. They bestowed on the commodore the name of *orono*, the common title of their high-priest, which implies a character somewhat similar to that ascribed by Roman Catholics to their pontiff, the supposed vicegerent of the Almighty.

Although the same religious system is common to the Society, the Friendly, and the Sandwich tribes, it is only at Owhyhee that its ministers are formed into a regular society, and reside in dwellings appropriated to their order. The chief priesthood is hereditary. The family in whom it is vested is commonly allied to the blood royal; and the incumbent, as well as heir to the office, receives honours not inferior to those given to the monarch.

It is doubtless owing to the more general influence and superior power of the order, that the rites and ceremonies of this people are more numerous than in the islands above mentioned. So extensive is the field which occupies the attention of the priest, that it seems impossible to draw a line of distinction between their religious and civil usages.

Among their religious ceremonies may be classed the prayers and offerings made by the priests before their meals. As they always drink yava before they begin a repast, while that is chewing, the superior in rank begins a sort of hymn, in which he is soon after joined by one or more of the company; the bodies of the others are put in motion, and their hands are clapped together in concert with the fingers. The yava being ready, cups of

it are presented to those who do not join in the hymn, and are held in their hands till it is concluded; when, with united voice, they make a loud response, and drink their yava. The performers are then served with some of it, which they drink, after the same ceremony has been repeated. And if any person of a superior rank be present, a cup is presented to him last of all; who having chaunted for a short time, and hearing a response from others, he pours a small quantity on the ground, and drinks the rest. A piece of the flesh, which has been dressed, is then cut off, and, together with some of the vegetables, is placed near the figure of the eatoon; and, after another hymn has been chaunted, the devotees begin their meal. A ceremony, in many respects resembling this, is also performed by the chiefs, when they drink yava before their regular meals.

It does not seem to have been ascertained whether the *taboo* be a part of their religious or civil code: but it is performed by the priesthood, and no command, either of the king or the orono, can be more implicitly obeyed. It is an interdiction, not only applied to places, but to persons and things; the word is also expressive of any thing sacred, devoted, or eminent. If the natives be prohibited from approaching a bay, the bay is said to be *taboo'd;* women, after assisting at a funeral, or touching a dead body, have their meat put into their mouths by others; and, so long as this is the case, the women are thus characterised; the king, in virtue of his superior station, is called eree-taboo; a human victim, tangata-taboo; and, at the Friendly Islands, Tonga, the place of residence of the monarch, is called Tonga-taboo.

It is natural to suppose, that the ceremony which takes place at their funerals should form a part of their religious code. If any notions of a future state of rewards and punishments be entertained, (and we have reason to conclude, that some imperfect ideas of this kind obtain here,) and if any reliance be placed in the superior efficacy of the intercessions of those devoted by their office to the service of the Supreme Deity, the terrors of death will undoubtedly confirm these notions, and the prayers of the mediator will not be unimplored. In the Sandwich Islands, the intercessions of the priesthood are prolonged till the burial of the deceased. Their practice in this respect would seem to be the consequence of some crude opinion respecting an intermediate state, in which the soul, after having left the body, resides for some time in the precincts of the morai, before its destination is finally determined.

On the demise of a chief, a crowd of people collect round his dwelling, and seat themselves in the area fronting the house. The priest, whose orations and prayers are heard within, frequently comes to the door, with dismal howlings and contortions of his face: a large mat is afterwards spread upon the area, upon which the people belonging to the house place themselves in three equal rows: they are habited in feathered ruffs, and their shoulders decorated with broad green leaves. Some boys are placed around, waving the sticks which the priest uses in laying on the taboo. The company seated on the mat sing a melancholy tune, accompanied with gentle motions of the arms and body. Their music, as well as their motions, quicken apace, and, at length, become very rapid, but gradually subside again into their former measure. An hour passes in this manner, and more mats are spread upon the area. The widow of the chief, and three or four elderly women, then advance from the house with a slow and solemn pace; and, seating themselves, begin a piteous moaning, in which they are joined by the people seated behind them. Night only puts a period to these lamentations; and the body is removed some hours after. Next day, the bitter cries of the relations are renewed, and the lower parts of their faces are painted perfectly black. A human sacrifice takes place on this occasion; and the body of the person thus unhappily devoted is placed in the morai beside that of the chief. The funeral-rites of the common people are not so long, nor so pompously diversified as those of an eree.

Were it not for the luxuriance and plenty which prevail in the Sandwich Islands, we should be apt to conclude, that this people have no great aversion to the eating of human flesh; at least, there occurred, when Cook was upon their coasts, one or two circumstances, which render it probable, that the practice has not altogether ceased. It is but just, however, to say, that these were but equivocal proofs, and they did not produce more than suspicion in the minds of any of the travellers, who at that time or since have visited them. Human sacrifice is certainly a relic of that savage meal; and among this tribe it is manifestly frequent. Every new war demands a fresh victim to propitiate the deity, and ensure a victory; and, at the installation of a sovereign, or on the death of a chief, this dreadful offering is never dispensed with. At the death of Tereeoboo, ten of his people were thus devoted. After being pitched upon by the priesthood, the unhappy object is assassinated, while asleep, in the dead hour of the night. There is something in this deliberate process which appears more cruel than even the inhuman repast of the New Zealander. It has all its horrors, without any of its dreadful motives; and if a human being can commit the one, his humanity will not scruple, when want urges him on, to gratify his savage appetite with the other.

The Sandwich Islands are the constant scene of cruel wars. Their claims respecting territorial right are the continual source of discord, which never ends but with the submission of the weaker party. On the demise of their eree taboos, or kings, quarrels respecting the succession

to the throne are disputed with all the cruelties of civil war. Their broils are not limited by the boundaries of their several islands; their fertile fields are frequently ravaged by the hands that cultivate them, in the numerous contests in which the petty chiefs of the districts are involved.

Woahoo and Owhyhee, from their magnitude as well as their internal strength, generally hold the other islands under their subjection; and the endeavours of these to throw off the yoke only increase the tribute levied by the victors. When Vancouver visited Mowee, in 1790, it had recently been the theatre of a very sanguinary war between the chiefs of the two former islands, and every where was seen nothing but the traces of devastation. This contest had lasted longer, and been more obstinate, than any these islanders ever maintained, owing to the imprudence of the mercenary captains of merchant vessels, who, to secure plentiful supplies of fresh provisions, had given the natives European fire-arms and ammunition.

The impolicy of this conduct was quickly visible; for, on the arrival of Vancouver, he could with difficulty revictual his ships; and, if a traffic of this nature becomes common, these people will certainly give the Europeans reason to repent of their conduct.

In the Sandwich, as well as most of the other islands in this ocean, society appears much in the same state as Europe under the ancient feudal despotism. The islands are divided into districts, and each district has its chief, subject to no control but that of the king, who receives the appellations of eree-taboo and eree-mowee; the first of these denoting his authority, and the other signifying that in his presence all must prostrate themselves. Under the chiefs are another class, who have the privilege of possessing property, but enjoy no share of power. The body of the people are the towtows, or servants, who have neither rank nor property.

The information hitherto obtained respecting the administration of justice in civil or criminal matters affords only room for conjecture. Quarrels among the common people are generally referred to the judgment of the eree of the particular district; but the disputes of the chiefs are only settled by the sword. When, however, an inferior chief has offended one of superior rank, his punishment is immediate, and most frequently dictated by the feelings of the superior at the moment. The culprit very often compounds for his offence with a part or the whole of his property.

In a nation where the people lie at the mercy of an arbitrary sovereign and restless chiefs, it may be easily supposed, that the limits of right and wrong are neither accurately defined, nor subject to any other interruption than that of caprice. But, where the wants of men are few, and these plentifully supplied, property is of little value; and it is natural to think, that it will afford but small scope for that fermenting self-interest which genders in the bosom of civilized society a class of men that rankle in its vitals and feed on mischief. All their plantations, houses, hogs, and cloth, are left unguarded, without fear or apprehension of plunderers. In the plain country, they separate their possessions by walls; and, in the woods, where plantains grow, they use white flags to discriminate property, in the same manner as they do bunches of leaves at Otaheite. These circumstances strongly indicate, that, where property is concerned, the power of the eres is not arbitrary, but so far limited as to afford encouragement to the inferior orders to cultivate the soil, which they occupy distinctly from each other.

The chiefs possess an unlimited power over the people; but they appear to exercise it with the greatest mildness: the people indeed are implicitly obedient; and, were it otherwise, it is highly probable, that they would be subject to the same cruelty which the eres univerally exercise upon one another, even if a general revolt did not take place. The mildness of their rulers will, in all probability, prevent an alternative of this kind, which would, no doubt, hasten the overthrow of their power.

The Sandwich islanders seem to be contented and happy. Their affluence gives them a thoughtless cheerfulness, and an easy passage through life. The half-starved inhabitant of New Zealand beholds in every stranger an enemy come to dispossess him of the little he enjoys: but an European finds at the Sandwich Islands nothing but friendship and a welcome reception. With presents he is invited on shore; and, should he make an excursion up the country, he is solicited, at the door of every hut, to come in and partake of a meal.

Gaming, a common source of dissolute amusement, is not foreign to these climes. One of their games somewhat resembles the English mode of playing at drafts. Besides others, in which their invention seems to be pretty fertile, they play at bowls, nearly in the same manner as Europeans. They often entertain themselves with races between boys and girls, on which they lay wagers with great spirit. A man was seen beating his breast, and tearing his hair, in the violence of rage, for having lost, at one of these races, three hatchets, which he had purchased with nearly half his property a very little time before.

It is not fully ascertained in what manner marriage takes place among them. It is evidently connected with no ceremony; but, prior to regular cohabitation, some sort of compact seems to exist: whether polygamy be allowed, or whether it be mixed with concubinage, has not been verified; but an individual man and woman, to whom the children are subject, have the management of one house.

"The following," says Mr. King, "is the only instance of any thing like jealousy which we have seen among

them, and which shows that, among married people of rank, not only fidelity, but even a degree of reserve, is required. At one of their boxing matches, Omeah rose two or three times from his place, and approaching his wife with marks of displeasure, commanded her, as we supposed, to withdraw. Whether he thought her beauty engaged too much of our attention, or whatever might be his motives, there certainly existed no real cause of jealousy. She, however, continued in her place; and, at the conclusion of the entertainment, joined our party, and even solicited some trifling presents. She was informed, that we had not any about us; but that, if she would accompany us to the tent, she should be welcome to make choice of what she liked. She was, accordingly, proceeding with us; which being observed by Omeah, he followed in a great rage, seized her by the hair, and, with his fists, began to inflict severe corporal punishment. Having been the innocent cause of this extraordinary treatment, we were exceedingly concerned at it, though we understood it would be highly improper for us to interfere between a husband and wife of such superior rank. The natives, however, at length interposed; and, the next day, we had the satisfaction of meeting them together, perfectly satisfied with each other; besides, what was extremely singular, the lady would not permit us to rally the husband on his behaviour, which we had an inclination to do, but plainly told us, that he had acted very properly."

SECTION V.

THE MARQUESA ISLANDS.

This groupe of islands was discovered in 1595, by Mendana, a Spaniard, and received from him the general appellation of Marquesas, in honour of Mendoza, Marquis of Cande, then viceroy of Peru. He also gave the respective islands which compose it the names of *La Magdalena, St. Pedro, La Dominica,* and *Santa Christina.*

Hood Island, not seen by Mendoza, but discovered by Captain Cook in April, 1774, was so called from the name of one of the crew of the Resolution, who first saw the land. The whole groupe of these islands occupies one degree of latitude, and near half a degree of longitude. Four contiguous islands have been discovered since the time of Captain Cook. These are *Treven's Island, Rion's Island, St. Martin's Island,* and *Robert's Island:* in clear weather they are visible from Hood Island, the most northern of the Marquesas, and are now considered as belonging to that groupe, though neither the Spanish navigator Mendana, nor Captain Cook, had any knowledge of their existence. They were seen by Lieutenant Hergest, of the Dædalus, in his passage to the northward, after leaving Resolution Bay, and then supposed by him to have been new discoveries; though he appears to have been mistaken, as they were discovered and landed on by some American traders.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of these islands collectively are represented as the finest race of people in the South Sea, and surpassing in symmetry of form and features all the other nations; not one disproportioned person was seen upon the island of Christina; but all were robust and well-made.

Their complexion, naturally tawny, is rendered almost black by punctures over the whole body. The figures are various, and seem to be directed more by fancy than custom; but the women, who are but little punctured, youths, and young children, who are not punctured, are of a light tawny colour. The men are, in general, tall, that is, about five feet ten inches, or six feet; none were seen that were corpulent, like the erees of Otaheite; nor were any seen that could be called meagre. The women were inferior to the men in stature, but well proportioned: their general complexion was lighter than that of the men. Their faces are not so good, nor are their eyes so full and lively, as those of many other nations. Their hair is of many colours, except red, of which none was seen. Some have it long; but the most general custom is to wear it short, except a bunch on each side of the crown, which they tie in a knot. They observe different modes in trimming the beard, which is generally long. Some part it, and tie it in two bunches under the chin; others plait it; some wear it loose, and others quite short.

Their habitations, which are in the valleys, and on the sides of the hills near the plantations, resemble in form those of Otaheite, but are much meaner, and covered with leaves of the bread-fruit tree. They are built, in general, on a square or oblong pavement of stone, raised some height above the level of the ground. They have also a pavement near their houses, for the purpose of sitting to eat, regale, and amuse themselves. The Europeans, by the help of glasses, could discern, along the uppermost edge of the mountain, a row of stakes or pallisades, closely connected together, like a fortification, which seemed to resemble the Hippahs of New Zealand.

The house appropriated by the chief, Tenai, for the residence of the two English missionaries, who were intended to have been left on the island, is described by them as twenty feet in length, and six in width, ten feet high in the back part, and four in front. At the corners, four strong stakes are driven into the earth, on which are laid horizontal pieces, and from these last to the ground are bamboos, neatly ranged in perpendicular order, about half an inch distant from each other, and, without them, long blinds, made with leaves, are hung, which renders the

inside very close and warm. The door is about the middle, on the low side.

The furniture is represented as consisting of a large floor-mat, from end to end, several large calabashes, some fishing tackle, and a few spears. In one end the chief kept his ornaments, which he shewed to his European guests; among others, he took out of the bamboo cases two bundles of feathers, of the tail of the tropic bird, not less than a hundred in each bunch, forming a very beautiful and elegant ornament, upon which he seemed to place a great value.

Their clothing is the same as at Otaheite, and made of the same materials; but they have it not in such plenty, nor is it so good.

The dress of the women is a piece of cloth, made of the mulberry-bark, wrapped two or three times round the waist, and the ends tucked up between their thighs; above this is a piece of cloth, nearly as large as a sheet, tied at the upper corners: they lay the knot over one shoulder, and the garment, hanging loose, reaches half way down the leg.

Their principal head-dress is a sort of broad fillet, curiously made of the fibres of the husk of the cocoa-nut. In the front is fixed a mother-of-pearl shell, wrought round to the size of a tea-saucer. Before that is another, smaller, of a very fine tortoise-shell, perforated in curious figures. Before and in the centre of that, is another round piece of mother-of-pearl, about the size of a half-crown piece, and before this another piece of perforated tortoise-shell, the size of a shilling. Besides this decoration in front, some have it also on each side, but in smaller pieces; and all have fixed to them the tail-feathers of cocks or tropic birds, which, when the fillet is tied on, stands upright, so that the whole together makes a very brilliant appearance. They wear round the neck a kind of ruff or neck-lace, made of light wood, the out and upper sides covered with small red peas, fixed on with gum. They also wear small bunches of human hair, fastened to a string, and tied round the legs and arms. Sometimes, instead of hair, they wear short feathers; but all the above-mentioned ornaments are seldom seen on the same person. Captain Cook saw only one chief completely dressed in this manner. Their common ornaments are necklaces, and amulets made of shells. He did not see any with ear-rings; and yet all of them had their ears pierced.

They had a kind of fan to cool themselves in hot weather, formed of a tough bark, very firmly and curiously plaited, and frequently whitened with shell-lime. Some had large feathered leaves of a kind of palm, which answered the purpose of an umbrella.

The chief's house stood on a square platform, raised with stones, having a wall about six feet high on the lowest side; in the inside was a kind of escutcheon, in memory of Honoo, the chief's father: it was curiously wrought with small reeds, laid upright, oblique, and horizontal, and about eight feet in height, forming a side of a pyramid. There was a drum at each end, made like those of the Otaheiteans. Nearly adjoining, and upon the same platform, was another, built on a small eminence, leaving a space in front, where were placed two rude figures of men, carved in wood, nearly the size of life; behind these, against the side of the house, were three other escutcheons, wrought in the same manner as the above mentioned: that in the middle, which was the largest, had the figure of a bird on the top; and the reeds, which composed the whole, being stained of different colours, produced a beautiful and solemn effect. The house had no door nor opening of any kind; but as the officer's curiosity was excited, he opened a hole on the side of it, to see what it contained, and beheld a coffin, fixed upon two stakes about a yard from the ground. Just at this time the chief came up, and, seeing he was not angry, the English officer again opened the hole, and pointed to the coffin; he instantly exclaimed Honoo, and repeated it several times, by which the officer knew it was his father, and thought the chief pleased to see him notice the honour he paid to his memory. The coffin was cylindrical, and bound about with various coloured plaiting, made of the fibres of the cocoa-nut. This sepulchre, the trees, and every thing within the platform, was considered sacred, and must not be approached by the women.

In the article of eating, these people are by no means so cleanly as the Otaheiteans. Pork and fowls were dressed in an oven of hot stones, as at Otaheite; but fruit and roots they roast on the fire, and, after taking off the rind or skin, put them into a platter, or trough of water, out of which both men and hogs eat at the same time. Captain Cook once saw them make a batter of fruit and roots, diluted with water, in a vessel that was loaded with dirt, and out of which the hogs had been but that moment eating, without giving it the least washing, or even washing their hands, which were equally dirty; and, when he expressed dislike, he was laughed at.

The missionaries observe that, "With respect to their manner of living, like most uncivilized nations, they have no regular meals, but eat when they are hungry, though not a great quantity at a time, as on their arrival it was their season of scarcity. When they have a hog, they eat of it five or six times a day; and when without animal food, they use the roasted bread-fruit, mahie, puddings made of other vegetables, ahee-nuts, and a paste made of a root resembling the yam; and this they do often in the course of the day. The women are not allowed to eat hog's flesh, and probably are under other prohibitions, as at Otaheite, as they seem very harshly treated.

The tame fowls are cocks and hens; and their only quadrupeds are hogs and rats; but the woods are inhabited by small birds, whose plumage is exceedingly beautiful, and their notes sweetly varied. The Europeans left cats and she-goats, and were concerned that they had no he-goats to give them, as they were so fond of those animals, that the chief took them wherever he went.

The trees, plants, and other productions of these isles, as far as could be known to our people, were nearly the same as at the Society Isles. There are plantains, yams, and some other roots; likewise bread-fruit and cocoa-nuts.

Their canoes are made of wood and the bark of a soft tree, which grows near the sea, and is very proper for the purpose: their length is from sixteen to twenty feet, and about sixteen inches broad. The head and stern are formed out of two solid pieces of wood; the former is carved, and the latter ends in a point, which, projecting horizontally, is decorated with a small carved figure, having a faint resemblance to the human face. Some of the canoes have a latteen-sail, but they are generally rowed with paddles. Their weapons are clubs and spears, resembling those of Otaheite, but somewhat larger. They have also slings, with which they throw stones to a great distance, but not with a good aim.

Their religious ceremonies resemble those of the Society Islands. They have a morai in each district, where the dead are buried beneath a pavement of large stones. They have a great number of deities, under a variety of appellations, but there does not seem to be any superiority among them. They offer hogs in sacrifice, but never any of the human race.

SECTION VI.

THE SOCIETY ISLES.

All the islands from a hundred and sixty degrees of west longitude from Greenwich to the eastern extremity of Polynesia may be included under the general name of the Society Islands; a range which will thus even exceed the Carolines in number. The principal of these are Otaheite, Huaheine, Ulietea, Bolabola, Otaha, Tubai, and Mausia; but the first is by far the most considerable in size, being about one hundred and twenty miles in circumference. They appear to have been first discovered by Captain Wallis, in 1767; and the subsequent visits of Captain Cook, Vancouver, and the English missionaries, have successively afforded new and interesting particulars concerning them.

General Aspect, Climate, and Productions.] The objects which present themselves to view in the South Seas, are both grand and sublime. Gliding along the immense ocean, where natural appearances are widely different from those in the northern hemisphere, the stranger is agreeably surprised with the appearance of islands, or little worlds, amid the ocean. Thus stationed in his vessel, he beholds the vast watery scene beginning to be diversified by rising mountains, seen at a great distance, at first scarcely visible to the eye, but gradually assuming an elevation that renders them perceptible at the distance of sixty miles.

But, approaching nearer, instead of beholding these mountains barren and naked, he is surprised with the view of heights almost inaccessible, lined with steep and lofty hills, and crowned with a luxuriant vegetation. Plantains, yams, and a variety of other roots, which afford support to the inhabitants, are found growing spontaneously in these elevated regions. Here also grow trees, of various kinds, with which the mountains are clothed to the very summits, presenting to the distant beholder the appearance of a green lawn. The prospects from the tops of these hills fill the mind with mingled sensations of majestic dread, uncommon pleasure, and inexpressible amazement.

"We hardly believed our eyes," says M. de Bougainville, "when we saw a peak covered with woods up to its highest summit, which rises above the level of the mountains in the interior parts of Otaheite. Its apparent size seemed to be more than thirty toises in diameter, and grew less in breadth as it rose higher. At a distance it might have been taken for a pyramid of immense height, which the hand of an able sculptor had adorned with garlands and foliage." One of the mates of the Dolphin, with a party of marines and seamen, penetrated into the interior of this island; and having ascended a mountain, which they supposed to be a mile high, they discovered mountains before them so much higher, that, with respect to them, they seemed to be in a valley. Towards the sea, the view was enchanting, the sides of the hills were beautifully clothed with wood, villages were every where interspersed, and the intermediate valleys afforded a still more beautiful prospect; for there the houses stood thicker, and the verdure was more luxuriant. Mr. Forster, with other gentlemen, ascended to the summit of one of the highest mountains in this island, whence they had a prospect of the Island of Huaheine, and some others, lying at the distance of forty leagues. The view of the fertile plain below them, and of a river making innumerable meanders, was delightful in the highest degree. The vegetation of the upper part of the mountains was luxuriant, and the woods consisted of many unknown trees and plants.

The rivers are both numerous and large. Issuing from the bowels, or flowing from the tops of the mountains, they are augmented in their course by the descending rains, and swell into such mighty torrents, that the rocks are sometimes removed by their violence, and the stoutest trees torn up by the roots. But, at other times, these ri,

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Nor are these islands devoid of lakes. Between the declivities of one of the mountains, in the district of Byeorde, is a lake of excellent fresh water, and around its banks are many dwellings, where the inhabitants enjoy plenty of every thing, except the bread-fruit, for which they substitute the mountain plantain. This lake issues forth with a pleasant flow into the valley, and greatly enriches the circumjacent scenery.

These islands, for the most part, are encircled with bays and creeks, and some are favoured with excellent harbours, where vessels may safely rest. These render commerce both practicable and easy; and the time may not be very distant, when in these harbours European articles shall be exchanged for the improved produce of these highly-favoured islands.

Bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas, sweet potatoes, yams, juniper, sugar-cane, the paper-mulberry, and several sorts of figs, are natural and almost spontaneous productions. The mountain sloe-tree, the plantain-tree, the precious sandal-tree, and many others, also flourish in all their beautiful verdure. And if these arrive at such perfection in their present state, what would they not under the fostering hand of cultivation? Nor can it be doubted, that the fertile valleys which border the coasts might produce sugar-cane in equal perfection to any in those places where it proves such a profitable article. And how pleasant to humanity would it be to see these planted, cultivated, and manufactured by the natives, rather than by those poor unhappy partners of human nature, who groan under the lash in the West-India Islands!

The climate of these islands, considering their latitude, is very temperate, to which the elevation of the greater part of them may probably contribute.

The seasons are variable; for in some islands the crop is some months earlier than in others; but in all they merit the appellation of *favorable*. In this the kindness of the Ruler of the universe is peculiarly obvious; because the untutored state of the human mind in these regions is unqualified to combat the hardships of unfavourable seasons, or to provide against the direful consequences.

Besides the domesticated animals, which aid in feeding the inhabitants, the winged tribe is very numerous. Nor are these confined merely to the tame race, but widely extended to many wild fowl, which the ingenuity of the inhabitants, even in their uncultivated state, find means to convert to substantial use. Hogs, dogs, and poultry, compose their tame animals; and wild ducks, pigeons, parroquets, doves, woodpeckers, with a vast multitude unknown in the northern world, compose their wild race. The mountains both sparkle with the beauty of their feathered inhabitants, and resound with the melody of their songs; nor is it easy to describe the sensations of a contemplative European, when he wanders amid such a profusion of natural pleasures.

But the sea also affords her tribute to the Otaheitean table. All around the coasts of these different groupes of islands, multitudes of fine fish, unknown to Europeans play in crowds; so that, when the land withholds her stores, the natives have recourse to the sea; and thus the year is crowned with plenty, and they pass their days in luxuriant indolence.

Arts, Manufactures, &c.] The southern islanders, living in a warm climate, possessing a luxurious country, and surrounded with countless blessings of life, have consequently had but few calls of necessity to exert the powers of ingenuity. The first of these, however, were of a mechanical nature. Favourable as the climate is, yet there was not wanting some necessity to erect a dwelling, that might prove a better shelter from the descending rains and the blowing tempest, than either the shady tree or the dark excavated rock. Hence the southern genius began to display its strength in the mechanical art of building.

Fertile as the soil is, and numerous as the spontaneous productions are, yet the desire of having a greater quantity of some provisions, or the desire of having them in a season beyond the usual time of their spontaneous production, would induce the ancient islander to invent the means of cultivating and maturing these favourite plants: hence originated the rude beginnings of the science of agriculture. But as these incentives are both few and very feeble, the progress of that science is singularly slow.

A desire of change of food, or the necessity arising from the periodical suspension of vegetable production, naturally induced the islander to betake himself to that animal food which every where surrounded him: hence the invention of the bow and the javelin succeeded to the ruder sling and stone.

The agreeable variety or the convenient supply from this quarter induced him to attempt another region, and to invent means to lay on the table the fish that swam around him, as he amused himself with imitating that watery race hence originated both the fishing-boat, the fishing-hook, and line, together with those lamps and that oil which they burn during the time of their fishing in the night-season; for these islanders have this custom, in common with the Neapolitans and Maltese: they fish in the night, and repose themselves in the day; and, also, like them, burn torches of the cocoa-nut, while engaged in it. The insulated situation of this people would likewise, at a very early period, suggest the advantage of visiting the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands; and these visits would become more frequent, as avarice and the love of power

prompted to martial contendings. Hence originated the destructive art of war: nor is it difficult to conceive, that the more violent passions of the human mind, being once embroiled, would suddenly force into the field of battle all the former productions of honourable invention. The various disappointments in military enterprises would induce to strengthen, enlarge, and polish, the canoe, and to sharpen the javelin and the arrow; repeated successes would lead to new attempts: the martial productions of enemies would also soon be employed against themselves by the opposite power.

By a similar process of the mind would the various mechanical arts either originate, or advance in improvement; and their frequent intercourse with Europeans, as well as the use of their mechanical instruments, will greatly tend to accelerate the progress of these arts among them; though at present they are all in a very rude state.

Nor are the other arts in great perfection among these islanders. Dr. Solander and Sir Joseph Banks, who attended Captain Cook, were at a loss to find the existence of the science of arithmetic among them. They could not ascertain their method of dividing time. When they spoke of time, they used the term *malama*, which signifies the *moon;* and they reckon thirteen of these moons, beginning again when they are expired. This fact, however, tends to prove, that they have some idea of the solar year; but these gentlemen could not discover how they computed their months, to make thirteen equal to the year; as they said, that these months consisted of twenty-nine days, one day in which the moon was invisible being included. Experience, however, shews, that they had a knowledge of the prevailing weather which was to be expected, and also the fruits that would appear in different seasons.

The inhabitants of the Society Isles display but little ingenuity in the construction of their houses. The common people lodge in huts scarcely sufficient to shelter them from the inclemency of the weather. Those of superior rank dwell in more comfortable habitations. The common dwellings are of an oblong form, round at both ends, and the ridge is about eighteen feet long. A house of the second order is about twelve feet in height, twenty in breadth, and thirty in length. The houses of the highest order are in proportion to the taste or wealth of their owners, and some are spacious and considerably elegant.

Their houses resemble European sheds, or thatched roofs, supported by rafters and posts. The floor is raised with earth, gently smoothed, and covered with thick matting. Some have their houses open all round, but they are generally enclosed with strong mats, or branches interwoven in a dexterous manner. Partitions are not in use, yet more decency is observed than might be expected from their general conduct with strangers. Nor can it be denied that many of those acts of indelicacy which have tarnished their character, are chargeable upon the Europeans. Hence it has become proverbial among them, that Englishmen are ashamed of nothing.

But although they have no partitions, there is an enclosed space for the master and mistress of the house, which is formed with a thick mat, about three feet broad, bent in a semi-circular form, and placed edge-ways, with the ends touching the side of the house. The rest of the family sleep upon any part of the floor, the unmarried men and women sleeping apart from each other. If the family in the southern region be large, they have little huts adjoining their houses, in which their servants sleep. The whole of their houshold furniture consists of some wooden stools, a few baskets, of different sizes, in which they put their combs, fish-hooks, and tools; two or three bowls, in which they make their kava, some cocoa-nut shells, a few gourds, and a bundle of cloth. Some have also a large chest, on which the master and mistress sleep, and some employ a canoe-house, just sufficient for their length, but not high enough for them to stand erect. They now begin to experience the advantage of bedsteads, and the demand for them greatly increases. Their pillow is a little wooden stool, neatly wrought out of one block; and those who are unprovided with one, use the stool on which they sit in their canoes. They usually sit cross-legged on the ground, but commonly have seats for the accommodation of strangers.

Greater ingenuity is displayed in constructing their canoes, which may be properly deemed the most perfect of their mechanical productions. The double canoes are capable of carrying about fifty persons, and sail with great rapidity. They are built of the bread-fruit tree, and the workmanship is so extremely neat, that they bear the external appearance of one solid piece; but, upon a closer inspection, they are found to consist of a great number of planks, exactly fitting each other, and, by means of a ledge on the inside, are secured together with cocoa-line. The single canoes are formed with an out-rigger. Unacquainted with the method of warping a plank, they shape their canoes with the hand.

Two kinds of canoes are used; the one called *ivahahas*, and the other *pahies:* the former are used for long, and the latter for short, voyages. These vessels are similar in shape, but not proportionate, being from sixty to seventy feet in length, and not more than the thirtieth part in breadth. Some are employed in going from one island to another, and others in fishing.

The *ivahahas* are also used for war. These are the longest; and the head and stern are considerably above the body. When going to sea, they are fastened together, side by side, at the distance of a few feet, by strong wooden poles, which are laid across them, and joined to each side. A platform of ten or twelve feet long is raised

upon the fore-part, on which the fighting men stand, whose missive weapons are slings and spears. The rowers are placed beneath, to supply the place of the wounded.

The fishing canoes are from ten to thirty or forty feet long. The travelling canoes have a small house on board, for the better accommodation of those of higher rank, who occupy them both night and day.

The canoes called *pahies* vary in size, being from sixty to seventy feet long, and sometimes very narrow. The natives employ these for fishing, and sometimes for long voyages. They are very useful in landing, and also in putting off from the shore in a surf; for, by their great length and high stern, they can land dry, when the English boats can scarcely land at all. In going from one island to another, these islanders are sometimes a month, and sometimes fourteen or twenty days; and, if they could carry sufficient provisions with them, they would stay much longer.

The method of constructing these canoes is singularly curious. The principal parts are separately formed, without either saw, plane, chissel, or any iron tool. These parts being prepared, the keels are fixed upon the blocks, and the planks are supported with props, till they are joined together with strong plaited strings, which are passed several times through holes, bored with a chissel or bone, such as they commonly use; and, when finished, they are sufficiently tight without caulking. These boats are preserved with great care, in a kind of shed prepared for the purpose.

The only tools used in the construction of their canoes, are hatchets, of a smooth black stone, augers made of sharks' teeth, and rasps composed of the rough skin of a fish fastened on flat pieces of wood. The same tools are employed for all other kinds of work, and, except a chissel made of the bone of a man's arm, and shells which serve them for knives, they have no other instruments.

Their cordage is composed of the fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, which, though not ten inches long, they plait, about the thickness of a quill, to whatever length may be required, and roll it up into balls; and, by twisting these together, form their ropes of a considerable size. Their fishing lines are not inferior to those of Europe, either for strength or smoothness. Their small hooks are of pearl-shell; but the large ones are only covered with it on the back, and the points are generally of tortoise-shell. With the large ones they catch albicores and bonettoes, by putting them to a bamboo-rod, about twelve feet long, with a line of the same length. They have also a number of small seines, some of which are of the most delicate texture.

The general employment of the women is not fatiguing, and is usually performed in the house. The making of cloth is entirely entrusted to their care; and this article is the chief manufacture of Otaheite. The bark of the mulberry, the bread-fruit, and a tree which bears some resemblance to the West-Indian wild fig-tree, are employed for this purpose. From the first of these is manufactured the finest cloth, which is seldom worn but by those of high rank. The second sort is made from the bread-fruit tree; the third of that tree which resembles the wild fig: and it is a singular fact that the last of these, though coarsest, is scarcer than the other two, because manufactured in smaller quantities.

The mode of manufacturing these different sorts of cloth is the same. The bark of the tree is stripped off, and soaked in water for two or three days; then the inner bark is separated from the external coat by scraping it with a shell; after which it is spread out upon plantain-leaves, placing two or three layers over one another, care being taken to make it of an equal thickness in every part. In this state it is allowed to remain until almost dry, when it adheres so strongly, that it is taken from the ground without breaking. This process being finished, it is laid on a smooth board, and beaten with an instrument made for that purpose of the compact heavy wood called *etou*. This instrument is about fourteen inches long, and seven in circumference, of a quadrangular shape; and each of the four sides is marked with longitudinal grooves, or furrows, differing in this particular, that there is a regular gradation in the width and depth of the grooves on each of the sides, the coarser side not containing more than ten of these furrows, and the finest side above fifty.

The progress of this manufacture is also gradual. They begin with that side of the mallet where the grooves are deepest and widest, and proceed regularly, finishing with that which has the greatest number. By this operation the cloth is extended, in a manner similar to gold formed into leaves by the hammer: it is also marked with small channels, resembling those which are visible on paper, but rather deeper. They generally beat this very thin; but when they wish to make it a little thicker, they unite two or three pieces together, with a kind of glue prepared from a root called *rea*.

This cloth is capable of being rendered very white by bleaching, and may also be died red, yellow, brown, or black. The first of these colours is exceedingly beautiful, and equal, if not superior, to any in Europe. The red is formed from a mixture of the juices of two vegetables, neither of which separately used produces the same effect.

This people also excel the Europeans in manufacturing various kinds of matting. During the rainy season, they wear the finest kind of it, and they use the coarse kind to sleep on. They excel also in basket or wicker-work, which both men and women frequently make of different patterns.

They make ropes and lines, of all sizes, of the bark of a tree, and their nets for fishing are wrought of

these lines; of the fibres of the cocoa-nut they make thread, with which they fasten their canoes: the sizes of these are various, according to their respective uses. Their fishing-lines are made of a kind of nettle that grows in the mountains, and are sufficiently strong for taking very large fish; in which art the inhabitants of this part of the globe display great ingenuity.

In these islands the sphere of agriculture is very contracted, yet, according to its extent, it is in tolerable perfection. In those parts where spontaneous productions afford food for the inhabitants, agricultural exertions are very feeble; but, where the inhabitants live upon cultivated roots and nursed fruits, they are more vigorous. In the management of yams and plantains, considerable ingenuity is displayed: small holes are first dug for their reception; and they afterwards root up the surrounding grass.

When they plant their vegetables, they observe such exactness, that in all directions the rows present themselves to the eye complete and regular. The bread-fruit and the cocoa-nut are dispersed without any order, and when arrived at a certain height, require no farther cultivation. Similar is their culture of another large tree, producing a roundish compressed nut, called *eeefee*, and of a smaller one bearing an oval nut, with two or three triangular kernels. There is another plant, called *kappe*, which is regularly planted, and in large plots. The *mawhaha*, the yams, and the *jeejee*, are usually interspersed among other roots; the sugar-cane is planted in small spots, and closely crowded. It often grows spontaneously, of a size equal to any in the Indies; and, if cultivated, it would probably grow both longer and richer: but the natives make little use of it, unless to chew while they are travelling. So negligent are they, indeed, of this valuable plant, that, when it grows tall, they set it on fire to clear the land. The mulberry, of which the cloth is made, has a large space allowed for its growth, and is kept very clean. The *pandalus* is commonly planted in rows, close together, at the sides of the fields. The cabbage-tree grows in the mountains, but to no great perfection, and the natives seldom use it.

In many parts they have also laid out their grounds with some small degree of elegance; for the divisions are very regular, and the fences strong and well placed. Many of the plantations, also, are more beautiful and better arranged than could have been expected from the rude state of the inhabitants.

Religion, Government, &c.] The religious system of the Society Isles abounds with mysterious singularities, of which few persons, except the priests, can be supposed to have a competent knowledge. The idea of one supreme Deity seems to be universally held by the people, although they believe in a plurality of deities, each of which is supposed to be invested with ample powers

The prevalence of both good and evil in the material world has induced the Otaheiteans to believe in the existence of evil as well as good deities, and they deem it advisable to offer sacrifices to both. The good deities are supposed to delight in conferring happiness, and the evil ones in performing injuries. But, at the same time, they believe, that the good, as well as the bad, deities inflict punishments, and are the source of many misfortunes.

Different islands, and different districts of the same island, have their respective gods, and, as may naturally be supposed, each of them esteem their own as the most eminent. Relying on the protection, support, and favour of their gods, they deem it no impiety to change one or more of these, if they happen to fail in the discharge of their duty. An instance of this nature occurred in Tiaraboo, where two divinities were dismissed, and Ora, the god of Bolabola, adopted. The victories of that people occasioned this change, and they were also victorious after the adoption of the new god.

Many of their notions of the supreme Deity are singularly extravagant. Instead of considering the inferior gods as dependant upon him, they suppose, that he is dependant upon them. Nay, to such a height of extravagance is this carried, that they suppose these have power to eat him, whilst they grant that he is possessed of power to re-create himself. Few ideas can equal this in absurdity and self-contradiction.

In a large building, called *Tourooa*, the departed souls are said to assemble, for the purpose of recreating themselves, and there the deity is supposed to enquire whether or not they intend to destroy him; and, if they express such a resolution, the same remains unalterable. It is supposed that this action is known not only to the spirits themselves, but also to the inhabitants of this lower region. The universal opinion among mankind, that all human knowledge is derived from some great superior source, may have given rise to this extravagant notion. Convinced that all excellence comes from the deity, it appears to them the surest method to attain it by consuming him altogether; and the knowlege which these lesser gods receive from the greater is dispersed among their votaries.

We are also informed, that when the moon is in its wane, they are imagined to be devouring the deity; and in proportion to its increase they suppose that he is renewing himself. If these men worshipped the moon, this extravagant notion might be accounted for; but, as this is not the case, the task is more difficult. It is probable, however, that, in some former period, the "queen of heaven" might be numbered among their deities; and from hence may have originated this unaccountable idea. It is also added, that both the superior and inferior gods are exposed to this sad fate of occasional devouring.

This deluded people show the utmost veneration for

their deities. Their prayers, which are usually delivered in a chanting tone, are frequently offered; and they are particularly fervent in expressions of gratitude: many modern Christians may blush, when they are informed, that they will not begin a meal without first setting a portion apart for the deity, to whom they suppose such marks of respect are always acceptable. The consequence of this opinion is, that the places destined to receive the offerings are stored with fruits and animals of all kinds. Nor are human victims spared in the prodigality of superstitious gratitude. To avert misfortunes, and to obtain blessings, is the professed design of these offerings and sacrifices. The idea is not entertained that the deity must be constantly conferring favours upon them; for they are less affected with this than they are with the attempts of some malevolent being to injure them.

Temporal blessings are supposed to be the result of the careful performance of religious duties. The powerful influence of the divine spirit, they imagine, is universally diffused throughout all nature. Convinced of this, it is not matter of surprise that many absurd notions obtain concerning his operations. Sudden deaths or unfortunate accidents are supposed to be effected under the immediate influence of some divinity. Nay, to such a degree is this carried, that if a man hurt his toe by striking it against a stone, the cause is instantly attributed to a god.

These islanders join in the general opinion respecting the immortality of the soul; and also believe that it is immaterial. The soul they imagine to be eaten by the deity, and peculiarly acceptable to him; hence human sacrifices are accordingly offered up, that he may enjoy his favourite banquet. Believing in the immaterial nature of the soul, they suppose that during the pangs of death it keeps fluttering about the lips, and that at death it ascends to the upper regions, continues in that state for some time, then takes its flight to a certain place appointed for the reception of the souls of mortals, and enjoys there a kind of eternal night.

But they suppose that other places are also prepared for the reception of departed spirits. Thus they imagine, that those who are drowned in the sea continue there, and enjoy a delightful country, splendid habitations, and every thing else which can contribute to their felicity. To such a pitch, indeed, do they carry their ideas of immortality, that, in their system, animals, trees, fruits, and stones, are endowed with immortal souls; and at death, or upon consumption, or on being broken, they ascend to the deity, and pass into their destined mansion.

Supposing that the souls both of good and bad men are consumed by the deity, they expect no permanent punishment for crimes committed on the earth. The consuming of souls by the deity they deem a necessary purification previous to entering into the purer region. Their religious system, in consequence of this idea, teaches, that a refraining from carnal indulgence for a certain period before death, exempts from that consuming purification, and qualifies for an immediate entrance into the mansions of bliss.

It is scarcely needful to add, that the sublime conceptions of happiness unfolded by the Christian religion are unknown in the religious system of these islanders. The beneficial nature of immortality they suppose chiefly consists in an exemption from annihilation, and the enjoyment of those very passions which agitate the human breast, even in this world. They have imbibed this sentiment to such a degree, as to suppose that the souls of enemies, meeting in the next world, will revenge the injuries received in this, and that many severe battles will ensue: these conflicts they own cannot be destructive, since the soul is invulnerable; but to such a height of folly has the human mind advanced in that untaught state, that they believe in the reality of such intellectual battles.

Similar ideas are entertained concerning man and wife meeting in a future state of existence; for it is firmly believed, that if the husband die first, the soul of the wife will instantly recognize that of her husband upon her arrival in the land of spirits. In a large and spacious building, where the gods assemble, they renew their former acquaintance; and upon this the husband conducts her to his own habitation, where they renew their former connection, and are blessed with a numerous offspring of immortal children.

The belief in the existence of evil spirits also obtains. Superstition and foolish dread are the same in every country. The ignorant and superstitious in Europe are startled at the apprehension of ghosts or the solemn scenery of a church-yard; so, in these islands, the inhabitants are affrighted in approaching a burial-ground during night.

The ignorant and superstitious also place implicit confidence in dreams, as supposing them to be immediate communications from the deity. They sometimes imagine, that in these the spirits of their departed friends revisit them, and communicate intelligence concerning things to come. Thus one of them pretended, that the soul of his father informed him, that the English would land in a few days. He failed, however, in his prophetic attempt, for they did not arrive at the time predicted.

Among these people, however, the same as among every other nation where ignorance and superstition reigns, dreams are held in great veneration. Their priests and priestesses are considered as endowed with the spirit of prophecy, and universally credited, and the same holds true with respect to dreamers. It is very seldom, therefore, that any important undertaking is entered upon without the concurrence either of dreams or of divine inspiration.

The influence of the moon and the planets on the events of human life, is supposed to be very great; and these islanders make it a point to regulate all their public councils by the appearance of the moon. By its different positions, when rising, they confidently determine that line of conduct which they ought to pursue. For instance, if, on the first appearance of the moon after its change, it lie horizontally, they deem it proper to engage in war, and are confident of success; but, if the contrary, they are dissuaded from it with equal confidence.

There are some obscure traditions existing among them with respect to the creation of the world, which are extremely curious. "Some goddess," say they, "had a lump of earth, suspended in a cord, and giving it a swing round, scattered about several pieces of land, which formed Otaheite and the adjacent islands." These, they supposed, were peopled by one of each sex, who originally dwelt at Otaheite. This, however, only respects their own creation, because they admit of an universal creation, previous to their formation.

Their remotest traditions extend to two, called *Tatooma* and *Tapippa*, who are esteemed male and female rocks, and supposed to support the material globe. "These," say they, "begat *Totorro*, who was killed, and divided into different parcels of land. Afterwards *Otaia* and *Oroo* were produced, who being married, their first-born was land; then they begat a race of gods. *Otaia* being slain, *Oroo* married her son *Temorrha*, who, being of the race of the gods, occasioned the creation of more land for the animals to dwell on, and every kind of food necessary for their sustenance. This ancient wife extended her authority so far over her husband as to command him to create a sky, which was to be supported by a race of men called *Teefeerei*.

"The spots," say they, "upon the moon, are the groves of a certain tree, which once grew at Otaheite, and, being accidentally destroyed, some doves carried its seeds thither, where they were planted, and flourish in continual verdure and fruitfulness."

Among a variety of religious and historical legends prevalent among these people, there is a particular one respecting the eating of human flesh. On this they narrate, that a long time ago there lived at Otaheite two men, who were called *Taheeai*, a name given to eaters of human flesh. These inhabited the mountains, whence they issued forth, and murdered the natives, whom they afterwards devoured, thereby preventing the population of the islands. Two brothers, determined to deliver the country from such enemies, formed and executed a plot, which proved successful. These two magnanimous heroes lived farther up the country upon higher ground than the *Taheeai*, and, therefore, were so situated, that they could converse with them without hazarding their own safety. Living upon these friendly terms, they one day invited the *Taheeai* to partake of an entertainment, to which they readily consented, expecting to add the two brothers to the other provisions. In this, however, they were greatly disappointed, for the brothers heated some stones in the fire, thrust them into pieces of bread, called *mahee*, and requested one of the *Taheeai* to open his mouth, when one of these pieces was instantly dropped into it; and some water being poured into his mouth, it made such a hissing noise in quenching the stone, that it killed him. The other Taheeai was entreated to do the same, but declined, perceiving the effect which it had upon his companion. The brothers, however, prevailed in persuading him, that the food was excellent, that these effects were only temporary, and that his companion would soon recover. Hereupon the credulous Taheeai swallowed the morsel, and so perished; while the government of the island was conferred upon the victorious brethren; and their fallen enemies were buried amidst universal acclamations. Tradition farther adds concerning these Taheeai, that they resided at Uhapaeenoo, where there still remains a bread-fruit tree, which was once their property; and that they had a woman, who lived with them, possessed of two teeth of enormous size, but she did not, like the men, feed upon human flesh. After the death of these two men, she lived at Otaheite, and, upon her death, she was numbered with the gods.

Upon this singular narration the writer of Cook's Voyages remarks, "It does not appear, that there is any moral couched under this story, any more than under most of the old fables, which have been received as truths in ignorant ages. However, it was not injudiciously introduced, as serving to express the detestation entertained here against cannibals: and yet it appears probable, from some circumstances, that the natives of these isles formerly fed upon human flesh. Omai, one of the natives, being asked a few questions on this subject, resolutely denied it, though, at the same time, he related a fact within his own knowledge, which almost tended to establish such a conjecture.

Thus far we have followed the accounts given by Captain Cook and former navigators respecting the religion of the southern islanders; but, as it appears advisable to throw every possible light on a subject of so interesting a nature, we shall now lay before our readers an abridged view of the account given by the writer of the missionary voyage to Otaheite.

The information concerning this matter may be arranged under the following divisions:—that which respects their religious doctrines, that which respects their traditions, and that which respects their religious duties.

Among the religious opinions maintained by the Southern islanders, the following are particularly worthy of notice:—

The deities of the South Seas are very numerous. Each family has a guardian spirit, to whom they pay divine honours. The name of their great god is *Eatooa*. There are three deities, which are held supreme; and, what is peculiarly singular, these three are known by personal appellations, which have a strong resemblance to the three persons in the Godhead revealed in holy writ—The Father—God in the Son—and the Bird, the Spirit. The work of a geographer is not to wander in the field of conjecture, or many things might be advanced concerning this resemblance.

To these supreme deities they offer prayers and supplications only in times of great calamity. In their estimation they are so dignified, that they suppose it derogatory to attend to any matter of less importance than the illness of a chief, the calming of a boisterous storm, the preventing invasion, or averting the calamities of war. Among unenlightened people, the principles of hope and fear strongly operate, as well as among every barbarous tribe. Indeed, it is an incontrovertible fact, that in the rude state of the human mind, pain and dread are more powerful motives to religious veneration and homage than either gratitude or love. The house of the supreme deity of Otaheite is at Oparre, where the chief resides. The connection between religion and civil government has universally prevailed.

It is worthy of observation, that, in their daily adorations, more respect is paid to the inferior than to the superior gods. Each family pays their devout acknowledgments to their domestic guardian, supposed to be one of their departed friends, who, in consequence of his superior excellence, has been elevated to the rank of a god. They also believe in the existence of a malignant deity, who delights in injuring man, and is envious of his happiness. From the influence of this deity they believe that their domestic deity can defend them; and, therefore, they daily make their supplications to him. They are also firmly persuaded, that this deity can both inflict and remove personal and domestic affliction.

They believe in the immortality of the soul and the existence of a future state. In that state, however, they admit of no punishments; but suppose, that men enjoy a kind of rank and dignity, in proportion as they have acted towards the deities, when in this world. The departed souls of their ancestors they imagine to be raised to the dignity of gods; and to them they offer their confident prayers in the day of calamity. Such are their ideas of remunerative justice, that they look upon every unfortunate accident as the consequence of some criminal offence. Actuated by this principle, they send their peace-offering to the person offended, and by every conciliating measure seek reconciliation. The fear of death and veneration for their priests have also approached to high eminence. Persuaded of the virtue of the prayers of the priests, when they are afflicted with sickness, they send for them, and will cheerfully give them any thing they ask to supplicate the god in their behalf. Nature in this, as well as in every other climate, shrinks from death, and grasps at life. But, when all hope of life is gone, they will composedly take leave of their friends, recommending them to the guardian spirit, and entreating them to be more obedient and dutiful than they have been.

When the spirit departs from the body, they have an idea of its being devoured by the Eatooa bird, which frequents their burying-grounds and places of public worship. Departed souls, they imagine, are employed by the deity to attend other human beings, and to inflict punishments, or remove sickness, as merit or circumstances may require.

These deluded mortals suppose, that the manner in which the evil demon injures them is by entering into them, mingled along with their food, and so producing madness or some other disease; but they are, at the same time, fully confident, that their tutelar saint can prevent or remove these diseases; and they rejoice in the belief that their dread adversary can only exercise his power on this earth.

The stars are deemed the children of the sun and moon, and they suppose that they are begotten at the time of the eclipse of the moon. By the external appearance of the heavenly luminaries, they pretend to predict the approach of war, sickness, or other calamities.

The inhabitants of Otaheite have a tradition, that once the great gods, in their anger, broke in pieces the whole world; and that all the islands are but small parts of the great land, and that their island is the chief.

Another tradition is narrated from the high-priest, who is deemed the oracle of tradition in that country, as mentioned in the Missionary Voyage. "In the beginning," say they, "*Tane* took *Turoa*, and begat *Avye*, fresh water; *Atye*, the sea; *Awa*, the water-spout; *Matai*, the wind; *Arye*, the sky; and *Po*, the night; then *Mahammai*, the sun, in the shape of a man, begat *Oeroa Tabooa*; when he was born, all his brethren and sisters turned to earth; only a daughter was left, by name *Townoo*; she became the wife of *Oeroa Tabooa*, by whom she conceived thirteen children, who are the thirteen months, viz. *Papeeree*, *Ounoono*, *Oararomooa*, *Pararomoree*, *Moreeha*, *Heaiha*, *Taoa*, *Hoorogorerci*, *Hooreeama*, *Teayre*, *Tetai*, *Waeaho*, and *Weaha*.

"*Townoo* now returned to earth; and *Oeroa Tabooa* embraced a rock, called *Poppoharra Harreha*, which conceived a son, *Tetoobooamatahatoo*, after which the rock returned to its original state, and the fathers of the months 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 *Oheera*; then he also died and returned to the earth: *Tee* took *Oheera* to wife, who produced a daughter, *Oheera*. *Reene Moonoa*, the mother, died, and the father survived: in her illness she entreated her husband to cure her, and she would do the same for him, when 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*, *Uanoo*, and *Tytory*; the daughters, *Heuatoomorroora*, *Heuaroo*, and *Noowya*. The father and mother dying, the brothers said, Let us take our sisters for wives, and become many. So men began to multiply upon the earth."

Such is the account given in the Voyage of the *Duff*; and it will readily occur, that there are several obscure allusions to some parts of the Mosaic history.

We shall add another tradition from the same author. "They entertain," says he, "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 Ulietea 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 are supposed to walk and work by night."

The practice of moral duties in Otaheite has arrived at small perfection. Relative duties are, in numerous instances, grossly neglected, and mournful cruelty is exercised towards their infant offspring, in the destruction of many of them; while those whom they think proper to spare are indulged beyond what the good of society requires. It will readily be admitted that, devoid of revelation, proper morality is not to be expected: but, among some people destitute of revelation, this approaches nearer to pure morality than among others; and the morality of the south islands is very deficient. It is, however, but doing them justice to add, that, in respect of their worship, they reproach many who are called Christians. To use the words of the author of the Missionary Voyage—"You see no instances of an Otaheitean drawing near the Eatooa 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. While this is calculated to raise the blush of shame on the cheek of the formal Christian, it naturally excites our ardent wish that these simple partners of our nature were made acquainted with the sublime doctrines and precepts of the gospel."

Priestly honours and employments are divided among two orders of men in the Southern Islands. The one called the priests of the morai, and the other of the Eatooa, or Supreme Deity. The latter are honoured with divine inspiration and the higher functions, and the former perform the less dignified offices of religion. These officiate in all the prayers and oblations performed at the morai, and their prayers are uttered in a low chaunting tone, which was formerly deemed a sacred language; but this mistake is now rectified, and it is fully understood that the obscurity originates from the mode of articulation.

As the sacerdotal and medical functions are here united, the priests have full employment; and, on all the more remarkable occurrences of domestic life, at births, deaths, festivals, and on all occasions of sickness, they are amply rewarded. Taking advantage of the credulity of their countrymen, they affect very extensive powers, and consequently render themselves the objects of dread and veneration. To promote conception, or occasion abortion, to inflict diseases, or remove them at pleasure, to render food pernicious, and sometimes actually to occasion death, are some of the powers which the Otaheitean priests appropriate to themselves. Nor is this baneful power ever called in question by their deluded votaries. It is, however, acknowledged, that this power does not extend to Europeans; because the priests are ignorant of the names of their gods and their grandfathers.

The following example of conjuration was shown to some of the English missionaries, when on a visit to Tamarre:—

A man presented himself in an old blue coat, turned up with red, his head encircled with numerous feathers, so as entirely to conceal his countenance. Thus arrayed, the conjuror ran up to the missionaries, making a squeaking noise, and addressing them in a jargon quite unintelligible, at the same time acting in such a ridiculous manner, that he appeared to be delirious. The Englishmen not appearing at all frightened, the natives told them it was the *Etooa ete*, or the little god, which had killed several of their countrymen. A dog, however, belonging to the missionaries, fell upon the priest, and obliged him to fly. He returned in a short time with a large club, threatening destruction to all around, and directing his vengeance particularly against the dog. In the midst of the affray, one of the missionaries seized his arm, and, lifting up the veil from his face, discovered a well-known character, who had been obliged to leave Matavai for theft.

This person seems to have been one of those called Tahowra Etooa, who affect inspiration. Of these, some pretend to belong to a particular deity, others to many: such as claim acquaintance with the three superior *etooas* 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, who were found

on 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 Etoon 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 Etooa quits the bird, and enters the priest. He instantly begins to stretch and yawn, and rub 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, then sinking into stupor; while, at other times, the whole frame is agitated, and appears to have undergone some 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 says, 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 possibly be procured. Of this the actor affects to have no consciousness; but his colleague and assistant takes care to minute the claims of the deity, and receives them from the person on whose account he was so condescending as to appear.

When the deity quits the inspired Tahowra, he does it with such convulsions and violence as leaves him motionless, and quite exhausted. This departure of the god is also so dexterously managed, as to happen at the time the sacred bird leaves the morai. On recovering his reason, the conjurer utters a loud shriek, and seems to awake from a profound sleep, as if unconscious of all that has happened.

The priests, who officiate for the lower orders, act in a similar manner, only varying according to circumstances and abilities. Women also arrive at sacerdotal honours, and officiate for the benefit of their own sex. To such a height has superstition arrived, that it is thought quite impossible for a child to come into the world without their assistance. The opulent have generally several priests and priestesses attending them when sick; and he who is deemed sufficiently fortunate to perform the cure is amply remunerated for his trouble.

The manner in which the priest approaches the house of the afflicted ought also to be mentioned. He provides himself with a young plantain, which he carries in his hand; and, previous to his entering the house, he offers up a prayer, fixes a leaf of the plantain in the thatch, and throws the remainder upon the roof.

The sacrifices and oblations of the South Sea islanders are both numerous and liberal. Before they partake of any feast, a certain portion is invariably devoted to the god, and every part of the produce of the country is offered in sacrifice to appease the offended deities. Human victims are also offered upon extraordinary occasions, such as the inauguration of a young king, the dangerous sickness of a chief, the declaration of war, or any other emergency.

The human victim is selected in the following manner:—A priest having announced the necessity of a human sacrifice, the chief and his counsellors assemble to deliberate upon the unfortunate victims. These are, in general, persons guilty of great crimes, or strangers, who, having been offenders in their own islands, have fled thither from public punishment. The determination of the council is kept a profound secret; but, at midnight, the victim is dragged from his place of repose, and generally dispatched with one blow of a stone on the nape of his neck, to prevent any blemish in his body; for, according to their sacrificial law, a bone of him must not be broken, nor the corpse mangled. And if a man has been disfigured by any accident, he is unclean for ever, and cannot be offered in sacrifice. The mode of conducting a human sacrifice has been already described.

If the chief and his counsellors declare that they can find none in their district deserving death, or if they should refuse to provide a human sacrifice, in either case, they may substitute a hog in his place. They also suppose, that it greatly lessens the criminality and horror of the deed, that none but notorious criminals can be taken. But it may easily be conceived what a liberty is given to partiality, private enmity, and revenge.

The sacred ground around the morai affords a safe sanctuary to criminals of every description. Apprehensive of any danger of being selected for victims, they flee thither, and are perfectly safe. The habitations of the European missionaries are also deemed sacred, and afford protection to the guilty.

The form of government in the island of Otaheite is monarchical, and hereditary in one family; Temarre reigned, although a child, when Captain Wallis visited the island, and the queen his mother acted as regent. The king, her husband, quarrelled with her about the saving of his life, and, according to the custom of the country, retired to a private station, upon his son being born and declared king.

The manner of investing a young sovereign with the regal power is peculiarly interesting. On such an occasion the people assemble at the great morai; where the red sash of royalty, composed of net-work, and bordered with red and yellow feathers, is deposited. The public orator approaches, and, in a long speech, narrates the hereditary right to royal authority, and then invests with the regal cincture. If the chief of a neighbouring island

should be subdued, or reduced under his power, he first pays homage to the young king, who is carried upon men's shoulders, and surrounded by all his chieftains. The homage of a neighbouring chief is accompanied with a sacrifice of human victims, conducted from his own dominions in a canoe. From each of these the officiating priest cuts out one eye, and presents it to the young king, upon the leaf of a plantain-tree. During the time of his presenting this offering, he makes a long harangue, and the bodies of the victims are afterwards interred in the morai. The same ceremonies are performed by the chiefs of the different districts.

The king receives this present with his mouth open, as if devouring the human eye. Convinced that superiority of rank requires superiority of mental powers, they suppose that by this the king acquires additional wisdom; because the head is reputed the most sacred part of the body, and the eye the most sacred part of the head. Impressed with these superstitious notions, they imagine, that the eye is a proper representation of the wisdom of the people being transferred to the monarch.

The religious system of the country teaches, that the tutelar deity presides upon such a solemn occasion, for the express purpose of accepting the sacrifice; and, by the communication of the vital principle, strengthens and invigorates the mind of the young prince. The royal sash is afterwards deposited in the morai, along with the different canoes which brought the victims from different districts.

This solemn and horrid ceremony being ended, the king and his nobles repair to a feast provided with all that the country can afford. On such occasions they both eat and drink plentifully, and, in some instances, the public rejoicings are extended to the length of two months.

The king and queen are always attended by a numerous train of domestics and favourites, who are deemed sacred, live without families, and attend only on the royal pair: and it is a remarkable fact that the domestics of the king are frequently selected from among the baser sort.

The usual mode of carrying the king and queen is upon men's shoulders, and it is customary for them to lean upon the heads of their carriers. Their persons being deemed sacred, every person in their presence must uncover to the waist; and from this even the father and mother of the royal pair are not exempted. Every spot on which they trend becomes their own property; they, therefore, only alight upon their own ground, and walk but very seldom. The king is absolute; yet, nevertheless, he lives in habits of great familiarity with his subjects.

A variety of ranks obtains among these islanders. The first rank is called *Earee Rahie*, which signifies a king, or supreme governor; the second is that of *Earee*, answering to the title of baron; the third, that of *Manna hoonies*, corresponding to that of vassal; and the fourth, that of the *Toutou*, including the lower orders of the people.

The first of these are held in the highest veneration by all ranks of men, to a degree approaching adoration; the second are lords of one or more districts, which they divide by lot among their vassals, who cultivate the portion they hold under them, and all the vassals are so firmly attached, that the cause of their lord becomes theirs, and they are ready to arm in his defence; nay, in general, the cause of one becomes the cause of all his district. But, although these vassals hold their lands of the baron, all the servile work is performed by the lower orders of society.

Both the king and barons are succeeded in their titles and honours by their children; and, what is very singular, they succeed to these dignities upon their birth, but their estates remain in the possession of their parents. In the time of war, each district furnishes a certain number of fighting men; and these are all subject to the direction of the sovereign.

It may be naturally supposed, that they have no written code of laws; but the crimes which call for public interference are few in number. Nothing similar to money is used as the general medium of commerce; neither can any permanent advantage be obtained by fraud or violence. But it is proper to add, that, in their uncultivated state, the want of distributive justice is not so severely felt as in more civilized countries.

During the minority of the king, his father acts as regent, and has the distribution of justice vested in his hands. Many of the barons exercise regal power in their own districts, although subject to the crown. The younger brothers of the king are next in dignity, and they have a competency assigned them suitable to their rank.

The owners of small estates have a power of laying a prohibition upon them; and this power, though sometimes abused, is frequently employed to salutary purposes. The principal objects of prohibition are hogs and other provisions. In some seasons, when fish is scarce upon the reef belonging to a particular person, he lays a prohibition upon his portion, by erecting at the extremities thereof two branches of a tree, with a white cloth suspended on them. This being done, no person ventures to fish within the prohibited boundaries; but, upon the restraint being taken off, an offering of a hog or a fish is made; the place becomes free, and great rejoicings ensue.

When these prohibitions are removed from a whole district. the chief makes a public entertainment, similar to an European fair, and every person carries home something, to shew that he has been there. Numerous presents are distributed on these occasions, but it is seldom that any whole article falls to the share of an individual; for they are all rent in pieces, and he who obtains the

largest piece is esteemed the best man. He who first catches a hog, carries him off; and if several members of a family carry off a canoe, it becomes their property.

The articles intended for distribution and for sport are all brought into one large spot, and the servants of the chief keep hold of the hogs, goats, and fowls, until the time appointed for the sport of letting them loose, to be caught by those of greatest strength and agility.

In the scale of rank, birth holds a particular eminence. A chief always retains his dignity; and although he should lose his command, be expelled from his district, or have his honours transferred to his child, still he continues noble and respected. But the road to eminence is open only to the lower ranks in the improved state of society; no mental endowments, therefore, nor any acquisitions whatever, can raise a man above the rank of a gentleman, in these uncultivated regions. It is alleviating, however, to add, that even the meanest are subjected to no slavish dependance.

The lowest class in society resemble European cottagers; and their principal employments are to cultivate the land, to build houses, to make cloth, and aid in any laborious employment; but their service is voluntary. They may change their chief at pleasure, and repair to another district, but still they remain in a servile state.

Custom appears to operate more than the fear of punishment in support of authority. For even the chief admits all to be his companions; and such freedoms are used, that, in respect of external appearance, he can scarcely be distinguished. The king himself often converses with the meanest of his subjects, and condescends to visit them. His retinue receive no wages, and they may leave his service at pleasure; some, however, remain in his family during life.

Experience proves, that, in the more simple state of men, the selfish and more sordid passions are not so predominant. It is, therefore, an undeniable fact, that, in the uncultivated parts of Europe, generosity and friendship reign with more universal sway than in the more refined circles; and human nature, displaying her usual efforts, appears all friendly and generous in the islands of the South Seas. There the inhabitants are profuse in their presents, and can scarcely refuse any thing that is solicited from them.

Almost under every government, indigence exposes to neglect and a certain degree of reproach; but, among this people, poverty never renders a man contemptible; and to be affluent, and at the same time avaricious, clothes a man with universal infamy and disgrace; nay, should any individual refuse to part with his provisions in time of necessity, his neighbours would suddenly rise against him, and destroy all his property. And such is the strength of generosity, or the force of custom, that they will even part with their clothes, rather than be deemed avaricious.

This disposition in the southern mind operates strongly in respect of property. Tradition and land-marks supply the place of written records. Every man knows his own property, and he who should presume to encroach upon that of his neighbour would be considered as the basest of characters. When a man bequeaths his property to another upon his death-bed, witnesses prove the legacy, and it is held sacred. The property is equally secure in the absence as in the presence of the heir. The land-marks set by their ancestors speak a language that no man dares to resist. The father points out to his son the land-marks; and should any dispute arise concerning their decay or removal, multitudes are ready to prove the fact. Similar is the case in all disputes, for the matter is referred to a neutral person; and he who is declared in the wrong submits, and makes the offended an offering of a plantain-stalk.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of the Society Isles are, in general, of a larger make than the Europeans. Nourished with plenty, and fostered in indolence, the human body appears more vigorous and larger. The males are tall, robust, and well-proportioned; and some of them arrive at the height of six feet. Unlike the original inhabitants of America, they have long beards, which they wear in various forms. Their shoulders are broad, and their complexion conveys the idea of strength rather than beauty. Their features are so various, that it is very difficult to fix upon any general likeness which characterises them. They possess what are deemed good eyes and teeth, but the latter are not so well set, nor so white as among the Indian nations. Few of them, however, have that unpleasant thickness of lips so common to the natives of other islands. The initiatory rite of the Hebrews is generally practised among them, from a motive of cleanliness, and they upbraid those who do not adopt this custom. Contrary to the fashion of other countries, the men wear their hair long, and the women cut theirs short.

The women are less distinguished from the men by their features, than by their general form, which is destitute of the strong firmness of the latter. Though the features of some of them be very delicate, and a true index of their sex, yet the rule is not so general as in most other countries. Their shape is usually well proportioned, and some of them are perfect models of a beautiful figure; but the extraordinary smallness and delicacy of their fingers forms the most striking distinction of the Otaheitean females.

The women of the higher class are above the size of English ladies; but those of the inferior rank are below the common standard, and some are uncommonly short

The obvious causes of this diversity are the circumstances in which the latter are placed. The natural complexion is a fine clear olive colour, and the skin delicately smooth and soft. Their faces are, in general, handsome, and their eyes full of vivacity. Their teeth are remarkably white and regular, their hair usually black, and their breath, in general, is perfectly sweet.

Their dress, like their persons, is widely different from that of Europeans. During the dry weather they wear cloth, and in the rainy season matting; but no shape is preserved in the pieces, nor are they sewed together. The women of superior rank wear three or four pieces; one, of a considerable length, they wrap several times around the waist, and allow it to fall down to the middle of the leg. Two or three other short pieces, with a hole cut in each, are placed in one another; and their heads coming through the holes, the long ends are suspended before and behind, both sides being open; by which means they have the free use of their arms. A piece of cloth, of the manufacture of the country, is frequently tied round the head, in the manner of a turban; and the women plait human hair, in a very curious manner, into long strings, which, being folded into branches, are sometimes bound by way of ornament upon their foreheads.

The men dress in a similar manner, differing only in this particular, that one part of the garment, instead of falling below the knees, is brought between the legs. This dress is worn by all ranks, the only distinction consisting in its quality. At noon, both sexes appear almost naked, wearing only a piece of cloth round the middle of their bodies. They shade their faces with a kind of bonnets, constructed of cocoa-nut leaves, which they dexterously weave in a few minutes. Both men and women wear ear-rings on one side, made of shells, stones, berries, and small pearls; the European beads, however, upon their arrival, soon supplanted these. Boys and girls go quite naked, the former to the age of five, and the latter to that of seven or eight. The children soon acquire strength to walk, and are not long in learning to swim.

All the inhabitants have a singular custom of staining their bodies, by indenting the flesh with a small instrument, made of bone, cut into short teeth; and the indentures are afterwards filled with a dark blue mixture, prepared of an oily nut and water. This operation, which is usually undergone about the age of twelve, is extended to different parts of the body, and the consequent pain is endured with singular resolution, because these marks are deemed peculiarly honourable.

This country is stored with plenty for the food and comfort of man. Both animal and vegetable food loads the tables of the natives. The vegetable chiefly consists of plantains, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, yams, and some others, that have been introduced by Europeans. And as the soil is not only qualified to produce the vegetables of England, but also to rear them in great perfection, there is reason to hope that the kitchen-garden will soon increase in its productions.

The animal-food of the natives is very plentiful. Hogs are there in abundance, and their number is greatly increasing. The fowls common to this country load the table, and even dogs are highly relished. Hogs, fowls, and turtle, seem, however, to be considered as dainties, and are chiefly found on the tables of persons in the higher ranks of life.

Their cookery consists chiefly in baking, the mode of which deserves particular notice. When the bread-fruit is ripe, they make a large oven, and the chief summons all his dependents to bring a certain quantity of bread-fruit, against an appointed day, to his house. They are next sent to the hills, and every man brings a burden of wood; they then dig a hole, eight or nine feet deep, paving it in the bottom, and building it round with large pebbles; this done, they fill the hole with wood, and set it on fire, and when it is burnt, and the stones thoroughly consumed, they spread the embers on the bottom of the pit with long poles, and strew leaves at the bottom. Then the oven is thatched as quickly as possible with grass and leaves, and the earth which was dug out cast over the whole. After some days, it is fit for use, and, making an opening, they take it out as it is wanted: they use little else during the time it lasts.

The delight they have in this food has induced them to contrive means to preserve it, so that it may be used cold: this is done by making it into balls, and rolling it up in plantain-leaves. To such a perfection have they already arrived in this, that they will preserve it for several weeks.

Their drink is generally confined to water, or the milk of cocoa-nut. There is a kind of juice, however, called the kava, of which their chiefs and more opulent people drink; and the natives have sometimes been known to drink English liquors, until they have been inebriated; but, upon feeling its effects, they have carefully avoided repeating the same a second time.

The inhabitants of these islands begin their meals with the ceremony of washing the mouth, and some of them with an act of devotion: after this, they eat a handful of bread-fruit and fish, dipped in salt-water alternately, until the whole is consumed; they also take a sip of salt-water between every morsel. This dish is succeeded, among the chiefs, by a second course of plantains or apples, which are always peeled. After this, a soft fluid of paste is prepared from the bread-fruit, which they drink out of cocoa-nut shells, and this concludes their meal. Having thus refreshed themselves, they again wash their hands and their mouths. Mr. Banks says, these people eat an astonishing quantity of food at a meal, for he saw one of them

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devour three fish, of the size of a small carp; four bread-fruits, as large as a common melon; thirteen plantains, seven inches long, and about half as large round; to all which he added a quart of paste, by way of drink. It is singular, however, that they are capable of enduring hunger to a great degree; and, notwithstanding their voracious disposition, they will voluntarily suffer want, rather than not afford plenty to a stranger. This fact affords an indisputable proof of the hospitality of their dispositions.

Although fond of society, they are quite averse to any conversation during the time of meals: and, indeed, they are so rigid in the observance of this, that even brothers and sisters have separate baskets of provision, and generally sit at the distance of some yards, with their backs to each other, when they eat, and do not exchange a single word during the whole time. The middle-aged, who occupy the superior ranks of life, usually go to sleep after dinner; but those who are more advanced in life seldom or never take that indulgence.

The horrible custom of human sacrifices is one of those uncommon facts, for the belief of which the mind requires the strongest evidence; therefore we shall accurately follow the narration given by Captain Cook, who, in order to obtain the strongest certainty, was present at one of the melancholy solemnities.

Having obtained leave of the king of the island, he set forward, with two other gentlemen, in a canoe, in which was placed a half-starved dog, and two or three red feathers, tied up in a tuft. A priest also went along with them, who was to assist in the solemnities. On their arrival at the morai, or burying-ground, the sailors were ordered to remain in the boat, and the captain and his companions were requested to uncover their heads. Several men and some boys went along with them, but no women were present.

They found four priests with their assistants waiting, and on their arrival the ceremonies commenced. The dead body was in a small canoe that lay on the beach, fronting the morai. Two priests, with several of their attendants, sat by the canoe, and the rest at the morai. The king of the island, with Captain Cook and his companions, stopped at the distance of thirty paces from the priests; and the crowd of spectators were placed at a greater distance.

After some time, one of the assistants of the priests approached with a young plantain branch, and laid it before the king, and another approached, bearing a small tuft of red feathers, twisted on some fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, with which he touched one of his majesty's feet, and afterwards retired with it to his companions. One of the priests at the morai now began a long prayer, and, at particular intervals, sent down young plantain-trees, which were placed upon the sacrifice. During the prayer, one of the natives stood by the priest, holding in his hands two bundles, in which were the royal ensigns, and the ark of the deity. The prayer being ended, the priests at the morai, and their assistants, went off, carrying the two bundles, and placed themselves by the two priests who were upon the beach. Here prayers were renewed, and the young plantain-trees were taken off the dead body. The sacrifice was then wrapped up in cocoa-leaves and small branches, taken out of the canoe, and laid upon the beach. The priests surrounded the victim, some sitting, others standing, and one or more of them repeating sentences for about ten minutes. The body was next stripped of the leaves and branches, and placed parallel with the sea-shore. Then one of the priests, standing at the feet of the victim, uttered a long prayer, in which he was occasionally joined by others, each of whom held a tuft of red feathers in his hand. During the progress of this part of the service, some hairs were pulled off the head of the intended sacrifice, and the left eye taken out: these were wrapped up in a green leaf, and presented to the king; but, instead of touching them, he gave the bearer a tuft of red feathers, which, together with the hair and the eye, were taken to the priests. Not long after, the king sent another tuft of feathers, in the course of the last ceremony, and on a king's-fisher's making a noise, he turned to the captain, saying, "That is the *Eatooa*," or deity; and seemed to consider this as a favourable omen.

The body was next carried a little way, and laid under a tree, near which were fixed three thin pieces of wood, neatly carved. Some bundles of cloth were then placed on a part of the morai, and the tuft of red feathers laid at the feet of the sacrifice, round which the priests stood. The chief priest spoke for about a quarter of an hour, with different tones and gestures, appearing sometimes to expostulate with the dead, at other times asking him questions, and then making various demands. He then prayed about half an hour in a whining tone, in which he was joined by two other persons; and one of them, during the course of the prayer, plucked some hairs from the head of the sacrifice, and placed them upon one of the bundles; then the high-priest prayed alone, holding in his hand the tuft of feathers he received from the king. Having finished, he gave them to another priest, who prayed in like manner, and then all the tufts of feathers were placed upon the bundles of cloth, which terminated the ceremony at this place.

The victim was next conducted to the most conspicuous part of the morai, with the feathers and the two bundles of cloth, the drums in the meantime beating slowly. The bundles and the feathers were then laid against a pile of stones, and the sacrifice at the foot of them; while the priests again encircled the body and renewed their prayers, and their assistants dug a hole in the earth about two feet deep, into which they threw the victim, and covered it

with earth and stones. While they were depositing the body in the grave, a boy squeaked aloud; upon which the captain was informed, that it was *Eatooa*, or the god. Then a fire was kindled, and a half-starved dog produced, killed by the twisting of its neck, the hair singed off, the entrails taken out, thrown into the fire, and left to be consumed; but the kidneys, heart, and liver, were baked on heated stones. The victim, having been rubbed with the blood of the animal, was, with the liver, heart, and kidneys, laid down before the priests, who were seated around the grave, praying. They continued for some time uttering ejaculations over the dog, while two men at intervals beat very hard upon two drums, and a boy screamed in a loud shrill voice three times: this was intended to invite the *Eatooa* to feast on the banquet they had prepared for him.

When the priests had finished their prayer, the body of the dog, with the heart, liver, and kidneys, were placed on a scaffold, about six feet high, on which lay the remains of two other dogs and of two pigs, that had been lately offered. The priests and their attendants uttering a loud shout, the ceremony concluded for that day.

Early next morning, the captain and his companions were conducted to the morai, where the priests and a great multitude of people were assembled. The two bundles of cloth were in the place they occupied the former night, the two drums were in the front of the morai, and the priest stationed beyond them. The king placed himself between the drums, and desired Captain Cook to stand by him.

The ceremony recommenced with bringing a young plantain-tree, and laying it at the king's feet. The priests then prayed, holding in their hands several tufts of red feathers, and a plume of ostrich-feathers. The prayer being ended, the priests placed themselves between the Englishmen and the morai; and one began to pray, and continued about half an hour. During this prayer, the red feathers were put one by one upon the ark of the Eatooa. Then four pigs were produced, one of which was instantly sacrificed, and the other three were taken to a neighbouring sty.

The maro, with which the Otaheiteans invest their kings, was now taken out of a cloth, and spread on the ground before the priests. It was a girdle of about fifteen feet long and one foot and a quarter broad, and appears to be put on in the same way as those islanders wrap the piece of cloth round their middle. The ornaments of this royal robe were yellow and red feathers, ranged in two rows, in square compartments, so as to produce a very pleasing effect. They had originally been fixed upon a piece of cloth, manufactured in the island, and afterwards sewed to the upper end of the pendant which Captain Wallis left flying on the shore upon his first arrival at Matavai The priest pronounced a long prayer, relative to this part of the ceremony: and the badge of royalty was again folded up and put into the cloth.

The other bundle was next opened; but the English gentlemen were not permitted to approach sufficiently near to examine its mysterious contents. The intelligence obtained respecting it was, that it contained the Eatooa, or a representation of him. This sacred repository nearly resembles the ark of the God of Israel: its figure is circular, and one end considerably thicker than the other.

The pig which had been slain was now cleansed, and the entrails taken out. It happened to have many of those convulsive motions which frequently appear in an animal when killed, and this was considered as a very favourable omen by the spectators. Having been exposed for some time, the entrails were laid down before the priests, one of whom closely inspected them, and for this purpose gently turned them with a stick. When sufficiently examined, they were thrown into the fire; whilst the sacrificed pig, with the heart, liver, and kidneys, were put upon the scaffold, where the dog had been previously deposited; and all the feathers, except the ostrich-plume, being enclosed in the ark, the whole solemnity closed.

Four canoes lay upon the beach, opposite to the morai, all the time of the solemnity, which were intended to carry the things belonging to the *Eatooa*: and on the fore part of each was fixed a small platform, covered with palm-leaves, tied in mysterious knots.

The unhappy victim on these occasions is unapprised of his fate, and suddenly slain unawares. Some great chief fixes upon the victim, and sends one of his trusty servants to slay the person. The presence of the king is also needful on such an awful solemnity; it is called the "king's prayer;" and the place where such sacrifices are performed is usually the burying-place of the Otaheitean monarchs.

This horrid practice of offering human sacrifices can upon no principles whatever cease to be detestable; but if possible, it is rendered still more abominable by the levity and indifference attending it. Instead of the mind being impressed with solemn reverential awe, the multitude remained unconcerned spectators; and even the priests, when not directly employed, displayed the most shocking insensibility. They conversed familiarly together, and the only decorum observed was, to defend the consecrated spot from the populace and the English strangers.

It is proper, however, to mention, that they are open and candid in answering any questions which are put to them concerning their religious system. Being asked, what was the design of this inhuman institution? they replied, that it was an ancient custom, and highly pleasing to their god, who came and feasted upon the sacrifice, in consequence of which he answered their prayers. When it was objected, that he did not certainly feed on these, as he

was not seen to do so, nor were the bodies of the consecrated animals seen consumed, and that the interring prevented his feeding upon the human sacrifice,—they replied, that he came in the night invisibly, and fed only on the soul or immaterial part, which, they say, remains about the place of sacrifice until the carcase is totally wasted by putrefaction.

It is highly probable, that human sacrifices prevail in all or most of the South Sea islands, however separated they may be; and although it appears that not more than one of these are devoted at once, yet they occur so frequently, that they certainly make great havock of the human race; for Captain Cook counted no less than forty-nine skulls of former victims lying before the morai, and none of them had suffered any considerable decay.

But that of human sacrifices is not the only horrid custom prevailing in the southern isles. For, besides cutting out the jaw-bones of their enemies slain in battle, and carrying them about as trophies of their victory, they in some measure sacrifice the whole of their bodies to the god of the country. Whenever they have gained a victory in battle, they collect all the dead; and bringing them to the morai, they dig a large hole, and, with great form and ceremony, bury them as so many offerings to their divinities.

If any of their own chiefs fall in battle, their bodies are brought to the morai, where the priests cut out their bowels before the great altar, and their remains are afterwards interred, near a great pile of stones. The common men, who lose their lives in battle, are interred in one large hole, dug at the foot of the pile. This is done the day after the battle, amidst a great concourse of people, with much pomp and ceremony, as a thank-offering to the *Eatooa* for their success.

There is another base custom, that prevails in a society composed of a certain class. These having no concern in the government, or any distinct property, associate for their own amusement, and that of the public. They travel from place to place, and from island to island, not unlike the strolling players in England. These admit of no marriages, and no married people can obtain admittance into their society. It is also a rule among them never to be encumbered with children: and if any of the women happen to be pregnant, they must either secretly murder their offspring, or endure the shame of being expelled the society. It appears, however, that the circumstances of an indiscriminate connection among these islanders is either misunderstood or greatly exaggerated; for those acts of lewdness, which have so generally stained the character of these islanders, are chiefly to be ascribed to the brutal conduct of European sailors.

Marriage appears to be performed among these people without any religious formality, but various ceremonies ensue. If a woman be a virgin, the father and mother present an offering of a hog or a fowl, and plantain-tree, to their son-in-law, before they can touch any of his provisions; but if the woman be a widow, or separated from her former husband, this ceremony is dispensed with. The relations of the bride make a present of hogs, cloth, and other articles, to the new-married pair. So long as they agree, they live either on the husband's or the wife's estate; but, if they separate, each retains their own property.

When a woman marries, she immediately provides herself with a shark's tooth, fastened, with the gum of the bread-fruit, upon an instrument, which leaves about a quarter of an inch of the tooth bare, resembling a lancet, for the purpose of wounding the head. Some have two or three teeth, and, when struck forcibly, they bring blood in copious streams; according to the love they bear the party, and according to the violence of their grief, the strokes are repeated on the head. To such a degree has this ridiculous practice been sometimes carried, that a fever has ensued, and terminated in lunacy. If any accident happen to the husband or his relations, and even if his child fall down and hurt itself, the shark's tooth is immediately seized, and, through the use of this instrument and the violence of grief, the blood and tears of the mourner soon mingle. The child succeeding to the honours of the family, any insult offered to him is more deeply felt by the parents than if done to themselves. And, should the child die, the house is immediately filled with the relations, wounding their heads and making bitter lamentations.

Grief is a strong and powerful emotion in the mind, and generally most violent in the uncultivated state of human nature. Thus the inhabitants of the southern isles express their grief by the most violent emotions, and it is from the custom of beating their faces upon these occasions that originates the mark which most of them have upon their cheek-bones. The repeated blows inflicted by them upon this part, rub off the skin, and cause some blood to flow out; and, when the wound is green, it resembles a hollow circle made by burning.

On some more calamitous occasions, they cut this part of the face with an instrument. This, however, is principally confined to the chiefs. When any person of quality who was related to them dies, they burn their temples; on the death of a mother, the mark is made upon the left side; on the death of a father, it is made upon the right side; and on the death of the high-priest, the first joint of the little finger is amputated.

Parents, upon the death of their children, besides other tokens of grief, cut their hair short upon one part of their head, leaving the remainder long. This frequently forms a square patch on the forehead, but is sometimes left in its usual state, and all the rest of the hair cut off. Sometimes a bunch is left over both ears, at other times over

one only; and sometimes one half is clipped quite close, and the other left to grow long. These signs of mourning are often prolonged for two or three years.

The manner of treating their women in child-bearing is peculiarly pernicious. When a woman brings forth a child, a kind of hut is raised in the house, with cloth and matting; heated stones are then placed, with sweet herbs and grass spread over them; water is afterwards poured upon them; and the woman is closely shut up in the steam, which rises till she be in a strong perspiration, and can endure the heat no longer. Hastening from this vapour-bath, she plunges in the river; and having washed herself, she puts on her clothes, and takes the child to the morai. This often brings on an ague: but such is the strength of prejudice, that no arguments can persuade them to abandon a practice so injurious to their health.

A temporary house is erected on the sacred ground adjoining the morai; where the mother and the child remain for a certain time, and the father usually makes an offering of a young pig or a fowl, with a plantain-tree. The period of seclusion for a male is two, and for a female three weeks; during which time the mother touches no food, but is fed by another: and, should any person inadvertently touch the child in this period of seclusion, he must undergo the same restrictions, until an offering of a young pig or fowl be presented, which finishes the ceremony of separation.

The child is then removed to another temporary house, in which the father and the mother reside; but, according to the prejudices of the country, they may not touch the child in the same clothes in which they take their victuals. To remove this prohibition, a second offering must be made by the father and uncles, a third by the mother and aunts, a fourth before the child returns to the house where the father and uncles eat, and a fifth on the same account, for the mother and aunts

If the child happen to touch any thing previous to the termination of these days of purification, it is deemed sacred; and if any thing touch the child's head before the offering of purification, it must be instantly deposited in a consecrated place; but should it be a branch of a tree, the tree must be cut down; and if, in its fall, it penetrate the bark of another tree, that must also be cut down, because reckoned unclean.

No small degree of respect is displayed towards a chief when he travels. When a chief or stranger of superior rank comes from another island, all those of his own rank present their peace-offering. There are also large and spacious houses erected for the reception of strangers; to one of which the noble visitor is conducted; the chiefs of the district assemble round him, attended by a priest, who offers up a long prayer, and having several young plantain-trees, he places a bunch of red feathers on one of these, and, with a pig or fowl, lays them at the stranger's feet, who takes the feathers, and fixes them in his ear, or among his hair. The inferior priests repeat a similar offering, and a feast is immediately provided with the usual presents. When one of the higher class visits any place, he is sure to find a numerous body of men waiting to receive him; the preparations are sumptuous, and he may every day have a repetition of feasts, without any diminution in respect of plenty or a welcome reception. The force of example is also so powerful among the lower order, that they frequently manifest their hospitality, when they can very ill afford it.

The singular custom of exchanging names also obtains among these islanders. This often produces considerable embarrassment to strangers, so that the persons with whom they were formerly acquainted may soon be unknown to them. The names of places and things continue, unless they happen to consist of syllables containing the king's name; and, should this be the case, they are changed during his life-time, and upon his death the common name is resumed.

Another singularity among these islanders is disrespect for old age. The writer of the Voyage of the Duff informs us, that a venerable priest, grandfather to the king, was scarcely noticed by those who visited Captain Wilson. And on that occasion one of the aged seamen was frequently the object of their derision. The reverse, however, appears to be the case at Tongataboo; for there the younger persons observe a respectful silence in the presence of the aged.

It is customary to preserve the bodies of the chiefs, and even those of their children. This is done by taking out the viscera, drying the body with a cloth, and anointing it, both internally and externally, with perfumed oil, which operation is frequently repeated. The agent is consequently deemed unclean, and may not touch provisions for the space of a month. The relations of the deceased perform their part of the funeral-rite, by presenting the corpse with a piece of cloth and some provisions. They indulge their superstition yet farther, by acting some of the more tender and affectionate scenes of life anew before the corpse. The shark's tooth is frequently employed, and the garments of the dead stained with the flowing blood. During the continuance of any noxious smell, they cover the body with garlands of flowers, and anoint it with sweet-scented oil.

Upon the death of a king or chief, the corpse is carried to every part where he had property, or where his particular friends reside; the funeral-ceremonies are repeated; and, after the regular tour, the body rests at the place of his usual residence. These preserved bodies are kept above ground, and are liable to be taken prisoners in war. Nay, the person who seizes the body of a chief-

tain has a right to assume his name; consequently, in the time of war, these are conveyed to the mountains: and it is customary also to take Captain Cook's picture along with them, because the loss of it would be equally afflictive as that of a chief; nay, the conqueror might, according to their law of succession, lay claim to the district allotted him.

Our readers may probably be gratified with the narrative of the following ceremony. According to the editor of Cook's Voyages, Mr. Banks being informed that he could not be present unless he performed a particular part, consented thereto, rather than not have his curiosity gratified. Accordingly, he repaired in the evening to the place where the body was deposited, and was there joined by the relations of the deceased, and afterwards by some other persons. The principal mourner had a very whimsical dress, although not altogether ungraceful.

Mr. Banks was constrained to change his European dress, and had no other covering than a piece of cloth bound round his waist. His body, and the bodies of several others, were blacked over with charcoal and water, and among the company were some females.

The funeral-procession then commenced, and the chief mourner, on approaching the body, uttered some words, which were judged to be a prayer; and he repeated these words as he came up to his own house. They then went on, by permission, towards the fort. It is usual for the rest of the natives to shun these processions as much as possible; and, therefore, they ran into the wood immediately upon the view of the funeral.

From the fort, the mourners proceeded along the shore, crossed the river, entered the woods, and passed several houses, from which the inhabitants fled, and not a native was seen during the remainder of the procession. Those who assisted at the ceremony bathed in the river, and then resumed their former dress.

The predilection for music is very strong, and the mode of performing singular in the southern world. The musicians perform on an instrument somewhat resembling a flute; but the performer blows with his nostril, instead of his mouth, and he is accompanied by others singing a certain tune. The principles of his art are few, and these very imperfect.

There are also a kind of itinerant musicians, who afford entertainment to their countrymen by a rude concert of drums and flutes. The drummers sing to the music; and it was the cause of no small astonishment to the English, that they were the subject of their song. It is, therefore, obvious, that these songs must have been extempore effusions; which evinces that, in some, the power of ready invention is singularly strong, even among these untaught natives. These songs consist of only two lines, and are frequently sung for evening amusements between sun-set and bed-time. During this period, they burn candles made of an oil-nut, fixing them one above another upon a small stick that is run through the middle. Some of these candles will burn a long time, and afford a very tolerable light.

The drums used in musical entertainments are formed of a circular piece of wood, hollow at one end only, which is covered with the skin of a shark, and beaten with the hand, instead of a stick.

These islanders are for the most part dexterous wrestlers. In challenging each other to this combat, they strike the bend of the left arm, and, if left-handed, they reverse the stroke. The bended arm receives the hand upon its cavity, and emits a loud report. The man who accepts the challenge throws both his arms forward to seize his antagonist. Sometimes a few engage in these combats, and sometimes a whole district. When the latter happens to be the case, both men and women wrestle, and the females are always honoured with wrestling first. The late visitors of that part of the world inform us, that the queen excelled in this amusement; and when the women of any district are victorious, they immediately strike up a dance. The queen usually determines the number of falls which shall ascertain the victory, nor do the vanquished manifest the least dissatisfaction. It is true, indeed, that, in consequence of the warmth of the female temper, the women usually bear their disappointment worse than the men, and exhibit stronger signs of anger at being overcome. When any one throws his antagonist, he walks round the spectators, clapping his hands, and the vanquished party retires in silence.

Feasts of wrestling are sometimes performed for public entertainment. Captain Cook was entertained with one of these, upon a visit to a chief. He and his associates were conducted to a court-yard, near the house of the chief, who was placed at the upper extremity of the area, and several of the principal men on each side, who appeared to be the judges of the contest. Ten or twelve combatants entered the area; after the usual modes of challenging, they engaged, and each endeavoured to throw his antagonist by mere strength. Seizing each other by the hand, or some other part of the body, artfully grappling until one, either by having a greater hold or possessing stronger muscular force, threw the other on his back.

One engagement succeeded another; but, if the combatants could not throw each other in the space of a minute, careful that even these wrestlings should be attended with no injury, they then parted, either by consent or by the intervention of friends. A man, with a large stick, officiated as master of the ceremonies, and severely beat those who rashly pressed forward.

During these athletic sports, another party of men per-

formed a dance. But neither party took the least notice of each other, their whole attention being only engaged to please and to conquer. Equally careful to avoid injury, this contest only continued about the space of a minute. In this circumstance, the Otaheiteans exceed both the Roman and the European wrestlers, who continue till the body is injured, if the life be not taken away.

The science of defence is greatly cultivated among them, a wound in battle conferring no honour, but rather disgrace. From their earliest years they are practised in this art. They frequently exercise at quarter-staff, and soon become expert at defending the head and every other part of the body.

The sling constitutes one of the boyish sports of Europe, and those children in improvement manifest a strong partiality for this amusement. Nor has the want of proper materials for slings prevented the enjoyment of this pleasure. Invention has enabled them to plait the fibres of cocoa-nut husk. These slings have a loop for the hand in one end, in order to keep the sling fast, when they discharge the stone, and a broad place is constructed for the reception of the stone. In charging the sling, they hold it round their shoulders, keeping the stone fast 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 they discharge the stone with a force sufficient to enter the bark of a tree at two hundred yards distant, the stone flying at an equal distance from the ground all the way.

Their bows are constructed of porow, and their arrows of small bamboos; the bark of the roava affords them bow-strings; with these they contend, not at a mark, but for the greatest distance. The bow is never honoured with employment in war, but the sling appears in that destructive science. Since they have learned the use of fire-arms from the Europeans, they have become excellent marksmen. It is a singular fact, that, as in more cultivated nations, the sportsman and the hunter have a dress peculiar to that employment, so these islanders have a dress sacred to the game, and never worn but on such an occasion.

The javelin succeeds to the sling and bow. It is from eight to fourteen feet long, and pointed with palm-tree wood. They hold the javelin in the right hand, and pitch it over the fore-finger of the left hand, in which position they will hurl it with great exactness against a mark set up at the distance of thirty or forty yards. As one district in the highlands of Scotland was formerly accustomed to contend against another in playing at the ball, so one district of the southern world, in their present rude state, often contend against each other in throwing the javelin. Nor are the females exempted or less eager than the men. The only prize is, that the district in which the game is played affords an entertainment. It is proper, however, to remark, that the women and the men contend separately: the women combat with women, and the men with men.

Swimming is another exercise, of which they are extremely fond. Those who live in the vicinity of the sea, or upon the brink of a river, universally manifest a partiality to swimming. The insulated situation of these men invite to this employment, which they have carried almost to incredible perfection. The children learn to swim almost as soon as they learn to walk; and, therefore, gradually arrive at perfection. Swimming in the surf is an amusement in high repute with both sexes, and the entertainment is estimated in proportion to the largeness and violence of the surf.

SECTION VII.

THE FRIENDLY ISLES.

This groupe extends chiefly from south-west to north-east, 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 island, now styled by the native term Tongataboo, by the name of Amsterdam.

In the Missionary Voyage, 1797, there is an interesting map of this island, which appears to be a plain country, in an universal and surprising state of cultivation, the whole island consisting of enclosures, 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.

Soil, Climate, and Productions.] The soil is every where prolific, and consists of a fine rich mould, upon an average about fourteen or fifteen inches deep, free from stones, except near the beach, where coral rocks appear above the surface. Beneath this mould is a red loam, four or five inches thick; next is a very blue clay, in small quantities: and in some places has been found a black earth, which emits a very fragrant smell, resembling bergamot, but it soon evaporates, when exposed to the air. The air is pure and wholesome, much sharper in winter than would be imagined, particularly when the wind is from the southward.

No other domestic animals were seen on this island, but hogs, dogs, and fowls; the former of the same sort as at the other isles in this sea: but the latter are far superior, being as large as any in Europe, and their flesh equally

good, if not better. But few dogs were seen, as they were exceedingly desirous of those which were on board the ships. Rats were in great abundance. They have also a species of the lizard, which they esteem a dainty food. There are water-snakes, about thirty inches long, but they are not venomous. The land-birds are pigeons, turtle-doves, lories, rails, wild ducks, resembling our widgeons, parrots, parroquets, owls, bald couts, with a blue plumage, a variety of small birds, and large bats in abundance, which the inhabitants say are very good eating.

The missionaries relate, that the cattle left by Captain Cook have been destroyed. The horse and mare were gored by the bull, and put them in great terror: to prevent any bad accident, they destroyed him, and also the cow and three calves, which were all they had produced, except one young bull, which was sent to Fejee.

Captain Wilson, in his second visit to this island, left to the missionaries eight goats, three cats, and an English dog, of which the islanders are very fond.

This island abounds with the bread-fruit, cotton-trees, cocoa-nut-trees, paper-mulberry, the bark of which furnishes materials for making cloths, plantains, bananas, shaddocks, yams, sweet potatoes, and other roots; sugar-cane, nutmegs, which are not so aromatic as those of Ceylon, and a fruit like a nectarine, called, by the natives, *fighegea*, and, at Otaheite, *aheege:* there is also a plant called *vacoua*, the leaves of which serve for making mats. The pepper-tree is also much esteemed, as from it is produced their intoxicating liquor, called kava. The *inocarpus edulis* produces a fruit, which the inhabitants eat bruised: its flavour is much like that of the chesnut. Mr. Forster, the naturalist, told Captain Cook, that he not only found the same plants here that are at Otaheite and the neighbouring islands, but several others. The produce and cultivation of Tongataboo is the same as at Eooa, with this difference, that a part only of Eooa is cultivated; whereas the whole of Tongataboo is in a high state of perfection.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The men, in general, are of the middle stature, though some measured six feet. They are well proportioned, and, though muscular, they lead such indolent lives, that they are incapable of making great efforts: and when they made trial of strength with the sailors, they always had the disadvantage. Their features are various; nor are they characterised by any general likeness, unless it be a fulness at the point of the nose. The common complexion of the natives is mahogany, or chesnut-brown, and black hair. Some are of an olive-colour; and some of the women are much fairer, which may be the effect of being less exposed to the sun.

The women, in general, are not so tall as the men: their bodies and limbs are well-proportioned; and what particularly distinguishes them is, the uncommon smallness and delicacy of their fingers, which may be put in competition with any of the Europeans. Their hair, in general, is black. Different colours were found amongst the men, sometimes on the same head, caused by something they put upon it, which stains it white, red, and blue. Both sexes wear it short: but two exceptions to this custom were seen, and most of them combed it upwards. Many of the boys had it cut very close, except a single lock on the top of the head, and a small quantity on each side. The men cut or shave their beards quite close; which operation is performed with two shells. They have fine eyes, and, in general, good teeth, to an advanced age. The custom of tatooing, or puncturing the skin, prevails: the men are tatooed from the middle of the thigh to above the hips. On the tenderest part of the body are marked configurated scars, which must be very painful, as well as dangerous. The chiefs are exempted from this custom; the women have it only on their arms and fingers; and there but very slightly.

What particularly characterises these people is, that most of them want the little finger on one, and sometimes on both hands; nor did the difference of age or sex exempt from this amputation, for the very children were observed to have suffered that loss. They suppose that the little finger will be accepted by the deity as a kind of propitiatory sacrifice, sufficiently efficacious to procure their recovery. In cutting it off, they make use of a stone hatchet. There is scarcely one person in ten who is not thus mutilated; and they sometimes cut so close, as to incroach upon that bone of the hand which joins the amputated finger. It is also common for the lower class of people to cut off a joint of their little finger, on account of the sickness of the chiefs to whom they respectively belong. They had also a round spot on each cheek-bone, which appeared to have been burned, or blistered. On some it appeared to have been recently made; on others, it was covered with scurf, and the mark was slight, but the reason of it was mysterious.

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

The language of the natives of the Friendly Islands bears a striking resemblance to those of New Zealand and the Society Isles. The pronunciation, however, differs, in many instances, from that of Otaheite and New Zealand; but a great number of words are either very little changed, or exactly the same; so that the difference is not greater than what is found betwixt the most northern and western parts of England. The language, as spoken

by the Friendly Islanders, is sufficiently copious to express all their ideas; and, being tolerably harmonious in common conversation, is easily adapted to music. They have terms to signify numbers as far as a hundred thousand, beyond which they either would not or could not reckon.

With respect to disposition, the natives possess many excellent qualities; their bounty and liberality to strangers is great, and their generosity to each other unequalled. When they kill a hog, or make any mess for themselves, they always send part to their friends, who return the favour as soon as circumstances permit; this keeps up a constant friendship among them, which is seldom interrupted by quarrels.

Their honesty to one another seems unimpeachable; though there is no reason to think that the accounts of their dishonesty to strangers are at all exaggerated; as, in this instance, they have an universal and unconquerable propensity to theft. Upon most occasions, the females shewed a strong propensity to pilfering, in which they were full as expert as the Otaheiteans. The murder of children, and other horrid practices, which prevail among the Otaheiteans, are unheard of here.

The natives of these islands are much commended for their cleanliness; they bathe frequently in ponds, which seem to serve no other purpose. Though the water in most of them is nauseous, they prefer them to the sea, imagining that salt-water hurts their skins. When they bathe in the sea, they commonly have some cocoa-nut shells filled with fresh water poured over them, to wash the salt-water off. The cocoa-nut oil has an admirable effect on the skin, in rendering it smooth; for which they hold it in such estimation, that they not only pour a great quantity of it upon their heads and shoulders, but rub the body over with it.

The dress of men and women is much the same, and consists of a piece of cloth, or matting, about two yards wide, and two and a half long, so as to wrap in great abundance round the waist, to which it is confined by a girdle or cord. In front it is double, and hangs down, like a petticoat, as low as the middle of the leg. This is the general dress; but large pieces of cloth and fine matting are worn only by those of superior rank. The inferior class are satisfied with small pieces, and often wear nothing but a covering made of leaves of plants, or a narrow piece of cloth, or matting, like a sash. This they pass between the thighs, and wrap it round the waist; but the use of it is chiefly confined to the men. From the waist upwards they are generally naked. They have various dresses made for the purpose of their grand entertainments; but the form is always the same; and the richest are adorned, more or less, with red feathers. Both sexes sometimes screen their faces from the sun with little bonnets.

The sexes differ as little in their ornaments as their clothing. Of these the most common are necklaces, made of various sweet-scented flowers, which go under the general name of *kabulla;* they have also bracelets of bone, shells, and beads of mother-of-pearl, tortoise-shells, &c. which are worn by both sexes, loose upon the breast. The women wear on their fingers rings, made of tortoise-shells, and pieces in their ears, about the size of a small quill; but ornaments for the ears are not commonly worn. They have also a curious apron, made of the outside fibres of the cocoa-nut shells, and composed of a number of small pieces, in such a manner as to form stars, half-moons, little squares, &c.: it is studded with beads of shells, and covered with red feathers, so as to have a pleasing effect

They do not discover much taste or ingenuity in building their houses; though the defect is rather in the design than in the execution. Those of the lower people are poor huts; those of the better are larger and more comfortable. Their houses, properly speaking, are roofs or sheds, thatched with the leaves of the palm-tree, and supported by posts and rafters, disposed in a tolerably judicious manner. The floor is a little raised, covered with a strong thick matting, and kept very clean. A house of a middling size is of the following dimensions, viz. about twelve feet in height, twenty in breadth, and thirty in length. Some of their habitations are open all round, but the major part of them are inclosed on the weather-side with strong mats, or with branches of the cocoa-nut tree, plaited or interwoven with each other. The entrance of their houses are so low, that a person cannot enter but by stooping, and supporting himself by his hands. A thick strong mat, of two or three feet broad, bent into the form of a semicircle, and set upon its edge, with its ends touching the side of the house, in shape resembling the fender of a fire-hearth, encloses a space for the master and mistress of the family to sleep in. The latter, indeed, spends most of her time during the day within it. The rest of the family sleep upon the floor, wherever they please to lie down, the unmarried men and women apart from each other. If the family be large, there are small huts adjoining, to which the servants retire in the night; so that privacy is as much observed here as can be expected. They have mats made on purpose for sleeping on; and the clothes they wear in the day serve for their covering in the night.

Most of their houses are built in the plantations, and they have areas before them, generally planted round with trees, or ornamental shrubs, whose fragrancy perfumes the air.

Their whole furniture consists of wooden stools, which serve them for pillows; baskets of different sizes, in which they put their combs, fish-hooks, and tools; two or three

wooden bowls, in which they make kava; some cocoa-nut shells, a few gourds, and a bundle or two of cloth. Their chief articles of animal food are hogs, fish, and fowls; but the common people frequently eat rats. Their hogs, fowls, and turtle, are dainties served for people of rank. Their food is, in general, dressed by baking; and they make from different fruits several dishes, which are very good. They sometimes boil their fish in the green leaves of the plantain-tree, which serve as a bag to hold both fish and water: having tied them up, they wrap them again in three or four other leaves, and place them upon stones heated for that purpose: when they are sufficiently done, they not only eat the fish, but drink the liquor or soup.

A dish much in request among the chiefs is called *koti*, and is made in the following manner: They first pour cocoa-milk into a wooden bowl, then scrape out the kernel with a shell; gee-root is bruised into the milk, and remains till the latter has imbibed a delicious sweetness from it; the root is then taken out of the milk, and the kernel mixed up with it, and this makes a rich dish.

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

Their canoes, in point of neatness and workmanship, exceed every thing of the kind in the South Sea. They are built of several pieces, sewed together with bandage, in so neat a manner, that on the outside it is difficult to see the joints; all the fastenings are on the inside, and pass through ridges, which are wrought on the edges and ends of the several boards which compose the vessel, for that purpose. They are, in general, of two kinds: the single ones are from twenty to thirty feet long, and about twenty or twenty-two inches broad in the middle; the stern terminates in a point, and the head is something like the point of a wedge. At each end is a kind of deck, for about one-third part of the whole length, and open in the middle. In some, the middle of the deck is decorated with a row of white shells, stuck on little pegs, wrought out of the same piece which composes it. These single canoes have all out-riggers, and are sometimes navigated with sails, but more generally with paddles, the blades of which are short, and broadest in the middle. The two vessels which compose the double canoes are each about sixty or seventy feet long, and four or five broad in the middle; each end terminates nearly in a point, so that the body or hull differs a little in construction from the single canoe, but it is put together exactly in the same manner; the single canoes having a rising in the middle round the open part, in the form of a long trough, which is made of boards closely fitted together, and well secured to the body of the vessel. Two such vessels are fastened to, and parallel with, each other, about six or seven feet asunder, by strong cross-beams, secured by bandages to the upper part of the risings above mentioned; over these beams and others, which are supported by stanchions fixed on the bodies of the canoes, is laid a boarded platform. All the parts which compose the double canoe are made as strong and light as the nature of the work will admit, and may be immersed in water to the very platform, without being in danger of filling. Nor is it possible, under any circumstance, for them to sink, so long as they hold together. Thus they are not only made vessels of burden, but fit for distant navigation; they are rigged with one mast, with steps upon the platform, and can be raised or taken down, and are navigated with a latteen-sail, or triangle ones, extended by a long yard, which is a little bent. The sail is made of mats; the rope they make use of is laid exactly like ours; on the platform is built a little shed or hut, which screens the crew from the sun and weather, and serves for other purposes. They also carry a moveable fire-hearth, which is a square, but shallow, trough of wood, filled with stones. The way into the hold of the canoe is from off the platform down into a sort of uncovered hatchway, in which they bail out the water. Their cordage, in general, is excellent; and they have also contrived a very good tackle, consisting of a strong rope, with large stones at the end, by means of which they come to an anchor.

Their weapons are clubs, spears, darts, bows, and arrows. The former are of a great variety of shapes, and many of them so heavy as not to be managed with one hand but with difficulty. The most common form is quadrangular. The far greater part are carved all over, in many checkered patterns, with great ingenuity, and require great patience and a long time to work up, as a sharp stone, sharks' teeth, or piece of coral, are the only tools made use of, excepting when they can procure iron instruments. The whole surface of their plain clubs is as highly polished as if finished by an European artist with the best instruments. Their spears are sometimes plain sharp-pointed sticks, and sometimes barbed. Their bows and arrows are of a peculiar construction. The former, which is about six feet long, is about the size of a little finger, and, when slack, forms a slight curve; the convex part is channelled with a single deep groove, in which the bow-string is lodged. The arrow is made of reed, near six feet long, and pointed with hard wood When the bow is to be bent, instead of drawing it so as

to increase the natural curve, they draw it the contrary way, make it perfectly straight, and then form the curve on the other side.

They have also bows and arrows intended for amusement and shooting birds, but not for the purpose of war. Their stools are about two feet long, with four strong legs and circular feet; the whole composed of brown or black wood, neatly polished, and sometimes inlaid. They likewise inlay handles of fly-flaps; and, with a shark's tooth, shape bones into figures of men, birds, &c. Their running lines are as strong and even as our best cord. The small hooks consist entirely of pearl-shells; but the large ones are only covered with it on the back; and the points of both are, in general, of tortoise-shell. With the large hooks they catch albicores and bonnetos, by putting them to a bamboo-end, about twelve feet long, with a line of the same length. They have also numbers of small seines, some of which are of the most delicate texture.

Conformable to the powers peculiar to their sex, the men are assigned the most arduous and laborious employments. Architecture, boat-building, agriculture, and fishing, are the principal objects of their care. As cultivated roots and fruits form their chief subsistence, they find it necessary to practise husbandry, which they have brought by their diligence to some degree of perfection. In planting yams and plantains, they dig small holes for their reception, and afterwards root up the surrounding grass.

The manufacturers of cloth, who are females, take the slender stalks or trunks of the mulberry, which they cultivate for that purpose. From these they strip the bark, and scrape out the outer rind with a muscle-shell. The bark is then rolled up, to take up the convexity which it had round the stalk, and macerated in water for some time. After this it is laid across the trunk of a small tree, squared, and beaten with a square wooden instrument, about a foot long, full of coarse grooves on all sides, but sometimes with one that is plain. According to the size of the bark, a piece is soon produced; but the operation is often repeated by another hand, or it is folded several times, and beaten longer, which is intended rather to close than divide its texture. When this is sufficiently effected, it is spread out to dry, the pieces being from four to six or more feet in length, and half as broad.

These are given to another person, who joins the pieces, by smearing part of them with the viscous juice of a berry, called *too*, which serves as glue. Having been thus lengthened, they are laid over a large piece of wood, with a kind of stamp, made of a fibrous substance, pretty closely interwoven, placed beneath. They tear a bit of cloth, and dip it in a juice pressed from the bark of a tree called *kokka*, which they rub briskly upon the piece that is making. This at once leaves a dark brown colour, and a dry gloss upon its surface, the stamp at the same time making a slight impression, that serves no other purpose than to make the several pieces that are glazed together stick a little more firmly. In the mean time, they proceed joining and staining by degrees, till they produce a piece of cloth of such length and breadth as they want, generally leaving a border, of a foot broad at the sides, and longer at the ends, unstained. Throughout the whole, if any parts of the original pieces are too thin, or have holes, which is often the case, they glue a spare bit upon them, till they become of an equal thickness. When they want to produce a black colour, they mix the soot procured from an oily nut, called *doodee*, with the juice of the kokka, in different quantities, according to the proposed depth of the tinge. Some say, that the black sort of cloth, which is commonly most glazed, makes a cold dress, but the other a warmer one; and, to obtain strength in both, they are always careful to join the small pieces lengthwise, which makes it impossible to tear the cloth in any direction but one. It is extraordinary that these people do not employ in any of their manufactures the fine cotton which grows in such abundance.

The women frequently entertained Captain Cook with songs, which were very agreeable. They accompany the music by snapping their fingers, so as to keep time to it. Not only their voices, but their music, is very harmonious, and they have a considerable compass in their notes. Captain Cook saw but two musical instruments among them. One was a large flute, made of a piece of bamboo, which they sound with their noses, as at Otaheite; but these have four holes or stops, whereas those of Otaheite have only two. The other was composed of ten or eleven small reeds, of unequal length, bound together side by side, as the Dorie pipe of the ancients is said to have been, and the open ends of the reeds, into which they blow with their mouths, are of equal height, or in a line. They have also a drum, which, without any impropriety, may be compared to a hollow log of wood.

The one Captain Cook saw was five feet six inches long, and thirty inches in girth, and had a slit in it from one end to the other, about three inches wide, by means of which it had been hollowed out. They beat on the side of this log with two drum-sticks, and produced a hollow sound, not quite so musical as an empty cask.

About the time Captain Cook was in a condition to sail, a canoe, conducted by four men, came along-side, with one of those drums, on which one man kept continually beating, thinking, no doubt, the music would charm them. He gave them a piece of cloth and a nail for the drum.

The following account of a musical entertainment is given by the French navigators:—

"Thirteen musicians were seated in the shade of a bread-fruit tree, which was loaded with a prodigious quan-

tity of fruit: they sang together in parts. Four of them held in their hand a bamboo, from a foot to a foot and a half in length, with which they struck the ground, in order to beat time; the longest of these bamboos sometimes serving to make all the divisions. These instruments gave sounds somewhat similar to the tambourine, and there was the following proportion between them: the two middle-sized bamboos were in unison; the longest was a note and a half lower, and the shortest two notes and a half higher.

"The musician who sang the counter-tenor made himself heard much above the others, although his voice was rather hoarse. He accompanied himself at the same time by striking with two little sticks on a bamboo, two feet long, and split longitudinally. Three musicians, placed before the others, strove also to explain the subject of their song by their gestures, which they had no doubt perfectly studied, for they repeated them together, and in the same manner.

"From time to time they turned towards the king, who was present, making with their arms motions, which were not altogether devoid of grace; at other times they inclined their heads suddenly against their breast, and shook them repeatedly.

"At this time, one of the ministers of Toubou ordered kava to be prepared, which was presently brought in a wooden vessel of an oval shape. The musicians had undoubtedly reserved for this moment some of their finest pieces, for at every pause they made were heard from all quarters shouts of *Mali! Mali!* These reiterated plaudits shewed that the music had produced a very striking and agreeable impression on them."

The entertainment called *haivas*, given in these islands, from their singularity in point of construction and execution, are highly worthy of attention. Captain Cook and all the officers were invited by Marreewagee, the old chief, to one of these *haivas*, at Tongataboo. Preparatory to this, a large space had been cleared, and before the temporary hut of the chief, near the English post, was an area, where the performances were to be exhibited. In the morning great multitudes of the natives came in from the country, every one carrying a pole about six feet long upon his shoulders, and at each end of every pole a yam was suspended. These yams and poles were deposited on each side of the area, so as to form two large heaps, decorated with several sorts of small fish, and piled up to the greatest advantage. They were the chief's present to the two captains, Cook and Clarke; and it was difficult to determine whether the wood for fuel, or the yams for food, were most acceptable. The fish might serve to please the sight, but were offensive to the smell; part of them having been kept two or three days, to be presented to the officers on this occasion. Every thing being thus prepared, about eleven o'clock they began to exhibit various dances, which they called *mai*.

The music consisted at first of seventy men as a chorus, who sat down, and around them were placed three drums. Another instrument is called *naffa*, and with the chink turned round towards them, they sit and beat strongly upon it with two cylindrical pieces of hard wood, about a foot long, and as thick as the wrist, by which they produce a loud powerful sound. They vary the strength and rule of their beating at different parts of the dance, and also change the tones, by beating in the middle, or near the end of the instrument.

The first act consisted of four ranks of twenty-four men each, holding in their hands a thin light wooden instrument, above two feet long, and in shape not unlike a small oblong paddle, called *pagge*.

The second act had only two drums, with forty men for a chorus; and the dancers, or rather actors, consisted of two ranks, the foremost having seventeen, and the other fifteen, persons. Fenou was at their head, or in the middle of the front rank. Three drums, which took two, and sometimes three, men to convey them, were now brought in, and seventy men sat down as a chorus to the third act. This consisted of two ranks of sixteen persons each, with young Toobou at their head, who was richly ornamented with a sort of garment covered with red feathers. These danced, sung, and twirled the *pagge* as before, but in general much quicker, and performed so well, that they had the constant applause of the spectators. A motion that met with particular approbation, was one in which they held the face aside, as if ashamed, and the *pagge* before it. The back rank closed before the front one, and that again resumed its place, as in the two former dances; but then they changed again, formed a triple row, divided, retreated to each end of the area, and left the greatest part of the ground clear. At that instant two men entered very hastily, and exercised the clubs which they use in battle. They did this, by first twirling them in their hands, making circular strokes before them with great force and quickness, but so skilfully managed, that, though standing quite close, they never interfered. They shifted their clubs from hand to hand with great dexterity, and, after continuing a little time, kneeled, and made different motions, tossing the clubs in the air, which they caught as they fell, and then went off as hastily as they entered. Their heads were covered with pieces of white cloth, tied at the crown, almost like a night-cap, with a wreath of foliage round the forehead; but they had only very small pieces of white cloth tied about their waist; probably that they might be cool, and free from incumbrance. A person, with a spear, dressed like the former, then came in, and, in the same hasty manner, looking about eagerly, as if in search of some one to throw it at. He then ran hastily to one side

of the crowd in the front, putting himself in a threatening attitude, as if he meant to strike with his spear at one of them, bending the knee a little, and trembling as it were with rage. He continued in this manner only a few seconds, when he moved to the other side, and, having stood in the same posture there for a short time, retreated from the ground as rapidly as when he made his appearance. The dancers, who had divided into parties, repeated something slowly all this while, and now advanced, and joined again, ending with universal applause. This dance was considered as one of their capital performances, some of the principal people being engaged in it; for one of the drums was beaten by Futtafaihe, the brother of Poulaho, another by Feenou, and the third by Marreewagee himself. The last dance had forty men and two drums as a chorus. It consisted of sixty men, who had not danced before, disposed in three rows, having twenty-four in front. There were not less than ten or twelve thousand people on the spot, that is, within the compass of a quarter of a mile. It was observable, that, though the spectators always approved of the various motions, when well made, a great share of the pleasure they received seemed to arise from the sentimental parts, or what the performers delivered in their speeches. Captain Cook observes, that neither pen nor pencil can describe the numerous actions and motions, the singularity of which was not greater than were the ease and gracefulness with which they were performed.

At night the English officers were entertained by the night-dancers, on a space before Fenou's temporary habitation. They lasted about three hours, in which twelve dances were performed, two of them by women; in which a number of men came and formed a circle within theirs. In another, consisting of twenty-four men, a number of motions were made by the hands, which our people had not seen before, and were highly applauded. The music was also once changed in the course of the night; and in one of the dances Fenou appeared at the head of fifty men, who occasionally performed at Hapaee.

As a recompence for the entertainment which Marreewagee had given to the officers, Captain Cook made some exhibitions according to the English custom, and ordered the party of marines to go through their exercise on the spot where the dances had been performed, and in the evening played off some fire-works at the same place. Poulaho, with all the principal chiefs, and a great number of people of all denominations, were present. The platoon-firing, which was executed tolerably well, seemed to give them pleasure; but they were lost in astonishment when they beheld the water-rockets. They paid but little attention to the fife and drum, or French horns, that played during the intervals. The king, Poulaho, sat behind every one, because no one is allowed to sit behind him; and, that his view might not be obstructed, not any one sat immediately before him; but a lane was made by the people from him down to the space allotted for the fire-works.

Their athletic exercises, which are exhibited for public diversion, are boxing and wrestling. When any one is inclined to wrestle, he rises from one side of the ring, and crosses the ground in a sort of measured pace, clapping smartly on the elbow-joint of one arm, which is bent, and produces a hollow sound, that is deemed the challenge. If an opponent appears, they come together with marks of the greatest good-nature, generally smiling; and, taking time to adjust the piece of cloth which is fastened round the waist, they lay hold of each other by this girdle, with a hand on each side, and he who succeeds in drawing his antagonist to him, immediately tries to lift him upon his breast, and throw him on his back; and if he is able to turn him round two or three times in that position, before he throws him, his dexterity never fails of procuring him plaudits from the spectators. If they are more equally matched, they close soon, endeavour to throw each other by entwining the legs, in lifting each other from the ground, in which struggles they show great exertion of strength.

When one is thrown, he immediately quits the field; but the victor sits down for a few seconds, then rises, and goes to the side he came from, and proclaims the victory, in a sentence delivered slowly, and in a musical cadence: after sitting a short space, he rises again, and challenges, when, sometimes, several antagonists make their appearance; but he has the privilege of choosing which of them he pleases to wrestle with, and likewise the preference of challenging again, if he should throw his adversary, until he himself is vanquished; when the opposite side sing the song of victory in favour of their champion. It often happens, that five or six rise from each side, and challenge together; in which case it is common to see three or four couple engaged on the field at once. But it is astonishing to see what temper they preserve in this exercise; for no instances were observed of their leaving the spot with the least displeasure in their countenance. When they find they are so equally matched, as not to be likely to throw each other, they leave off by mutual consent. If the fall of one is not fair, or if it does not appear clearly who had the advantage, both sides sing the victory; and they engage again. But no person who has been vanquished can engage with his conqueror a second time.

The boxers advance sideways, changing the side at every space, with one arm stretched fully out before, the other behind, and holding a piece of coral, which they wrap up firmly within the hand, when they meet an antagonist. This, it is supposed, they do to prevent a dislocation of the hand or fingers. Their blows are directed chiefly to the head, but sometimes to the sides, and are repeated with great activity. They shift sides, and box equally

well with both hands. But one of their favourite and most dexterous blows is to turn round on their heel, just as they have struck their antagonist, and to give him another very smart one with the other, backward.

The boxing-matches seldom last long, and the parties either leave off together, or one acknowledges his being beaten; but they never sing the song of victory in these cases, unless one strikes his adversary to the ground, which shews that, of the two, wrestling is the most approved diversion. Not only boys engage in both exercises, but frequently girls box very obstinately. In all these cases, it does not appear, that they ever consider it as the smallest disgrace to be vanquished, and the person overcome sits down with as much indifference as if he had never entered the lists. Some of our people ventured to contend with them in both exercises, and were sometimes worsted.

The common method of saluting each other is by touching noses, as is done in New Zealand; and their sign of peace to strangers, is the displaying a white flag or flags; such were displayed to the Europeans when they first drew near the shore.

They have a singular custom of putting every thing that is given them to their heads, by way of thanks. This manner of paying a compliment is taught them from their infancy; for when the children had any thing given them, the mother lifted up the child's hand to its head. When Captain Cook made a present to the chief of any thing curious, he frequently saw it handed from one to another, and every one, into whose hands it came, put it to the head. Very often the women would take hold of the captain's hand, kiss it, and lift it to their heads. From all this it appears, that this custom has various significations, according as it is applied, but all complimentary.

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

Great deference, and even worship, may be said to be paid to their chiefs, who are styled lords of the earth, and also of the sun and sky. The order and decorum observed in the king's presence, and likewise in that of the other chiefs, are remarkable. Whenever he sits down, all the attendants seat themselves before him, forming a semi-circle, and leaving a space between them and him, into which no one, unless he has particular business, presumes to come. Nor is any one suffered to sit or pass behind him, or even near him, without his permission When a person wishes to speak to his majesty, he comes forward, and having seated himself before him, delivers what he has to say; then, after receiving an answer, retires. If the king speaks to any one, the latter gives an answer from his seat, unless he is to receive an order; in which case he rises from his place, and seats himself cross-legged before his majesty. To speak to the king standing, would be considered as a mark of gross rudeness.

It is a peculiar privilege annexed to the person of the king, not to be punctured, as his subjects are. Whenever he walks out, all who meet him must sit down till he has passed. No person is suffered to be over his head; but, on the contrary, all must come under his feet. The method of doing homage to him and the other chiefs is as follows: the person who is to pay obeisance, squats down before the great personage, and bows the head down to the sole of his foot, which he taps or touches with the under and upper side of the fingers of each hand; then, rising up, he retires. His majesty cannot refuse any one who is desirous of paying him this homage, for the people frequently shew him these marks of submission when he is walking; and he is, on these occasions, obliged to stop, and hold up one of his feet behind him, till they have performed this respectful ceremony. The hands, after having been thus applied, become, in some cases, useless for a time; for, till they are washed, they must not touch food of any sort. This prohibition, in a country where water is not plentiful, would be attended with inconvenience, if a piece of any juicy plant, being rubbed over the hands, did not serve for the purpose of purification.

The government of Tongataboo is formed of a king, or superior chief, who is called Arecka, with other chiefs under him, who are lords of their respective districts, to whom the people pay great obedience; a third rank was also observed here, who distributed justice, and decided disputes only within their territory; they had also great authority over the common people: Attago, Captain Cook's friend, was of this class. All the land on Tongataboo is private property; and there are here, as at Otaheite, a class of people who are servants or slaves, and have no property in land. It is unreasonable to suppose every thing in common to all, in a country so highly cultivated as this. Interest being the greatest spring which animates to industry, few would toil in cultivating the land, if they did not expect to reap the fruit of their labour. Were it otherwise, the industrious man would be in a worse state than the idle sluggard.

Parties of six, eight, or ten, people were frequently seen bringing down to the landing-place, fruit and other things to dispose of, where one person, a man or woman

superintended the sale of the whole: no exchanges were made, but with his or her consent; and whatever was given in exchange went to them; which plainly shews they were the owners of the goods, and the others no more than servants.

This island bears an unrivalled sovereignty over the whole groupe, Fejee included. The inhabitants of Fejee having long ago discovered this island, frequently invaded and committed great cruelties in it; but, in an expedition which the Tonga people made against them, under the command of Toogahowe, Filatonga, and Cummavie, they completely routed and brought them into subjection, so that they now pay tribute to Tongataboo, on certain occasions, the same as the other islands, of which an instance was seen at the death of Moomooe. Tongatahoo is divided into three large districts, Aheefo, at the north-west end, over which Dugonagaboola reigns with absolute sway; Mooa, the middle district, is under the same subjection to Futtafaihe; and Vahorlo has the same power over Ahoge, situate at the south-east part; each claiming a right of disposal over the lives and property of his own subjects, which is exercised most despotically. Each acted the part of a petty sovereign, and not unfrequently counteracted the measures of the king. Nor was the king's court superior in splendour to the chiefs. These districts are subdivided into many smaller ones, which have their subordinate chiefs presiding over them, and exercise the same authority as the superior chiefs, to whom they are in some cases accountable for their conduct; so that the whole resembles the ancient feudal system of our ancestors. The king, at stated times, receives the product of his distant domains at Tongataboo, which is not only the usual place of his residence, but the abode of most persons of distinction among these islands. Its inhabitants frequently call it the Land of Chiefs, and stigmatize the subordinate isles by the appellation of Lands of Servants. The government seems to have been formerly more in the hands of the Futtafaihes than at present. Upon the death of the late Poulaho, father of the present Futtafaihe, Duatonga being then a minor, the intolerant ambition of his mother, Mahoofe, of the Toubou, or rather Doubou, family, induced her to attempt extending her power further than any of her predecessors had done. This was tamely submitted to by all the other chiefs, except Fenou Toogahowe, now Dugonagaboola, son of Moomooe, and nephew of Fenou, the celebrated friend of Captain Cook: he at that time reigned over Eooa, and, rejecting her proposals, declared war against her, contrary to the remonstrances of all his friends: he, however, succeeded, drove her entirely from Tongataboo to Vavaoo, whither he also followed, and, having reduced her to submission, left her there, where she remained, a few years ago, in a state of exile.

It was natural to suppose, on a review of these islands, and the remote distance at which some of them are situated from the seat of government, that many efforts would have been made to throw off the yoke of subjection. But such a circumstance seldom happens. One reason of their not being thus embroiled in domestic commotions may be this, that all the principal chiefs take up their residence at Tongataboo. They also secure the dependence of the other isles, by the decisive celerity of their operations; for if a seditious and popular man should start up in any of them, the commander is immediately dispatched thither to put him to death, by which means they extinguish an insurrection while it is yet in embryo. In their government a very judicious arrangement takes place: a person is appointed as an inspector of all the produce of the island, who takes care that each individual shall cultivate and plant his quota, at the same time directing what shall, and what shall not, be eaten. By so prudent a regulation, they take effectual precautions against a famine, sufficient ground is employed in raising provisions, and every article is secured from unnecessary consumption.

Their rank of precedence could not be easily ascertained. It was generally supposed by Captain Cook, on his last visit to this island, that the sovereign of the Friendly Isles had the highest rank of any person in his dominions; but it was otherwise; for Latoolibooloo, and three women, were superior, in some respects, to King Poulaho. These great personages were distinguished by the title of *Tammahas*, which implies a chief. The former king, father of Poulaho, left behind him a sister, of equal rank, and older than himself: she, by a native of Fejee, had a son and two daughters; and these three persons, as well as their mother, are of higher rank than the king. Endeavours were made to discover the reason of the *Tammaha*, but without effect. The crown is hereditary; the Futtafaihes have reigned, in a direct line, for the space of at least one hundred and thirty-five years, which have elapsed between Captain Cook's visiting these islands, and Tasman's discovery of them. Upon enquiring of them, whether any traditional account of the arrival of Tasman's ships had been preserved among them till this time, it was found that this history had been delivered down to them from their ancestors with great accuracy; for, they said that, his two ships resembled our's, and also mentioned the place where they had lain at anchor, their having continued but a few days, and their quitting that station to go to Annamooka; and, for the purpose of informing us how long ago this affair had happened, they communicated to us the name of the Futtafaihe who reigned at that time, and those who had succeeded him in the sovereignty, down to Poulaho, who is the fifth monarch since that period.

Their deities are numerous; and their prejudices are

strong. Their principal object regards things merely temporal; for they have little conception of future punishment for sins. They believe, they meet with just punishment upon earth; and therefore put every method in practice to render their divinities propitious. Every district has its own deity; and each family of note has one, whom they consider as their peculiar patron. Talliataboo is the god of Aheefo, which being at present the most powerful, he is accounted a great warrior. Futtafaihe presides over Moua and Doobludha; Cartow over the district of Ahoge; each of which deities are, on certain occasions, represented by the several chiefs of those districts; so that their natchees, and other annual exhibitions, are not mere public amusements, but religious observances, on which they think the lives and health of their chiefs entirely depend, as also the prosperity of the country in general; expecting the succeeding crop will be in proportion to the offerings made at these times. They have two natchees in the year; one when the yams are set, to procure the favour of Futtafaihe; and the other when they gather them, expressive of their gratitude. The winds they suppose to be under the control of a female, called Calla Filatonga, who, they say, is very powerful, and is sometimes provoked to blow down their cocoa-nut, plantain, bread-fruit, and other trees, and commits such ravages as oblige them to give offerings of hogs, yams, and kava, in the most submissive manner. There is a house sacred to her, where a person is appointed to personate her on the occasion, and receive the offering that is made. These storms occurring very seldom, and being generally over before appeasing measures are taken, the representative is in little danger of being detected of falsehood by returning a favourable answer. This office of personator is only temporary, being always chosen for the occasion. Among their subordinate deities, they mention *Footafooa*, who has the administration of the sea and its productions; *Toofooa-bolootoo*, god of the clouds and fogs; *Taleeteeboo*, *Mattaha*, *Tareeava*, and others.

It does not appear that they have any priests or stated ceremonial worship. In all the offerings they make, each man kills and presents his own sacrifice. Their frequent earthquakes they account for by supposing the island rests upon the shoulders of a powerful deity, called Mowee, who has supported it for such a length of time as exceeds their conception. This heavy burden often exhausts his patience, and then he endeavours, but in vain, to shake it off; which, however, never fails to excite horror throughout the islands: they sometimes endeavour to reduce him to good behaviour, by beating the ground with large sticks. Tongaloer, the god of the sky, and Feuoulonga, of the rain, they suppose to be males; besides these, they have a great many others, of both sexes, over earth, sea, and sky, each acting, and sometimes counteracting one another. They also acknowledge the existence of a plurality of strange gods, calling them by the general name of Fyga, among whom they rank ours as the greatest; and, when they think it will answer their purpose, they acknowledge him wiser and better than theirs, having taught us to make ships, tools, cloth, &c. so much better than they. Besides, they imagine every individual to be under the power and control of a spirit peculiar to himself, which they call Odooa, who interests himself in all their concerns, but, like Calla Filatonga, is little regarded till angry; when they think he inflicts upon them all the deadly disorders to which they are subject. To appease him, the relations and other connections of the afflicted person, especially if he be a chief, run into all the horrid practices of cutting off their little fingers, beating their faces, and abstaining from certain kinds of food. The natives shewed the missionaries two logs of wood, rudely carved in a human shape, which were odooas, brought from Fejee: they told them, that they could not be spirits, but mere pieces of wood, fit only for the fire; nor did they seem, by the manner of their tossing them about, to have any idea of their sanctity. The horrid custom of human sacrifice exists in a shocking degree. It is said that, when a great chief lays sick, they often strangle their women and relations, to the number of three or four at a time, imagining, by these horrid acts, they appease the angry spirit, and recover their chief. When the odooa is inexorable, the death of the person is inevitable, and the surviving friends seem, for a short time, inconsolable; but their grief is soon changed into the opposite extreme, and they run into as great extravagances in their feasts, as, when the sorrowful passions prevailed, they inflicted on themselves sufferings.

The chiefs believe in the immortality of the soul, which, at death, they say, is immediately conveyed in a large fast-sailing canoe to a distant country, called Doobludha, which they describe as resembling the Mahometan paradise. They call the god of this region of pleasure, Higgolayo, and esteem him as the greatest and most powerful of all, the rest being no better than servants to him. His country, according to their mythology, is the repository of the dead; and those who are conveyed thither are no more subject to death, but feast on all the favourite productions of their native soil, with which this blissful abode is plentifully furnished. This doctrine, however, is wholly confined to chiefs; for as the tooas, or lower order, reckon the enjoyments of Doobluda above their capacity, so they seem never to think of what may become of them after they have served the purposes of this life. The same system of religion does not extend all over the Friendly Islands; the supreme deity of Hapaee, for instance, being called *Alo Alo*.

Their marriages are attended with very little ceremony; the only one seen by the Europeans was that of Vaarjee,

with whom two of the missionaries had been some time resident. This was conducted in the following manner:—A young female having attracted his attention, he first informed his mother that he wished to add her to the number of his wives. She immediately communicated this to the girl's father, and the proposal meeting his approbation, he clothed her in a new garment, and, with attendants, and such a quantity of baked hogs, yams, &c. as he could afford, she was sent to her intended spouse, who, being apprised of her coming, seated himself in his house, and received her in the same manner, and with as little emotion, as he would have done any other visitor; feasting on the provisions, and a good draught of yava, concluded the whole; and the bride was at liberty either to return to her father, till again sent for, or to take up her residence with her husband, which, in this instance, she preferred. Polygamy is in common practice among the chiefs, each of whom takes as many wives as he pleases; but they are entire strangers to domestic broils, which may, in a great degree, be owing to the absolute power each man has over his own family; every woman being so much at her husband's disposal, as renders her liable to be discarded on the smallest displeasure.

At the funeral of the lower orders of the people, little ceremony is observed; but, when the chiefs die, the ceremonies are not only very pompous, but shocking in the extreme; as appears from the following details, given by the missionaries, respecting the procession which took place on the 27th of April, and of the funeral of the old chief, Moomooe, which followed on the 2d of May, 1797.

"The body of the deceased king was carried past the residence of the missionaries, at a small distance from the beach: it was laid on a kind of bier, made of the boughs of trees, and supported by about thirty men. Several relatives of the deceased preceded the corpse, in mourning dresses: some of them had cut their heads with sharks' teeth, and the blood was running in streams down their faces. Behind the corpse was a multitude of people, of both sexes. A female chief, called Fefene Duatonga, who was very corpulent, was carried on a kind of frame, made of two long bamboos, between which she sat on a piece of matting, and was borne by four men. Near her Futafaihe walked, and next them two women, who were devoted to be strangled at the funeral; one was weeping, but the other appeared little concerned: they were both wives of the deceased. It is singular that they should in their sacrifices make preference of their nearest relatives for the devoted victims; and it is as singular, that their human sacrifices should be previous, as well as subsequent, to their death; as was the case of the unfortunate Colelallo, who was strangled previous to the death of his father Moomooe. Some of the missionaries followed them to the fiatooka, near which they deposited the body for some time in a house, carried thither for the purpose, which was hung round with black cloth. This fiatooka is situated on a spot of ground of about four acres. A mount rises with a gentle slope about seven feet, and is about one hundred and twenty yards in circumference at the base: upon the top stands a house, neatly constructed, which is about thirty feet long, and half that in width. The roof is thatched, and the side and ends are left open. In the midst of this house is the grave, the sides, ends, and bottom of which are of coral-stones, with a cover of the same: the floor of the house is of small stones. The etooa and other trees grow round the fiatooka.

"To the left of the tomb, and without the enclosure, sat about four hundred people; the major part of them were men, for whom yava was brewing. Opposite to these were placed five large roasted hogs, twenty baskets of roasted yams, and about one hundred pieces of mahie, sour paste. A few paces from the provisions sat seven or eight men, who were taboo'd, and exempt from cutting themselves. One of these gave orders concerning the disposal of the hogs, yams, and yava: all that drank of the latter were mentioned by name, by a person appointed to that office by the female chief Fefene Duatonga, who now seemed to have the management of the funeral. They did not forget their European friends, but, on dealing out the liquor, sent them each a part, which they gave to the natives who sat near them. Persons of both sexes seated themselves on different parts of the ground, beating their faces dreadfully, and, after having emptied two bowls of yava, dispersed."

One of the missionaries, who was present at the funeral, gives the following account of the ceremonies attending the interment:—He was accompanied by Ambler, and they found, on their approach to the morai, about four thousand persons sitting around it. A few minutes after their arrival, they heard a great shouting and blowing of conch-shells, at a small distance: soon after, an hundred men appeared, armed with clubs and spears, and, rushing into the area, began to cut and mangle themselves in a most dreadful manner; many struck their heads violently with their clubs, and the blows might be heard thirty or forty yards off, which they repeated till the blood ran down in streams. Others, who had spears, thrust them through their thighs, arms, and cheeks, all the while calling on the deceased in a most affecting manner. A native of the island of Fejee, who had been a servant of the deceased, appeared quite frantic: he entered the area with fire in his hand, and, having previously oiled his hair, set it on fire, and ran about with it all in a flame. When they had satisfied themselves with this torment, they sat down, beat their faces with their fists, and retired.

A second party went through the same cruelties, and

after them a third entered, shouting and blowing the shells; four of the foremost held stones, with which they used to knock out their teeth; and those who blew the shells cut their heads with them in a shocking manner. A man that had a spear ran it through his arm, just above the elbow, and, with it sticking fast, ran about the area for some time. Another, who seemed to be a principal chief, acted as quite bereft of his senses: he ran to every corner of the area, and, at each station, beat his head with a club, till the blood flowed down his shoulders. The Europeans, unable to bear the scene any longer, quitted the place for about two hours; and at two o'clock in the afternoon they returned, with two men in company, to the fiatooka, where the natives of both sexes were still at the dreadful work of cutting and mangling themselves.

The Europeans had not been long together, before they heard, at a distance, low, but expressive, sounds of the deepest sorrow and lamentation: this was a party of about one hundred and forty women, marching in single file, bearing each a basket of sand; eighty men followed in the same manner, with each two baskets of coarse sand, and sung, as they marched, words importing, "This is a blessing to the dead;" and were answered in responses by the women. Another company of women brought a quantity of cloth, and answered in their turn to the above responses. They then walked towards the tomb, filling or covering part of the mount, between the house and the place where the corpse lay, and the grave, with some fine mats and cloths; after which seven men blew conch-shells, while others sung in a doleful strain, expressive of their grief.

The corpse was now conveyed to the grave upon a large bale of black cloth, with which, and five mats, they covered it. The bearers, as they went, walked stooping low, and carrying the bale in their hands. Whilst these services were performing, a company of men and women came into the area, and cut themselves dreadfully. After them, another file of females, nineteen in number, brought each a bag of their most valuable articles, and twenty-one more had each a fine mat in their hands, all of which they deposited in the tomb, being, as they called it, a present for the dead: immediately after, came a present from Toogahowe, consisting of thirty-five bales of cloth, each bale carried by four men on a frame. After the presents, another party of mourners entered the area, sixteen of whom had recently cut their fingers off. These were followed by another party, with clubs and spears, who beat themselves as before described, and disfigured their faces with cocoa-nut husks, fixed on the knuckles of both hands. The Europeans noticed that those who held offices, or were related to the deceased, were the most cruel to themselves, some of whom ran two, three, and even four, spears into their arms, and so danced round the area; and some broke the top of the barbed spears in their flesh.

The grave was covered with a hewn stone, about eight feet long, four broad, and one thick: this stone they had suspended with two large ropes, which went round two strong piles driven into the ground, at the end of the house, and thence led to the area, where about two hundred men held by them, and, whilst they lowered it slowly, the women and children wept aloud, or sung words importing, "My father! my father! the best of chiefs," &c. More cloth was then brought to be put into the tomb, and another party entered, and abused themselves as before. After these paroxysms of grief, they sat a whole hour in silence; and, when they had pulled the rope clear off the stone which covered the grave, those on the mount gave a great shout, which was answered by a general tearing of the leaves from the necks of all present: after which they dispersed. This dreadful custom of cutting and mangling was continued for about two months, by the influx of visitors from the distant islands, who came to the morai to pay their respects to the deceased king, by inflicting on themselves these tortures.

The burial-places are of different constructions: those of a square form were not raised above the level of the common ground: a row of large stones formed the sides, and at each corner two high stones were placed erect, at right angles to each other, and in a line with their respective sides; others were such as the missionaries describe that of Moomooe to be; and a third sort were built square, like the first; the largest of which was at the base one hundred and fifty-six feet by one hundred and forty; it had four steps from the bottom to the top, that run quite round the pile: one stone composed the height of each step, a part of it being sunk in the ground; and some of these stones in the wall are immensely large; one that was measured was twenty-four feet by twelve, and two feet thick. It is surprising by what means these people, who are not acquainted with the power of mechanics, can effect the removal of stones of such immense magnitude: these, Futtafaihe observed, were brought in double-canoes from the island of Lefooga. They are coral-stone, and are hewn into a tolerably good shape, both with respect to the straightness of their sides, and the flatness of their surface.

END OF PART THE FIRST

PART II.

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the second grand division of the globe, once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the known world: even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered and impoverished by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was overrun by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to the calamities of this continent, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors invariably marked their progress with desolation, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was completed.

This continent is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez; and its utmost length, from north to south, from Cape Bona, in the Mediterranean, in thirty-seven degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope, in thirty-four degrees south, latitude, is four thousand three hundred miles; while the broadest part, from Cape Verd, in seventeen degrees west longitude, to Cape Guardasui, near the Straits of Babel-Mandel, in fifty-one degrees east longitude, is three thousand five hundred miles from east to west. Pinkerton says, that from the southern extremity to the Mediterranean are about seventy degrees of latitude, or four thousand two hundred geographical miles. The breadth, from eighteen degrees west to fifty-one degrees east, may be assumed on the equator at four thousand one hundred and fifty geographical miles. It is bounded, on the north, by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east, by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divide it from Asia; on the south, by the Southern Ocean; and, on the west, by the Great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America.

As this extensive country is divided almost in the middle by the equator, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is, in many places, almost insupportable to an European, it being there increased by the rays of the sun, from the vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though its population is very inferior to that of Europe and Asia. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and, in fact, it is rarely found but on the tops of the highest mountains.

The chief river in Africa is the Nile, which rises in the Gebel-el-Kumr, or Mountains of the Moon, in a district called Donga, in about eight degrees north latitude. It was first known by the name of Bahr-el-Abiad, or the White River; and, about latitude sixteen degrees, is joined by the Bahr-el-Azrek, or the Blue River: the former is tinged, the latter clear; circumstances which occur in the Maranon and Missouri, in which the chief stream is muddy. The comparative course of the Nile may be estimated at about two thousand British miles, thus nearly rivalling the longest Asiatic rivers. The Nile forms some considerable cataracts, the chief being that of Geanadil, in Nubia, before it gains the level of Egypt, after passing rapidly to the south of Syene. The other considerable rivers are the Gambia, which falls into the Atlantic, or Western Ocean, at Cape St. Mary, and is navigable for ships of one hundred and fifty tons burthen, five hundred miles from its source; the Senegal, which rises about one hundred miles

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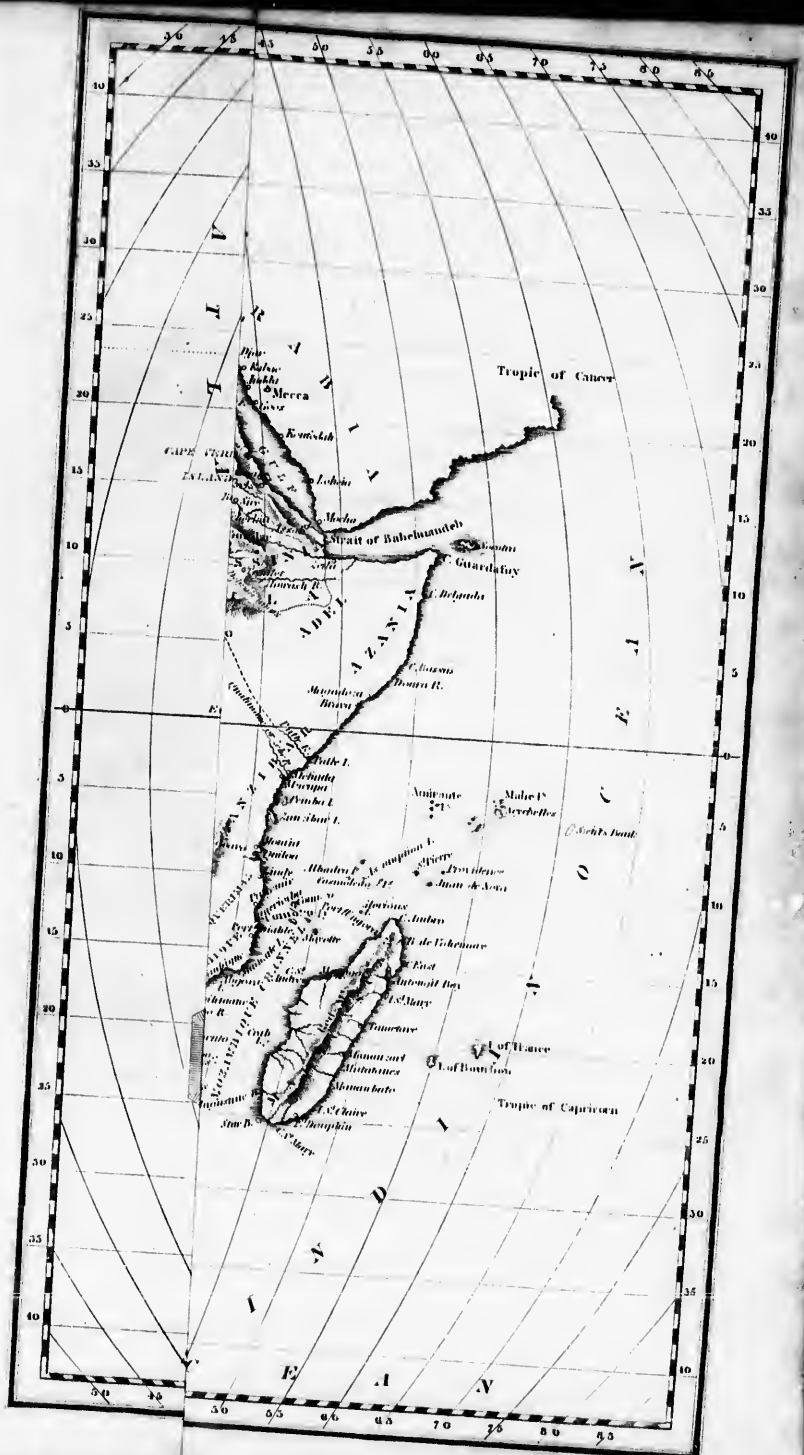

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east of the Gambia, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, about eighty miles north of Cape Verd, after running a much longer course; and the Niger, which rises about ninety miles to the east of the head of the Senegal, and runs eastward, by Tombuctoo, Houssa, and Cashna, terminating as is supposed, in some lakes farther to the eastward.

The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western Ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt. It derived its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as supporting the heavens on his shoulders. The Mountains of the Moon, extending between Abyssinia and Monomotapa, and which are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leone, or the Mountains of the Lions, which divide Negroland from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were styled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name, near the coast. The ranges of mountains in what is called the Country of Dates, cannot be considered as portions of the Atlantic range. Along the western shores of the Arabian Gulf extends a celebrated ridge of red granite, which supplied the famous obelisks of Egypt; and of which one was styled that of emeralds, from the quarries of that gem: in the same vicinity were the quarries of the celebrated marble called *Verde Antico*, recently observed by Browne.

The most noted capes in this country are Cape Verd, so called because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground. The Cape of Good Hope was so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it, in 1489, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the southern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half-way from Europe. It is, at present, in the possession of the English, who took it from the Dutch in September, 1795. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing, as it were, in the centre of the globe, and having a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has ten thousand miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, and deep rivers, it should not have any navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; and that it should be inhabited by a people ignorant of commerce and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things, delightful as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts, namely Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. The first are the more numerous, possessing the greater part of the country, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and these are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary Coast. The people of Abyssinia, or Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade which is carried on in that part of the country.

In the central parts, on the south, the population appears to be indigenous and peculiar; these being the native regions of the negroes, whose colour, features, and hair, distinguish them from all the other races of mankind. In the northern parts there have been many successions of inhabitants, the Egyptians being, by some, supposed to have come from Hindoostan, and the Abyssinians being of Arabian extract; while, farther to the west, the Carthaginians passed from Syria; and, according to Sallust, other maritime parts were peopled by the Medes, Persians, and Armenians. The original inhabitants of the northern parts appear to have been, in all ages, distinct from the negro race, from whom they were divided by the great desert of Zahara; and, in the eastern parts, the latter were repelled still farther by the Arabian colony, which settled in Abyssinia. These northern inhabitants sent considerable colonies into Spain; and, from the Roman historian, it appears that they had made some little progress in the arts of life. Herodotus mentions these two distinct races of mankind. The whole of the present population of Africa is supposed to be about twenty-five millions.

The divisions of this continent into kingdoms, states, &c., together with the African Islands, are represented on the following table.——

DIVISIONS OF AFRICA

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Distance and Bearing from London.	Differ. of Time from London.	Religion.
Barbary.	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S.E.	2 21 bef.	Mahometans
	Morocco, Tasilet, &c.	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 after	Mahometans
	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahometans
	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 S.E.	0 39 bef.	Mahometans
	Tripoli	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 S.E.	0 56 bef.	Mahometans
	Barca	400	300	66,400	Polemeta	1440 S.E.	1 26 bef.	Mahometans
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 after	Pagans
	Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Tegessa	1800 S.	0 24 after	Pagans
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 after	Pagans
Up. Ethiopia	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans
	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 S.E.	2 12 bef.	Maho. & Pag.
	Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 S.E.	2 30 bef.	Christians
	Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 S.E.	2 36 bef.	Chr. & Pagans
	The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are computed at 1,200,000 square miles; but these are little known to Europeans.							
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	8300 S.	0 44 bef.	Chr. & Pagans
	Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 — bef.	Chr. & Pagans
	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Chr. & Pagans
	Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans
	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	--------	--------	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 S.E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans
	Zanguebar	1400	350	275,000	Melinda, or Mosambique	4440 S.E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.E.	1 44 bef.	Pagans
	Sofola	480	300	97,000	Sofola	4600 S.E.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Terra de Nat	600	350	184,000	No Towns	--------	--------	Pagans
	Caffraria and Hottentots	708	660	200,340	Cape of Good Hope.	5200 S.	1 14 bef.	Christians and Pagans

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

The principal Islands of Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Oceans; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping, in the passage to and from India.

Islands.	Square Miles.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
Babel-Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea	------	Babel-Mandel	All nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Caulasia	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto	1,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto	168,000	St. Austin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	1,840	Mauritius	French
Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean	------	St. Helena	English
Ascension, ditto	------	----------	Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto	------	----------	Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Prince Islaud, Fernandopo, ditto	------	St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Cape Verde Islands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto	------	Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto	------	Palma, St. Christopher	Spanish
Madeiras, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America, ditto	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

me n.	Religion.
f.	Mahometans
er	Mahometans
f.	Mahometans
f.	Mahometans
f.	Mahometans
f.	Mahometans
er	Pagans
er	Pagans
er	Pagans
f.	Pagans
f.	Maho. & Pag.
f.	Christians
f.	Chr. & Pagans
	these are little
f.	Chr. & Pagans
f.	Chr. & Pagans
f.	Chr. & Pagans
f.	Pagans
.	Pagans
f.	Pagans
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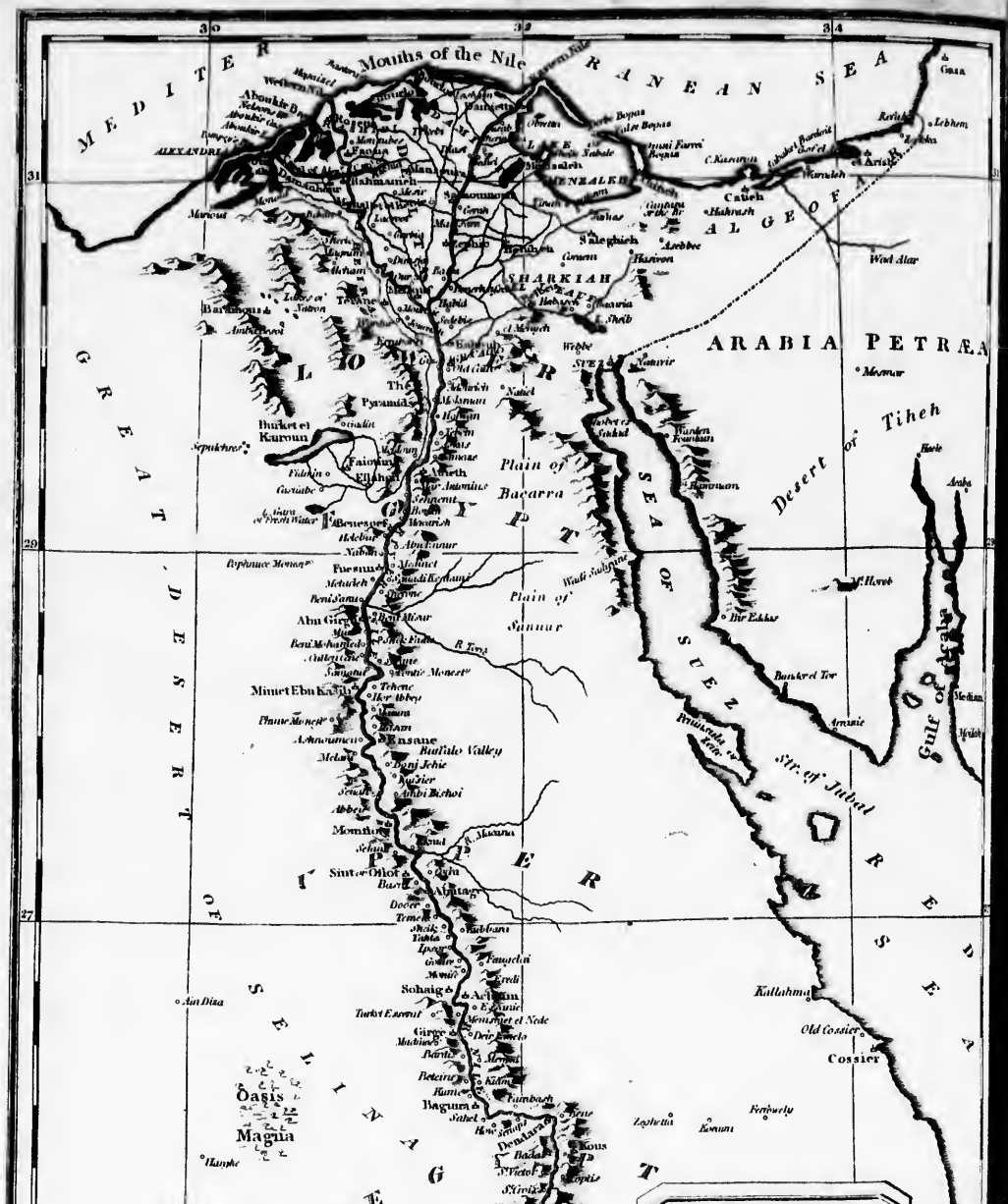

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CHAPTER I.

EGYPT.

Situation, Extent, Divisions, &c.

THIS extensive and justly celebrated country is situated between thirty and thirty-six degrees of east longitude, and between twenty-one and thirty-one degrees of north latitude; being bounded by the Mediterranean on the north; by the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez on the east; by Abyssinia, or Ethiopia, on the south; and by the deserts of Barca and Nubia, on the west. It is about six hundred miles in length, from north to south; and extends from one hundred to two hundred and fifty in breadth, from east to west. It is divided into two parts, called the Upper and Lower Egypt, and is subdivided into eighty provinces.

Upper Egypt, according to M. Savary, is only a long narrow valley, beginning at Sienna, and terminating at Cairo. It is bounded by two chains of mountains, which run from north to south, and take their rise from the last cataract of the Nile. On reaching the latitude of Cairo, they separate to the right and left; one taking the direction of Mount Colzorem, and the other terminating in some sand-banks near Alexandria. Beyond these mountains are deserts, bounded by the Red Sea on the east, and by other parts of Africa on the west, having in the middle a long plain, which, even where widest, is not more than nine leagues over.

Lower Egypt is said to comprehend all the country between Cairo, the Mediterranean, the Isthmus of Suez, and Libya. "This immense plain," says M. Savary, "presents, on the borders of its parching sands, a stripe of land, cultivated along the canals of the Nile; and, in the middle, a triangular island, to which the Greeks gave the name of Delta, from its resemblance to the fourth letter of their alphabet. This great extent of country, from Barca to Gaza, is capable of being overflowed by the Nile, and is, therefore, fertilized to a high degree, though seemingly devoted to eternal sterility, on account of the want of rain and the heat of the climate. According to the concurring testimonies of Mr. Bruce and M. Volney, the coast of Egypt is so extremely low, that it cannot be discovered at sea till the mariners come within a few leagues of it. In ancient times, the sailors pretended to know when they approached this country, by a kind of black mud brought up by their sounding-lines from the bottom of the sea; but this notion has been proved to be erroneous by Mr. Bruce, who found the mud to arise while the vessel was opposite to the deserts of Barca.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The climate of Egypt is extremely hot, not only from the height of the sun, which in summer approaches to the zenith, but also from the want of rain, and from the vicinity of those burning and sandy deserts which lie to the south. In the months of July and August, Reaumur's thermometer stands, even in the most temperate apartments, at twenty-four degrees above the freezing point, and in the southern provinces it is said to rise still higher. Hence, says M. Volney, only two seasons should be distinguished in Egypt, the cool and the hot, or spring and summer. The latter continues for the greatest part of the year, viz. from March to November, or even longer; for, by the end of February, the sun is intolerable to an European at nine o'clock in the morning. During the whole of this season, the air seems to be inflamed, the sky sparkles, and every one is thrown into a profuse perspiration, even without the least exercise. This heat, however, is considerably mitigated by the inundations of the Nile, the fall of the nocturnal dews, and the subsequent evaporation; so that the natives frequently complain of the cold in winter. The dew does not fall regularly throughout the summer, the aridity of the country not affording a sufficient quantity of vapour for this purpose. It is first observed about the 24th of June, when the river has begun to swell, and, consequently, a greater quantity of water is raised from it, by the heat of the sun, which, being condensed by the night-air, falls down in copious dews. It might be imagined, that as, for three months in the year, Egypt is in a wet and marshy situation, the excessive evaporation of the stagnating waters would prove very unhealthy. This, however, is by no means the case; for the great dryness of the air makes it absorb all kinds of vapour with the utmost avidity, and the wind carries them off, either to the north or south, without communicating any of their pernicious effects.

By reason of this dryness of the air, Egypt is exempted from the phænomena of rain, hail, snow, thunder, and lightning. Earthquakes are, also, seldom felt in this country, though sometimes they have been very violent and destructive. In the Delta, it never rains in summer, and very seldom at any other time. In the Upper Egypt, rain is still less frequent; but this deficiency is supplied by the inundation of the Nile, and by the dews, the latter of which are more or less copious, according to the direction of the wind.

The soil of Egypt is extremely fruitful, easily cultivated, and certain in its crops. This fertility has been ascribed, by some travellers, to the salt with which it abounds; for so great is the propensity of the Egyptian soil to produce salt, that, even when the gardens are overflowed for the sake of watering them, the surface of the ground, after the absorption of the water, appears glazed over with salt. M. Volney is of opinion, that the fertile mould of Egypt, which is of a black colour, differs essentially from that of the other parts, and is derived from the interior of Ethiopia, along with the waters of the Nile: but there is no reason to suppose this kind of earth of foreign origin, it being always the result of vegetation and cultivation. The cause of decrease in the modern produce of Egypt, compared with the ancient, is thus assigned by M. Savary: "The canals," says he, speaking of the Delta, "which used to convey fertility with their waters, are now filled up. The earth, no longer watered, but exposed to the burning ardour of the sun, is converted into a barren sand. In those places where formerly were seen rich fields and flourishing towns, on the Pelusiac, the Tarietic, and the Mendesian branches, which all strike out from the canal of Damietta, nothing is to be found at present but a few miserable hamlets surrounded with deserts. These once navigable canals are now no more than a vain resemblance of what they were; for they have no communication with the lake Menzall, but what is occasioned by the swelling of the Nile, and during the remainder of the year they are perfectly dry. By deepening them, and by removing the mud deposited by the river since the Turks have been in possession of Egypt, the country they pass through would be again fertilized, and the Delta would recover a third of its ancient greatness."

The periodical return of winds from a certain quarter may be justly reckoned among the most curious phænomena of Egypt. When the sun approaches the tropic of Cancer, they shift from east to north; and, in June, they invariably blow from the north or north-west. They continue northerly during the whole of July, varying only sometimes towards the east and west. In August and September, they blow directly from the north, and are but of a moderate strength, though somewhat weaker in the night than in the day. Toward the end of September, they return to the east, though they do not absolutely fix on that point, but blow more regularly from it than any other. As the sun approaches the southern tropic, they become more variable and tempestuous, blowing most commonly from the north and north-east, which they continue to do throughout December, January, and February; and, during that season, the vapours raised from the Mediterranean condense into mist, or sometimes into rain. Toward the end of February and in March, they more frequently blow from the south than from any other quarter. During part of March and in April, they blow from the south-east and south-west, and sometimes from the east, the latter becoming most prevalent about the end of the month, and continuing during the whole of May.

It is to the long continuance of the north winds, formerly called the Etesian winds, that Egypt is supposed to owe its extreme dryness as well as part of the inundation by which it is annually fertilized. From April to July, there appears to be two strong currents in the atmosphere, the under one blowing from the north, and the upper from the south. By the former, the vapours are raised from the Mediterranean and the southern parts of Europe, whence they are carried over Abyssinia, dissolving there in immense torrents of rain; while, by the latter, the superfluous vapours, or those raised from the soil of Abyssinia itself, are carried in a northerly direction toward the sources of the Euphrates. Here the clouds, coming from the south, dissolve in like manner into rain, and produce an inundation of the Euphrates, similar to that of the Nile, and immediately succeeding it. Mr. Bruce had an opportunity of ascertaining this fact, in the summer of 1768; for at that time, while on a voyage from Sidon to Alexandria, he observed great numbers of thin white clouds moving rapidly from the south, and in direct opposition to the Etesian winds.

Besides the ordinary winds above mentioned, Egypt is infested with the pestilential blasts common to all warm countries which have deserts in their immediate vicinity. The Egyptians call them "winds of fifty days," because they commonly prevail during the fifty days preceding and following the equinox; though, if they were to blow constantly for only half that time, an universal destruction would be the consequence. They always blow from the south, and are indisputably owing to the motion of the atmosphere over such vast tracts of hot sand, where it cannot be supplied with a sufficient quantity of moisture. When they begin to blow, the sky loses its usual serenity, and assumes a dark and alarming aspect, the sun laying aside his usual splendor, and becoming of a violet colour. This terrific appearance seems not to be occasioned by any real haze or cloud in the atmosphere, but solely by the vast quantity of sand carried along by these winds, and which is so excessively subtile, that it penetrates every where.

The extreme dryness of these winds is such, that water, sprinkled on a floor, evaporates in a few minutes; all the plants are withered and stripped of their leaves; and a fever is instantaneously produced in the human species, by the suppression of perspiration. The danger is greatest when the wind blows in squalls, and to travellers who happen to be exposed to its fury without any shelter. The best method in this case is, to stop the mouth and nostrils with a handkerchief. Camels, by a natural instinct, bury

their noses in the sand, and keep them there till the squall is over.

A blast of this kind once overtook Mr. Bruce in the desert of Nubia; and the pillars of moving sand, which are commonly raised by such winds, were observed on this occasion in all their terrific majesty. Sometimes they appeared to move slowly; but, at other times, with such incredible swiftness, that they could not possibly have been eluded by the fleetest horse. Frequently the tops, when arrived at an immense height, suddenly separated from the bodies, and dispersed themselves in the air; and sometimes the whole column broke off near the middle, as if it had received a cannon-shot; and their size was so enormous, that, at the distance of about three miles, they appeared ten feet in diameter. Next day they seemed of a smaller size, but more numerous, and sometimes approached within two miles of the company. The sun was now obscured by them, and the transmission of his rays gave them a dreadful appearance, resembling pillars of fire. This was said to be a certain sign of the approaching *Simoom*, or hot wind, and the guide directed that, when it came, the travellers should fall upon their faces, and keep their mouths on the sand, to avoid drawing in the pernicious blast with their breath. On his calling out that the Simoom was coming, Mr. Bruce turned for a moment to the quarter whence it came, and perceived it like a fog of a purple colour, seemingly about twenty yards in breadth, and about twelve feet high from the ground. It moved with such rapidity, that, before he could turn about and prostrate himself, he felt the vehement heat of its current upon his face; and, even after it had passed over, the air which followed was so extremely hot, as to threaten instant suffocation.

The same phenomenon occurred twice more on our traveller's journey through the desert. The second time it seemed to have a shade of blue mingled with the purple, and its edges were less perfectly defined; resembling a thin smoke, and having about a yard in the middle tinged with blue and purple. The third time, it was preceded by an appearance of sandy pillars, more magnificent than any that had been yet observed; the sun shining through them in such a manner as to give those which were nearest a resemblance of being spangled with stars of gold. The Simoom which followed had the same blue and purple appearance as before, and was succeeded by a most suffocating wind, which continued for upwards of two hours.

The danger of travelling in these sandy deserts is finely and energetically described in the following lines:—

> "So where our wide Numidian wastes extend,
> "Sudden the impetuous hurricanes descend,
> "Wheel through the air, in circling eddies play,
> "Tear up the sands, and sweep whole plains away.
> "The helpless traveller, with wild surprise,
> "Sees the dry desert all around him rise,
> "And, smother'd in the dusty whirlwind, dies."

Mr. Bruce remarked, that these destructive winds always came from the south-east; while the sandy pillars, which prognosticated their approach, seemed to keep to the westward, and to occupy the vast circular space enclosed by the Nile to the west of their route, going round by Chaigic toward Dongola. The heaps of sand left by them when they fell, or raised by the whirlwinds which carried them up, were about twelve feet high, exactly conical, tapering to a fine point, and their bases well proportioned.

Inundation of the Nile, Cataracts, Lakes, &c.] The river Nile has always been reckoned one of the greatest wonders of Egypt, and it is chiefly to this that the country owes its abundant fertility; for, as it seldom rains in the inland parts, and the soil is naturally dry and sandy, if the lands were not annually watered by the overflowing of this river, Egypt, instead of the most fruitful, would be one of the most barren regions in the world.

The sources or springs of this famous river were absolutely unknown to the ancients; and the discovery of them, having been repeatedly attempted in vain, was deemed so honourable an enterprise, that Lucan makes Cæsar speak to this effect:—

> "Long has my curious soul, from early youth,
> "Toil'd in the noble search of sacred truth;
> "Yet still no views have urg'd my ardour more,
> "Than Nile's remotest fountain to explore;
> "Then say what source the famous stream supplies,
> "And bids it at revolving periods rise;
> "Show me that head from whence, since time begun,
> "The long succession of his waves has run;
> "This let me know, and all my toils shall cease,
> "The sword be sheath'd, and earth be blest with peace."

Mr. Bruce informs us, that the sources of the Nile are situated in the country of the Agows, in Abyssinia, and that the longitude of the principal fountain is thirty-six degrees, fifty-five minutes, thirty seconds east from Greenwich. The place through which is the passage to the territory of the Agows, is called Abala; a valley, generally about half a mile, and never exceeding one mile, in breadth. The mountains which surround it are at first of an inconsiderable height, and covered to their very summits with trees and herbage, but, as they proceed to the southward, they become more rugged. Those to the west join a mountain called *Asormaska*, where they turn to the south, and enclose the territory of Sacala, which lies at the foot of them; and further to the westward is the small village of Geesh, where the fountains of the Nile are situated.

Having passed several considerable streams, all of which empty themselves into the Nile, Mr. Bruce found himself obliged to ascend a very steep and rugged mountain, where

no path appeared but a very narrow one made by the sheep, and rendered almost impassable by thorny plants, and a number of large stones, which seemed to have remained there ever since the creation. At length, however, he reached the top, and had a sight of the Nile immediately below him; but so diminished in size, that it now appeared only a brook scarce sufficient to turn a mill. The village of Geesh is not within sight of the fountains of this river, though not more than six hundred yards distant from them. The country about that place terminates in a cliff of about three hundred yards high, which reaches down to the plain of Assoa, continuing in the same degree of elevation till it meets the Nile again about seventeen miles to the southward. In the middle of this cliff is a large cave, running straight northward, with several bye-paths, forming a natural labyrinth, which seems capable of containing the inhabitants of the whole village, together with their cattle. Into this cave Mr. Bruce advanced about a hundred yards; but did not choose to go farther, as the candle he carried with him seemed ready to go out, and the people assured him, that there was nothing remarkable to be seen at the end.

From the edge of the cliff of Geesh, above the village, the ground slopes on the northward with a regular descent to a triangular marsh, upwards of eighty-six yards broad; and about the middle of this marsh rises a circular hillock, about twelve feet in diameter, and surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and sends it off to the eastward. This is firmly built of sod, and kept in repair by the Agows, who worship the river, and perform their religious ceremonies upon this, as an altar. In the midst of it is a circular hole, which is always kept clear of grass and aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly pure and limpid, but without any ebullition or visible motion on its surface. The mouth is rather less than three feet diameter, and, at the period of our traveller's first visit, Nov. 5, 1770, the water stood about two inches from the brim, nor did it either increase or diminish during all the time of his residence in the neighbourhood. On putting down the shaft of a lance, he found a feeble resistance, at the depth of six feet four inches, as if from grass and rushes; and, about six inches deeper, he found his lance had entered into soft earth, but met with no obstruction from stones or gravel; and the same was confirmed by using a heavy plummet, with a line besmeared with soap. This is the first fountain of the Nile.

The second fountain is situated about ten feet distant from the former, and is only eleven inches in diameter, but eight feet three inches deep. The third is about twenty feet from the first; the mouth being rather more than two feet in diameter, and five feet eight inches in depth. These fountains are used as altars, and from the foot of each issues a running rill, which, uniting with the water of the first trench, goes off at the east side in a stream that would fill a pipe of about two inches diameter. The water of these fountains is extremely light and intensely cold, though exposed to the scorching heat of the sun without any shelter. The elevation of the ground must be very great, as the barometer stood only at twenty-two inches; "neither," says Mr. Bruce, "did it vary from that height any of the days I staid at Geesh; and thence I inferred, that, at the sources of the Nile, I was more than two miles above the level of the sea;—a prodigious height to enjoy a sky perpetually clear, as also a hot sun, never overcast with clouds from rising to setting."

The Nile, thus formed by the union of streams from these three fountains, runs eastward through the marsh for thirty yards, with a very little increase of water, but perfectly visible, till it is met by the grassy bank of land declining from Sacala. This turns it round gradually to the north-east, and then due north; and, in the two miles it flows in that direction, the river receives many small contributions from springs, that rise in the banks on each side of it, so that, about this distance from the fountains, it becomes a stream capable of turning a common mill.

From this spot the Nile turns to the westward, and, after running over loose stones occasionally in that direction about four miles farther, a fall commences of about six feet in height, after which it quits the mountainous place of its nativity, and issues into the plains of Goutto. Here it flows so gently, that its motions can scarcely be perceived, but, at the same time, it makes so many sharp unnatural windings, that it differs from any other river our author ever saw; making about twenty sharp angular peninsulas in the course of five miles through a marshy plain of clay, quite destitute of trees, and very unpleasant. After passing this plain, it turns due north; and receives the tribute of several small streams, which descend from the mountains of Aformasha. It now begins to run rapidly, and again receives a number of beautiful rivulets, which have their rise in the heights of Litchambara. Here it becomes a considerable stream, inclining to the north-east, and winding exceedingly till it is joined by the small river Diva. The mere names of places through which it passes cannot be expected to afford any amusement to our readers; suffice it therefore to observe, that, after washing Upper and Lower Egypt, it at last disembogues itself into the Mediterranean.

The inundation of the Nile is now universally allowed to be occasioned by the great rains that fall in Ethiopia during the months of April and May, by which the river is so swelled as to lay that country almost entirely under water, and afterwards Egypt, in its course towards the Mediterranean. Nor is this inundation peculiar to the Nile, but common to it with other rivers that have their rise or course between the tropics, where heavy rains

constantly fall at a certain season of the year, which cause them to break through their ordinary bounds, and overflow the adjacent countries in their passage to the sea, particularly in Siam, Bengal, and other parts of the East-Indies.

The Nile begins to swell in the month of May, but its increase is not considerable in the Lower Egypt till about the 20th of June, nor is any public notice taken of it till the 28th of that month, at which time it is usually risen five or six peeks, a Turkish measure, equal to about five and twenty inches. Being come to this height, the public criers proclaim the rise of the river in the city of Cairo, and continue to publish how much it increases every day, till it rises to sixteen peeks, at which time they make great rejoicings; and this usually happens at the latter end of July, or before the 20th of August; but the sooner it happens, they have the greater hopes of a plentiful season. If the Nile do not rise to sixteen peeks, the people pay no tribute that year to the grand Signior; but a still greater height is necessary to cause a general flood, and prepare the lands for cultivation. Eighteen peeks, Dr. Pococke informs us, are reckoned but an indifferent Nile, twenty a middling one, and twenty-two a very good one, beyond which it seldom rises. If it chance to rise higher than twenty-four, the inundation is said to be prejudicial, the waters in that case not retiring soon enough for the people to sow their corn; but we scarcely know any instance of this nature. The Nile is usually at its greatest height about the middle of September.

In order to know exactly the rise of the Nile, there is built, on a pleasant island opposite to Old Cairo, a place called the Makkias, in which is a famous pillar for measuring the elevation of the water. It is fixed in a deep basin, the bottom of which is on a level with the bed of the river, the water passing through it. This pillar, which is placed under a dome, and crowned with a Corinthian capital, is divided into measures; and from the court that leads to the house is a descent to the Nile, by steps, on which the common people believe that Moses was found, after he had been exposed on the banks of the river.

As the river cannot of itself overflow the lands every where in the necessary proportion, a vast number of canals and trenches have been cut from one end of Egypt to the other, so that almost every town and village has its canal, which is opened at the proper time, and conveys the water of the Nile to distant places. It is from these canals, where the banks of the Nile are high, that the lands are overflowed; but it is otherwise where they are low, particularly in the Delta, which is that part of Egypt that lies between the two mouths of the river. Canals are carried along the higher grounds, that the water may have a fall from them to the lower parts; and from the great canals it is drawn out into small channels, and conveyed all over the country. It is likewise observable, that, as they have dikes or banks to keep the water out of the canals till the river be risen to a proper height to let it in, so in some of them they have contrivances to keep it in after the Nile is fallen, and also preserve it in certain lakes or ponds, from which they can let it out upon their lands at pleasure.

The reader, however, is to understand, that some parts of the country lie too high to be watered by means of the canals, and several gardens and plantations require more refreshment than what they receive from the annual inundation; and on this account they are obliged to raise water from the river, which is lodged in cisterns or reservoirs contrived for that purpose. This is generally done by the Persian wheel, a machine turned by oxen, which carries a rope hung with several vessels, that fill as it goes round, and empty themselves into the reservoir. They have another contrivance, where the bank of the river is high; in which case they make a basin on the side of it, fixing near it an upright pole, and across the top of that another, with an axle, at one end whereof hangs a great stone, and at the other a leathern bucket, which, being drawn down into the water by two men, is raised up again by the weight of the stone, the men directing it, and emptying it into the basin. The former of these machines is chiefly used in the lower parts of Egypt, the latter in the higher; for, as we advance up the river, the difficulty of raising the water increases.

We may judge how much the fertility of Egypt is owing to the inundation of the Nile, when we consider that it leaves behind it a stratum of mud or slime, which, without any other manure, renews all the strength of the soil that the preceding harvest had impaired; nay, it is frequently found necessary to temper it with a little sand, to abate its excessive richness.

With respect to the distribution of the waters of the Nile by means of canals, &c. we shall only add, that there is a great canal, called Khalis, which runs from the river quite through the city of Cairo, and several miles beyond it. Near the mouth of this canal there is a mound or mole, which is every year broken down with great solemnity and rejoicing, when the Nile rises to the height of sixteen peeks; and thereby the water is conveyed into the city, and thence into the gardens and the adjacent country. The bashaw himself, accompanied by all his great officers, and attended by a vast multitude of people, assist at the ceremony of cutting this bank; and on this occasion the trumpets and other music, the repeated shouts of the people, the firing of guns, &c. make an agreeable confusion. In short, bonfires, illuminations, fireworks, several sorts of games and exercises, and whatever can express an universal joy, are continued for three days and nights successively. M. Thevenot, who was twice present at this ceremony, tells us, that, among other diverting sights

exhibited on that occasion, he saw two swimmers, whose performances were very surprising. One of these, with his hands tied behind him, and his feet bound with a chain weighing ten pounds, stood upright in the water, and in that manner went from the opening of the canal quite through Cairo, which is three miles and upwards. The other fellow swam in chains from one end of the canal to the other, with a pipe in his mouth, and a dish of coffee in his hand, without spilling it; and both these swimmers were handsomely rewarded.

Before we leave the Nile it is proper to notice its famous cataracts, which are usually reckoned seven in number, where the river pours itself down high precipices with such a prodigious noise, that it may be heard at the distance of several leagues. De L'Isle represents one of them as falling from a height of two hundred feet, with a noise exceeding that of the loudest thunder; and, it is said, the water, breaking with the fall, raises such thick mists, that at a distance they appear like clouds. It is also reported that the water in its fall forms a kind of arch, under which one may walk without being wetted: and the neighbouring people seem formerly to have made this a diversion, there being several niches and seats cut in the rock, and likewise some grottoes, which are now become inaccessible. Seneca relates a practice of the inhabitants near the cataracts of the Nile, which appears quite incredible, viz.—That two of them used to get into a small boat, the one to guide it, the other to throw out the water, and, directing the little vessel with their hands, they dexterously steered through the narrow channels without touching the rocks, till at last they were hurried down the precipice by the falling river. The affrighted spectators then supposed them inevitably swallowed up and lost, but presently saw them appear again upon the water at a great distance. Some modern travellers seem to confirm this account; but Dr. Pococke, who saw several of the cataracts, takes no notice of any such practice; nor does he represent them as such frightful falls as they are generally supposed to be. The doctor tells us of some rocks that lie across the river in three different places, dividing the stream, and causing several falls of water; but he makes the greatest of them not above seven or eight feet, and others about four or five. He acknowledges, however, that the natives talked of other cataracts besides those he saw, and even reckoned seven of them, which seems to agree with the accounts of the ancients: But, as to the Catadupa, those high cataracts whose noise made the neighbouring inhabitants deaf, he looks upon the whole as fabulous.

We shall finish our account of the Nile by observing, that its waters run through a canal during six months into the lake of Mœris, and during the other six months flow back from the lake into the Nile. This lake is said to have been dug by a king of Egypt of the same name, in order to correct the irregularities of the Nile, by receiving the superfluous waters when the river rose too high, and by supplying the lands with water when the river failed, which was let out of the lake into the adjacent country by a great number of canals and ditches. Many of these canals are still subsisting, which are equally serviceable to the present inhabitants of Egypt as they were to the ancient, and are attributed, like most other works of public benefit, to the patriarch Joseph, whose name they have given to the great canal by which the lake has a communication with the Nile.

According to the accounts of Herodotus and Diodorus, this lake was no less than three thousand six hundred stadia, or four hundred and fifty miles, in circumference; whereas Pomponius Mela makes it no more than twenty miles; but the critics suppose this to be a mistake in Mela's copy, and have accordingly corrected it by those historians. The truth seems to lie between these two extremes, for travellers of veracity assure us, that the lake of Mœris is at this day between forty and fifty miles in length, and ten or twelve in breadth; though the extent of it varies as the Nile sinks or rises. Its banks are of a blackish soil, between which and the water the ground is slaty, and part of it covered with a deep slimy mud, with a thin cake of salt upon its surface. The water has a muddy taste, is almost as salt as the sea, and consequently very disagreeable; but it is fresher towards the part where the canal enters from the river.

To form this prodigious lake, if it were made by art, a vast quantity of earth must have been dug up, which naturally led Herodotus to enquire what became of it, and the Egyptians told him it was thrown into the Nile, and dispersed by the current of that river. This account, however, seems far from being satisfactory; and, as the inhabitants of the country could give no better answer to the historian's question, it is reasonable to suppose this spacious lake was rather a work of nature than of art, though perhaps king Mœris might enlarge it, by opening or cleansing its communication with the Nile, erecting flood-gates, and even sinking some part of it deeper than it was originally; and this might give rise to the tradition, that he caused the whole cavity to be dug, and formed the lake which retained his name.

The two lakes of Natron, situated to the west of the Delta, are very interesting objects. Their bed is a sort of natural trench, three or four leagues long, by a quarter of a league wide; and the bottom is solid and stony. It is dry for nine months in the year; but, in winter, there oozes from the earth a water of a reddish violet colour, which fills the lake to the height of five or six feet; the return of the great heats causing this to evaporate, there remains a bed of salt, two feet thick and very hard, which

is broken with bars of iron; and it is said, that nearly thirty thousand quintals are produced from these lakes every year.

Minerals, &c.] Most modern travellers have taken notice of the inconveniences that attend travelling in Egypt, and which render it extremely difficult to speak with accuracy respecting the mineral productions of that celebrated country. These arise principally from the barbarity and superstition of the natives, who imagine all Europeans to be magicians and sorcerers, who come purposely to discover those treasures which the genii have concealed under their ruins. So deeply rooted is this absurd opinion, that no person dares walk alone in the fields, nor can he find any one willing to accompany him; so that he is, in a manner, confined to the banks of the river, and it is only by comparing the accounts of various travellers that any satisfactory knowledge can be acquired.

From comparing his own observations with those of other travellers, M. Volney concludes, that the basis of all Egypt, from Asouan to the Mediterranean, is a continued bed of calcareous stone, of a whitish hue and soft substance, containing the same kind of shells that are met with in the adjacent seas. According to Mr. Bruce, the porphyry mountains and quarries begin at Hamra, in the latitude of nearly twenty-four degrees, and continue along the coast of the Red Sea to about twenty-two degrees thirty minutes; when they are succeeded by the marble mountains, these again by others of alabaster, and those last by basaltic mountains. Some of these mountains appeared to be composed entirely of red, and others of green, marble, and, by their different colours, afforded an extraordinary spectacle. In the vicinity of Cosseir, our author discovered the quarries whence the ancients obtained those prodigious quantities of marble with which they constructed so many wonderful works. The first place where the marks of their operations were plainly discernible, was a very high mountain, where the stone was so hard as to resist the stroke of a hammer; and the evident termination of some channels at this spot, served to prove that water was anciently used in cutting these hard stones.

In four days, during which Mr. Bruce travelled among these mountains, he passed more granite, porphyry, marble, and jasper, than might have sufficed to build Rome, Athens, Corinth, Syracuse, Memphis, Alexandria, and half a dozen such cities. It also appeared, that the passages between the mountains, and what our author calls *defiles*, were not natural but artificial openings; where even whole mountains had been cut out, in order to preserve a gradual slope toward the river.

Concerning the mountains in general, our traveller observes, that the porphyry is very beautiful to the eye, and is discovered by a fine purple sand, without any gloss. An unvariegated marble, of a green colour, is generally found in the same mountain; and where the two meet, the marble becomes soft for a few inches, but the porphyry retains its hardness. The granite has a dirty brown appearance, being covered with sand; but, on removing this, it appears of a grey colour, with a reddish cast all over it, and diversified with black spots. The red marble is next to the granite, though not met with in the same mountain: there is, also, a red kind, with white veins, and a great quantity of the common green serpentine. Some samples of that beautiful marble called *Isabella*, were likewise observed: one of them of that yellowish cast called quaker-colour, and the other of the bluish kind, named dove-colour. The most valuable kind, however, is that called *verde antico*, which is found next to the Nile in the mountains of serpentine marble. It is covered by a bluish stone, somewhat lighter than slate, more beautiful than most kinds of marble, and, when polished, has the appearance of a volcanic lava.

Some travellers have spoken of an emerald-mine in this country; but, from the researches of Mr. Bruce, it does not appear to have any existence. In the Red Sea, indeed, at a small distance from the south-west coast, there is an island, called the Mountain of Emeralds; but it seems that none of those precious stones have ever been found there in modern times. Here, as well as on the continent, there were many pieces of a green pellucid substance; but veined, and much softer than rock-crystal, though somewhat harder than glass. A few yards up the mountain Mr. Bruce found three pits, which are supposed to have been the mines whence the ancients obtained their emeralds; but though many pieces of the green substance above mentioned were met with about these pits, no signs of the true emerald could be perceived.

In the mountains of Cosseir, as well as in some parts of the deserts of Nubia, our author found some rocks, which exactly resembled petrified wood. On the road to Suez are found great numbers of Egyptian flints and pebbles, though the bottom is a hard, calcareous, and sonorous stone. Here, also, M. Volney tells us, that the stones resembling petrified wood are to be met with. These, he says, are in the form of small logs, cut slanting at the ends, and might easily be taken for petrifactions, though he was well convinced that they were real minerals.

Vegetables.] It is not to be supposed that such a country as Egypt, which is very hot, and annually overflowed, should produce any great variety of plants; and it may be presumed that very few, except those of the aquatic kind, were originally produced in Egypt, but have been transplanted thither from other countries. The celebrated plant called papyrus, or biblus, which formerly grew plentifully on the banks of the Nile, and is, perhaps, a native of Egypt, is now rarely to be met with, the poorer sort of people having almost destroyed it, by digging up the roots

for fuel. This plant was made use of by the ancients to write upon, and thence our paper had its name. It has a large stem, whence some say they took the pith, which they worked into a white paste or glue, and of that made a kind of paper, almost in the same manner as we do with our linen rags; but others say they used the inner rind for that purpose. According to Pliny, the root of this plant is as thick as a man's arm, and ten cubits long, whence arise a great number of triangular stalks, at the extremities of which its flowers are ranged in clusters. Its root is woody and knotty, its leaves long, like those of the bulrush, and its taste and smell resemble those of the cypress, of which some reckon it a species.

The manner of making the Egyptian paper was as follows: they began with lopping off the root and head of the papyrus, as of no use in this manufacture; the remaining stem they slit lengthways into two equal parts, and from each of these they stripped the thin scaly coats or pellicles, whereof it was composed, with the point of a penknife. The innermost of these pellicles were reckoned the best, and those nearest the rind or bark the worst; and accordingly they were kept separate, and constituted different kinds of paper. As the pellicles were taken off, they extended them on a table, and then two of them were laid over each other transversely, so that their fibres made right angles. In this state they were glued together with the muddy water of the Nile, then pressed, dried, and, lastly, flatted and smoothed, by beating them with a mallet; though sometimes, with a hemisphere of glass, they gave them a farther polish.

It is to be observed that, besides paper, the ancients made ropes, sails, mats, blankets, shoes, and several domestic utensils, of the papyrus; but, more useful inventions having set all this aside, the plant is now neglected, and almost extirpated out of Egypt.

The dumez, the sycamore of the ancients, which the Europeans call Pharaoh's fig, is common about the villages near Cairo, and is, likewise, found in some parts of Syria. It is a large spreading tree, with round leaves, and bears a fruit like the common fig, but something smaller, and not much esteemed. It is remarkable that the fruit grows on several short branches, without leaves, that shoot out from the main limbs of the tree; and at the end of the fig there gathers a sort of water, which is let out by cutting the skin, otherwise the fruit will not come to perfection. The tree is propagated by planting its branches, which grow very fast.

The cassia fistula, which we call the pudding-pipe-tree, is not uncommon in Egypt, though it does not seem to be a native of the country. The tree is tall, its bark ash-coloured, its wood very firm, its grain close; and at the centre it is black, but yellowish towards the outside. Its flowers are also yellowish, and produce a fruit in the form of a long pod, which, when ripe, is full of a black sweetish pulp, divided by small woody cells, and in this pulp are found little hard grains, shaped like hearts, which are the seed of the tree. The Egyptians never use the cassia-pods till they are four months old; for, when young and recent, they are observed to be noxious. They use the pulp extracted from the pod in form of a bolus or potion; and are of opinion that, taken internally, it cools and purifies the blood. The Egyptians likewise use it to alleviate the gout and hot pains of the joints, applying it by way of plaister to the part affected. It allays thirst, and is, therefore, good in feverish disorders.

The acacia, or Egyptian thorn, is said to be of considerable use in medicine. From the green pods it bears, a juice is expressed and inspissated, which is brought to us in bladders, containing globular masses, weighing from four to eight ounces, which are externally blackish, but internally of a shining brown colour, hard, brittle, and of an austere taste. This juice is called acacia, and is used for preventing inflammations in the eyes, for curing ulcers in the mouth, and fissures of the lips, for fastening the teeth, and strengthening weak joints.

In Lower Egypt, especially near Rosetta, the lotus grows in great abundance. This plant is a species of the water-lily; its leaves float on the water, and cover its surface, producing many flowers, which were formerly woven into the crowns of conquerors. The ancient Egyptians made bread of the pulp of the lotus dried, which resembles that of a poppy; and they used to eat the root of it, which is round, and as large as an apple. After the flowers follow round green pods, which contain a seed, not unlike that of a cabbage. At present, the Egyptians make a drink of this plant, mixed with sugar, which is good against inward heats; and, in summer, they eat the stalks and heads of it raw, which are sweet, moistening, and cooling.

The culture of the *citrul*, or water-melon, is one of the most general and most prolific in Upper Egypt; the markets are commonly filled with this sort of fruit, and, as they are sold exceedingly cheap, the poor, as well as the opulent, may refresh themselves with their aqueous and saccharine juice. The water-melons of Egypt are round, and grow to a large size; those of the best quality, when thoroughly ripe, have a rind perfectly smooth, and of a blackish green. The divisions are slightly marked; the pulp is white near the rind, and red in the middle; the seeds are flattish, their shell is black, and the inside is of a beautiful white.

The shrub called *schismé* is cultivated in many of the gardens at Rosetta. It bears leguminous flowers, of a deep yellow colour, and oblong leaves terminating in a point. The flowers are succeeded by long pods, bent in the form of a scythe, and contain flat seeds, which are

grey in the middle, and encircled by a brown border. These seeds are considered by the Egyptians as a specific against the ophthalmia, so prevalent in their country: they are pounded and reduced to a yellow powder, which is blown into the eyes, either pure or mixed with pulverized sugar.

The *helbé*, or fenugreek, is properly cultivated for fodder; but M. Sonnini observes, that the Egyptians themselves eat it with avidity, so that, in Lower Egypt, it may be not inaptly termed the "fodder of men." In the month of November, green helbé is carried about in large bundles for sale, and generally purchased at a low price. The natives pretend that it is an excellent stomachic, a specific against worms and dysentery, and a preservative against many disorders.

To this account of the vegetable productions of Egypt we shall add a few particulars relating to their harvests, of which they have two in a year, a spring-harvest from January to May, and a winter-harvest about October. For the latter, before the land is overflowed, they sow rice, Indian wheat, and what they call the corn of Damascus, which produces a large cane, and has an ear like millet. They also plant their sugar-canes at the same time; for all these require a great deal of water, especially rice, the largest crops of which are produced near Damietta and Rosetta, where the lands are low, and more easily overflowed than those higher up the river. Their wheat and barley are sown in November, or somewhat sooner or later, according as the waters of the Nile retire; and what is sown at this time of the year they reap in March and April. At the same season, they sow flax, lentils, lupines, and other vegetables of the like nature, which they gather in the spring; and about November they likewise cultivate their carthamus, or safranoun, as they call it, which grows like succory, and the flower of it, being of use in dying, is accordingly brought into Europe. Their wheat is bearded, and their barley has six rows of grain in the ear, but is a coarse sort, and chiefly eaten by horses. They have no oats, but plenty of beans, with which they feed their camels; and the people, likewise, eat them green, both raw and boiled. Neither have they any peas, but a sort of vetch, with one large grain in each pod, which is eaten raw when green, and boiled when dry, and is not much inferior to peas in taste. Here it may not be amiss to observe that, though Egypt produces very good flax, it is not now so remarkable for its fine linen as it was anciently, when it was carried to such a perfection, that the threads could scarcely be discerned by the nicest eye. They had such plenty of it, as not only to clothe their priests and people of condition, and to make shrouds for their dead, but to export considerable quantities of it into other countries. In short, this manufacture was in great request all over the east; and the superfine sort of it was often dyed in purple, and bore an excessive price.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said that the inhabitants employ two hundred thousand oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride; those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, and are extremely tractable. The dogs are large greyhounds, which would be exceedingly handsome, if they were treated with less severity; for the Mahometans have a particular aversion to them: however, their instinct is not destroyed, though they have entirely lost the native elegance of their formation. They are seen passing to and fro, in the most frequented streets, and carefully avoiding the Mahometan passenger, who turns aside his robe at their approach. During the night, they assume a superintendance over the wharfs, boats, and timber, which no person confides to them, and a robber would find it impossible to touch the property, of which they thus become the voluntary guardians. But what seems still more curious is, that these animals form distinct tribes, and have limits, which they never exceed: they never quit the quarter where they first received their existence; and, if a strange dog should presume to enter their confines, his life would most probably answer for his intrusion. The Bedouins, who are much less addicted to superstition than the Turks, keep large greyhounds, for the preservation of their tents and goods; they are particularly careful of them, and bear them so great an affection, that any person who should attempt to kill one of them would undoubtedly fall a sacrifice to the resentment of the owner. Notwithstanding their decided and unjust aversion for dogs, the Turks are extremely fond of cats, insomuch that, if one of them happen to enter a mosque, it is greatly caressed by the assembled zealots, as the favourite animal of their prophet, there being an old tradition, which affirms, that Mahomet, being once called upon some urgent business, preferred cutting off the sleeve of his robe to disturbing his cat that lay upon it fast asleep.

Among the ancient Egyptians, cats were greatly venerated, and their death was considered as so mournful an event, that their owners shaved their eye-lids, in token of their mourning: the bodies of the animals were likewise embalmed in sacred temples, and from thence carried, solemnly, into Bubastis, a considerable city in Lower Egypt, where they were deposited in the sepulchres of the country. There are cats in all the houses of Egypt: in those of the opulent, they are indulged in the best apartments, and partake of the indolence and effeminacy of their masters, who lavish upon them such caresses as their pride would refuse to beings of superior sense.

Tigers, hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The chameleon, a little animal, something resembling a lizard, which occasionally changes colour, especially when irritated, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country, but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, grow till they are about twenty feet in length, have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of the river, and often surprises the unwary traveller with his fore-paws, or beats him down with his tail. The most common method of killing crocodiles is, by shooting them in the belly, where the skin is soft, and not covered with scales like the back. The natives destroy them by making some animals cry at a distance; and, when the crocodile comes out, they thrust a spear, to which a rope is tied, into his body; then letting him retire into the water to exhaust himself, they afterwards draw him out, run a pole into his mouth, and, leaping upon his back, tie his jaws together. The people say, they cannot seize a man in the water, and, therefore, frequently cross the Nile by swimming, both by themselves, and with their cattle, even above the first cataract, where there are a great number of these animals.

They are not fond of salt-water, but love to continue in the rivers. They lay their eggs in the sand, having previously dug a hole with their fore-paws to deposit them in; which they cover up with great care, and then retire. The next day they return again, uncover the place, lay about the same number of eggs, and then retire till the ensuing day, when they repeat the same for the last time, after which the hole is finally closed. As soon as the eggs are hatched by the warmth of the sun, which happens at the end of thirty days, the young ones begin to break the shell. The mother, by instinct, goes at the same time to assist them, by scratching away the sand. The instant they are at liberty, the strongest move towards the water, and the rest mount upon the back of the mother, who carries them safely to it; but the moment they arrive at the water, all natural connection ceases; when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, she and the males become their most formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can; the whole brood scatters into different parts at the bottom, and most of them are destroyed. This animal is not only an enemy to its own species, but is at perpetual war with all other living creatures.

The flesh of the crocodile is but indifferent food, though the eggs are deemed great delicacies, and are sought after very eagerly, not only by man, but by many beasts and birds of prey. The vultures are particularly successful in destroying these eggs, which they effect by the following stratagem:—They hide themselves among the bushes and shrubs, about the banks of those waters where the crocodile inhabits; then watching till she has deposited her eggs, they go to the place, as soon as she retires, scratch away the sand, and feast upon the spoil. At other times, when they have not discovered a crocodile's nest, they are equally destructive to the young ones, while they are running to the river.

Jackals are very numerous in Lower Egypt. They are gregarious. Their howl is very disagreeable, particularly in the night; it is a kind of yelping, that may be compared to the shrill cries of children: they greedily devour dead bodies and filth of every kind. In a word, they are equally cruel and voracious, and are dangerous enemies even to man.

The *thaleb* is an animal which has some resemblance to the jackal, but, at the same time, differs from it in some striking features, and particularly in its habits. And M. Sonnini is of opinion, that all which has been asserted, both by the ancients and moderns, respecting the *fox* of Egypt must be understood to apply to the *thaleb*, who has, in fact, several features similar to those of the fox. The hair of this animal is of a bright fawn colour, deeper on the upper than the under part of the body: the tail is remarkably large, and striped transversely with black and grey; the eyes are literally brightened with the fire of vivacity; and the countenance is expressive of peculiar craft and cunning. While the jackals, merely ferocious, frighten away their prey by their howlings and numbers, and are frequently compelled to appease their hunger with food the most disgusting to their appetite, the more fortunate thaleb, surpassing them in address, does not associate with others, but goes alone; in the height of day approaches the habitations of men, establishing near them his subterraneous abode, whence he creeps out with the first favourable opportunity to surprise the poultry, carry off the eggs, &c. One of the handsomest of quadrupeds he would be, perhaps, one of the most amiable, if his tricks and his talents for depredation did not bear too strong an impression of falsehood and knavery.

"Taking one day a contemplative walk in a garden," says our author, "I stopped near a hedge; while a thaleb, who heard no noise, was coming toward me through the hedge, and, on his getting out, he found himself close at my feet On perceiving me, he was so struck with astonishment, that he did not even attempt to escape, but, fixing his eyes upon me, remained motionless for some seconds. His embarrassment was painted in his countenance, in a manner of which I could not have conceived him susceptible, and which indicated a very delicate in

stinct. For my part, I was afraid to make any motion that might disturb this situation, which afforded me considerable pleasure. At length, after taking a few steps from one side to the other, as if not knowing which way to fly, still keeping his eyes turned toward me, he made off, not running, but stretching himself out, or rather creeping away, placing his feet alternately with singular precaution. He was so much afraid of letting himself be heard in his flight, that he held his large tail almost in a horizontal position, that it might neither drag on the ground, nor brush against the plants. On the other side of the hedge I found the remains of his meal: it was a bird of prey, which he had nearly devoured."

The Jerboa, a gentle animal, takes up its subterraneous abode in some parts of Egypt. The singularity peculiar to the construction of this animal is, that the fore-legs are so short, that they scarcely extend beyond the hair: they are white, and have five toes, the inner one of which is short, rounded at the end, and has not any nail; the four other toes are long, and armed with great hooked nails. The heel is very high, and the inside, or sole, of the foot is naked, and of a flesh-colour. Sonnini, who has given a more accurate description of this animal than any traveller who has visited this country, observes, that the fore-feet may be taken for hands, as, in fact, they are of no use in walking, but serve the jerboa only to lay hold of his food, and carry it to his mouth, as also to dig his subterraneous habitation.

Hares are tolerably numerous in the desert, although exposed to the pursuit of carnivorous quadrupeds and birds; at least, their tranquillity is seldom interrupted by man; for, except in the plains of the Pyramids, and of Saccara, where the Europeans resident at Cairo sometimes take the amusement of hunting, the inhabitants of Egypt never disturb them; their flesh is forbidden by the Mahometan, as it was by the Jewish, law; neither is it eaten by the Copts, who have adopted several of the customs of the Jews. The climate has produced a trifling difference in the quality of the hair of the animals of this species, that inhabit the burning and sandy plains of Africa: they are there nearly grey, which colour changes, and grows darker, in proportion as the temperature becomes less sultry.

Among several sorts of yellow lizards is the worral, which is said to be affected by music. Dr. Shaw says, he has seen several of them keep exact time and motion with the dervises in their circulatory dances, turning when they turned, and stopping when they stopped: but Dr. Pococke, who procured a worral alive, could not discover that music had any influence upon it. This animal, which is of the lizard kind, is four feet long, eight inches broad, and has a forked tongue, which it puts out like a serpent, but it has no teeth, and is harmless, living on flies and other insects. It frequents the grottos and caverns, in the mountains on the west of the Nile, and is only found during the hot weather, as it always sleeps during the winter.

There are two species of vipers in Egypt, which are much esteemed in physic; they are of a yellowish colour, like the sand in which they live, one with a kind of horns, which have some resemblance to those of snails, but are of a horny substance; and the others like those in Europe.

Scorpions here grow to a surprising size, and Sonnini was assured that their bite occasioned extreme agony, swoonings, convulsions, and sometimes death.

Of the birds in Egypt, the ostrich deserves the preference: it is called, in Arabic, ter-gimel, or the camel-bird, because in its head, neck, and walk, it resembles the camel. This bird is common in the mountains south-west of Alexandria; its fat is sold by the Arabs, and used as an ointment for the rheumatism, palsy, and all cold tumours. They have here a kind of large domestic hawk, of a brown colour, with a very fine eye. These frequent the tops of houses, where they may be seen with pigeons standing close by them; but, though they are not birds of prey, they eat flesh wherever they find it: the natives never kill them, for they, as well as their ancestors, seem to entertain a veneration for these birds. The ter-chacus, or messenger-bird, would be thought very beautiful, were it not so common: it is almost as large as a dove, and is not only finely speckled, but has on the top of its head a tuft of feathers, which it spreads, when it alights on the ground.

They have also a beautiful white bird, called, by the Europeans, the field-hen: it resembles a stork, but is not half so large, and is seen about the fields like a tame fowl. They have, likewise, a large white bird, with black wings, shaped like a raven: these last are called Pharaoh's hens, and live in the same manner as the tame hawk.

Great numbers of the birds called ibis were formerly found on the islands in the Nile: these were held in great veneration by the Egyptians, on account of their delivering the country from the multitude of serpents that breed in the ground after the retreat of the Nile. They are of a greyish colour, with the wings and tail black, and resemble the crane.

The stork is held in the highest esteem and veneration by the Mahometans; it being as sacred among them as the ibis was among the Egyptians; and that person would be accounted very profane, who should attempt to kill, or only hurt or molest it. The great regard paid to these birds was, at first, perhaps, less occasioned by the service they render to moist fenny countries, in clearing them of a variety of reptiles and insects, than from the solemn gesticulations they are observed to make whenever they rest upon the ground, or return to their nests; for

they first throw their heads backwards, as it were, in a posture of adoration, then strike, as with a pair of castanets, their upper and lower bill together, and afterwards prostrate their necks in a suppliant manner down to the ground; constantly repeating the same motions three or four times together.

One of the birds most commonly seen in Lower Egypt, at the commencement of the winter, is the hoppoe, or dung-bird. It is by no means wild; but as its flesh is reckoned very indifferent, it is never killed by the inhabitants. The hoppoes are frequently seen in small flocks, and if one of them be separated from its companions, it calls them by a shrill cry, at the same time drawing in its bill close to the breast, and briskly raising its head. The hoppoes, likewise, utter a hoarse disagreeable sound, in one note. These migratory birds are very fat, and their flesh is tender and palatable.

The turtle-doves, which arrive in Egypt after the European autumn, and there spread themselves from the sea as far as Cairo, are of the common species; but those which constantly inhabit the same country form a distinct race.

Antiquities.] The Pyramids of Egypt, so highly celebrated and universally admired for ages, have been described by various travellers and antiquaries. But the information here presented to the reader is extracted from the narration of Dr. Pococke; which we have adopted, not only from our own conviction of its superiority, but from the concurrent testimony of Sonnini and other travellers; Denon has, indeed, visited them since the learned doctor; but the hurry with which his researches must have been attended, arising from his being surrounded with enemies, and obliged to accompany an army seeking for conquest in a foreign country, must convince our readers of the propriety of our choice.

"It is singular," says this writer, "that such superb piles are no where to be found but in Egypt; for, in any other country, pyramids are rather puerile and diminutive imitations of those of Egypt, than attempts at appropriate magnificence. The pyramids are situated on a rock, at the foot of the high mountains which bound the Nile, and separate Egypt from Lybia. Unquestionably, they were all intended as places of sepulture; but their architecture, as well externally as internally, is extremely different, whether we regard distribution, materials, or grandeur. Some are open, some close, and others ruinous. Indeed, they have all sustained more or less damage from the lapse of time, as well as from actual demolition. However, considering the astonishing number of ages that must have passed away since their erection, it is rather a matter of surprise that they should be so perfect as they are, than that they should be partially injured. They are certainly works of the remotest antiquity: the very epocha of their foundations was lost at the time when the first Greek philosophers travelled into Egypt.

"It is not improbable, that the invention of pyramids was antecedent to the discovery of arches and columns. It is, in fact, a mortifying consideration, that the most durable and magnificent works in architecture have originated from ignorance of the arts and sciences. The famous aqueducts of the ancients, whose remains excite the wonder of the present times, were certainly owing to a want of knowledge of the first principles of hydrostatics.

"It is a common tradition in Egypt, that, anciently, there were giants in that country, who raised the pyramids, and the vast palaces and temples, whose remains are scattered about. But this ridiculous opinion is confuted by observing that, had this been the case, the gates and doors of the buildings would have been proportionate to the height of the occupiers; but, as they are of the ordinary dimensions, we may conclude, that they were erected by people of the common size. Indeed, the passages in the pyramids are barely large enough to admit a man of our own times; and the coffin, in the largest and last pyramid, is an incontestible proof of the falsity of such an opinion, since it determines the size of the prince's body, for whom the pyramid was built.

"The principal pyramids are situated about three hours sail up the Nile, near the place where the ancient Memphis stood. The four most remarkable fabrics of this kind are nearly on a diagonal line, and about four hundred paces from each other. The four faces exactly correspond to the four cardinal points. The two most northern are the largest, and their perpendicular height has been calculated at five hundred feet. The bottom of the first is exactly six hundred and ninety-three English feet square, and therefore covers more than eleven acres of land. The inclined plane is equal to the base, and the angles and base form an equilateral triangle. The number of steps have been variously computed; but they are between two hundred and seven and two hundred and twelve: these steps, or layers, are from two and a half to four feet high, and are broad in proportion to their height.

"The most northern of these pyramids is the only one that is open, and with it I shall begin my description. The external part is constructed of great square stones, cut out of the rock which extends along the Nile, where the quarries are still visible from which they have been taken. The size of these stones is unequal, but they have all the figure of a prism, that they may lie close together. It might be imagined, that each range would form an even step round the pyramid; but this is not the case; and hence the reason that different travellers disagree about the number of the courses. It seems that regularity was no farther attended to than was necessary to preserve the

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"The wind has casually, and in length of time, blown up a ridge of sand, which affords a commodious ascent to the entrance of the pyramid, which is forty-eight feet from the ground. On reaching this entrance, it is usual to discharge a pistol, to frighten away the bats; after which two Arab guides, whom it is necessary to engage, enter and remove the sand, with which the passage is almost stopped up.

"This being done, you strip to the shirt, on account of the excessive heat constantly felt in the pyramids, and in this condition proceed, each with a wax-candle in his hand. Being arrived at the extremity of the gallery, where the passage is forced, you find an opening, barely sufficient to crawl through. Having passed this strait, which is about six feet long, you come to a large apartment, where it is usual to take some refreshment, that you may have more strength and resolution to penetrate into the second gallery.

"Almost all the passages are three feet and a half square, and lined with white marble, highly polished, which, with the acclivity of the way, would render it impassible, were it not for little holes cut for resting the feet in. By observing these holes, you proceed, without danger, to the end of the second passage, where is a resting-place, and, on the right hand, an opening into a kind of well, without any steps, and which is, in fact, a perpendicular pipe, tenanted only by bats. Here a third gallery commences, leading to the inferior chamber, in a horizontal direction. Before the chamber are some stones, which interrupt the way; but, having passed them, you enter the chamber, which has a sharp-pointed vault, and wholly cased with granite, once perfectly polished, but now tarnished with the smoke of the torches used in visiting it.

"Having seen the lower chamber, you return to the resting-place, and ascend the fourth gallery, at the extremity of which is a little platform. Here you must commence climbing again; but, having proceeded a little way, you soon find a new opening, where you may stand upright. At length, by stopping for the last time, you pass the remainder of the fifth gallery, which conducts, in a horizontal line, to the upper chamber. This, like the former, is coated with granite. On the left side is a coffin of the same material, in the figure of a parallelopiped, quite plain. On being struck with a key, it sounds like a bell. Near this coffin is a very deep hole, which probably leads to a cavity underneath. In this chamber, also, are two narrow passages, almost filled up with stones, which the curious have thrown in, to ascertain their depth. A pistol fired in this room makes a report like thunder.

"When you leave the pyramid, which must be by retracing the same steps, it is necessary to use every precaution to prevent the ill effects that would arise from a sudden transition from an extreme heat to a temperate air. Having provided against this, you ascend the top of the pyramid, to enjoy the prospect of the surrounding country, which is truly delightful. The usual ascent is by the eastern angle; but it is necessary to select the most convenient steps as you advance, for, in the straight line, sometimes one is too high, or another mouldered away. Having reached the top, you are amused with the names of many people, of different nations, who have visited this pyramid, and are ambitious to transmit the memory of the feat to posterity. The entrance of the chambers also bears many marks of the universal passion, the love of fame.

"The second pyramid appears still more lofty than the first, on account of the elevation of its foundation; but, in fact, there is no real difference in this respect. However, this pyramid is so well closed, that not any trace remains of its ever being opened, and its summit is coated in such a manner with polished granite, that the most intrepid would not attempt to scale it. Near this are the ruins of a temple, the stones of which are of a prodigious size, being most of them six feet in breadth and depth, and sixteen or seventeen in length. This structure must have once been singularly superb. The length of its front is one hundred and eighty feet, and its depth one hundred and sixty. By an imperceptible descent, you arrive at the sphinx, whose enormous bulk attracts the admiration of every spectator. It is cut out of the solid rock, and is said to have been the sepulchre of Amasis: the height is twenty-seven feet: the beginning of the breast is thirty-three feet wide, and it is about one hundred and thirteen feet from the forepart of the neck to the tail. The nose is sadly mutilated by wanton aggression. The Egyptians hieroglyphically represented a harlot by a sphinx, having the amiable face of a woman and the rapacious strength of a lion.

The third pyramid is one hundred feet lower than the other two. It is closed like the second, and is destitute of any coating. On the east was also a temple, of great extent, constructed of the same kind of enormous stones as the former. The fourth pyramid is still one hundred feet lower than the third. It is also without coating, and is closed, but there are no vestiges of a temple connected with it. Its chief singularity is, that its summit is terminated by a single large stone, which originally appears to have been a pedestal. These four grand pyramids are surrounded by a number of smaller ones, which have, in

general, been opened, and two of them are so ruinous, that the chamber is no longer distinguishable.

Abdollatiph remarks that, when Al-Malec Al-Aziz Othman Ben Joseph succeeded to his father's throne, his absurd courtiers persuaded him to demolish these pyramids, beginning with the least. Having summoned together, therefore, masons, diggers, and engineers, as well as many grandees of the kingdom, he gave directions for throwing it down. They accordingly pitched their tents around it, and collected great numbers of men and artificers, who were maintained at a vast expence. They continued there about eight months, with an encampment of both horse and foot; but, with their utmost efforts, and the most intense exertion of their strength, they were able to displace but one stone a day, or, at most, but two: some of them at the top protruded the stone by means of wedges and levers, whilst others below pulled it with ropes, and, when it fell, the sound was heard at an immense distance, so that the mountains trembled, and the earth shook. The stone itself was buried in the sand, from which to disentangle it was a work of extreme labour and fatigue. It was then, by wedges, split into pieces; and each piece was removed on a carriage, to be thrown at the bottom of a hill, which was at no great distance. After much time spent in this attempt, their means of subsistence failed; their difficulties were multiplied; their spirits drooped, and their force began to languish. They, at last, relinquished it, exhausted with fatigue, and vanquished by shame; for they had not accomplished their object, nor brought their work to the desired conclusion: on the contrary, the issue of the whole affair was, that they defaced the pyramid, at the same time that they betrayed their own impotence. This happened in the year 593 of the Hegira (A.D. 1197.) Nevertheless, when one contemplates the stones that were carried off, one would think that the whole pyramid must have been erased from its very foundation. But, if we look, on the other hand, at the pyramid itself, we should conclude, that hardly any thing had been detached from it; for only part of one of its sides has been removed. When I saw the trouble which they experienced in throwing down each single stone, addressing myself to the overseer of the workmen, I asked him—"If a thousand pieces of gold were offered you, on condition to replace only one of these stones in its proper situation, could you effect it?" He said, it was beyond their power, even although twice as much were offered them.

Herodotus, the first writer who has given us any information respecting this country, relates, that he was informed that the great pyramid was the tomb of Cheops, whose name it still bears; that the adjoining pyramid was that of his brother, Cephrenes, who succeeded him; that only the former had inner galleries; that one hundred thousand men had been employed twenty years in building in, and that the immense labour which it required had rendered this prince odious to his people.

The pyramids of Saccara are situated about ten miles distant, to the south of those from Memphis, at the foot of the mountains, but on a sufficient elevation, so as not to be overflowed by the Nile. It appears that the ancient city of Memphis extended nearly to this place.

"One of the most lofty of these piles," says Dr. Pococke, (who was attended by the shiek on his visit to these tombs), "is called the Great Pyramid of the North. As part of this had tumbled down, I was obliged to measure it at a distance, by beginning opposite to the angles; and, proceeding in this manner, I found the north side to be seven hundred and ten feet, and the east six hundred and ninety. The perpendicular height is three hundred and forty-five feet, and it contains one hundred and fifty-six steps, each from two to three feet high.

"This pyramid is built of the same materials as the rest, but was cased with a fine hard stone, part of which still remains. On the north side, about a third part of the height up, is an entrance, three feet and a half wide, and four feet two inches deep. We entered here, and found rest for the feet, but it was with great difficulty we made our way for the last twenty-five feet, on account of the sand. Having, however, effected our passage, we came to a large room, twenty-two feet and a half long, and eleven feet ten inches wide. At the height of ten feet, a tier of stones projected five inches inwards; and, in the same manner, twelve other tiers projected each farther than the other, till they closed at the top. To the west of this is a similar apartment, and at the farther end of both, in the middle of the fifth and sixth tiers, is a door in each, conducting into small rooms, lined with a smooth white stone.

"A mile to the south-east stands the Great Pyramid of the South, as it is called, which is six hundred feet square at the base. It seems to incline with a greater angle from the height of two hundred and eighty feet, than it does below. This appears to have been cased; but the external surface is so worn, or demolished, that it is impossible to ascend its summit.

"On the lower ground, about two miles to the eastward, is another pyramid, constructed of unburnt brick, which seems to have been made of the mud of the Nile. Some of those bricks I found to be thirteen inches and a half long, six and a half broad, and four and three quarters thick. This pile is much crumbled and ruined. Its perpendicular height is one hundred and fifty feet, and at the top it measured forty-three by thirty-five feet: the ascent is very easy. The other pyramids are of stone, and are of different magnitudes, but all much injured by time. They amount to nearly twenty in number. They are called in-

discriminately the Pillars of Memphis, or the Pillars of Giza.

"Having finished my survey of these immense piles, I visited the catacombs, which lie in the same plain, and was first conducted to that of the mummies. The entrance to this is by a kind of funnel, about four feet square, and twenty deep, cut through a slaty rock, but covered with sand, which, frequently shifting, fills up the apertures.

"I descended by means of a rope-ladder, not without being incommoded by the sand falling from the top. Having reached the bottom, I found myself in a passage, five feet wide, and fifty long, almost filled with sand. At the extremity of this I turned down another passage on the left hand, about six feet high, on one side of which were compartments, with benches, about two feet above the floor. On these, I imagine, the mummies were placed. On the other side are narrow cells, just large enough to admit a coffin. At the end of this gallery I entered another on my right, on each side of which were niches, apparently designed for the reception of coffins in an upright posture. From this passage are cut oblong square apartments, filled with the remains of mummies; and, probably, here the inferior persons of a family were deposited, and piled upon one another, while the chief persons were placed in the niches. Each family had, perhaps, originally, its burying-place, and, as the descendants multiplied, they branched out these sepulchral grots.

"I next visited the catacombs of the birds, which has the same kind of entrance, only deeper. This subterraneous receptacle is much more magnificent than the others; being the sepulchre of such birds and animals as were the objects of adoration by the ancient Egyptians, and which they embalmed with the utmost care, and deposited in earthen vases, closely luted over. In one of the irregular apartments, I saw larger jars, which, probably, were intended for dogs and other animals, of which some have been found, but they are now become rare.

"According to Herodotus, there were certain persons employed in the business of embalming, who received a recompence according to the excellence of their workmanship. In the most esteemed method of embalming, they extracted the brains by the nose, with a crooked iron instrument, and then poured in drugs. Afterwards, they opened the body, took out the entrails, and washed the cavity with palm-wine, and, having rubbed into it perfumes, filled it up with myrrh, cassia, and other spices, and then sewed it up. This being done, they washed the body with nitre, and, after an interval of seventy days, having washed it again, they rolled it in swathes of linen, besmearing it with gums. The relations then took the body home, and, inclosing it in a coffin fitted to the shape, placed it in the catacombs.

"Another mode of embalming was, by injecting turpentine of cedar, with a pipe, into the body, and after salting it for seventy days, the pipe was drawn out, which brought the bowels with it. The nitre dried up the flesh, leaving nothing but skin and bones. The third, and least expensive method, was by purifying the inside with salt and water, and salting it for the usual time.

"If we may credit Diodorus, it appears there was a still more perfect mode of embalming than either of those we have mentioned; for he informs us, that the eye-brows, eye-lashes, and the form and appearance of the whole body, was so well preserved, that it might be known the features; and that many of the noble Egyptians kept the remains of their ancestors in houses adorned at a great expense, and had the pleasure of viewing their progenitors long after they were removed from this mortal scene. It does not appear, however, that any bodies have been discovered embalmed in this style.

"I brought a body," continues our author, "with me from Egypt, in a wooden coffin, filled up to the body with linen and fine plaster. Four folds of cloth covered the head, the upper one painted blue. Under these was a composition of gum and cloth, half an inch thick, and next to the skin was a coat of bitumen, about the thickness of a wafer. The hinder part of the head was filled with bitumen, which had been poured in at the nose, and had penetrated even into the bone of the skull.

"The body was swathed in bandages of linen, about three quarters of an inch wide, under which were four folds of cloth, then a swathe, two inches broad, and under that eight different bandages of the same breadth. Under this was a crust of linen, about an inch thick, almost burnt to ashes, but closely adhering, by means of the gums with which it had been smeared. The arms were laid across the breast, the right hand lying over the left. From the hips to the feet were eight bandages, two inches broad; and under these were others, an inch thick, which were consumed by time and the heat of the drugs. The coffin was composed of two pieces of wood, hollowed so as to receive the body, which, being put together, were fastened with broad pegs in the top part, let into mortices in the under. It was cut into the shape of a human body, and covered with a thin plaster, and painted."

The famous Labyrinth, which, Herodotus says, was built by the twelve kings of Egypt, when the government was divided into twelve parts, as so many places for them to assemble in, and transact the affairs of state and religion, was situated not far distant from Memphis. It had twelve saloons, or covered courts, with opposite gates; six towards the north, and six towards the south, in continued lines, surrounded with one common wall. Its remains are thus described by Dr. Pococke:—

"The apartments are on two floors the one under

ground, and the other above it; each consisting of fifteen hundred apartments. Those above ground I have seen; but those below, containing the sepulchres of the kings, and the sacred crocodiles, the rulers of the Egyptians are averse to shew. The upper apartments appeared to transcend all human works. The roof of the whole is stone, as well as the walls: the latter are adorned with sculpture. Each saloon has a peristyle of white stones, admirably jointed. Close to the line where the labyrinth terminates, is a pyramid of two hundred and forty feet, on which large animals are engraven. But little now remains of these boasted works of art, except heaps of ruins, broken pillars, shattered walls, and cornices, many of which are of brown marble."

The magnificent ruins of the ancient city of Thebes are situated about twenty-seven miles north of Cnubis; it is not certain whether this city formerly occupied the two banks of the river: the most celebrated monuments of antiquity, however, are on the eastern side of the Nile. It extended to the south, from the Arab village of Luxor to that of Karnoc, which is about three quarters of a league from it. There are no indications of its extent to the north. The two villages of Luxor and Thomor are erected amidst the ruins of two Egyptian temples, which have a very striking effect, by the vast space they occupy, and the enormous materials employed in their structure.

The city of Thebes, according to some authors, was built by Osiris, and, according to others, by Busiris II., who appointed its circuit, adorned it with magnificent buildings, and rendered it the most opulent city upon earth. It was originally called Diospolis, or the city of Jupiter, and afterwards obtained the name of Thebes. Diodorus Siculus observes, "that not only this king, but many of his successors, improved the city with presents of gold and silver, with ivory, and a multitude of colossal statues; and that no city under the sun was so adorned with obelisks of one entire stone. The buildings erected here by the ancients have remained to modern times; but the gold and silver, the ivory, and precious stones, were carried away by the Persians, when Cambyses set fire to the temples of Egypt. It is added, that the riches of this country were at that time so great, that, after the plundering and burning, there were taken above three hundred talents of gold, and two thousand three hundred talents of silver, from among the ruins."

There were several temples admirable in beauty and greatness, the most ancient of which, according to Diodorus, was in circuit thirteen stadia, and forty-five cubits in height, with a wall of twenty-four feet broad. The ornaments and offerings within were agreeable to this magnificence, both in value and workmanship. The ruins of the above temple are still to be seen, and it is computed to have been about half a mile in circumference. It has eight grand entrances, to three of which were avenues of a great length, between sphinxes, two of them having sixty of these statues on each side; beyond these are four grand gates, at a considerable distance behind each other, in a direct line with the temple. They are about thirty-five feet deep, one hundred and fifty in length, and, before the ground was raised, must have been from sixty to sixty-five feet high. These structures lessen every way, like a pyramid, from the bottom to the top: the first is of red granite, finely polished, and beautifully adorned on the outside with hieroglyphics, in four series, from the top downwards, and three on the inside, in each of which are the figures of two men, finely executed, and larger than the life. At a short distance on each side are colossal figures, about fifteen feet high, with hieroglyphics under them; the gates, likewise, are adorned with hieroglyphics.

Dr. Pococke, who viewed these venerable ruins, among which the village of Remock is situated, observes, that on each of the gates there appears to have been colossal statues. On the outside of the first, on one side, is a statue of red granite, and on the other a statue of a species of granite, that seems composed of small pebbles. On measuring the head of one of them, it was found to be five feet six inches in length. The next gate is much dilapidated, and has two stories of colossal figures to the south, and one to the north. The third gate is covered with hieroglyphics and colossal figures of men; and here are the remains of a statue of white marble, the head of which has a serpent on his helmet. This head is four feet and a half from the top to the lower part of the neck. The fourth gate is a heap of ruins; and before the main building is a large pond, that was probably a reservoir of the water of the Nile, for the use of the temple.

There is another superb entrance, about one hundred and fifty paces to the west, with the same kind of avenue of sphinxes. The grand entrance to the west is forty feet broad, the lower part being a solid wall of the same thickness. Within this is a large open court, having on each side, at the first entrance, a terrace of eighty feet broad. In the front of the entrance are two small windows; but the upper story is, in many parts, so much decayed, that, at a distance, it has the appearance of battlements. The walk between the two terraces leads to the inner part of the temple, and is adorned on each side with a grand colonnade of pillars, above forty feet high, and eight feet diameter, with large capital vases, like a base, only worked with some figures in lines. At the farther end of these pillars are two colossal statues, of red granite, on pedestals, four feet wide, and six long; but the heads are broken off, and the statues much disfigured and mutilated.

Our author says that, notwithstanding the wall of the

inner temple is greatly ruined, it has, in its present state, more grandeur and magnificence than any other building he ever beheld. The door is very high, and yet in a just proportion; and the walls on each side are beautifully adorned with hieroglyphics and figures of men, in six compartments, above nine feet high and twelve wide, every compartment having the figures of three men in it.

There appear, on entering the inner temple, sixteen rows of pillars one way, and eighteen another; those in the two middle rows are eleven feet in diameter, and the others eight, with capitals of square stone. The temple was higher above the middle rows than in any other parts, and had a kind of windows over the space between every two pillars, with twelve lattices of stone in each. Both within and without the temple are hieroglyphics and other representations, consisting of battles and chariots, one of which is drawn by stags, and the whole of which are still visible.

There is, likewise, on each side of the grand entrance into the east end of the temple, an obelisk, upwards of sixty-five feet high, and six square, having only one column of hieroglyphics. Farther to the east are two obelisks, seven feet six inches square, and seventy-three feet high; but one of them is recumbent: they are all of red granite, and these last two have three columns of hieroglyphics. At a little distance from these obelisks are two walls, separated by an entrance in the middle, and on the west side of them are several colossal busts.

At a short distance to the east is a small room of red granite; and on each side of the temple are several apartments, some of which might probably have been appropriated to the use of the priests, and others adapted for the beasts they kept for sacrifice. About one hundred and sixty feet to the east is a large building, which consists of several small apartments on each side of a spacious colonnade, and appears to have been adapted for the use of the officers of the temple. To the north of this are ruins of buildings, with a grand gate before them, which seems originally to have led to the temple.

Here are also the remains of several other temples, whose ruins are scattered several miles round; among these, one of them, from the situation of its fragments, appears to have been round, and in diameter near one hundred and seventy-five feet.

"While examining the whole mass of these ruins," says Denon, "the imagination is fatigued with the mere thought of describing them. The portico of the temple alone contains one hundred columns, the smallest of which are seven feet and a half in diameter, and the largest eleven. The space occupied by its circumvallation contained lakes and mountains. In short, to form a competent idea of so much magnificence, it is necessary that the reader should fancy what is before him to be a dream, for even the spectator cannot believe his eyes."

The remains of a temple at the adjacent village of Luxor, though not so large as that above described, are in a much better state of preservation. The most colossal part consists of fourteen columns, of ten feet in diameter, and of two statues in granite, at the outer gate, buried up to the middle of the arms, and having in front of them the two largest and best preserved obelisks in the whole country. A peculiarity belonging to the temple of Luxor is, that a quay, provided with a demi-bastion, secured the eastern part, which was near the river, from the damages which might have been occasioned by the inundations. There are two obelisks of rose-coloured granite, which are still seventy feet above the ground, and, to judge by the depth to which the figures seem to be covered, it may be conjectured that above thirty feet more is concealed from the eye. Their preservation is perfect, and the hieroglyphics with which they are covered are deeply cut, and shew the bold hand of a master. Two large masses, which form the gate, are covered with sculpture, representing battles between chariots, arranged in lines, drawn by two horses, and containing a single champion. "Nothing," says Denon, "can possibly be more grand than the gate just mentioned, nor any thing more simple than the small number of objects of which this entrance is composed. No city whatever makes so proud a display at its approach as the wretched village of Luxor, the population of which consists of two or three thousand souls, who have taken up their abodes on the roofs and beneath the galleries of the temple, which has, nevertheless, the semblance of being in a state of desolation."

The principal monuments erected upon the western bank of the river Nile, and the only ones which can be reasonably supposed to have depended on Thebes, are the Memnonium, or the palace of Memnon, Medinet-abou, another palace, and the two colossal statues so celebrated for their prodigious height. The Memnonium looks to the east. In one of its courts are the remains of the celebrated statue of red granite. Its height was sixty-four feet, and its ruins are scattered forty feet around it. One of its feet subsists almost entire. Its breadth is four feet and a half, and one of its ears measures thirty-nine inches in length. The excavations are still visible where the wedges were placed which divided the monument when it was thrown down by Cambyses. At the entrance of the gate, which leads from the second court to the palace, are the remains of a colossal statue of granite, of less proportions: the head is in perfect preservation, and of rose-coloured granite, while the rest is black. It is the most precious monument of the ancient Egyptian sculpture: the execution is admirable. The Memnonium had not been finished, like the greater part of the Egyptian works; but, by the side of objects but roughly hewn, are seen examples of exquisite workmanship.

Between the Memnonium and the palace of Medinet-abou are the largest colossal figures which now remain in Egypt: their bases are eleven feet in height: the first appears to represent a man sitting, and the other a woman in the same posture; and they are both fifty feet high from the bases of the pedestals to the top of their heads. The statue to the north has been broken off at the middle, and has been built up with five tiers of stones; but the other is of one single stone: the feet have the toes broken off, and the features are mouldered away by time. The sides of their seats are covered with hieroglyphics; on the pedestal of the statue, which has been broken, is a Greek epigram; and on their insteps and legs are several Greek and Latin inscriptions, some of them in honour of Memnon; but most of them are testimonies of those who have heard the sound; for one of them is supposed to be the famous statue of Memnon, which, at the first and second hour, it is pretended, uttered a sound, occasioned by the rays of the sun striking upon it, like the breaking of the string of a harp, when it was wound up.

The height of them is about fifty-eight feet. Three small female figures accompany each of the colossal statues. They are standing on each side of the chair, and between the legs of the principal figure.

Between the Memnonium and the Medinet-abou, and distant about half a league from each of them, are the remains of a great number of colossal figures, and the traces of buildings, which indicate that these two places communicated with each other by structures that filled up the whole space between them. This mass of edifices appears to have composed, according to Diodorus Siculus, the tomb of Osymandias. This conjecture is somewhat confirmed by the consistency which exists between the monuments in their present state, and the extensive as well as precise descriptions which that writer has left of pictures which are found in both the palaces. These paintings represent the sieges of fortified towns, hostile invasions, and victories obtained by the Egyptians. The barbarians with whom they are engaged, as well as themselves, are represented as making use of cars, but with this difference, that three men are placed in each car. The one holds the reins which guide the horses, the other draws the bow, and the third protects them both with his buckler.

The ruins of Medinet-abou are situated to the south of Memnonium, and are in a fine state of preservation; the most beautiful feature is a peristyle of sixty-five paces long, by fifty-five in breadth. "I remarked," says Denon, who visited this edifice, "that in the second portico Catholicism had erected a church, of which no other remains were left than part of the recess of the choir, and the columns of the nave; but I discovered, from the testimony of a number of little doors decorated with flowered crosses, that the body of the building, which was two hundred feet long, had, to all appearance, served as a convent for an order of monks of the earlier ages. The sculptures on the wall, where the church had been situated, represent the exploits and the triumph of some hero, who had carried war into foreign countries. I remarked," continues our author, "the figure of a hero, who is mounted on a small chariot, in which there is room only for himself, driving two horses, and holding the reins on a level with his girdle; bucklers and heaps of arms are hung about him, and around his car; his stature is gigantic, and he holds an immense bow, from which he is shooting arrows upon a bearded and long-haired enemy, who have not the least resemblance with the known physiognomy of the Egyptians. At a short distance, he is represented sitting at the back part of his car, the horses of which are held by pages, and one person is counting out before him the hands cut off from the enemy killed in battle, while another is inscribing the number, and a third appears to be proclaiming the amount of them. To the left, on the front of another of these galleries, is a long bas-relief, representing the same hero returning after his conquests; some soldiers in armour attest that the triumph is military, for a little farther nothing is seen but priests, or persons of the initiated cast, without arms, with long habits and transparent tunics. The arms of the hero are covered; he is borne on men's shoulders, in a palanquin, with all the attributes of divinity; before and behind him walk priests, carrying palms and calumets; and he thus arrives at the temple of the great divinity of Thebes, and offers a sacrifice, in which he officiates as priest; farther on the procession re-commences, and is followed by the god, borne by twenty-four priests; the bull Apis, with the attributes of divinity, precedes the hero, together with a long series of persons, each bearing an ensign, on the greater part of which are images of gods. At an altar, a child, with its arms tied behind its back, is about to be sacrificed before the victor, who stops to assist at this horrible immolation: a priest, who breaks the stalk of a flower, and birds, which are flying away, denote death, and the soul departed from the body: what, therefore, Longus and Apuleius, in their romances of Theagenes and the Golden Ass, have told us of human sacrifices among the Egyptians, appears to be true. At another part, the hero himself makes an offering to the god Apis of an ear of wheat; a protecting genius accompanies him constantly; he changes his habit and head-dress during the ceremony, which may mark the different dignities or degrees of initiation; but the same physiognomy is always preserved, by which it is proved to be a portrait; the air is noble, august, and gracious. In another picture, he holds nine figures, chained; incense is offered to him, in honour of one or the other of these victories; and a

priest writes down and consecrates the memory of his conquests.

To the north of this palace is a small temple, that appears to have been an appendage of it: it is built on the same plan which has been adopted for the several structures of this kind. A picture here represents a priest, who, with a mattock, traces a furrow at the feet of some deity, as if he invited him to favour the tillage of the earth.

The whole of the mountain Lybicus, which begins at about half a league to the west of the Memnonium, and ends immediately opposite Medinet-abou, is pierced from its base to three-fourths of its elevation with a great number of sepulchral grottos. Those which are nearest the surface of the ground are the most spacious, as well as the most decorated; those which are in the most elevated part of the mountain are much more rudely contrived and executed; while such as hold the middle place bear an adjusted proportion of space and ornament. Those which belong to the poor are the most interesting, as they contain representations of arts which flourished, and the trades which were practised by the ancients. The plan of these grottos is, in a great measure, the same. A door, opening towards the east, displays a gallery of about twenty feet in length, which is sometimes formed in a straight line, and, at other times, runs off from the entrance in a right angle: it is indifferently supported by columns or pilasters, of which the number varies from four to ten. At the extremity of the gallery is a well, which leads to the catacombs, where the mummies are deposited. The depth of these wells varies from forty to sixty feet, and they are connected with long subterraneous passages, rudely shaped in the rock, which terminate in a chamber of about thirty feet square, whose sides are supported by pilasters, and contain several remains of mummies. There are evident traces of numerous other subterraneous communications, which probably lead to other chambers, that are at present concealed.

In the upper gallery are sculptured in bas-relief, or painted in fresco, many subjects relating to funeral-ceremonies. The most interesting pictures which are seen there offer a detail of the occupation of the ancient inhabitants of the country, such as the chace and the fishery; thence we may trace the progress of civilization, in the employments of the mechanic, the money-changer, the husbandman, and in the duties and punishments of military life. Each grotto is adorned with a ceiling, fancifully painted.

"The tombs of the kings are about six thousand four hundred paces from the river. They have been formed in a narrow valley, in the centre of the mountain Lybicus. These sepulchres occupy a large ravine, which is flanked by the bed of a torrent. The plan of one of these tombs will be sufficient to explain the general disposition of the rest. Every grot communicates with the valley by a large gate, which opens to a gallery hollowed in the rock: its breadth and height are generally about twelve feet, and its length is twenty paces to the second gate, which opens to another gallery of the same breadth, and twenty-four feet in length. To the right and left of this gallery are chambers of five feet in breadth, and ten feet long. There are found paintings of arms of every description that were used by the ancients, together with implements of husbandry, vases, and trinkets of every kind. The manner of preparing food is also represented.

"A third gallery succeeds, of the same dimensions as the former, and leads to a chamber above the level of the other apartments, which is eighteen feet square. From this chamber is the entrance to a gallery of thirty-four paces in length: there is also an inclining gallery, whose length is twenty-eight paces. At its extremity is a corridor of sixteen paces, leading to a chamber of eleven paces square, which is connected with another of the same size by a gallery of six paces. A square saloon then succeeds, of about twenty paces wide, supported by eight pillars. Here is the sarcophagus, which contained the mummy of the king. The Romans made some attempts to carry away this sarcophagus from the grotto where it is deposited; they even tried to level the ground, in order to facilitate its removal: but they soon desisted from the impracticable enterprise.

"To the saloon of the sarcophagus another apartment succeeds, of twenty-five paces in breadth, and forty in length. The height of the tomb is seven feet, its length eight, and its breadth six: the total length of the gallery is two hundred and twenty-five paces. The tombs of the kings throughout their whole extent are covered with pictures and hieroglyphics; but the greater part are painted in fresco, and represent the most fantastic subjects that can be conceived.

"One of the most interesting of these grottos contains a sarcophagus, that is still entire and in its place. Its length is sixteen feet, its height twelve, and its breadth six. It still preserves the lid, adorned with the effigy of the king, which is a single block of granite. The astonishment that is felt, on reflecting that this enormous mass was transported to the extremity of a subterraneous passage two hundred paces in length, exceeds all bounds, when it is considered that it was worked upon the place where it remains. What difficulties must have been surmounted, in order to transport a weight of many hundred thousands of pounds across the almost impracticable roads of the mountain!

Among the ruins of the ancient city of Dendera, there are the remains of three temples; the largest of which is the best preserved monument in Egypt. None of the

materials which have been employed in it have suffered. The tutelary divinity, Isis, was here worshipped, in the shape of a cat.

The execution of the figures engraved on the exterior and interior walls, at Dendera, is an example of the highest point of perfection which the Egyptians attained. All the minutiæ of their dress are finished with a purity and delicacy which it is almost impossible to conceive, when the impracticable nature of the stone is considered.

The great temple of Isis is built nearly on the same plan as that of the ancient Apollonopolis. The figure of the divinity to which it was consecrated is multiplied in every part; in its pictures, in its elegant frieze, even on the four faces of the capitals of the columns which support the portico, and in the saloon which succeeds to it.

The elevation of the temple is seventy-two paces in breadth, and one hundred and forty-five feet in length. A gate, in a very pure taste, opened towards the temple, from which it was separated by a very spacious court. The portico was sixty paces in length, and thirty in breadth. Its most remarkable decoration is the great zodiac, divided into two bands: which enriches the ceiling of the last intercolumniations to the right and left. Indeed, it was under the porticos of temples, that the Egyptians generally represented their astronomical subjects; as if they wished to command, at the same time, a veneration for religion, and a love of the sciences.

The saloon, which succeeds to the portico, is supported by six columns, whose capitals display four figures of Isis, with the ears of a cat. It is a square of twenty-four paces. The second apartment is ten paces long, and twenty-four in breadth; the third is of the same dimensions. The *aditum*, which succeeds, is twenty paces in length, and six in breadth. It is situated between two other apartments, placed on each side. It may be presumed, that a corridor, running behind it, isolates it also in that direction. In the second saloon, to the right and left, are two stair-cases, which lead to the terrace of the temple; they consist of steps, two inches in height, and twenty in length. The compartments of the walls are decorated with pictures, containing a great number of female figures.

There is a small temple on the terrace of the great one, the columns of which resemble those of the portico; they are ten feet in height. This temple forms a square of nine feet; and is the portico of a chapel, of which there are no other traces. In the inner-court of the temple is an apartment, which is adorned with another zodiac; it is circular, and occupies one entire half of the ceiling, the apartment itself appearing to be altogether consecrated to astronomy: it is separated from another astronomical picture by a female figure. It is to be remarked, at Dendera, that all the front figures are perfectly well executed; while in every other place they are but indifferent, though the profiles are generally full of grace.

Behind the great temple there is another, which appears also to be consecrated to Isis. It is a square structure, and each angle measures seventeen paces on the outside. It is divided into two apartments. The first is fourteen paces in length, and four in breadth. Three gates open into this apartment, and those on the sides lead into the corridors which isolate the *aditum*; their length is ten paces, and their breadth five feet; through their whole extent they are decorated with pictures. The *aditum* is ten paces in length, and six broad. There are more windows in the temples of Dendera than in those which are situated more to the south. There are two spiracles at least in every apartment, and on each of them a disk is sculptured, scattering its rays around.

The Typhonium of Dendera is situated to the right of the gate which leads to the great temple. It is a square of thirty-four paces, and composed of three apartments. The *aditum* is isolated by two corridors, entirely filled up. The subjects of the pictures are nearly the same as at Edfou, and appear to present an history of the birth of Harpocrates, and of the precautions which he employed to save himself from the pursuits of Typhon. In front, and fifty paces to the north of the gate, are the ruins of a temple, which has never been finished. It had four columns in front, and five on each side: the capitals are scarcely made out and seem to have been the trial of a new kind of ornament, attempted by the Egyptians. To the south, and about nine hundred paces from the great temple, are the ruins of a gate, which may have been that of the temple of Athos, the Venus of the Greeks, who is known to have been worshipped at Dendera. The ruins of the city, consisting of vast heaps of burned bricks, of shattered vases, and a great quantity of porphyry fragments occupy a space of one thousand eight hundred paces square.

"All the specimens of architecture," says Denon, "that I had hitherto seen, served but to fix my admiration here. I thought myself in the sanctuary of the arts and sciences. How many periods presented themselves to my imagination, at the sight of such an edifice as the temple! how many ages were requisite to bring a juvenile nation to such a degree of perfection and sublimity in the arts! and how many more of oblivion, to cause these mighty productions to be forgotten, and to reduce the human race to the state of nature in which I now found them on this soil, once so famous! Never was there a place which concentrated in a narrower compass the memorial of a progressive havoc of ages. What continued power, what riches, what abundance, what superfluity of means, must a government possess, which could erect such an edifice, and find within itself artists capable of conceiving and

executing the design, of decorating and enriching it with every thing that attracts the eye and understanding!"

Of the city of Antæopolis nothing remains, except the portico of a considerable temple, the ruins of a quay, and those of a small temple. The portico is composed of eighteen columns, of which six are in front, and three in depth. Its length is forty-five paces, and its breadth eighteen. The capitals represent the head of the palm-tree, but their proportions are much less elegant than that of the capitals of Philoë. The workmanship was not so elegant as that of the two preceding temples, which may rather be attributed to the calcareous stone employed in building it. At ninety paces from the portico to the south, and in a line with the gate, is a chapel, formed of a single stone, being chisselled in a block of seven feet and a half square. As this chapel must have been placed in the aditum, it necessarily gives the length of the temple. At a league to the south-east, and in the Arabian Mountain, is a vast quarry, whence the stone must have been brought, which was employed in the construction of the town. It is four hundred feet in breadth, and six hundred in length. On the upper part of it there are tracings, which explain the manner in which the stone was cut.

To the north of these quarries are the sepulchral grottos of the city, which are formed with greater care than those in the vicinity of Thebes. The Egyptians have imitated their arched roofs, wherever it was in their power. The grottos are vaulted; and an arched door opens into an apartment, on two sides of which are niches, containing figures of Death.

The Lybian chain of mountains, at the foot of which Siout stands, contains such a number of tombs, that this town probably occupies the site of some great city. The rocks are excavated into a vast number of tombs, of different dimensions, and decorated with more or less magnificence.

"I inspected," says Denon, "one of the most considerable of these tombs. A kind of peristyle, which formed the entrance, was cut out, as well as all the rest, from the solid rock, without any masonry; the different parts have been repaired with a facing of stucco, which is still in very good preservation. The first chamber has no other ornament than a torus, which borders a flat arch; but from thence to the bottom of the innermost chamber all the walls are covered with hieroglyphics, and the ceilings with painted and sculptured ornaments: on the smooth surface of the doors are large figures, which are repeated on the solid jambs; there are no traces of hinges, or any other method of closing the entrance; the upper part of the door is larger than the lower; the innermost chamber is beyond the third door, and in it the principal sarcophagus war doubtlessly situated: the rock is excavated in every direction: all the inner porches of these grottos are covered with hieroglyphics, which would require months to read them, even if the language were understood; and it would take years to copy them. All the elegancies of ornament, which the Greeks have employed in their architecture, all the undulating lines, the scrolls, and other peculiarities, are here executed with taste and exquisite delicacy. If one of these excavations were a single operation, as the uniform regularity of the plan would seem to indicate, it must have been an immense labour to construct a tomb; but such a one, when finished, would serve for the sepulture of a whole family. I found one of these caves, with a single saloon," continues our author, "in which were an innumerable quantity of graves cut in the rock, in regular order: they had been violated, in order to procure the mummies; and I found several fragments of their contents, such as linen, hands, feet, and loose bones."

Besides these principal grottos, there is such a number of smaller excavations, that the whole rock is cavernous, and causes the step of the traveller to reverberate. Farther to the south are remains of large quarries, the cavities of which are supported by pilasters. Some of these quarries have been the abode of hermits, as appears from several small niches, stucco facings, some red paintings, representing crosses, and some inscriptions, which are still visible in these miserable cells.

The plains that surround Siout are exceedingly remarkable for their abundant fertility. The orchards yield a fine variety of fruit, and the farinaceous plants are to be admired for their rapid growth and surprising produce.

At the foot of the rocks of Mokatam, in a strait between two deserts, are the ruins of Antinöe. This city was built by Adrian, on the site of the ancient Besa, in honour of his favourite Antinous, who sacrificed his own life in this place, to save that of his sovereign. From the Nile there appears one of the city-gates, resembling a triumphal arch: it is decorated with eight pillars, of the Corinthian order, between which are three arches, arising from a buttress, ornamented with pilasters: this groupe of ruins is the most considerable of all that now remains of Antinöe. From this point there was formerly a street, passing in a straight line across the town, to the opposite gate: both sides of this street have been adorned with a colonnade of Doric pillars, for the purpose of affording a shady walk. There are still visible some of the shafts and a few capitals, very much worn, on account of the friable nature of the stone used in their construction.

Near the coast of Alexandria, and towards the eastern extremity of the crescent formed by the new port, are two obelisks, called Cleopatra's Needles: one of them, which still retains its original position, is about fifty-six feet in height; but the other is thrown from its base, and almost

buried in the sand; they are seven feet square at the base, and are hewn out of a single block of granite, and completely covered with hieroglyphics.

To the south-west of the walls of Alexandria, on a gentle eminence, is situated that lofty column called Pompey's Pillar: it is placed on a sur-base, which has been undercut, leaving only a newel of four feet six inches square for its support. This newel, apparently of a silicious substance, is formed of the fragment of an Egyptian monument, and has itself been brought to that place, the hieroglyphics sculptured upon it being reversed. On examining the part cut away below the pedestal, it is easy to discover that an equal pressure has occasioned the column to incline about four feet, and that it is undoubtedly owing to there being a deep rent in the lower part of the column, of about fifteen feet in length. The column is of the Corinthian order, and is divided into four parts; the pedestal, base, shaft, and capital. From there being on the capital a sunk circle, it would appear that there has formerly been a pedestal, on which probably was placed the statue of the hero to whose memory the column was erected.

The pedestal of this column is four feet three lines in height; the base five feet six inches; the shaft sixty-three feet one inch, three lines; the capital nine feet ten inches, six lines. The diameter of the column is eight feet four inches at the lower part, and seven feet two inches, eight lines, near the astragal. All the parts of the column are of granite. Though, on account of its capital, this column may be considered as of the Corinthian order, yet its proportions are not Greek; the shaft approaches nearer to the Ionic. It is also evident, that the different parts of which it consists are productions of different ages. The shaft, which is of an admirable form, and, except on the side of the desert, where it has suffered from the sand, of a fine polish, appears to have been the work of the Greeks, probably under the Ptolemies; the other parts are evidently inferior. The profiles are nearly similar to those of the lower empire of the Romans. The capital is but rudely cut; the pedestal is exceedingly low, and even the colour of its granite is different from that of the granite of the shaft: it is reasonable, therefore, to believe, that the shaft was produced in an age prior to that of the other parts, and that it has been re-erected on some extraordinary occasion. It is probably the largest column of a single block in the world; and it is much to be regretted that the inscription, which was on one side of the pedestal, is not legible.

"Nothing," says an intelligent writer, "can equal the majesty of this monument: seen from a distance, it overtops the town, and serves as a signal for vessels; and, on nearer approach, it produces an astonishment mingled with awe. One can never be tired with admiring the beauty of the capital, the length of the shaft, and the extraordinary simplicity of the pedestal; although the latter has been rather damaged by the instruments of travellers, who were anxious to possess a relic of this antiquity; and one of the volutes of the column was immaturely brought down, in the year 1781, by a prank of some English captains, which is thus related by Mr. Irwin:—

"These jolly sons of Neptune had been pushing about the can, on board one of the ships in the harbour, until a strange freak entered into one of their heads. The eccentricity of the thought occasioned it immediately to be adopted; and its apparent impossibility was but a spur for the putting it into execution. The boat was ordered, and, with proper implements for the attempt, these enterprising heroes pushed ashore, to drink a bowl of punch on the top of Pompey's Pillar. At the spot they arrived; and many contrivances were proposed to accomplish the desired point; but their labour was vain, and they began to despair of success, when the genius who struck out the frolic happily suggested the means of perform' it. A man was dispatched to the city for a paper kite. The inhabitants were by this time apprised of what was going forward, and flocked in crowds to be witnesses of the address and boldness of the English. The governor of Alexandria was told, that these seamen were about to pull down Pompey's Pillar; but, whether he gave them credit for their respect to the Roman warrior, or to the Turkish government, he left them to themselves, and politely answered, that the English were too great patriots to injure the remains of Pompey. The kite was brought, and flown so directly over the pillar, that, when it fell on the other side, the string lodged upon the capital. The chief obstacle was now overcome. A two-inch rope was tied to one end of the string, and drawn over the pillar, by the end to which the kite was affixed. By this rope one of the seamen ascended to the top; and in less than an hour a kind of shroud was constructed, by which the whole company went up, and drank their punch, amid the shouts of the astonished multitude. To the eye below, the capital of the pillar does not appear capable of holding more than one man upon it; but our seamen found it could contain no less than eight persons very conveniently. It is astonishing, however, that no accident befel these madcaps in a situation so elevated, that would have turned a land-man giddy in his sober senses. The only detriment which the pillar received was the loss of the volute before mentioned, which came down with a thundering sound, and was carried to England by one of the captains, as a present to a lady, who commissioned him for a piece of the pillar. The discovery which they made amply compensated for this mischief: as, without their evidence, the world would not have known at this hour that there was originally a statue on this pillar, one foot and ankle of

which are still remaining. The statue must have been of a gigantic size, to have appeared of a man's proportion at so great a height."

There are circumstances in this story which might give it an air of fiction, were it not demonstrated beyond all doubt. Besides the testimonies of many eye-witnesses, the adventurers themselves have left a token of the fact, by the initials of their names, which are very legible in black paint, just beneath the capital.

Cities, Towns, &c.] GRAND CAIRO, the capital of Egypt, is situated about a mile from the eastern bank of the river, in thirty degrees fifteen minutes of north latitude, and in thirty-two degrees twelve minutes of east longitude from London. The city of Grand Cairo may be said to consist of three towns, namely, Old Cairo, New Cairo, or Cairo properly so called, and the port of Boulac.

Old Cairo is about half a league distant from Boulac, and is the port for such boats as come down from Upper Egypt. Here, in the midst of Mahometan mosques, are a Catholic church and convent, and a Jew's synagogue: the Copts have likewise a grotto, or low chapel, which, according to tradition, is said to have been inhabited by the Virgin Mary, when she fled with her infant Saviour into Egypt.

Old Cairo is at present reduced to a very small compass, being only about two miles in circumference. It is the port for the boats that come from Upper Egypt, and some of the beys have houses there, to which they retire at the rising of the Nile. The Copts have twelve churches and a convent, chiefly in one quarter of the town, and pretend that the Holy Family once lodged in a cave, in the church dedicated to St. Sergius. Some of these churches are elegantly adorned with columns in front, and the altars are highly decorated.

In this city the Jews have a synagogue, said to have been built, about sixteen hundred years ago, in the same form it now retains. On this very spot they pretend the Prophet Jeremiah usually read the law; and they have a manuscript of the Bible written by Ezra, which is deemed so sacred, that none are allowed to touch it. It is deposited in a niche in the wall, before which a curtain is drawn, and lamps kept continually burning. To the southward of Old Cairo is the great mosque of Atten-Ennaby. For this mosque the Mahometans have a great veneration, from the tradition that their first caliph, Omar, going to the place where it was afterwards founded to his honour, left the print of his foot in a piece of marble.

New Cairo, or Cairo properly so called, lies about a mile from the river Nile, and is about seven miles in circumference. Sonnini says, to suppose that Cairo resembles the great cities of Europe, would be to form a very erroneous idea; it is, however, considered by the natives as the most magnificent place under the canopy of heaven, and is emphatically styled "the matchless city, the mother of the world." He adds, it is but justice to remark, that the extreme narrowness of the streets, which to a stranger must appear contemptible, is indispensably necessary, to shield the inhabitants from the meridian sun.

A large canal, that communicates with the Nile a little above Old Cairo, crosses the middle of the city, from the west to the north-east. Over it are thrown several bridges, and these are embellished on each side with two houses. According to the Arabic historians, the bed of this canal is paved with marble; but it is at present covered with a thick strata of mud.

When the Nile is at its height, many parts of the town resemble lakes, and are covered with handsome boats and barges, filled with persons of the first distinction, who spend their evenings on the water in company with their females. Concerts of music and fire-works enliven the scene; but when the waters retire, this pleasing scene is much altered. Nothing appears at first but mud. But, in a short time, the green corn springs up, and afterwards the harvest waves where, a few months before, the boats were sailing.

The streets are continually crowded with numbers of men of various nations, being inhabited by Turks, Mamelukes, Greeks, Syrians, Arabs, Copts, Moors, Jews, and a few Europeans: the population is estimated at three hundred thousand persons.

The Mamelukes, whose number is estimated at nearly twelve thousand, are military slaves, imported from Circassia and Mingrelia; besides others, who are taken captive in battle, or brought to Egypt by private merchants on speculation: these persons are carefully instructed in every exercise of strength or agility, and usually repay the kindness of their masters with the warmest gratitude and most valiant services. Those who have a genius for literature, are taught to read and write, but the majority of them are deficient in these particulars.

The inferior Mamelukes constantly wear the military dress, which is distinguished from that of other Mahometan citizens by a pair of large crimson drawers, of thick Venetian cloth, attached to their slippers of red leather; and a greenish cap, of a peculiar form, fancifully decorated with a turban. Their usual arms are a pair of pistols, a dagger, and a sabre; but, when engaged in battle, they are furnished with a brace of large horse-pistols and a battle-axe; they also wear an open helmet, and a suit of armour, consisting of interwoven links of steel, under their dress. Their horses are of the finest Arabian breed, and are frequently bought at the rate of one hundred and fifty or two hundred pounds sterling.

The Mamelukes being trained from their infancy to military evolutions, display in them uncommon skill. The javelin, aimed with precision, is never thrown but to

strike the mark." "The well-tempered blade of Damascus," says Sonnini, "was by them wielded with astonishing dexterity, and in their hands proved a most dreadful weapon." He often observed them try these famous sabres in the following manner:—A large cushion, stuffed with feathers, and materials equally soft and flexible, was placed about the height of a man, without any support, and in such a manner that the slightest touch would bring it to the ground, when the sword that divided it by a single stroke gave the requisite proof of its excellence.

The same author observes, "the Mamelukes are a brave and warlike race of men; the ardent ebullition of their youth would have made them a formidable body, had they possessed any knowledge of European tactics, or any idea of engaging in regular ranks. Their cavalry certainly derives a great advantage from the peculiar excellence of their horses, and the extraordinary skill of the riders. All their movements, whether of approach, retreat, or change of disposition, are made with the rapidity of lightning; and, when the velocity of their career seems to have separated them, they are in a moment again collected.

"As the Mamelukes are supplied with provisions by their masters, they have no stipulated pay; yet, from presents, rewards, and extortions, they contrive to raise a sufficient supply of money, either for avarice or debauchery."

The houses of Cairo have a very mean appearance, and are badly constructed; the smaller ones are crowded with a wretched and numerous mixture of inhabitants; those of the opulent are commonly surrounded by a wall, and are generally built of three different materials, brick, wood, and stone; but they have no appearance of regular architecture, nor are they enlivened by any exterior decoration; the interior, however, is not destitute of convenience, nor, indeed, of luxury; they are adorned with handsome marble baths and voluptuous vapour-stoves, with Mosaic saloons, in the middle of which are basins and fountains of water; large divans, composed of tufted carpets; raised beds, covered with rich stuffs, and surrounded with magnificent cushions: these divans generally fill three sides of each room. The windows, when there are any, never open; and the day-light which they admit is darkened by coloured glasses and very close lattice-work, as the light generally comes in through a dome in the centre of the ceiling; for the Mussulmen have no great occasion for light, and therefore take very little pains to procure it in their houses, all their customs seeming to invite to repose. The walls, flanked with fine towers, by which the city was formerly surrounded, have been greatly dilapidated by the destructive hand of barbarism; nor is Cairo now defended by any fortifications. Sonnini observed two gates, of the most simple and noble architecture. One of these is called Babel Nasr, or the Gate of Victory; and the other is denominated Babel Foutouh, or the Gate of Passage, because it was on this side that Sultan Selim entered the city by a breach. The suburbs of Cairo contain many fine buildings towards the east, among which are the mausolea of the ancient Egyptian sultans; but most of them are now falling to decay.

For the reception of wholesale goods there are spacious, clean, and commodious warehouses; and retail dealers are accommodated with extensive buildings, for their various commodities, in every part of the city. Each trade, however, has its particular and allotted division.

The markets of Cairo afford so great a profusion of the necessaries of life, that all the delicacies of the table may be there procured at a very reasonable rate.

The mosques in New Cairo are computed at more than three hundred: that called Jamma el Hazer is the most magnificent, being ornamented with marble pillars and Persian carpets. A number of persons, distinguished for their knowledge of literal Arabic, and a profound skill in theology, are supported by its revenues, under a sheik, who is an ecclesiastic of the highest order. It is enriched with a large collection of manuscripts, and lectures are read on various subjects. The other mosques that are most celebrated are that of Ghouri el Hassenein, and that of Mohammed Bey Abudhahab. The latter is constructed of the richest materials, and is accounted the chef d'œuvre of eastern magnificence.

The castle of Cairo is seated on a rocky eminence, and is said to have been built by Saladin: but it is so commanded by the hill Tabel Mochattham, to the east, as to be incapable of withstanding an attack, since the invention of cannon. The eastern entrance is called the Gate of the Janissaries, and the western one, the Gate of the Arabs. The castle is about a mile in circumference; but it is an irregular building, and the principal part of it is in a very ruinous condition. At the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures of Mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving, embroidering, and preparing hangings and coverings, great quantities of which are annually sent to Mecca by the caravan.

The eastern part of this castle stands on much higher ground than the rest, and near a grand saloon, called Joseph's Hall, from which there is a delightful prospect of Cairo, the pyramids, and all the neighbouring country. This was probably a terrace to the saloon, which is open on every side, except to the south, and is adorned with large and beautiful columns of red granite, some of which have capitals of the Corinthian order; some are only marked out in lines, like leaves, and many are only plain stones, that do not much resemble capitals. In the west

part of the castle is the prison, in which the common people say Joseph was confined.

A small garrison is kept here; and the men are lodged in large towers, which form an inclosure, or court, on the south side of which are the basha's apartments. Near to these apartments are those of the great divan, where the beys assemble three times a week, under the kiaja, or prime minister of the basha; and the latter sometimes sits in a room behind, that has a communication with some lattice-windows. A stranger may enter with the consul's interpreter; and, being afterwards conducted to the basha's coffee-room, will be entertained with sweetmeats and coffee. Here are to be seen several leather shields, each almost an inch thick, with a javelin sticking in them, with which, it is said, they were pierced by one of the sultans, and are kept as monuments of his strength. The officers under the basha have also noble apartments here.

Near the above-mentioned apartments is the mint, which is the only one for Egypt: here they coin their gold, and small pieces of iron, washed over with silver; which last are of the value of three farthings, and are called medines.

In this castle there is a well, much admired on account of its great depth, which is two hundred and forty-four feet; but it has two shafts that are not perpendicular, above one another; the first is one hundred and forty-eight feet long, and the other one hundred and sixteen feet. It is generally called Joseph's Well, from a grand visir, who, about seven hundred years ago, had the care of the work under Sultan Mahomet; but the Arabs call it the Snail Well, because it descends in a spiral line. They draw the water up by means of a double wheel and a double range of earthen jars. The oxen employed to turn the wheel go up the first shaft, by a path which is cut in the rock, quite round the well, from top to bottom

There are grottos, in many stories, up the side of the rock upon which this castle is built; but several of them are now inaccessible, though there is a path to others by a narrow terrace. These are generally small rooms, eight or ten feet square. Towards the brow of the hill, on the top, are two rooms, with apertures on the top to admit the light; over which is an eminence, to which the great people often go, to enjoy one of the finest prospects in Egypt, since it commands a view of Cairo, and all the country as far as the eye can reach. Over the south cliff is a mosque, the whole inside of which is painted with flowers, on a red ground: here was interred the Sheik Duise, whose name is given both to the hill and the mosque: several of the sheik's children, and some of the sons of bashas, are likewise buried near it.

To the south of the castle there is a kind of ancient suburb, called Caraffa; at the entrance are several magnificent tombs, covered with domes, and said to be the grand sepulchres of some Egyptian kings. The people in general suppose that they are the monuments of the caliphs, the relations of Mahomet, who conquered this country; and such is their veneration for them, that they oblige Christians and Jews to alight from their asses and camels, to pay them respect, when they pass this way. On an eminence, adjoining to Caraffa, is the great mosque of El Iman Shafee, anciently one of the four doctors of the law, who is held in great veneration among them, and whose sepulchre is there: it is called Le Salchiah, from a title they gave Saladin, who built it, together with a college and hospital.

The city of Cairo is furnished with several large and sumptuous reservoirs, in different parts, where the water is given to the inhabitants; there are likewise many elegant and convenient baths, which are resorted to by great numbers of people, some of whom visit them on a religious account, to purify themselves; while others go to them as places of refreshment and diversion: the latter are chiefly women, who, once or twice a week, spend most of the day in them, and are glad of such a pretence, to be released from their confinement. People of the first rank have bagnios in their own houses, to prevent intermixing with their inferiors. Coffee-houses are also numerous, where the inhabitants devote the greatest part of the day to smoking and conversation.

In Cairo are likewise many khans, called okelas. These are indifferent buildings round a court, and are commonly appropriated to the use of merchants, of particular countries, for the sale of their respective commodities. There is one for those of Nubia, and the black slaves and goods they bring with them; and another for white slaves from Georgia.

The commerce of Cairo, previous to the discovery of a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, was very extensive, but since that period it has gradually declined, and is at present restricted to the following articles, viz. coffee, odours, drugs, and gums, from Yemen; muslins, and various articles of cotton manufacture, from Surat; shawls, from Cassimere; and a portion of spices from Ceylon. It may still, however, be regarded as the metropolis of the trade of Eastern Africa, as Tripoli is of the West. Slaves are brought from Abyssinia, by way of Jidda and Mecca; caravans frequently trade to Sennaar, Dar Fur, and Fezzan; from whence they bring gold-dust, ivory, ostrich-feathers, gums, drugs, &c. and there is another occasional caravan from Morocco, that employs five thousand camels, for the express purpose of merchandise. Part of these pass on to Mecca, and part remain, to await the return of the pilgrims; while the merchants transact their own business. The other caravans are merely for the carriage of goods; and their camels are annually supplied by the Arabs of the Desert.

There is a considerable manufacture of linen cloth, made of the fine Egyptian flax; a second for sal-ammoniac, which is of an excellent quality; and others for glass lamps, saltpetre, gunpowder, and coloured leather, for home-consumption. This last species of merchandise is brought to Cairo by the caravans of Nubia. Two of them sometimes arrive in the course of the year, and the slaves intended for sale may be estimated at between one thousand five hundred and two thousand. During Sonnini's residence at Cairo, their price rose according to the extent of the importation; but the handsomest slave, either male or female, might be purchased for about twelve pounds sterling.

The European merchants generally dedicate their time in the morning to business, and the remainder of the day to such amusements as the place affords. They frequently ride out to the fields and gardens north of the city, where little danger is to be apprehended; they have a relaxation from business both on the Christian and Jewish sabbath, as the Jews transact a great part of their affairs. When the Nile is high, and little business can be done, they generally spend their time in their houses at Old Cairo and Giza.

The caravan, which sets out from Cairo once a year, is one of the most splendid and numerous cavalcades in all the East; and as every Mussulman is under a religious injunction of making, at least once in his life, a pilgrimage to Mecca, the number of those which compose the caravan seldom amounts to less than forty thousand, but it is much greater in times of peace; for it not only consists of pilgrims, but of merchants, who thus unite themselves for defence against the attacks of the wandering Arabs. These caravans join to their devotions a considerable trade, and return home laden with the richest goods from Persia and India, which come to Geddo by the Red Sea, and are thence conveyed to Mecca; and this, united with the richness of the presents carried there, renders it necessary that they should be attended by a sufficient guard. With this view, a draft is always made of the best troops in Egypt to escort them: at the head of which is the Emir Hadji, or the Prince of the Pilgrims, who has the power of life and death over the whole caravan. The ceremony of setting out on this expedition from Cairo is very magnificent: the camels are all ornamented; but those which are made choice of to carry the presents to Mecca are most magnificently adorned, especially that which carries the great pavilion, called Mahmel, or covering of Mahomet and Abraham's tomb, which is made in the shape of a pyramid, with a square base, richly embroidered with gold, on a green and red ground; the view of the house at Mecca being embroidered upon it, with a portico around it. This camel is covered with a rich carpet, that comes down to his feet, so that nothing is seen of him but his head, neck, and crupper, which are richly ornamented. He is said to be bred for that purpose; and, after he has performed that office, he is esteemed sacred, and never more put to any use.

The pilgrims find but little water in their journey, and that exceeding bad; but what incommodes them most are the hot winds, which frequently suffocate them; and not less than six thousand, belonging to the caravan of Cairo, have been known to perish by one misfortune or another, during their journey; while those who return alive are so altered and emaciated, that their friends scarcely know them; notwithstanding which, there is not a year but many women and children perform this pilgrimage.

Their encampments are so regulated, that the caravan must arrive at Mecca in thirty-eight days; and the departure of it is fixed to the twenty-seventh day of the moon which follows the Mahometan festival called the Rhamadan. It is joined at Beddar, six days' journey from Mecca, by the caravan from Damascus; after which they march jointly to Mecca, and are joined in the way by the caravans from other parts, who then proceed together to pay their devotions at Mount Ararat; from whence they march on to Mecca, where the Emir Hadji puts up the new grand pavilion. The stay of the caravan is confined to twelve days, in which time a great and rich traffic is carried on between the pilgrims and their followers from all parts; and then the Emir Hadji gives his signal for departure. On their return to Cairo the greatest festivities are made, and each person is honoured with the title of hadji, or pilgrim, before his own name. Notwithstanding the great numbers which compose the caravans, there have been instances of their being attacked, plundered, and carried into captivity, by the Arabian freebooters.

Boulac is a port situated about a mile and a half from Grand Cairo, and is the place where all the merchandise coming from Damietta and Alexandria is landed. It contains several grand baths and extensive okals. These okals are square buildings, including a large court, with a portico, over which is a winding gallery. The ground floor is divided into spacious magazines, and the rooms above have neither furniture nor ornaments. Here strangers live, and deposit their wares. The okals may be said to be the only inns in Egypt; but all strangers must provide their own furniture and food, it being impossible to procure a dinner ready dressed on any consideration. Thousands of vessels, of various forms and sizes, may be seen riding at anchor in this port, from the fronts of the houses. The opulent resort to this place, to enjoy the cooling breezes from the Nile, and the delightful prospect of the variegated landscapes which its banks present.

Alexandria was built by Alexander the Great, after

his return from consulting the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, three hundred years before the birth of Christ. This city is styled, by the Turks, Scanderoon, as, among them, Alexander is called Scander. It was once an opulent and elegant city, seated near the most westerly branch of the Nile, where the sea forms a most spacious haven, resembling a crescent, in thirty-three degrees eleven minutes of north latitude, and in thirty degrees thirty-nine minutes of east longitude.

Travellers inform us, that the port of Alexandria was formed by the Isle of Pharos, which extended across the mouth of the bay, and, towards the west end, was joined to the continent by a causeway and two bridges, ninety paces in length. On a rock, encompassed by the sea, at the east end of the island, was the ancient Pharos, or light-house, so famous in antiquity; and on the place where it stood is a castle, called Pharillon.

The walls round the outside of the old city are beautifully built of hewn stone, strengthened by semicircular towers, twenty feet in diameter, and about one hundred and thirty feet distant from each other. At each of them are steps, to ascend up to the battlements, there being on the top of the walls a walk, built on arches. The inner walls, which appear to be built in the middle ages, are much stronger and higher than the others, and are defended by large towers, which are also very high.

A fourth part of the city was taken up by the palace, with the buildings belonging to it, and within it was the Museum, or academy, and a burial-place of the kings, where the body of Alexander is said to have been deposited in a gold coffin; but, that being taken away, it was put into one of glass.

The street, which extended the whole length of the city, is said to have been one hundred feet wide, and had certainly many magnificent buildings, as appears from the granite columns still remaining in several places. Among these was the Gymnasium, or public school, to which were porticos that extended above half a quarter of a mile.

But the materials of the old city have been carried away to build the new, so that there are at present only a few houses, some mosques, and three convents within the old walls: among the mosques is one called the mosque of one thousand and one pillars. Dr. Pococke observes, that it has four rows of pillars to the south and west, and one row on the other sides. This, it is said, was a church dedicated to St. Mark, at which the patriarch resided, it being near the gate without which the evangelist is said to have suffered martyrdom. There is another great mosque, named St. Athanasius, which was also doubtlessly a Christian church. The Greeks, Latins, and Copts, have each a monastery in the old city.

The new city, or rather town, of Alexandria, now called Scanderoon, is chiefly erected on the sea-shore. The houses have terraced roofs; the holes that serve as windows are blocked up, in a great degree, by a wooden lattice, projecting in different forms, and so close that it is hardly possible for the light to enter. It is through this symmetrical, and sometimes not inelegant, arrangement of bars, that the fair sex can see what is passing out of doors without being seen. It is in this kind of everlasting cloister that beauty, far from being paid that homage which nature intended it should receive from every heart of sensibility, experiences nothing but contempt and outrage; it is there, in short, that one portion of mankind, taking advantage of the odious right of the strongest, keeps in a humiliating state of slavery the other portion, whose charms would alone be capable of softening both the rugged nature of the soil, and the ferocity of the possessors.

The houses at present occupy but a small portion of Alexandria, the remainder consisting of extensive gardens and waste grounds, that are entirely covered with ruins. From the former of these the natives are well supplied with fruit and vegetables; and from the latter fragments of sculpture, ancient coins, and pieces of precious marble, are frequently dug by the Egyptian labourers, or discovered to the passenger by successive showers of rain.

The houses of the European consuls and merchants are all erected near each other to the east of the city, and close to the sea-shore, where the inhabitants usually associate with each other, and retain all the customs of Europe, without insult or disturbance; as from Mr. Browne's observation of the natives, he confesses he is led to believe that, when any stranger has experienced uncivil treatment, it was in effect the result of his own imprudence; and, notwithstanding the heavy charges that are commonly brought against the Egyptians by historians, respecting their traffic with the Franks, or Europeans, he ventures to affirm, that the natives are as frequently duped by the European merchants, as the latter by the Egyptian factors, whom they are necessitated to employ. The command of the fort, and the military who are stationed in the city, are committed to the hands of a sardar, who is either a cashef, or an inferior officer of the beys; but the internal government is vested in the citizens.

The present enclosure of Alexandria consists of solid walls, and a hundred vaulted towers, the circumference of which is only six miles, whereas the ancient city, according to the best authorities, was nearly twenty-four miles round. The architecture is evidently in the manner of the Arabs; columns, and other fragments of antique monuments, have been employed in their construction, and several inscriptions on the towers, in Arabic and Kuphic characters, fully substantiate the nature of their origin.

The banks of the canal near Alexandria are enlivened

by a few trees and shrubs, and in some places they are clothed with occasional patches of verdure, whither a number of small birds usually resort, among which Sonnini remarked the fig-pecker, the sky-lark, and an abundance of sparrows. Those of the former descriptions are only birds of passage at Alexandria; but the sparrows, like those of Europe, are equally remarkable for effrontery, familiarity, and voracity, seemingly determined to partake, at all events, of the dwellings and provisions of the natives. Exclusive of a few fields, where barley is sown, and where artichokes and other vegetables are cultivated, the adjacent country presents nothing to the spectator but rocks, sands, and general sterility. The cultivation was formerly much larger, and might have been still extended with the greatest facility by the Alexandrians; but that ignorant and inactive race, who made no effort to preserve the only water that was potable, could not be expected to make any exertion to procure to themselves either comfort or abundance.

During his residence at Alexandria, Sonnini lodged at the French factory, which he describes as a quadrangular building, situated at the head of the new port, and enclosing a large court-yard, round which are the warehouses, under arcades: the latter are supported by fragments of pillars, taken from the ruins of the ancient city. Several are of granite, and one is of porphyry. In the midst of the yard is a statue of white stone, representing a woman, with a child by her side; the sculpture is tolerably good, and the drapery in particular is well executed; but it has received many injuries from the bales of merchandise that are continually tossing about, and sometimes fall upon it with such force as to mutilate it. The apartments are built over the warehouses; consequently the windows are at a considerable height from the ground. The only avenue to this spacious enclosure is shut up by a single gate, of great solidity; and, in times of tumult, bales of goods are actually piled up against it, as a farther security. If, however, the insurrection be not easily appeased, and the least fear is entertained of the populace breaking in, all the merchants contrive to slip from the windows in the course of the night, and to take refuge on board of some vessel in the harbour.

Sonnini had one day an opportunity of witnessing the extreme terror with which the bare idea of an Alexandrian riot filled the minds of the Gallic merchants. A person happening to say, that an Egyptian was slain by a native of Europe, the gates of the factory were hastily shut, bales of goods ordered to be moved, in order to sustain the expected shock, and all the inmates of the factory were preparing to escape to the harbour, by dropping from the windows, when they were happily informed, that it was one Mahometan who had killed another.

Having heard of a curious antique monument, that was in a mosque, without the walls of the city, Sonnini expressed a wish to see it; but, on the intimation of his desire, he received the strongest assurances that it was impracticable. He, however, contrived to bribe the iman of the mosque; and, by his connivance, had an opportunity of examining the edifice and its contents at his leisure. The mosque itself is very ancient; the walls are encrusted with marbles of different colours, and some beautiful pieces of mosaic well repaid the trouble of our adventurer to satisfy his curiosity. The tomb, which was the more immediate object of his research, is probably one of the finest pieces of antiquity in Egypt. It is very large, and would be an oblong square, were not one of its sides rounded off in the manner of a bathing-tub. It is formed of one piece of black and spotted marble, elegantly diversified with green, yellow, and red, and is covered with so great a profusion of hieroglyphics, that a month would, in all probability, be too short a space to admit of their being faithfully copied. The sarcophagus is now used by the Mahometans as a reservoir, to contain water for their religious ablutions. Browne relates that, as the sarcophagus is exceedingly rich in hieroglyphics, and has received but little injury from the corroding tooth of time, a person, who had for some time farmed the customs, ventured, on his retiring from Egypt, to negociate for the sale of this precious relic to an European, who designed to present it to the Emperor of Germany. Previous to its embarkation, however, the secret was divulged, and the citizens insisted so loudly that the property of their mosque was inviolable, that the projected scheme was prudently given up, and the chest permitted to continue in its place, where, since that occurrence, it has been watched with such unremitting vigilance, that it is now extremely difficult for a traveller to obtain a sight of it: consequently Mr. Browne was precluded from presenting the public with so minute a description as would have been congenial with his own desires.

Sonnini observes, that a continual communication with the various nations of Europe had, in some degree, disposed the Alexandrians to more toleration, in some particulars, than the rest of the Egyptians: as, for instance, Europeans are by them permitted, as well as by the inhabitants of Rosetta, to wear their native dresses, while in every other part of Egypt they are forbidden to appear, without being clad in the oriental fashion. This indulgence, however, must by no means be abused; for if the Europeans venture to shew themselves in any number, or with any degree of parade, at a distance from the shipping, they instantly draw upon themselves the insults of the populace.

It is a remarkable fact, that, notwithstanding the stupid barbarism of a people, who have so shamefully neglected, and sometimes destroyed, the most precious relics of an-

tiquity, they still preserve a solemn respect for the name of the illustrious conqueror, whose superb monuments lie scattered around their habitations. "Thou art an *Alexander*," is, in their opinion, the highest encomium upon human valour; so true it is that, when the sculptured marble falls neglected to the dust, and the statue of bronze is confounded with the common ruins of a city, great actions will survive those perishable monuments, and claim an unabated admiration from the children of posterity. Mr. Browne observes, that as activity, perseverance, and acuteness, are among the leading characteristics of the Alexandrian merchants, they are admirably disposed for that perpetual hurry of business, which is attached to the transit of merchandise; and their attention to every department is so remarkable, that, if various causes occasionally operate to the stagnation of commerce, they are conscious that no portion of blame can be possibly attributed to themselves.

European merchandise is conveyed by water from Alexandria to Cairo, whence it is sent to all the different parts of Arabia, Upper Egypt, and Abyssinia. The small vessels used for this purpose, between Alexandria and Rosetta, are denominated germs; generally of about five or six tons burden. Their construction is tolerable; but, though they draw little water, they are frequently destroyed in a high wind, or swallowed up among the sands, and there perish, together with their crews and cargoes. During the increase of the Nile, these accidents are less frequent; but, when the river has retired to its bed, it is so extremely shallow at the mouth, that the Egyptian mariners never pass it without trembling.

With respect to their political concerns, the Alexandrians are rather disobedient and intractable towards the Mameluke governors, whose public orders are not unfrequently opposed; and the present beys are considered by the citizens as rebels against the authority of the Porte. A mutual jealousy naturally subsists between the parties, as the beys are anxious to subjugate the Alexandrians to the same yoke that is imposed on the rest of the Egyptians, and the citizens are equally zealous to preserve that imperfect autocracy, or independent power, which they have hitherto contrived to maintain by fertility of expedient, or occasional subterfuge.

The Arabic language is in general use at Alexandria; but such of the natives as have any commercial intercourse with Europeans speak Italian, which has considerable currency in all the ports of the Levant. The Moresco, or Lingua Franca, is also spoken. This is a mixture of bad Italian, Spanish, and Arabic. Sonnini observes, that there is not any place, at which a foreigner can so easily procure servants, who, if not of approved fidelity, have, at least, a facility of making themselves understood by those who are unacquainted with the Arabic.

ROSETTA is esteemed one of the most pleasant cities in Egypt, and, being refreshed by the winds which blow from the sea, is extremely healthy. It is called, by the Egyptians, Raschid, and is situated twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, in thirty-one degrees five minutes of north latitude, and in thirty-one degrees ten minutes of east longitude from London: it stands on the west side of the branch of the Nile, about four miles from its mouth. According to Leo Africanus, Rosetta owes its foundation to a governor of Egypt, under the caliphs. Its old walls announce that it was once larger than at present; and its former foundations may be discovered under the heaps of sand with which they are covered. Like Alexandria, its population is daily decreasing, though it is still considerable. The houses are, in general, better built than those of Alexandria; but they are so slight, that, were it not for the mildness of the climate, which destroys nothing, there would scarcely be a house in Rosetta. Each succeeding story projects farther into the street than that beneath it, so that the two sides finish by almost touching each other. Hence the streets are dark and melancholy. The houses that are built along the Nile have not this inconvenience: these principally belong to foreign merchants. The town is nearly two miles in length, but consists of only two or three long streets. I is defended by two castles, one on each side of the branch of the Nile, by which merchandise is brought hither from Cairo. The fine country of the Delta, on the other side of the Nile, and two beautiful islands a little below the town, afford a delightful prospect; and to the north the country is agreeably improved by pleasant gardens of citrons, oranges, lemons, and almost all kinds of fruits, and is variegated by groves of palm-trees, small lakes, and fields of rice, which latter, when ripe, make a very beautiful appearance.

Here is a castle, about two miles north of the town, on the west side of the river. It is a square building, with round towers at the four corners, having port-holes at the bottom of it, and some pieces of brass cannon. It is built of brick, cased with stone, and is said to have been erected about four hundred years ago. A little lower down, on the opposite side of the river, is a platform of guns; to the east of which are salt-lakes, where great quantities of salt are collected. A little nearer to the sea, from the above castle, is another, whose walls, ordnance, and garrison, are in a poor condition.

Somewhat below this second castle, the Nile is divided into two branches, one turning east, and the other west, and forming what is called a bogaz, or bar, in their mouth, which is known by the name of Canopic. This bar is very dangerous to pass over, especially when the sea is agitated by a northerly wind.

The population of Rosetta consists of natives, Franks,

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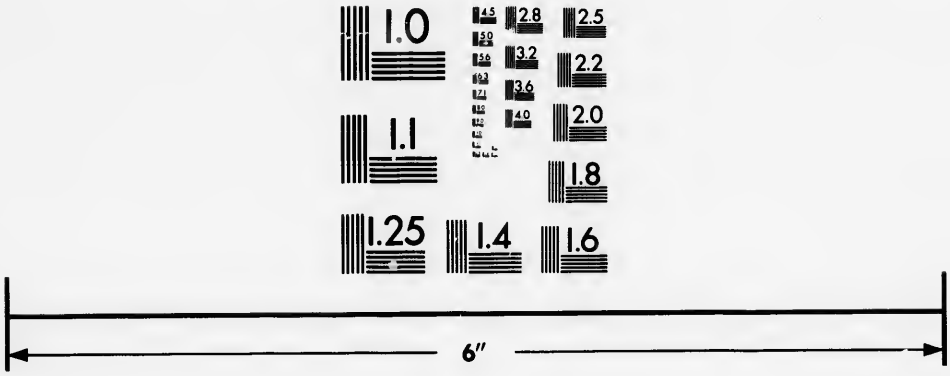

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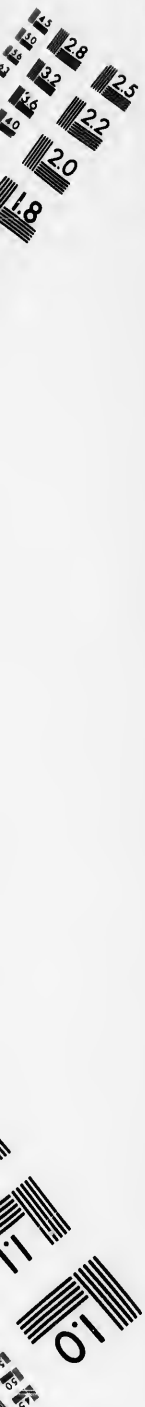
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and Greeks. The inhabitants have a manufactory of striped linens; but the chief business of the town is the transportation of merchandise between this place and Cairo, all European goods being brought hither from Alexandria by sea, and sent from hence, in boats, to Cairo. On this account, vice-consuls and factors are stationed here, to transact the business of each commercial nation.

In this town there are a great number of men, called Psylli, or serpent-eaters; this singular sect boasts a very ancient origin in Egypt: history mentions that many of them were in Egypt in the time of Cleopatra; for Octavius Cæsar, desirous that the captive queen should grace his triumph, commanded one of these psylli to suck the wound the asp had made. His efforts, however, were vain, the poison had pervaded the whole mass of blood, nor could the art of the psylli prevent her death. These men are said to possess the power of setting serpents at defiance, of charming them, causing the reptiles to follow them at command, and of curing their bites. This sect is likewise called Saadis, from the name of their founder, a saint highly venerated by the Egyptian Mussulmen. This Saadi, they say, had a wealthy uncle in Lybia, who sent him occasionally to fetch some wood from the desert. One day the lad, having cut the faggot, was greatly at a loss for something to tie it, till at length, after a fruitless search, he resolved to knot several serpents together, and accordingly bound up his faggot with this living cord. The uncle, equally surprised and charmed with the boy's acuteness, told him, that he was now adequate to the task of making his way in the world, as his knowledge was superior to that of his elders. The ingenious youth immediately took the hint, and began travelling over the country, charming serpents by his supernatural skill, till at length he had a great number of disciples, to whom he communicated his art. His tomb is in the neighbourhood of Damascus, and is filled with serpents and other venomous animals, among which, the Egyptians believe, a person may repose in perfect safety.

Such is the superstitious origin of this numerous sect in Egypt, each individual of which boldly affirms, that he inherits the skill of the founder. His festival is annually celebrated, in a manner analogous to the institution. The saadis march in procession through the streets, each holding a living serpent in his hand, which he bites and swallows piecemeal, with the most horrid contortions. Sonnini, who had not an opportunity of witnessing this singular festival, prevailed on one of the sect to indulge him with the exhibition at his own apartments.

On the appointed day, the saadi came, accompanied by his priest, who carried a large serpent in his bosom, which he was continually handling. Sonnini observed that the reptile's teeth had been drawn; however, it was very lively, and of a greenish copper colour.

The priest, after having recited a prayer, delivered the creature to the saadi, who seized it with a muscular hand; but, on its entwining itself round his arm, his countenance changed, his eyes rolled dreadfully, and he uttered the most piercing cries. He then bit the serpent in the head, and tore off a piece, which he instantly chewed and swallowed. At that moment his agitation increased to convulsion, his limbs writhed, his howlings redoubled, and his mouth, distended by the most shocking grimaces, was literally covered with foam, while he occasionally devoured fresh pieces of the animal, with all the marks of confirmed madness. Three men exerted themselves to hold him, but he violently dragged them round the room, throwing out his arms in every direction, and striking furiously against whatever stood in his reach. After some time the priest took the serpent from him, but he still bit his hands, and continued to rage with the fury of a maniac. The priest, however, at length, clasped him in his arms, put his hand gently upon his back, lifted him from the ground, and recited some prayers, when his agitations gradually subsided, and for a few moments he seemed totally exhausted.

"The Turks," says Sonnini, "who were present, were fully convinced of the reality of this religious frenzy; and, it must be confessed, that, whether reality or imposture, it was impossible to express the transports of madness in a more striking manner, or to exhibit a human being in a more terrific situation." In Egypt, the saadis are much respected, but among the Turks who dwell in the other parts of the Ottoman empire, they are objects of derision.

A priest, of this sect, who was of an open disposition, candidly assured our author that, though several individuals of his fraternity had an uncommon power over serpents, he had not the smallest claim to it himself, but, on the contrary, acknowledged that he was extremely afraid of these reptiles: he likewise observed, that the saadis always kept serpents in their houses, to be ready upon every occasion; but they previously take the precaution of drawing their teeth. If any person be bitten by a serpent, the saadi, to whom he applies, mutters a few words over the wound, scarifies it with a razor, and, having first filled his mouth with lemon-juice, sucks the blood from it repeatedly. These men are likewise said to cure "the serpent's breath," an appellation given, by the Egyptians, to inflammatory pustules, which sometimes break out on persons who sleep uncovered in the open air, and which they suppose are occasioned by the breath of a serpent. The remedy of the saadis is a mixture of ceruse, or white lead, and oil of sesamum, with which they rub the pustules, at the same time muttering a few unintelligible words, to impress the superstitious patient with veneration for their superior abilities.

DAMIETTA is situated on the eastern shore of the Nile, nearly opposite Rosetta. Its inhabitants are numerous,

and its squares and okals spacious. The houses are pleasantly situated, and various grand mosques, with lofty minarets, adorn the city. One of them is an ancient famous edifice, said to have been erected on the ruins of a Christian church. It is of a considerable extent, and contains a number of marble columns, one of which is of porphyry, and another of red granite. One, of yellow and white marble, is supposed by the superstitious natives to have the virtue of curing the jaundice, and is frequently scraped by the poorer class, who actually drink the powder, as an infallible restorative. The other mosque is a rich foundation, reputed to maintain near six hundred indigent priests, who are either paralytic or afflicted with blindness. The public baths are elegant and convenient, and produce very salutary effects. The port is filled with vessels, and a considerable trade is carried on here. The finest rice of Egypt is cultivated in the neighbouring plains: and its annual exportation is supposed to be between two and three hundred thousand pounds. There are likewise cloths, sal-ammoniac, and wheat. The law prohibits the exportation of the latter, but it is frequently evaded, the wheat being on these occasions considered as rice.

The harbour of Damietta is very unsafe, for the road where the vessels lie being totally exposed to every gale that rises, mariners are frequently obliged to slip their cables, and take refuge at Cyprus, or keep the open seas. Damietta enjoys a happy temperature of climate, and abounds with the productions common to the country.

The city is supposed to contain about twenty-five thousand inhabitants, without including its suburb on the other side of the Nile. Here are about four hundred Greek families, who are the principal merchants and traders in the city. They have a church, a bishop, and the free liberty of exercising their religion, except the article of ringing the bell. Besides the Greeks, here are many other strangers, of various nations and religions; but they are greatly restrained in the enjoyment of their national privileges, and fearful of being in the streets after dark, on account of the insults to which they are subject from the Turkish soldiery, who have a natural antipathy to all strangers. The people of Damietta have such an aversion to Christians, that they can scarcely escape insult. This rooted dislike seems to have been transmitted from their forefathers, and to originate from the crusades, the chief scene of which, in Egypt, was about Damietta, which was taken by the Christians, and afterwards restored as part of the ransom of Lewis IX. who had fallen into the hands of the infidels. No person must appear here in an European dress; and, as a Christian is known by his mien, strangers dare not be seen in the streets which the soldiery are accustomed to frequent.

Inventions, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce.] Egypt was anciently celebrated for being the seat of learning, and the nursery of arts and sciences, from which Greece and other nations received them. Geometry is on all hands agreed to have been first discovered in Egypt; and it is said to have owed its rise to the necessity of measuring and laying out the lands, the boundaries of which were almost annually disturbed by the overflowing of the Nile. Astronomy is generally supposed to have been invented by the Egyptians, who, by reason of the constant serenity of the air, and the flatness of their country, might observe the motions of the heavenly bodies earlier, and with more facility, than other people. Herodotus, indeed, gives the honour of this invention to the Babylonians; but Diodorus derives the Babylonians themselves, as well as their sciences, originally from Egypt. The ancient Egyptians were acquainted with the true system of the world, now known by the name of the Copernican system; and from them Pythagoras learned it, and taught it afterwards in Greece.

These sciences were, however, in those early periods, but in their infancy. Geometry does not appear to have extended to all geometrical quantities, and subtile theories, like that of the moderns: perhaps it extended no farther than plain measuring, and such rules as were of use in common life. And this will appear more probable, if it be considered, that Pythagoras, who travelled into Egypt, in order to acquire the learning of that people, after his return home, offered a hecatomb on his discovering that the square of the hypothenuse of a right-angled triangle was equal to the squares formed by the base and perpendicular; and Thales, who also learned geometry in Egypt, sacrificed an ox to the gods, for joy that he had found out a method of inscribing a rectangled triangle in a circle. The professors of astronomy, in those early times, appear to have been unable to make any artificial calculations; since Thales was the first who ventured to fortel an eclipse, and Eudoxes and Ptolemy first reduced the heavenly motions into hypotheses and tables.

Sculpture is generally supposed to have been invented by the Egyptians; and the first monuments recorded of this nature were two colossal statues, the one erected in honour of Mœris, king of Egypt, the other in honour of his queen, both placed upon thrones, supported by two pyramids, which were raised three hundred feet high, in the middle of the lake Mœris; so that, notwithstanding the prodigious circumference of this lake, these two statues were conspicuous from its banks. The invention of painting is also owing to the Egyptians, at least as far as the four principal colours. The knowledge they had of chemistry seems to make this opinion certain; besides, the paintings still to be seen among the old remains of Egyptian buildings, which have so long resisted the injuries of time, and which still retain a fresh and lively colouring, seem to put the matter beyond dispute.

With respect to the ancient state of physic among the Egyptians, Clemens Alexandrinus informs us, that there were forty-two books of Hermes, which contained all the philosophy of the Egyptians, and the last six of which related to medicine, and treated of the construction of the body and its disorders, with the methods of treating them. Herodotus informs us, that the practice of physic was so divided, that one physician had the charge only of one distemper, and might not presume to take upon him the care and inspection of more.

In most parts of Egypt, and even in Cairo itself, the curious mechanical arts are generally in the hands of Christians. Such artificers as jewellers, silversmiths, &c. are fully employed at Cairo, in making ornaments worn by the women, and for the trappings of their horses. The Egyptian pebbles, used for the handles of knives, snuff-boxes, and other toys, are wrought and polished at Cairo to perfection. Their turners are remarkable for making wooden lattices for windows, in a very curious and beautiful manner; and they also make some both of brass and iron, of admirable workmanship, which they place before the windows of their mosques. Upon the whole, however, the preference is given to the artificers of Constantinople, and whatever is brought from thence is much esteemed by the Egyptians.

The inhabitants of Upper Egypt have a very singular art, that deserves to be mentioned. They load a boat with hives of bees, when the honey is all spent, and, falling down the river in the night-time, they stop in the morning at a place they think most proper for the bees to fly abroad, and collect their wax and honey. When night comes on, and the bees are returned to the hives, they proceed on their voyage, casting anchor again in the morning, and resting all day, as before. By this means, it is said, they arrive at Cairo in six weeks or two months, where they are sure of finding a good market for the cargo collected by their industrious little animals.

The method of hatching chickens in ovens is another art, which may be looked upon as peculiar to Egypt. The season for producing fowls after this manner is from January to April, while the weather is temperate, for at other times the heat is too violent. The ovens are built under ground, in two opposite rows, with a gallery or passage between them; and they are raised one above another, with holes at the top, as there are likewise in the passage, which they open or stop, as they would have the heat diminished or augmented. The fuel they use to heat these ovens is dung and chopped straw, which makes a smothering fire, the smoke of which is very offensive. They continue to heat them gently for eight or ten days together, and then bring the eggs from the lower cells, where they had been laid in heaps, and spread them in the upper apartments, so as only to cover the floor, and not lie one upon another. The business is now to turn them every day, and keep a moderate fire in a channel that runs along near the mouth of the ovens; and indeed the art consists chiefly in giving the ovens a proper degree of heat, neither too much nor too little, for, in either case, the labour would not succeed. Their general rule is, that the eggs be never made hotter than a man can bear them to be applied to his eyelid. Thus, with good management, they begin to hatch in about three weeks, at which time it is very entertaining to take a view of these places, and to observe some of the chickens just putting forth their heads, others half out of the shell, and others quite delivered from their confinement.

Thunder, it is said, sometimes occasions great numbers of eggs to miscarry; and, at the best, it is observed, that many of the chickens want a claw, or have some defect, which, perhaps, they would not have had, if they had been hatched in the natural way. The master of the ovens, according to Mr. Greaves, has one-third of the eggs for his pains and charges, out of which he is to make good to the owners any of their number that may happen to be broken or miscarry. The same gentleman tells us, that the fire in the upper ovens, when the eggs are placed in the lower, is thus proportioned: the first day the greatest fire, the second less than the first, the third day less, the fourth day more than the third, the fifth day less, the sixth day more than the fifth, the seventh day less, the eighth day more, the ninth no fire at all, the tenth a little fire in the morning; the eleventh they close all the holes with flax, &c., making no more fire; for, if they should, the eggs would break. In this manner, seven or eight thousand chickens are hatched in a short time. It has been doubted, whether this method of hatching chickens were practicable in any country besides Egypt, the nature of the climate being supposed particularly favourable to that design; but the same experiment has been made in Italy and other parts of Europe.,

Two powerful causes have contributed to render Grand Cairo the seat of an extensive commerce. The first is, that all the commodities consumed in Egypt are collected within the walls of that city; and all the chief persons of property, having made it their residence, draw thither their whole revenue. The second is the situation, which makes this city a centre of circulation; while by the Red Sea it corresponds with India and Arabia; by the Nile, with Abyssinia and the interior parts of Africa; and, by the Mediterranean, with Turkey and Europe.

Every year, a caravan from Abyssinia arrives at Cairo, and brings a large company of black slaves; together with gold-dust, elephants' teeth, gums, parrots, monkeys, and ostrich-feathers; while another caravan, destined for Mecca, leaves the extremities of Morocco, and, receiving pilgrims even from the river of Senegal, coasts along the

Mediterranean, collecting those of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, and arrives by the desert of Alexandria. Thence it proceeds to Cairo, where it joins the caravan of Egypt, in order to proceed to Mecca. The lading of these caravans generally consists of Indian stuffs, shawls, perfumes, gums, and coffee: and the same commodities also arrive by another route at Suez.

Cairo does not retain the whole of this merchandise: but, besides what is there consumed, very considerable profits arise from the duties, and the sums expended by the pilgrims. On the other hand, small caravans frequently arrive from Damascus, with silk, oils, fruits, &c. During the favourable season, there are, likewise, vessels in the road of Damietta, unloading hogsheads of tobacco, from Latakia; the consumption of which is very considerable. Others arrive successively at Alexandria, bringing cloths, arms, furs, and wrought silk, from Constantinople; and some vessels come from Leghorn and Venice, with cloths, laces, grocery, paper, lead, and iron. All these articles are first landed at Rosetta, then re-embarked on the Nile, and sent to Cairo.

From this account, it is not surprising that commerce should still continue so flourishing in the capital of Egypt; and we need not doubt the report of the commissioner-general of the customs, who asserted, in 1783, that Cairo had traded to the amount of nearly six millions and a half sterling.

In ancient times, the haven of Alexandria appears to have received the merchandise of the world; and the city became, as Strabo calls it, the greatest emporium on earth. A formidable marine was kept up in the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, to protect the Egyptian merchants; and a rapidly augmenting commerce was cherished and supported by royal patronage; but subsequent troubles and revolutions conspired to humble the pride of Egypt; and, although her commerce is now very considerable, she cannot profit by her situation to rival the Europeans, who have discovered new passages to that quarter of the globe whence she drew her richest commodities. Her ignorant mariners, far from navigating the Indian Ocean, scarcely dare venture over the Red Sea. "Their greatest effort," says M. Savary, "is their annual voyage to Mocha, where their ill-armed saroks, incapable of defence, are laden with the coffee of Yemen, the muslins and cloths of Bengal, the perfumes of Arabia, and the pearls of the isles of Beharim. The coffee which they buy for four-pence per pound at Mocha, they sell for fifteen-pence at Cairo; and this article alone amounts to half a million sterling.

"Egypt, even in a decline, however, appears respectable, because she contains within herself the true sources of wealth. Her corn, with which she supplies Arabia, Syria, and a part of the Archipelago; her rice, sent over the Mediterranean; her carthamus-flowers, with which the people of Provence annually load several vessels; her sal ammoniac, transported throughout Egypt; her excellent flax, esteemed by the Italians; and her blue cloths, that clothe, in part, the neighbouring nations, are all objects that make the balance of trade in her favour. The Abyssinians cheerfully exchange their gold-dust, elephants' teeth, and other precious commodities, for her productions; the cloths, lace, arms, and lead, brought from France, do not equal what they receive; even the merchandise imported by the Turks is far below what they take in return, and the difference is always paid in ready money. Except Mocha and Mecca, where the Egyptians leave a great part of their sequins, all who trade with them bring gold and silver; and, indeed, we may form a tolerable idea of the abundance of these metals in Egypt, when we read, that Ali Bey, fleeing to Syria, carried with him three millions and a half sterling; and that Ismael Bey, escaping some years after, loaded fifty camels with sequins, pataccas, pearls, and jewels.

"If, destitute of shipping," says our author, "Egypt is still so wealthy, what might she not be, if governed by an enlightened people? What an influx of prosperity would arise from opening her canals, repairing her mounds, and restoring to agriculture a third of the grounds buried under the sands; what wealth from opening her mines of emeralds, famous for almost equalling the diamond in durability! With what advantage might her indigo, carthamus, and other substances, excellent for dying, be employed! These are not chimerical riches; Egypt has possessed them for ages; and a wise administration would restore all the prolific treasures of nature."

Revenues.] The revenues of Egypt, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of its government, are very inconsiderable. It is said that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

Military Force.] This consists in the Mamelukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages, to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about eight thousand, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to set the Turks at defiance.

Constitution and Government.] The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the pasha, and the republican by the Mamelukes or sangiacks. The pasha is appointed by the grand signor as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical, part of the government of Egypt consists of a divan, composed of twenty-four sangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the sheik-bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of these sangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power: the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand-signor's pasha acts in oppo-

sition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post. They have an extensive grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which the sultan Selim, having conquered Egypt, and overthrown the Circassian Mamelukes, caused their head, Thomam Bey, to be hanged at one of the gates of Cairo. Disgusted at this, they only waited the departure of the Turks to resume their arms, and Selim, perceiving his error, in order to gain the good-will of the Mamelukes, granted them very peculiar privileges, as specified in a treaty signed by him for that purpose. So that, by these means, the Egyptian government partook of monarchy and aristocracy.

For the maintenance of the civil government of Egypt, the divan is held three times a week at the pasha's palace at Cairo. Punishments are in proportion to the offences committed. Murder is punished with death, but inferior crimes with the bastinado or whipping. Bakers, for making their bread deficient in weight, are sometimes put into their own ovens, when hot, and there suffered to perish; and butchers, for selling stinking meat, have one of their ears nailed to their shop-door, with a piece of the flesh in a wire through the nose. In this situation they are obliged to continue four hours

The Jews under this government are despised and oppressed, so that they are dwindled into a very inconsiderable number, except at Cairo, and reduced to the lowest poverty. The inhabitants of the upper parts of the kingdom are not only oppressed by their rapacious governors, but exposed to the ravages of the Arabian shieks, who take all opportunities of plundering the villagers, by way of reprisal for the hardships they suffer from petty tyrants. From these instances of tyranny, the government of Egypt may be said to be equally oppressive with that under the arbitrary sway of the most despotic prince.

Religion.] As to the modern state of religion in Egypt, the Turks, Moors, and Arabs, are Mahometans. The two latter are zealous devotees, and perform the several functions with great precision. They have among them a set of miscreants, called *Santos*, who are most insolent hypocrites, intruding themselves, upon pretence of superior holiness, into the best houses, without the least ceremony, and it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Turks, in general, are deeply tinctured with the doctrine of predestination, which not only inspires them with fortitude in danger, but with magnanimity in distress. Indeed, they behave better in adverse than in prosperous fortune.

As the Ramadan, or feast of the Mussulmen, commenced at the time of year Sonnini was at Rosetta, he was enabled to give the following account of it:—"All the tradesmen assemble," says he, "in companies, and march in procession through the town, by the light of kindled chips of resinous wood, contained in iron pots, carried upon the end of long sticks. The head of each corporation is mounted upon a fine horse, and clothed in an extraordinary dress. Several also wear masks, which were loudly applauded by the populace; but they were particularly enthusiastic in their expressions of approbation, when the chief nightman appeared in the habit of an European. This fact," adds Sonnini, "may give a just idea of the degree of consideration we enjoy in their country."

During the month set apart for the observance of the Ramadan, eating and drinking are not only forbidden from sun-rise to sun-set, but the use of tobacco is as severely prohibited. The labourer, oppressed by heat, and nearly overcome with fatigue and extreme thirst, is consequently ready to faint; but, in Egypt, as well as in any other country, the man of opulence evades the law that is incompatible with his convenience, and claims a scandalous exemption from the sufferings of the helpless and indigent. If the Ramadan is a period of abstinence very difficult to be endured by the working man, it is an interval of pleasure to the rich, who make of it both a lent and a carnival. Immediately after sun-set, feasting, dancing, shows, and music, occupy the place of every street, and sleep kindly intervenes, to prevent the sons of affluence from perceiving the length of the day.

The superiors in religious matters are the Mufti, who is the principal, and the doctors of the law: these are judges in all causes of a spiritual nature.

The Copts profess themselves to be Christians of the Greek church, but they embrace transubstantiation; in which, and other points, the Catholics of Cairo think they approach their faith nearer than the Greeks. They have, however, adopted, from the Mahometans, the custom of frequent prostrations during divine service, ablutions, and other ceremonies. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

Language.] The Coptic is the ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is the current language; the Coptic, according to Mr. Browne, may be considered as extinct.

Customs, Manners, &c.] Amid the numerous revolutions which all nations have experienced, there are few countries that have preserved their original inhabitants pure and unmixed. The same desire which leads individuals to encroach on the property of others, has armed the nations of the earth against each other; and the result of their most obstinate contests has been, to introduce into states a foreign master, who has despoiled his vanquished foes of the domain granted them by nature.

Such has been the case with Egypt: deprived, for three and twenty centuries, of her natural proprietors, her fertile lands have successively become a prey to Persians, Macedonians, Romans, Greeks, Arabs, Georgians, and at length to the race of Tartars distinguished by the name of Ottoman Turks. Several of these nations have left vestiges of their transient possession; but, as they have been blended in succession, they have been so confounded, as to render it extremely difficult to discriminate their respective characters.

The native Egyptians, according to M. Savary, are the Copts; so called from Cophtos, once a famous city in the Thebais. These only appear to be the descendants of the ancient Egyptians, and have preserved many of the customs of their forefathers, together with the ancient vulgar tongue, although, by so long a subjection to foreign powers, their genius and science have almost sunk into oblivion.

The knowledge, transmitted from father to son, of the value and extent of all arable lands, occasioned these people to be chosen clerks to the beys; and, in order to conceal their accounts from their masters, they generally write them in Coptic. They do not, indeed, perfectly understand this language, but as their missals, and various other works they possess, have an Arabic language, it is evident that their ancient language is not lost; and, at some future period, it may, probably, supply the learned with means of dispelling the obscurity of the earliest ages, and of removing the veil from many mysterious hieroglyphics.

The Copts appear to have embraced Christianity at a very early period; and Amrou, having conquered Egypt, indulged them in the free exercise of the Christian religion; since which time they have had churches, priests, bishops, and a patriarch, whose residence is at Grand Cairo. Many superstitious practices are mingled with their worship; but, for the most part, they are mild, humane, and hospitable. Paternal tenderness and filial love constitute their domestic happiness, where every tie of blood is cherished and revered. Inland trade, the art of hatching eggs, and raising bees, constitute almost the whole of their knowledge. They often enrich themselves by the administrations entrusted to their care, but they seldom enjoy tranquilly the fruit of their labours. The bey, who gains intimation of their opulence, often pillages them without mercy, whilst their want of energy keeps them enchained in misery and abject subjection.

After the Copts, the Arabs are the most ancient people of Egypt, where they have twice obtained the supreme authority. Their first dominion was in the remote ages of antiquity; the second began in the seventh, and ended in the twelfth, century. Two-thirds of the present inhabitants are Arabs, whose manners differ according to their mode of life. Those who have not become husbandmen are governed by their foreign masters, and present a striking example to philosophers of the influence of laws over the human mind. Beneath a tyrannical government, they have lost that good faith which has been said to characterize their nation: villages arm against villages, and towns against towns; and, during the revolutions continually reviving at Grand Cairo, the country presents a frightful scene of carnage and horror. It is these degenerate Arabs who render the navigation of the Nile extremely dangerous, for they frequently attack boats in the dark, massacre passengers, seize their effects, and commit every kind of outrage.

Another division of the Arabs are devoted to the cares of agriculture, and are governed by their own shieks, who possess various principalities in the Thebais. Now, as in ancient times, they are the judge, the pontiff, and the sovereign, of their people; yet governing less like kings than fathers of families. These venerable patriarchs usually take their repasts at the doors of their tents, and, on rising from table, they exclaim, with a loud voice, "Whoever is hungry let him, in the name of God, come and eat." Nor is this a mere form of words enjoined by the precepts of their ancestors, but the invitation is really dictated by unaffected hospitality; and any person is perfectly welcome to sit down and feed on what is set before him. These Arabs are represented as the best of people, ignorant of the vices of more polished nations, and incapable of knavery or disguise. Equally haughty and generous, they repel insult by arms, and never employ treachery; their tents are open to travellers of all descriptions, and utter strangers are always treated with as much respect and affection as their own kindred. "Of their honesty," says Savary, "some idea may be formed by the following fact, to which I was a witness. An Arab shiek had long come annually to the district of the French, where he took up goods, on credit, of a merchant; still coming the following year at the same time, bringing the money, and purchasing fresh merchandise. One year, sickness prevented him from coming at the usual time; but he sent his son with the money, and continued a trade equally honourable to both nations."

A third class of Arabs is comprised under the general name of Bedouins, of whom we have already given some account. They are divided into tribes, and subsist on barley-cakes and the milk of their herds, which they drive into the valleys, where they find water and pasturage. Masters of the deserts, they are the enemies of all caravans, attack them wherever they can find them, and force them either to fight or pay tribute. If the resistance be too powerful, they retreat without fear of pursuit; if they prove victorious, they pillage every one, and divide the spoil; but, it appears, they never put any one to death, unless to revenge their fallen companions.

Of their disinterested generosity to travellers, many in

stances may be adduced. M. Pages fled over the sands of Arabia Deserta with seven Arabs of this class: he had lost his water and provisions, and, falling from his camel, was in imminent danger of being sacrificed to the resentment of an insulted tribe. One of his companions alighted, and, at the risk of his own life, took him up behind him, till they arrived at a place of safety. The whole provision of the Arabs during this journey was one small barley, cake a day: this they divided into eight portions, and the one they gave the stranger was always twice as large as their own.

Of the misfortunes attending M. de St. Germain, Volney has given a very interesting relation. The caravan he accompanied was composed of English officers and passengers, who had landed from two vessels at Suez, in their way to Europe by Cairo. The Bedouins of Tor, hearing that the travellers were richly laden, resolved to plunder them, and accomplished their purpose about five leagues from Suez. The Europeans, stripped entirely naked, and dispersed by fear, separated into two parties; some returning to Suez, and the remainder pushing forward into the desert, in hopes of reaching Cairo, till hunger, thirst, and extreme fatigue, destroyed them one after another. M. de St. Germain alone survived these accumulated horrors. During three days and two nights he wandered over the bare sands, frozen at night by the bleak north wind, and burnt by the sun during the day, without any other shade but a single bush of thorns, or any other drink but his own urine. On the third day he perceived the water of Berket el Habj, and strove to make toward it; but he had already fallen three times from weakness, when a charitable Arab took him up, carried him to his dwelling, and attended him for three days with unremitting kindness. At the expiration of that time he was conveyed to Cairo, where he arrived in a most deplorable condition, but, through great care and attention, he was eventually restored to health.

An excessive love of liberty induces the Bedouins to prefer a dreary wilderness, where they can live independent, to the fertile plains of Egypt, where they must live under the dominion of foreign masters. The Turkish government has repeatedly offered them lands, which they have constantly refused; and this independent spirit seems to have been inviolably preserved from the time of Ishmael, their progenitor. Sometimes humbled, but never enslaved, they have braved almost every power of the earth, and spurned the fetters in which other nations have alternately been bound.

Except the Copts and Arabs, the Mograbians, or western Mahometans, are the most numerous inhabitants of Egypt: they devote themselves some to trade, and some to arms. Those who become soldiers are, for the most part, adventurers guilty of crimes, and banished from their country by the dread of avenging justice: these frequently abandon themselves to every excess, and invariably sell their services to that hey who is the highest bidder.

The number of real Turks in this country is not very considerable, exclusive of the Janissaries and Assabs, who frequently pillage both the natives and foreigners, and employ every means to amass riches. Like the Mograbians, they are ill disciplined, and utterly incapable of opposing the military science of Europeans.

The Jews, Greeks, and Syrian Christians, who reside in Egypt, addict themselves principally to commerce, exchange, and mechanic arts. Sometimes their ductile cunning promotes them to be commissioners of the customs, and receivers of the revenue; and in that case they generally employ their power to oppress European merchants, invent new exactions, and shackle their commerce.

Life, in the capital of Egypt, is rather passive than active. Nine months in the year the body is oppressed by excessive heat, and the mind, in a state of apathy, sighs after calm tranquillity. Effeminate indolence is born with the Egyptian, grows with his growth, and descends with him to the grave, after having influenced all his inclinations, and governed all his actions.

The Egyptian rises with the sun, to enjoy the morning air; he purifies himself, and performs his appointed devotion; after which his pipe and coffee are brought in, and he reclines at his ease on a sofa. Slaves, with their arms crossed, remain silent at the farther end of the apartment, with their eyes fixed on him, in order to anticipate his wants. His children, standing in his presence, unless he permits them to be seated, preserve every appearance of tenderness and respect, till he gravely gives them his blessing, and sends them back to the harem. Breakfast ended, he transacts the business of his trade or office; and, as to disputes, they seldom arise in the transactions of these concerns; for here the name of attorney is unknown, and every man is his own pleader.

When visitors come, they are received without many compliments, but in a friendly manner. His equals are seated, cross-legged, beside him; persons of distinction are placed on a raised sofa; and inferiors sit upon their hams. When every person has taken his place, the slaves bring in pipes and coffee, set a perfume-brasier in the middle of the chamber, and afterwards present sweetmeats and sherbet.

About noon the table is prepared, and the viands brought in a large tray of tinned copper; and though in no great variety, yet always in great plenty. In the centre is a mountain of rice, cooked with poultry, and highly seasoned with spice and saffron. Round this are placed hashed meats, pigeons, stuffed cucumbers, and a variety of fruits. The roast meats are cut small, laid over with the fat of the animal, and seasoned with salt. The guests

seat themselves on a carpet round the table; and a slave brings water in one hand, and a basin in the other, to wash. This is an indispensable custom where each person puts his hand in the dish, and where the use of forks is unknown.

When the visit is almost ended, a slave, bearing a plate of burning essences, goes round to the company, and each, in turn, perfumes his beard, and sprinkles rose-water on his head and hands. Thus the ancient custom of perfuming the head and beard, as sung by the Royal Psalmist, "Like the precious ointment upon the head, that ran down upon the beard," is still continued.

After dinner, the Egyptians retire to the harem, where they repose for some hours amidst their wives and children: but the poor, who have neither sofa nor harem, lie down on the mat on which they have dined. In the evening, it is customary to go on the water, or breathe the fresh air on the banks of the Nile, beneath the umbrage of the orange and sycamore-trees. An hour after sun-set, supper is served up, consisting of rice, poultry, vegetables, and fruits, which are equally grateful and salutary during the heat of summer.

Such is the ordinary life of the Egyptians. Public shows, plays, and interludes, are to them unknown; for a monotony, which to an European would be death, is delight to an Egyptian. Their days are passed in repeating the same thing, and in following the same customs, without a wish or thought beyond. The lower class of people, however, are very fond of attending to the tales and tricks of pretended conjurors.

Among many other diversions, by which the jugglers delude the common people out of their money, is that of leading about dancing camels. These animals are taught to dance, when young, by being brought upon a heated floor, which gives them great pain, and causes them to lift up their legs, as if they were dancing, while a person keeps beating on a drum. This practice is continued for about half a year, after which time, when the camel hears the noise of a drum, he strikes into a dance. The fortune-tellers have, likewise, the art of training up little birds, which, when any person applies to them to have his fortune told, bring him a slip of paper, on which his future destiny is written.

Egypt, as well as Italy, has her improvisatore, called *almai*, or learned, which title they obtain by being better educated than other women; for, to be admitted into this class, it is necessary to possess a fine voice, eloquence, the rules of grammar, and sufficient abilities to compose and sing extempore verses, adapted to any occasion. These almai know all new songs by rote; and their memory is stored with the most popular and interesting tales. At festivals they are generally placed in a raised orchestra, where they sing during the banquet, and afterwards amuse the company with dances, in which they display astonishing suppleness of body and flexibility of features; but their most admired attitudes are equally inconsistent with the female character, and dishonourable to the people by whom they are employed.

These almai are frequently introduced into the harems, where they teach the women new airs, recount amorous tales, and instruct them in lascivious dances. It must be observed, however, that they speak their language with purity, have a graceful method of recital, and, habitually addicting themselves to poetry, learn the most winning and sonorous modes of expression. Some of their airs are light and gay; but their excellence appears principally in the pathetic. When they rehearse a tale, in the manner of the ancient tragic ballad, by dwelling upon plaintive tones, they inspire melancholy, which insensibly augments till the auditors burst into tears.

The almai are generally present at marriage-ceremonies, and precede the bride, playing on musical instruments. They also accompany funerals, at which they sing solemn dirges, utter groans and lamentations, and imitate every mark of extreme despair. Their charges, however, are very high; and, therefore, they seldom attend any but persons of high rank or known opulence. The common people, indeed, have their almai, who are a second order of these women, imitators of the first; but they have neither their elegance, gracefulness, nor knowledge.

The Egyptians never mention their wives in conversation; or, if obliged to speak of them, they say, "the mother of such a person, the mistress of the house, &c." Good manners will not permit a visitor to ask, "How does your wife do, sir?" but, in imitation of their reserve, it is necessary to say, "How does the mother of such a person do?" And even this is deemed an insult, unless asked by a relation or an intimate friend. Subject to the immutable laws by which custom governs the East, the women do not associate with men, not even at table. When a grandee intends to dine with one of his wives, she is previously informed, in order that she may perfume her apartment with precious essences, procure the most delicate viands, and receive her lord with every possible mark of attention and respect. Even among the common people, the women usually stand in one corner of the room, while the husband dines, hold basins for him to wash, and serve him at table. "I once dined," says M. Savary, "with an Italian, who had married an Egyptian woman, and having lived there long, assumed the habits of the natives. His wife and sister-in-law stood in my presence; and it was with difficulty I prevailed on them to sit at table with us, where they were extremely timid and disconcerted."

The Egyptian ladies have much leisure, which they spend among their slaves, making veils, embroidering sashes, tracing designs to decorate their sofas, &c. Cheer-

ful and passionate songs are likewise accompanied by the slaves with the tambour de basque and castanets; and, at the close of the day, an elegant repast is prepared, in which the most exquisite fruits and perfumes are served up with profusion.

Once or twice a week, these women are permitted to go to the bath, or to visit their female friends. To bewail the dead is, likewise, a duty they are allowed to perform; and many of them may be sometimes seen in the environs of Cairo, reciting funeral-hymns over the tombs, which they have previously strewed with odoriferous plants and flowers. They receive each others visits very affectionately: when a lady enters the harem, the mistress rises, presses the visitor's hand to her bosom, kisses her, and makes her sit down by her side; while a slave waits to take her veil, black mantle, &c. Coffee, sherbet, and confectionary, are then served up: a large dish of oranges, pomegranates, bananas, and melons, is placed on the sofa; perfumed water is brought in a silver basin to wash the hands; and glee and good-humour season the repast. At parting, they mutually repeat, "God keep you in health. Heaven preserve your children, the delight and glory of your family," &c.

While a visitor is in the house, the husband must not presume to enter: it is the asylum of hospitality, and cannot be violated without fatal consequences: indeed, the Egyptian women carefully maintain this privilege, as being deeply interested in its preservation; for a lover, disguised in female habiliments, may be introduced into the forbidden place; and it is necessary he should remain undiscovered, to elude the most tragical punishment.

Attended by their eunuchs, the Turkish women sometimes go upon the water, and enjoy the charming prospects of the banks of the Nile. Their boats are handsomely painted, and may be easily known by the blinds over the windows, and the music by which they are accompanied.

It is generally allowed, that facts are better than arguments to show the manners of a people; we shall, therefore, present our readers with the following interesting love-adventure, which happened when M. Savary was at Rosetta.

Hassan, an old jealous Turk, had married a Georgian girl of sixteen, and appointed guards to watch over his new treasure. This wealthy lord had a magnificent garden in the vicinity of Rosetta, whither he permitted the youthful Jemily to go and take the evening air. Slaves of both sexes, however, always attended her; the men to watch the walls, and stand centinel at the gates; the women to wait within, while their beautiful mistress languidly strayed among the odoriferous bowers. As she was gravely walking, one evening, by the river-side, veiled and surrounded by her slaves, she perceived an European, who had lately arrived at Rosetta: the bloom of youth was vivid on his cheeks, and instantly excited her attention. She passed slowly, and let her fan fall, that she might have a pretence to stop a moment. The foreigner's eyes met her's, and the look went to her heart: his air, shape, and features, were indelibly imprinted on her mind; and the dread of seeing him no more gave her a painful sense of slavery. Scarcely had she entered her garden, before she took a confidential attendant aside, and said, "Didst thou perceive the young stranger? Didst thou behold his bright eyes, and how he looked upon me? O, my friend, my dear Zetfa! go find him, and tell him to walk among the orange-groves, to-morrow evening, where the wall is lowest. Say, I wish to see and speak to him, only bid him shun the watchful eyes of my pitiless keepers."

This message was punctually delivered, and the European unguardedly promised; but the contemplation of approaching danger made him break his word. The slave went a second time, and demanded why he had not kept the assignation: his excuses were various, and he fixed a more distant time; but reflection again vanquished passion, and he went not to the garden. Zetfa returned once more; and the youth, seduced by her discourse, swore that on the morrow he would be under the arbour an hour after sun-set. The hour of appointment came, and a third time the beauteous Jemily saw herself deceived. Zetfa returned to the European, and reproached him so severely for his ingratitude, that the imprudent youth once more promised; but, left to himself, the dread of an ignominious death made him again violate his engagement. Patience itself has a period: that of Jemily was long; for nine months she solicited a man whom she had seen but an instant. One evening, after shedding tears of bitterness, forgetting herself in the grove, and thinking only of the object of her love, Hassan treated her harshly on her return. The charm was now broken, and she retired furious to her apartment. "Go once more," said she, "to the perfidious European, and bear him these my last words:—I saw you, stranger; I thought you had sensibility, and my heart panted to be yours. Nine months you have deceived me: perjury to you is sport. But beware: your life is in my hands, and I am determined. Hassan will go to-morrow to Faoua, and will not return till late. Either come in the evening and receive your pardon, or a slave shall bring me your head. Jemily swears by the prophet, if longer neglected, to be revenged."

Zetfa faithfully reported this message, and the European hesitated no longer. At the appointed time he came to the wall which separated him from the beauteous Georgian, and, with a palpitating heart, leaped into the garden. Two women, on seeing him, rose and appeared terrified, while he stood motionless. The one was Jemily herself, who held out her hand, and gave him courage.

He approached, bowed profoundly, and was kindly raised; a signal was given, and the slave disappeared. "Stranger," said Jemily, "why have you deceived me so long? You love me not."—"Forgive me, beauteous Jemily," replied the European; "it was my fear that detained me; but I am now come to repair my wrongs, and throw myself at your feet." She seemed inclined to continue her reproaches; but, taking him by the hand, which trembled in her own, she led him to an orange-grove. This single story is sufficient to show the absurdity of attempting to confine the body where the mind is vitiated, or of imposing shackles on a human creature, whose spirit revolts against the tyranny of her jealous lord. Virtue is the only true guardian of female honour, and mutual confidence is indispensably necessary to connubial felicity.

With respect to marriages in Egypt, they are, as in most oriental countries, negociated by female relations, who meet most of the maidens of the city at the public baths, and are thereby enabled to describe them with tolerable accuracy. When a choice is made, the alliance is proposed to the father of the young woman, the portion is agreed on, and presents are interchanged. The procession, which is the commencement of the marriage-ceremony, usually begins in the evening: dancers precede the bride, with their feet fastened to stilts, and carrying balancing poles; numerous slaves display the effects, furniture, and jewels, destined for her use: troops of dancing girls keep time with their instruments; matrons, richly clothed, walk with a grave pace; and the young bride appears under a magnificent canopy, borne by four slaves, supported by her mother and sisters, and covered with a veil, embroidered with gold, pearls, and diamonds. A long file of flambeaux illumine the procession; and the almai, in chorus, occasionally sing verses in praise of the bride and bridegroom.

When arrived at the house of the husband, the women go on the first floor, whence they perceive, through the blinds of a gallery, all that passes below. The men, who are assembled in the hall, do not mix with them, but pass part of the night in banquetting and hearing music. During the ceremony, the bride passes several times before the bridegroom, and always in different dresses, to display her wealth and elegance. The guests having retired, the husband enters the nuptial-chamber, and for the first time beholds the face of the woman to whom he has united himself.

Such are the ceremonies of marriage among the Egyptians, which persons of fortune scrupulously observe. The daughter of a mechanic is, in like manner, conducted to her sponse, the only difference consisting in the surrounding paraphernalia. Instead of flambeaux, they burn fir in braziers, carried on poles; and stilt-dancers and tambours de basque supply the want of almai and musicians. The poor man's daughter, destitute of attendants and canopies, borrows a handsome veil, and walks in procession to the sound of cymbals, which her followers strike without producing much harmony.

Almost the same ceremonies are observed by the Copts; but they have a custom of betrothing female children only six or seven years old, which is done by putting a ring on the finger; and they often obtain permission to educate such girls till they are of age to consummate the marriage. These schismatic Christians, however, can have but one wife at a time.

The first care of the Egyptian ladies is the education of their children: and a numerous posterity is universally considered as the most important blessing. This is even the prayer of the poor, who earns his bread by the sweat of his brow; and did not adoption alleviate grief when nature proves unkind, a barren woman would be utterly inconsolable. The mother daily suckles her infant, whose innocent smiles and engaging manners fully recompense all the pains and cares it may have created. Milk-diseases, and those maladies which dry up the juices of those young persons who send their offspring to be nurtured by a stranger, are here unknown; for Mahomet has left a positive injunction to this effect:—"Let a mother suckle her children full two years, if the child does not quit the breast; but she shall be permitted to wean it with the consent of her husband." When obliged, by some particular circumstances, to take a nurse, the Egyptians do not treat her as a stranger; on the contrary, she becomes one of the family, and passes her days amidst the children she has suckled, by whom she is cherished and honoured as a second mother.

History places the infancy of human nature in the East: here paternal authority commenced, and here its rights are still preserved. Each family forms a little state, of which the father is sovereign, and the members of it, attached to him by the strong ties of consanguinity, acknowledge and submit to his power. The children are educated in the harem, under the immediate inspection of their mothers and are not permitted to come into the hall, especially when strangers are there. Young people are silent in this hall; if men grown, they are allowed to join in conversation, but when the head of the family speaks, they cease, and attentively listen; if he enter an assembly, all rise, and, in short, upon every occasion, they show him the most profound respect. A numerous posterity frequently resides under the same roof; the children and grand-children come and pay their common father a daily tribute of veneration: the pleasure of being loved and respected, in proportion as age increases, makes him forget he grows old; the content of his heart sparkles in his eyes, and serenity smooths the wrinkles of his forehead. He is cheerful and jocular; and, while his youthful descendants wear the

most modest garments, he is decked in the gayest colours. Happy in the bosom of his family, when on the borders of the grave, he perceives not the approach of death, and sinks to rest amidst the embraces of his children. Long do they mourn his loss, and each week decorate his tomb with flowers. The Egyptians have lost the art of embalming, but not the feelings which gave it birth.

"Among polished nations," says our author, "the silver-haired sire is often obliged to be silent in the presence of haughty youth, or to assume the manners of a boy, in order to become supportable. In proportion as the burden of life is felt, and its pleasures diminish, he finds himself an incumbrance to those who, but for him, had never been. They refuse him consolation when he needs it most; and the cold hand of age withers his faculties, which the kindly flame of filial love warms not. I was impelled to draw this parallel by the affecting scenes I constantly witnessed in Egypt, where the reverend patriarch, with his beard floating on his breast, smiles in frigid age on his grand-children, who approach him with their caresses. He beholds four generations, all eager to pay him filial duty: his heart expands, and he delights in life to its last moment. These people have, in ignorance, preserved the simplicity of ancient manners: they know not our arts and sciences, but the sweetest sensations of nature they know, enjoy, and revere."

Among the various diseases incident to the human frame, those of the eyes are peculiar to Egypt, where the blind are very numerous; and in the city of Cairo almost every one wears a fillet, a token of an approaching or convalescent opthalmia. This affliction must not, however, be attributed to the reflected beams of a burning sun; for the Arabs, who live amidst the most arid sands, have generally good eyes and a piercing sight; nor must we suppose that the disease is occasioned by the exhalations of stagnant waters; for, in that case, the French merchants would be all blind; whereas, for upwards of fifty years, not one has lost his sight. The true origin of this disorder seems to have been the Egyptian custom of sleeping in the open air, during summer, on the terraces of their houses, or near their huts. It has also been remarked, that the sea-air contributes very much to injure the organs of sight in this misty atmosphere.

The usual diet of the Egyptians appears, likewise, to be a powerful cause. The cheese, sour milk, honey, confection of grapes, green fruits, and raw vegetables, which constitute the ordinary food of the people, produce a disorder, which physicians have observed to affect the sight. Bodies, thus nourished, abound in corrupted humours, which are constantly seeking a discharge. Diverted from the ordinary channels by habitual perspiration, they fly to the exterior parts, and naturally attack the head, because the Egyptians, by shaving every week, and wearing a very hot head-dress, principally attract the perspiration thither; and if the head receive even the slightest impression of cold on being uncovered, this perspiration is suppressed, and falls upon the teeth, or still more readily upon the eyes, as being the tenderest part.

Blindness is frequently occasioned by the consequences of the small-pox. This disorder, which is very common in Egypt, is not properly treated: during the three first days, confection of grapes, honey, and sugar, are administered to the patient, and, after the seventh day, he is allowed milk, meat, and even salt-fish, as if he were in perfect health. Inoculation is not unknown to the Egyptians, but it is seldom practised. When they think proper to adopt it, the operation is performed by inserting a thread into the flesh, or by making the patient swallow the powder of some dried pustules.

Several modern authors have asserted that the pestilence is native in Egypt; but M. Savary was assured by some foreign physicians, who had resided there above twenty years, that this disease was brought thither from Turkey. "A proof," says our author, "that it is not native in Egypt is, that, except in time of great famine, it never breaks out in the inland towns, but always begins at sea-ports, on the arrival of Turkish vessels, and travels to the capital; whence it proceeds as far as Syene. Having come to a period in Grand Cairo, and being again introduced by the people of Upper Egypt, it renews, with augmented fury, and sometimes sweeps off two or three hundred thousand individuals. It always stops, however, in the month of June; and those who catch it at that time may be easily cured. It is also worthy of remark, that excess of heat and cold are equally destructive of this dreadful contagion; winter kills it in Constantinople, and summer in Egypt. It seldom reaches the polar circle, and never passes the tropic. The caravans of Cairo, Damascus, and Ispahan, which are sometimes infected, never propagate it at Mecca; and Yemen is always secure from its baleful influence.

Europeans stand aghast with terror at the calamities which this dreadful distemper produces in Grand Cairo. According to the commissioners of the customs, this city contains nearly nine hundred thousand inhabitants. The streets are very narrow, and always full of people, who crowd and jostle so violently against each other, that a passenger is sometimes obliged to wait several minutes before he can make his way. In such a situation, one person may communicate the plague to a hundred: for its progress is as rapid as that of a conflagration augmented by the wind.

When the disease first breaks out, the French merchants shut up their district, and cut off all communication with the city; Arab servants, who live without, bring them a daily supply of such provisions as they want, and, except bread, which does not communicate the infection, the

throw every article, through a hole cut in each door, into a tub of clean water, by which means it is purified, and may be eaten without fear. With these precautions the French enjoy perfect health, while surrounded by all the horrors of death; yet nothing can induce the Turks to adopt similar measures; nor is quarantine performed at a single port throughout the Ottoman empire.

Some traces of the precautions taken by the ancient Egyptians, with respect to the burial of the dead, are still visible in the modern practice. Though the curious art of embalming is entirely forgotten, yet the care with which they arrange the bodies of their deceased relations may be considered as the shadow of that obsolete practice. Immediately after the death of an Egyptian, the body is carefully washed, the beard shaved, and every aperture closely stuffed with cotton. It is then sprinkled with odoriferous waters, and the perfumes of Arabia are admitted into all the pores. After these attentions of respect and cleanliness, it is placed in a coffin, covered with cloth, the colour of which is optional, and carried, with the head foremost, to the tomb, preceded by priests, who recite various passages of the Koran, and female mourners, who are hired to utter the most loud and dismal exclamations of grief. A small stone-pillar, crowned with a turban, is generally erected on the spot where the head of the corpse reposes: and, on Fridays, the women repair to these pillars, to renew their lamentations.

The cemeteries in this country are placed beyond the limits of any habitation. They are large solitary enclosures, well adapted for the reception of visitors, who are led thither by motives of fond regret, or pious affection. The bodies are covered with a thick layer of earth, which preserves them from derangement.

History.] The princes of the line of the Pharaohs are supposed to have reigned in Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses II., king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, five hundred and twenty years before the birth of Christ; and, it is conjectured that, in the reign of these princes the pyramids were raised. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about three hundred years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Marc Antony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands seven hundred years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to have contained seven hundred thousand volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek, which translation is known by the name of the Septuagint.

About the time of the crusades, between the years 1153 and 1193, Egypt was governed by Nouredin, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved so formidable to the Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamelukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt for some time flourished under these illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks till the time of Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamelukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganous, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be very difficult to extirpate these marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia by the name of Gypsies.

An attempt was made, a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali, having turned Mahometan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the Grand Signior, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but, being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also assisted by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient Sultans of Egypt. But, not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprises, he was

not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of government, and the introducing of order into a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurance of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with the utmost protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans; and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey shewed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He assumed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprises against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and bashaws, whom he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomet Bey Abudahab; his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was also himself wounded and taken prisoner; and, dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahab afterwards governed Egypt, as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead one morning in Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty, and, trusting to their assurances, embraced the Captain Pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship; when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off, in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

A civil war now commenced between the adherents of Ali and other beys or princes who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal were Murad and Ibrahim, who, having driven their enemies into banishment, began to quarrel among themselves; till, at length, after having expelled each other from Cairo, they agreed to a kind of compromise, in March 1785.

From this time nothing of importance occurred till the invasion of Egypt by the French, in 1798, when Bonaparte arrived at Alexandria on the 1st of July, having escaped the British squadron, which was sent in pursuit of him, under the command of Admiral Lord Nelson. His good fortune appeared to attend him in his first attempts. The city of Alexandria was taken by assault, on the night of the 5th; and, on the 21st, the French army appeared before Cairo, which was defended by Murad Bey, with a considerable body of the Mamelukes; but, on the 23d, it was attacked and carried. The beys attempted to rally, and collected a formidable force in the vicinity of Cairo; but the battle of the Pyramids, which was fought on the 26th, rendered the French masters of the greater part of the country.

The conquest of Egypt now appeared to be completed; but, on the 1st of August, 1798, the expedition received a terrible blow in the defeat and destruction of the fleet by Admiral Lord Nelson. The French land-forces, however, remained in possession of Egypt; and, to secure his conquests, Bonaparte advanced into Syria, where, after gaining some advantages, he received a decisive check before St. John d'Acre. The English squadron, under Sir Sydney Smith, intercepted a flotilla, which was bringing Bonaparte's battering artillery and ammunition from Egypt; and Sir Sydney acting in concert with the Turks, the French general was completely repulsed in every assault, and obliged to raise the siege, and retreat back to Egypt with the shattered remains of his army. From Egypt Bonaparte soon after took an opportunity to make his escape to France; and General Kleber, who was left at the head of the army, concluded a treaty with the Grand Vizier, who had been sent against him with a powerful army; by which the French troops were to be permitted to evacuate Egypt without molestation. But the British government having, at the same time, sent orders to the English admirals in the Mediterranean to prevent the return of the French to Europe, General Kleber, having received notice of these orders, immediately attacked the Turks, and defeated them with great slaughter. Kleber was some time after assassinated, and Menou took the command of the French.

In the latter end of the year 1800, a strong force was sent out by the British government, to expel the French from Egypt. Admiral Keith commanded the fleet, and that gallant and experienced officer, Sir Ralph Abercrombie, the land-forces. After many unexpected delays the fleet arrived off Alexandria on the 1st of March, 1801. The troops made good their landing on the 7th and 8th of that month, and on the 13th gained a victory over the French, though with the loss of above two thousand men in killed, wounded, and missing. On the 21st, a more decisive battle was fought, which ended in a complete victory on the part of the English, who, however, suffered a loss much to be lamented, in the death of the brave general Abercrombie, who was mortally wounded in this action, and died on the 28th. General Moore was also dangerously wounded. On the part of the enemy, the French general Roize was left dead on the field, and generals Lanusse and Rodet afterwards died of their wounds.

After the death of General Abercrombie, general (now

lord) Hutchinson took the chief command of the British forces. The town and castle of Rosetta were taken by a division of the English army, under Colonel Spencer, aided by a body of the Turks; and early in May a force was detached to reduce Cairo. The French were defeated at Rhamanieh by the Turks, assisted by the British; and, about the middle of June, the city of Cairo was invested on every side by the English forces and those of the Grand Vizier. On the 22d of that month, the garrison of Cairo sent a flag of truce to the English general, and, after a negociation of several days, a convention was agreed to, by which the French army at Cairo and its dependencies were to be conveyed in ships of the allied powers, and at their expense, together with their baggage, arms, ammunition, and effects, to the nearest French ports in the Mediterranean. The complete conquest of Egypt soon followed, by General Menou accepting the conditions of the convention of Cairo, for himself and the army under his command.

After the evacuation of Egypt by the French, the English endeavoured to effect a reconciliation between the Mamelukes and the Turks, to restore the former government of the country; but the Turks treacherously assassinating a number of the beys, the remainder fled into Upper Egypt; and the Porte, being unable to subdue them, at length concluded a treaty with them, by which they yielded to them possession of that part of the country. In consequence, however, of the mutinies and intestine contentions among the Turkish troops, the Mamelukes again returned into Lower Egypt, and the country became a scene of confusion and anarchy, alternately ravaged by the different contending parties.

CHAPTER II.

STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head are comprised the countries of Morocco and Fez, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, the latter of which includes Barca.

Extent, Boundaries, &c.] The empire of MOROCCO, comprising Fez, is about five hundred miles in length, and four hundred and eighty in breadth, being bounded, on the north and west, by the Mediterranean; on the south, by Tafilet; and, on the east, by Algiers and Segelmissa.

ALGIERS extends along the coast of the Mediterranean, about four hundred and eighty miles in length, and between forty and one hundred in breadth. Its boundaries are the Mediterranean on the north, Tunis on the east, Mount Atlas on the south, and Morocco on the west.

TUNIS is about two hundred and twenty miles in length, from north to south, and nearly one hundred and seventy in breadth, from east to west; being bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east, by Algiers on the west, and by Tripoli and part of Biledulgerid on the south.

TRIPOLI, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the country of the Beriberes; on the west, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the east, by Egypt; extending about eleven hundred miles along the sea-coast: and the breadth is from one to three hundred miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the existence of its internal polity; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August. These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their government, yet they are still fertile; not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, and plenty of esculent roots and herbs in the kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of the Europeans who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for the great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits, of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces saltpetre, and great quantities of excellent salt: and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Animals.] Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but the deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though the breed is now said to have degenerated, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, between an ass and a cow, are their beasts of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive the greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journeys across the continent. He seems to have been created for this very purpose, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without occasioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering-place, to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring; and with this, he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching sands.

The cows are but small, and barren of milk. The sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are the goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, chamelions, and all kinds of reptiles, are found here. "Besides vermin," says Dr. Shaw, speaking of his travels through Barbary, "the apprehensions we were under, in some parts at least, of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose." Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish.

Antiquities.] A great number of curiosities of this kind are scattered about these countries, which were once possessed by the ancient Romans, as may be seen in Dr. Shaw's geographical observations on the kingdoms of Algiers and Tunis. Spaitha, the ancient Susetula, is one of the most remarkable places in Barbary, for the extent and magnificence of its ruins; amongst which, at a furlong's distance to the eastward, there is a sumptuous triumphal arch, of the Corinthian order. From this arch, all along to the city, there is a pavement of large black stones, with a parapet-wall on each side, probably intended to make the entry of the triumpher more commodious. At a little distance from the end of this pavement stands a beautiful portico, built in the same manner as the triumphal arch, which leads into a spacious court, where are the ruins of three contiguous temples, whose roofs, porticoes, and fore-fronts, are broken down, but all the other walls, with their proper pediments and entablatures, remain perfect and entire. In each of them there is a niche, which fronts the portico; and behind that, in the middle temple, is a small chamber, which, perhaps, served for a vestry.

At a place called Jemme, in the kingdom of Tunis, there are several antiquities; as altars, with defaced inscriptions; a variety of columns, a great many trunks and arms of marble statues, one of which is of the colossal kind in armour, another a naked Venus, like the Medicean, both without heads, but apparently the workmanship of good masters. What this place is most remarkably distinguished by, are the remains of a spacious amphitheatre, consisting originally of sixty-four arches, and four orders of columns. The upper order, which probably might be no more than an Attic, has suffered materially from the barbarity of the Arabs, and four arches have been entirely blown up by a bey of Tunis, in a revolt of the Arabs, who made use of it as a fortress; otherwise, as to the outside at least, nothing can be more entire and beautiful. The platform of the seats and the galleries are still remaining; and, by comparing this with other ancient structures, it seems to have been built about the time of the Antonines, agreeing exactly in proportion and workmanship with the buildings of that age.

Besides some ancient cisterns and common sewers, there are scarcely any tokens left of the magnificence of Carthage, the rival of Rome. "We meet with no triumphal arch," says our author, "nor sumptuous piece of architecture; no pillars of granite, nor curious entablatures; but the broken walls and structures now remaining are either built in the Gothic manner, or according to that of the later inhabitants. Adjoining to the large public cisterns, indeed, which were near the western wall of the city, we see the ruins of an ancient and celebrated aqueduct, which may be traced to the distance of at least fifty miles. This has been a work of extraordinary labour and expense; and that part of it which runs along the peninsula whereon Carthage was built, appears to have been beautifully faced with hewn stone. At Arriana, a little village two leagues to the northward of Tunis, several arches of this aqueduct are entire, which are about seventy feet high, and the pillars that supported them are sixteen feet square. The channel that conveyed the water lies above these arches, being vaulted over, and plastered with a strong cement. A person of an

ordinary size may walk upright in it; and there are holes left at certain distances, both for the admission of fresh air, and the convenience of cleansing it when necessary."

Over the fountains that supplied this aqueduct with water there were temples erected, of which there are still some remains. One of them, which, by its ornaments, appears to have been of the Corinthian order, ends very beautifully in a dome, wherein are three niches, probably intended to receive statues of water-nymphs, or other deities, supposed by the ancients to preside over fountains. The aqueduct, however, appears to be of much greater antiquity than the temple, having probably been a work of the Carthaginians; it being difficult to conceive how Carthage could well subsist without such a convenience.

In the kingdom of Algiers, near a town called Shershell, lie the ruins of a large city, which, according to a tradition in that country, was destroyed by an earthquake. We may conceive a tolerable idea of its former magnificence, from the fine pillars, capitals, capacious cisterns, and beautiful mosaic pavements, that are still remaining. It was supplied with water, brought by a large and sumptuous aqueduct, little inferior to that of Carthage, in the height and strength of its arches; several fragments of which, scattered amongst the neighbouring mountains and valleys, continue to be so many incontestible proofs of the grandeur and beauty of the work. There are two other conduits still subsisting, which furnish Shershell with excellent water from the mountains, and may be considered as two indisputable proofs of ancient magnificence.

Among the ruins of Tlemsan, or Tremesen, are found several shafts of pillars, and other fragments of Roman antiquities; and in the walls of an old mosque are a number of altars, dedicated to the Dii Manes, but there is only one legible inscription. Most of the walls of Tlemsan have been moulded in frames, and consist of a mortar made up of sand, lime, and small pebbles, which, by being well tempered and wrought together, is become equal to stone in strength and solidity. The several stages and removes of these frames are still discernible, some of them being a hundred yards long, and about six feet in height and thickness.

At a place called Kasbaite, on the site of an old Roman city, there are many fragments of antiquity; and, amongst the rest, there is part of the portico of a small temple, dedicated, perhaps, to one of the Roman empresses, as may be conjectured from a broken inscription. A little to the southward are several sepulchral monuments, most of which have been beautifully carved into a variety of figures in bass relief, who are represented mourning, offering incense, or performing some office to the dead; and below the figures lie the inscriptions.

Along a range of hills, called Auress, lying to the southward of Constantina, are spread a number of ruins, the most remarkable of which are those of L'Erba or Tezzoute, near three leagues in circumference. Here are a great variety of antiquities; for, besides the magnificent remains of several of the city-gates, Dr. Shaw observed the seats and upper part of an amphitheatre; the frontispiece of a fine Ionic temple, dedicated to Esculapius; a large oblong chamber, with a great gate on each side, intended, perhaps, for a triumphal arch; and a little beautiful mausoleum, built in form of a dome, supported by Corinthian pillars. These, and other edifices of the like nature, sufficiently demonstrate the once-flourishing state of this city, which appears to have been the Lambesa of the ancients. Our learned author copied several Roman inscriptions found among these ruins.

About Constantina, the ancient Cirta, there are many remains of antiquity, particularly on a neck of land to the south-west, which is entirely covered with broken walls, cisterns, and other ruins. Besides these, there are still remaining, near the centre of the city, a set of cisterns, about twenty in number, making an area of fifty yards square, which probably received the water brought to them by an aqueduct, the fragments of which demonstrate the public spirit of the people of Cirta in erecting a structure that must have required an immense quantity of materials.

Upon the edge of a precipice, to the northward, are the remains of a stately edifice, at present occupied by a Turkish garrison. Four bases of pillars, seven feet in diameter, with their respective pedestals, are still in their places, and seem to have belonged to the portico. They are of a black stone, little inferior to marble, probably hewn out of the range of rocks on which they are founded.

The side-pillars of the principal gate of the city are of a reddish stone, as beautiful as marble, and very neatly moulded and pannelled. An altar of white marble makes part of a neighbouring wall, and on that side which is in view is carved, in relievo, a well-shaped simpulum, a vessel used by the ancients in their sacrifices. The gate toward the south-east is in the same fashion and design, but much smaller. The bridge appears to have been a master-piece in its kind, having had the gallery and the columns of the arches adorned with cornices, festoons, heads of oxen, and garlands. The key-stones of the arches are also charged with Caducei, and other figures; and between the two principal arches there is a well-executed bass-relief, representing a lady treading upon two elephants, which have their faces turned toward each other, and seem to twist their trunks together. The female figure has a large scollop-shell over her head; appears dressed in a close-bodied garment, like a modern riding-habit; and seems to look scornfully upon the city.

A few miles distant from Tangier, there is a vast hole, like a coal-pit, many fathoms deep, which leads into a great number of subterranean apartments, all lined with marble.

These, from the numerous statues, urns, and old Punic inscriptions, that have been found in them, were undoubtedly repositories for the dead, like the catacombs in Italy and Egypt.

Cities and Towns.] Morocco, the capital, is pleasantly situated on an extensive plain, between two rivers, the Nephtis and Agmed, and is watered by a third, named the Tensist. It once contained one hundred thousand houses, and still has twenty-five magnificent gates, and a great number of mosques, palaces, &c.; but its pristine splendour is much decayed. It is situated sixteen miles north of Mount Atlas, in thirty degrees forty minutes north latitude, and seven degrees west longitude. The walls are so strong, both with respect to the stones themselves, and the cement with which they are fastened, that they are impenetrable to the pickaxe, and other instruments. They are flanked with strong towers, bulwarks, bastions, &c. and surrounded with a deep ditch.

The imperial palace stands within a spacious fortress, called Al-Capava, situated on the outside of the city. It is defended by high walls, strong towers, and a deep fosse. The royal apartments, halls of audience, and seraglio, are noble structures, highly embellished, and sumptuously furnished, and the gardens are extensive. The houses, in general, are in an indifferent condition, and many of them gone to decay. The inhabitants are numerous. The Jews, the number of whom is about four thousand, live in a particular quarter of the city; and, though highly taxed, they here, as well as elsewhere, acquire wealth, but artfully pretend to poverty, and, for obvious reasons, make a very mean appearance.

The most modern traveller who has given an account of Morocco is Mr. Lempriere; but no notice is taken in any geographical work of his observations on that part of Africa, though some years have elapsed since he submitted them to the public. Mr. L. was a medical man, and, in his scientific capacity, was called on to visit a favourite sultana, by which he had an opportunity of inspecting the harem, of which he gives the following interesting account.

"The public and usual entrance to the harem is through a very large arched door-way, guarded on the outside by ten body-guards, which leads to a lofty hall, where the captain or alcaide, with a guard of seventeen eunuchs, are posted. No person is admitted into this hall, but those who are known to have business in the harem.

"The emperor's order being delivered on the outside of the door to the alcaide, I was immediately, with my interpreter, conducted into the harem by one of the negro eunuchs. Upon entering the court, into which the women's apartments open, I discovered a motley groupe of concubines, domestics, and negro slaves, who were variously employed. Those of the first description had formed themselves into circles, seated on the ground in the open court, and were apparently engaged in conversation. The domestics and slaves were partly employed in needle-work, and partly in preparing their coscofu. My appearance in the court, however, soon attracted their attention, and a considerable number of them, upon observing me, unacquainted with the means by which I had been admitted into the harem, retreated with the utmost precipitancy into their apartments; while others more courageously approached, and enquired of my black attendant who I was, and by whose orders he had brought me thither.

"The moment it was known that I was of the medical profession, parties of them were detached to inform those who had fled, that I was sent in, by order of the emperor, to attend Lalla Zara, (my intended patient's name,) and requesting of them to come back and look at the Christian. Christian doctor! resounded from one end of the harem to the other; and, in the course of a few minutes, I was so completely surrounded by women and children, that I was unable to move a single step.

"Every one of them appeared solicitous to find out some complaint on which she might consult me, and those who had not ingenuity enough to invent one, obliged me to feel their pulse; and were highly displeased if I did not evince my excellence in my profession by the discovery of some ailment or other. All of them seemed so urgent to be attended to at the same time, that while I was feeling the pulse of one, others were behind, pulling my coat, and entreating me to examine their complaints, while a third party were upbraiding me for not paying them the same attention. Their ideas of delicacy did not at all correspond with those of our European ladies, for they exhibited the beauties of their limbs and form with a degree of freedom that in any other country would have been thought indecent; and their conversation was equally unrestrained.

"This apparent laxity of conduct in the Moorish ladies does not proceed from a depravity in principle. As the female sex in this country are not entrusted with the guardianship of their honour, there is no virtue in reserve. A depraved education ever serves to corrupt, instead of restraining them. They are not regarded as rational or moral agents; they are only considered as beings created entirely to be subservient to the pleasure of man. To excite the passions, and to do and say every thing which may inflame a licentious imagination, become, therefore, necessary accomplishments in the female sex, and their manners and conduct naturally assume a cast totally different from those of women in a more refined and more liberal state of society. In those instances to which I refer, they were not conscious of trespassing the bounds of decency; and in others they manifested a singular attention to what they conceived to be decorum. When I requested to see the

tongues of some of my patients, who complained of feverish symptoms, they refused to comply, considering it as inconsistent with their modesty and virtue: some of them indeed laughed at the singularity of the request, and attributed it either to an impertinent curiosity, or an inclination to impose on their understandings.

"As the number of my patients continued to increase rather than to diminish, there appeared but little prospect of an introduction to the sultana Lalla Zara, whom I was first directed to attend, in any reasonable time. The eunuch, however, wearied out with waiting, exerted all the vigour of authority which his natural effeminacy would admit of, to oblige them to disperse, and which was so far effectual at least, as to allow me room to pass, though this female crowd still followed me, till I had nearly reached the lady's apartment.

"From the first court into which I had been introduced, I passed through two or three similar, till I, at length, arrived at the chamber of my intended patient. I was here detained a little time in the court, till my patient and her apartment were ready to receive me. Upon my entrance, I found the lady sitting cross-legged on a mattress, placed on the floor, and covered with fine linen, with twelve white and negro attendants, seated on the floor also, in different parts of the chamber. A round cushion was placed for me next to the lady, on which I was desired to be seated. I should have remarked, that, contrary to my expectations, I found that none of the emperor's women disguised their faces in the manner which I had experienced in the prince's harem, but I saw them with the same familiarity as if I had been introduced into the house of an European.

"Lalla Zara, who was of Moorish parents, was, about eight years before, remarkable for her beauty and accomplishments; on which account she was then, in every respect, the favourite wife of the late emperor. So dangerous a pre-eminence could not be enjoyed, without exciting the jealousy of those females whose charms were less conspicuous; and who, besides the mortification of having a less share of beauty, experienced also the disgrace of being deserted by their lord.

"Determined to effect her ruin, they contrived to mix some poison in her food, and conducted the detestable plot with so much art and address, that it was not perceived till the deleterious drug had begun its baneful operations. She was seized with most violent spasms, and a continual sickness; and, had she not been possessed of an uncommonly strong constitution, she must immediately have fallen a victim to the machinations of her rivals. After a severe struggle, however, between life and death, the effects of the poison, in some degree, abated; but it left the unhappy lady in a state of dreadful debility and irritation, particularly in the stomach, from which it was not, perhaps, in the power of medicine to extricate her. Her beauty, too, the fatal cause of her misfortune, was completely destroyed, and her enemies, though disappointed in their aim of destroying her life, yet enjoyed the malignant triumph of seeing those charms, which had excited their uneasiness, reduced below the standard of ordinary women.

"When I saw her, she had such a weakness of digestion, that every species of food which she took, after remaining a few hours on her stomach, was returned perfectly crude and undigested. As she did not receive proper nourishment, her body had wasted away to a shadow, and her frame was in so weak a state as not to allow her to walk without assistance. Her complexion was entirely altered. Her skin, from being naturally clear and fair, as I was informed, was changed to a sickly brown, which, joined to a ruined set of teeth and a ghastly countenance, had effaced every trace of that beauty which she before might have possessed. Upon my first entering her apartment, though, from my profession, accustomed to behold objects of distress and misery, yet I was so forcibly struck with her unhappy situation and wretched appearance, that I was obliged to exert all the fortitude of which I was master, to avoid the discovery of my feelings.

"Lalla Zara was at this time about thirty-six years of age, and, though in so weak a state, had two beautiful young children; the first was in its sixth year, and the youngest, which was then under the care of a wet-nurse, was very little more than a twelvemonth old. I was quite astonished to observe such strong and apparently healthful children the offspring of a mother whose constitution was so dreadfully impaired. It was certainly, however, a very fortunate circumstance for Lalla Zara that she had these children; since, by the Mahometan law, a man cannot divorce his wife, provided she bear him children: so that, though the emperor took very little notice of this poor lady, yet he was, for the above reason, obliged to maintain both herself and her offspring.

"From the wretched situation in which I have described this unfortunate female, it is easy to conceive that her spirits must revive at the most distant prospect of procuring relief in her disagreeable complaint. Such, indeed, was the case. She received me with all that satisfaction which hope, united with some degree of confidence, most naturally inspires.

"Under these circumstances, the predicament in which I felt myself was, I must confess, most truly embarrassing. It was one of those unpleasant situations, in which duty and interest are completely in opposition to each other, or rather where the sympathetic feelings stand opposed to personal safety. Humanity pointed out to me, that it was my duty to relieve her, if possible; on the other hand, self-preservation no less strongly dictated, that it was abso-

lutely necessary to my safety and happiness to embrace the first opportunity of leaving a country where I existed in the most critical and most disagreeable situation. Both these sentiments for some time pressed equally on my mind, and left me at a loss how to determine. I, at length, however, fixed on a middle plan of conduct, which appeared likely to effect the safety of the lady, without endangering my own. This was, to give a proper course of medicines a fair trial for a fortnight; and then, if the least prospect of amendment should appear in consequence of them, I could leave her more, with such directions as might enable her to use them without medical attendance.

"This plan I conceived it most prudent not to communicate immediately to my patient: I, therefore, without affording her any very flattering hopes of a cure, assured her, that I would practise every means with which I was acquainted for the restoration of her constitution. Contrary to most other Moorish females, I found Lalla Zara in every respect affable and polite; though deprived of her health, she retained her natural vivacity; and, with the ravages of her inveterate malady, she still remained a pleasing and interesting character.

"I was upon the point of taking my leave of Lalla Zara, when a female messenger appeared, to request my attendance upon Lalla Batoom, who, from the priority of her marriage, is called the first wife of the emperor, and is more properly entitled to the denomination of sultana than any of the others.

"The harem forms a part of the palace or seraglio, without any other immediate communication with it than a private door, used only by the emperor himself.

"The apartments, which are all on the ground-floor, are square, very lofty, and four of them enclose a spacious square court, into which they open by means of large folding doors. These, as in other Moorish houses, which, in general, have no windows, serve the purpose of admitting light into the apartments. In the centre of these courts, which are floored with blue and white chequered tiling, is a fountain, supplied by pipes from a large reservoir on the outside of the palace, which serves for the frequent ablutions recommended by the Mahometan religion, as well as for other purposes.

"The whole of the harem consists of about twelve of these square courts, communicating with each other by narrow passages, which afford a free access from one part of it to another, and of which all the women are allowed to avail themselves.

"The apartments are ornamented externally with beautiful carved wood, much superior to any I have ever seen in Europe, as well for the difficulty of the workmanship, as for the taste with which it is finished. In the inside, most of the rooms are hung with rich damask, of various colours; the floors are covered with beautiful carpets, and there are mattresses disposed at different distances for the purposes of sitting and sleeping.

"Besides these, the apartments are furnished at each extremity with an elegant European mahogany bedstead, hung with damask, having on it several mattresses placed one over the other, which are covered with various coloured silks; but these beds are merely placed there to ornament the room. In all the apartments, without exception, the ceiling is wood, carved and painted. The principal ornaments in some were large and valuable looking-glasses, hung on different parts of the walls. In others, clocks and watches of different sizes, in glass cases, were disposed in the same manner. In some of the apartments I observed a projection from the wall, which reached about half way to the ceiling, on which were placed several mattresses over each other, and each covered with silks of different colours. Above and below this projection the wall was hung with pieces of satin, velvet, and damask, of different colours, ornamented on each edge with a broad stripe of black velvet, which was embroidered in its centre with gold.

"The whole harem was under the management of the principal sultana, Lalla Batoom: that is, in general, she was distinguished by the title of mistress of the harem, without having any particular control over the women. This lady and Lalla Douyaw, the favourite, were indulged with a whole square to themselves; but Lalla Zara, and all the concubines, were only allowed each a single room.

"Each female had a separate daily allowance from the emperor, proportioned to the estimation in which they were held by him. Out of this they were expected to furnish themselves with every article of which they might be in want; the harem is therefore to be considered as a place where so many distinct lodgers have apartments without paying for them, and the principal sultana as mistress of the whole.

"The daily allowance which each woman received from the late emperor for her subsistence is very trifling indeed. Lalla Douyaw, the favourite sultana, had very little more than half-a-crown English per diem, and the others less in proportion. It must be allowed, that the emperor made them occasional presents of money, dress, and trinkets; but this could never be sufficient to support the number of domestics and other expenses they must incur. Their greatest dependence, therefore, was on the presents they received from those Europeans and Moors who visited the court, and who employed their influence in obtaining some particular favour from the emperor. Nor had the monarch sufficient delicacy to discourage this mode of negociation. He well knew that, if his women had not obtained supplies by other means, they must have had recourse to his purse; and, as he had taken too good precautions to allow any mischief to arise from this custom,

he was always well pleased to have business transacted through that channel. Ambassadors, consuls, and merchants, indeed, who were acquainted with the nature of the court, perfectly knew that this was always the most successful mode that could be adopted. As an illustration of this assertion, when I was at Morocco, a Jew, desirous of obtaining a very advantageous favour from the emperor, for which he had been a long time unsuccessfully soliciting, sent to all the principal ladies of the harem presents of pearls, to a considerable amount: the consequence was, that they all went in a body to the emperor, and immediately obtained the wished-for concession.

"The ladies separately furnish their own rooms, hire their own domestics, and, in fact, do what they please in the harem, but are not permitted to go out without an express order from the emperor, who very seldom grants them that favour, except when they are to be removed from one palace to another. In that case, a party of soldiers is dispatched a little distance before them, to disperse the male passengers in particular, and to prevent the possibility of their being seen. This previous step being taken, a piece of linen-cloth is tied round the lower part of the face, and afterwards these females cover themselves entirely with their haiks, and either mount mules, which they ride like men, or, what is more usual, are put into a square carriage or litter, constructed for this purpose, which, by its lattice work, allows them to see without being perceived. In this manner they set off under the charge of a guard of black eunuchs. This journey, and sometimes a walk within the bounds of the palace, with which they are, however, seldom indulged, is the only exercise they are permitted to take.

"The late emperor's harem consisted of between sixty and a hundred females, besides their domestics and slaves, which were very numerous. The four wives which I have already noticed are by no means to be considered as the first set of which the emperor was possessed, since some died, and others were repudiated. So that it is a difficult matter to determine what was the precise number of the late emperor's wives.

"Many of the concubines were Moorish women, who had been presented to the emperor, as the Moors consider it an honour to have their daughters in the harem; several were European slaves, who had been either made captives or purchased by the emperor; and some were negroes.

"In this groupe, the Europeans, or their descendants, had by far the greatest claim to the character of handsome. There was one in particular, who was a native of Spain, and taken into the harem at about the same age as Lalla Douyaw, who was indeed a perfect beauty. Nor was this lady quite singular in that respect, for many others were almost equally handsome.

"The Moorish women have, in general, an inexpressive countenance, and a rustic simplicity of manners. Their persons are below the middle stature, of a remarkably fat and square make, with very large hands and feet. Their complexions are either of a clear brown, or, what is more usual, of a sallow cast. Their faces are round, and their eyes, in general, black; the nose and mouth very small, and the latter is usually accompanied with a good set of teeth."

Fez was originally the capital of the kingdom of the same name, and is still a rich and populous place. It consists of two parts, Old and New Fez, and, at present, they form one city. Old Fez is nine miles in circumference, stands between two hills, is surrounded by strong walls, and flanked with magnificent towers. It is beyond the suburbs, contains many excellent gardens, has narrow streets, seven gates, and two castles; the one old, and gone to decay, the other new, and in good condition. The latter is garrisoned with blacks; but neither have any cannon to defend them. The houses are of stone or brick, three stories high, flat-roofed, encompassed with galleries, adorned on the outside with mosaic work, and embellished within with carving, painting, and, in many instances, with elegant furniture. In general, the seraglios are upon the turrets of the houses, from which the women have a fine prospect; but they are never permitted to stir abroad.

The river Fez, in passing through the city, divides itself into six canals, over the various parts of which are two hundred and fifty stone bridges, and three hundred and seventy mills are turned by the several streams. In the city, three hundred and thirty-six ovens are daily employed. The mosques are stated at five hundred, fifty of which are of the first rank; and one, in particular, is a most amazing structure, being a mile and a half in circumference, including the cloister and college belonging to it. This college contains the best library in the empire. There are several hospitals and colleges, which are large, magnificent, and well endowed; six hundred water-conduits, and two hundred spacious inns. The principal magistrate of the city is styled provost of the merchants: besides whom there is a governor, a cadi, and other subordinate officers.

Fez is considered to be the grand magazine and principal mart of Barbary. Merchants and tradesmen are numerous, and the warehouses are filled with great variety of commodities. The articles of exportation are hides, leather, skins, furs, wool, dried fruits, olives, honey, wax, silk, cotton, flax, ostrich-feathers, gold-dust, &c. &c. Those of importation are spices, cochineal, vermillion, iron, brass, steel, arms, ammunition, drugs, watches, quicksilver, opium, alum, aloes, linens, woollens, muslins, calicoes, fustians, &c.

The city of ALGIERS is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants, fifteen thousand houses, and one hundred and seven mosques. The public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is extremely beautiful, the city being built on the declivity of a mountain; but, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of the inhabitants from the harbour. The mole of the harbour is five hundred paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island, where there is a castle and large battery.

TUNIS, built near the original site of Carthage, has a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods: but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water; that of rain, preserved in cisterns, is chiefly used by the inhabitants.

The city of TRIPOLI consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but great inconveniences attend its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many sanguinary disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given, by the crown of Portugal, as part of the dowry of queen Catherine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it would have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstanding between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications, and demolish its harbours; so that, from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing-town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but, at present, provisionally occupied by the English. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about eight hundred houses: but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The lower subjects of these states know but few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist principally of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce: so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist of elephants' teeth, ostrich-feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum-arabic, and sandarach. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade, by caravans, to Mecca and Medina, and to the interior of Africa, whence they bring back great numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco are but half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, knowing that punishment rarely follows detection.

Military and Marine Force.] The king of Morocco, it is said, can bring into the field one hundred thousand men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry, mounted by his negro slaves. These wretches, brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but their king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and, being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about six thousand five hundred infantry, consisting of Turks and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About one thousand of them do garrison-duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the Dey can bring five thousand Moorish horse into the field; but, as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states maintain a force in proportion to their abilities; so that, a few years ago, they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish

emperor, though they were willing to gratify him with the shadow of obedience.

It is remarkable that, though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant-ships belonging to them, nor, indeed, any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and, some years ago, did not exceed six ships, of from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute, by way of presents.

Constitution and Government.] In Morocco, government can hardly be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters: nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death, and it is seldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the caliphate government still continue; for, in places where no military officer resides, the mufti, or high-priest, is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand-signior to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance, as the chief representative of Mahomet. What has been said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand-signior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by assassination, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and, though the election is often attended with bloodshed, it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognised and obeyed. It is true, he requires the confirmation of the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about one hundred and fifty thousand pounds a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand-signior is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the emperor of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are military and civil officers; and, in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common-council, which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties amongst the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills the place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life; and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to terminate his life and government.

Revenues.] The revenues of Algiers have been mentioned in the preceding article, but they are now said to be exceeded by those of Tunis. They consist of a certain portion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the emperor of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendants, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of his Christian slaves ar his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He derives likewise considerable profits from the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed one hundred and sixty-five thousand pounds a year. A detachment of the army of these states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

Religion.] The inhabitants of these states are Mahometans; but many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs. All of them have much respect for idiots; and, in some cases, their protection screens offenders from punishment for the most notorious crimes. The Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called, have, in general, adopted the worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profession of their religion

Language.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly bore the names of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and seafaring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known, in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca.*

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives of Morocco, according to the accounts of travellers, seldom wrangle or quarrel with each other, and murders (those committed by the emperors excepted) are never heard of. They are scrupulously obedient to their parents, pay the most profound respect to their superiors, and are loyal to their sovereigns, even to a most absurd degree of veneration. They are, in general, temperate in eating and drinking, though some of the great men lead abandoned lives; but they use a great quantity of opium. Although in the most civilized nations of Europe vast crowds of natives flock to see public executions with a kind of unfeeling curiosity, yet in Morocco it is quite the reverse; for all ranks of people carefully keep out of the way, and criminals are often executed without any person being present except the officers of justice.

The dress of the people of Morocco consists of a linen shirt, and drawers, over which they tie a silk cloth, or vestment, with a sash; and upon that they wear a loose coat, or rather gown. Their arms and legs are always bare, but they have slippers on their feet, and persons of rank sometimes wear buskins. They shave their heads, and wear a turban made of silk or fine linen. The dress of the women nearly resembles that of the men, except that, instead of a turban, they wear a round cap, made of fine linen. Their drawers are much longer and larger; and when they appear in the streets, their faces are covered with a linen cloth, in the manner of a mask. The women of the higher class not only paint their cheeks and chins with deep red, but make a long black mark on the forehead, another on the tip of the nose, and several on the cheeks.

Their general diet is *coscofu*, consisting of small pieces of paste, about the size of rice, crumbled into an earthen cullender, and cooked by the steam of boiled meat and vegetables, which are all served up together, in an earthen dish, with butter and spices. This stew, in which nothing is lost, even the steam being received by the paste, is the favourite meal of the peasant and the monarch. At meals their slovenliness is disgusting, and they are prohibited from using gold and silver vessels.

Algiers may be said to comprise a mixture of most nations; but the most numerous of its inhabitants are the Moors and Arabians. The Moors are divided into two orders, viz.—those who live in towns, and follow piracy, or various professions by land or sea, and those who wander about without being possessed of houses or land. The first are the citizens of the kingdom, the latter the bulk of the inhabitants. These Moors are of a swarthy complexion, and robust habit of body. The men are active, the women fruitful, and the children healthy. The Arabians of Algiers are divided into tribes, wander up and down, and profess the same religion, customs, and manners, as those of Arabia.

The Algerines are the most cruel and dangerous pirates of all Africa; base, perfidious, and rapacious to the last degree. No oaths or ties, human or divine, will avail to bind them when their interest interferes. In short, whatever respect they may pretend to pay to their prophet Mahomet, gold is the only idol which they worship.

Those who reside on the coast are very savage to such as unfortunately fall into their hands by shipwreck; so that it appears that the Algerines, in general, are as much strangers to humanity, as they are to an elegant taste or polite behaviour.

The dress of the men is only a long piece of coarse cloth, wrapped round their shoulders, and falling down to their ankles, with a cap of the same. The women wear a piece of woollen-stuff, that covers them from their shoulders to their knees. They braid their hair, and adorn it with glass-beads and fishes' teeth. Their arms and legs they ornament with bracelets of ivory, horn, and even wood, and blacken their cheeks, foreheads, arms, and legs. The children are suffered to go naked till seven or eight years old, when they cover them with a few rags, rather for ornament than decency. The dress of the sheik, or chief, of every tribe, is a shirt and cloak, all of one piece, hanging from the shoulders half way down the leg, and he wears a cap of fine cloth.

The Algerine Turks dress with as much elegance as the inhabitants of Turkey. The free Christians are permitted to dress in the fashions of their respective countries; but the slaves are obliged to wear a coarse grey suit, and a seaman's cap. The shereffs, or those who pretend to be descended from Mahomet, are distinguished by a green turban; but the common Algerines wear shirts, linen drawers, an open woollen jacket, with a hood behind, and a black cloak, which reaches to their knees, when they go abroad.

The wandering sort are distinguished into various tribes, each forming an itinerant village, and every family living in a portable hut. They live by the produce of the lands, which they farm of those of the first order. They pay their rent to their landlords in corn, herbs, fruit, honey, wax, &c. and a tribute to the dey, according to the number of the family in each moving village, or rather camp. Their tents are mean, their utensils trifling, their circumstances

poor, and their manner of living filthy. They have no chimneys to these habitations: the fires are made in earthen pots, which are placed near the door, to let out the smoke. The family, and all domestic animals, lie promiscuously in the hut together, dogs excepted, these being placed on the outside as centinels. They live chiefly on rice, bread, fruit, and plain water: and their principal employ is husbandry, or breeding bees or silk-worms.

When a youth of the class last mentioned is disposed to marry, he drives a number of cattle to the hut where the intended bride resides. The girl and her parents, on viewing the stock, immediately consent. All the young women of the village are then invited to the feast. The bride is afterwards placed on a horse, belonging to the bridegroom, and led home, amidst the acclamations of all present. When she arrives at the door of the bridegroom's hut, a mixture of milk and honey is given her to drink, while a nuptial song is sung. She then alights, and, to shew her willingness to perform any duty he may assign her, drives his flock to water and back again. These previous ceremonies being settled, all the company enter the hut, and the evening concludes with the greatest festivity that these poor people are capable of enjoying. Subsequent to the marriage, the wife is obliged to wear a veil, and never stirs from the hut during a month, and ever after is excluded from all concern in, and knowledge of, public affairs.

Polygamy is allowed among the Algerines who are of the higher order. Marriage-contracts are generally left to the interference of friends. When the marriage is agreed upon, the bridegroom sends a present to the bride, and gratifies her relations with a feast and musical entertainment. The marriage-ceremony is concluded with another entertainment.

In sickness the Algerines are attended by persons of their own sex to nurse them. The physicians are extremely ignorant, and if they find their patients at the point of death, they turn them towards the east. After the departure of life, the corpse, being washed and clad in a shirt, drawers, silk robe and turban, is laid in a kind of square coffin, and carried on men's shoulders, by means of poles, to the place of interment, attended by relations and friends.

Mourning is expressed by the women going veiled for some days, and the men wearing their beards for a month. During three days after the funeral, the nearest relations visit the tomb, distribute alms to the poor, and suffer no fire to be lighted in their houses. The better sort have epitaphs on their tomb-stones.

The greatest part of the Tunisian women would be esteemed beauties, even in England; and their children have the finest complexions of any nation whatever: the boys are so exposed to the sun, that they soon attain the swarthiness of the Arabs; but, as the girls keep more at home, they preserve their beauty till they are thirty, when they are generally past child-bearing. One of these girls is sometimes a mother at eleven, and a grand-mother at two or three and twenty; and, as they generally live as long as the Europeans, they sometimes see their children of many generations.

The merchants, officers, doctors, and scholars, here, appear neatly dressed when they go abroad; and behave with such gravity and good manners, that, though the streets are crowded with people, one may go from one end of the city of Tunis, without fear of being insulted by the Turks, as one is sure to be at Algiers. The taverns kept by the slaves are better regulated, and those slaves are allowed to chastise even a Turk, if he drink too much, or behave insolently, and even to pull off and keep his turban, till he has paid his reckoning. They sell none but white wine, which the country produces in great plenty, and is very cheap and good. It is customary in the taverns at Tunis, when a person calls for a quart of wine, to set before him three or four dishes of meat or fish, with salad and other sauce; and, when he goes away, he pays only for the wine at a common price. Some of the graver people, who have no constant employment, spend the day either in conversing with one another in the barbers' shops, in the bazar, or at the coffee-house; but many of the Turkish and Moorish youths attend their concubines, with wine and music, into the fields, or make merry at one of the public taverns.

As to the Arabs of Tunis, their lives are one continued round of idleness or diversion; for, when they are not called abroad by any pastime, they spend the day in loitering at home, smoking their pipes, and reposing themselves under some neighbouring shade: yet the Arab places his highest satisfaction in his horse, and is seldom in high spirits but when hunting or riding at full speed. Hawking is another of their principal diversions: and those who take delight in fowling, instead of springing the game with dogs, shade themselves with a piece of canvas, stretched upon two reeds, and painted with the figure of a leopard. The fowler, thus concealed, walks through the breaks and avenues, looking through some holes, a little below the top of the skreen, to observe what passes before him. On the approach of the canvas, the partridges and some other birds are observed to covey together, though they were before at some distance from each other; and the woodcock, quail, and some other birds, that usually feed in flocks, will, on seeing it, stand still, with a look of astonishment. By this means the sportsman has an opportunity of coming near them, when, resting the skreen upon the ground, and directing the muzzle of his piece through one of the holes, he shoots at a whole covey at once.

The Arabs, who live in tents, still retain many of the

customs we read of in sacred and profane history; for, excepting only their religion, they are the same people they were several thousand years ago. Upon meeting each other, they still use the primitive salutation, "Peace be with thee." The inferiors show their respect to their superiors by kissing their feet, knees, or the borders of their garments. In saluting each other, they clap their right hand on their breast; and, at their great solemnities, the wife compliments her husband by kissing his hand. Persons of the highest character, like the ancient patriarchs, and the heroes of antiquity, perform what we term menial offices. The greatest prince, when visited by a stranger, is not ashamed to fetch a lamb from his flock and kill it, while the princess makes haste to prepare her fire and kettle, and then dresses it. The custom of walking either bare-foot, or with sandals, renders the compliment of washing the stranger's feet still necessary: this is done by the master of the family, who first presents himself, and is always the most officious in this act of kindness. When his entertainment is ready, he would think it a shame to sit down with his guests; instead of which he stands all the time, and waits upon them: yet, notwithstanding this respect, there have been instances, in which men have been the next day overtaken and robbed, by the very persons who entertained them with such hospitality the night before.

While the indolent husbands take their repose under some neighbouring shade, and the young men and maidens attend the flocks, the wives are all day employed in grinding at the mill, dressing provisions, or working at the looms; and, to conclude the day, they still, as in ancient times, take a pitcher or goat-skin, and, tying their sucking children to their backs, trudge two or three miles to fetch water. Yet, notwithstanding all this business, they will not lay aside any of their ornaments, neither their nose-jewels, their bracelets for their arms and legs, nor their ear-rings; all of which are very cumbersome; nor will they omit tinging their eyes with lead-ore; so prevalent is custom, and so fond are even the ladies in Barbary of appearing in the fashion.

If a renegado, in Tunis, should turn Christian again, they wrap him up in a cloth, dipped in pitch, and burn him: or else pile stones, mud, mortar, &c. all round him, and, having walled in all but his head, they rub that over with honey, which attracts wasps and other insects, that torment the poor wretch with their stings till he expires, which sometimes does not happen for several days. If a slave be caught in attempting to escape, or if he murder his patron, his limbs are all broken, and then he is fastened to a horse's tail, and dragged through the street till he expires.

History.] Under the Roman emperors, the states of Barbary formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century, that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad, conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, whence their posterity was totally driven, about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers, Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states, excepting Morocco, their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they proved unsuccessful; and the inhabitants have, in fact, shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country whose powers resembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been, in general, a set of bloody tyrants, though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muly Muloc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual state of warfare with the kings of Spain, and other Christian princes, ever since.

CHAPTER III.

ZAARA.

A CONSIDERABLE portion of Africa is pervaded by immense deserts, which comprise nearly one half of the western part. Of these the chief is that called Zaara, or the Great Desert, by way of eminence, extending from the shores of the Atlantic, with few interruptions, to the confines of Egypt, a space of more than forty-five degrees, or about two thousand five hundred miles, by a breadth of twelve degrees, or seven hundred and twenty miles. "This Great Desert," says Golberry, "may be called a sea of fine and moving sand; and on

this dry expanse one can with difficulty perceive, at great distances, some isolated spots, where vegetation has not been entirely annihilated. It is true, that these isles, which can be but imperfectly compared to the ancient Oases of the Thebaïde, are so rare in the Zaara, that they do not form an hundredth part of the surface of this great Desert, whose superficies is one hundred and eighty thousand square leagues.

At present, it appears that there are thirty-two known oases, or habitable countries, in the Zaara, which have been rendered fertile by springs of fresh water. The largest of these oases are inhabited, different tribes of Moors having established themselves, and founded in them a sort of colonies: it is supposed that these colonies of Moors, which overspread the desert of Barbary, are seventeen in number. The other oases, being not so large, only serve as points for the refreshment and rest of the caravans who travel through the Desert, as well as for the Moors, who habitually perform such extensive journeys. The caravans traverse the Great Desert of Zaara in nine different and principal directions, and the Moorish tribes who reside in it pass over it at every point.

The Moors who inhabit the valleys belonging to the western ramification of the Atlas, the Mussulmen, and several other savage tribes, the plundering Moors, the Trarshazians, Brachknazians, and Darmankos, frequently perform journeys from the Senegal, as far as Morocco.

Every year a caravan sets off from Mequinez, proceeds to Tatta, crosses the whole extent of the Desert, and arrives at Jarra, which is situated under the fifteenth northern parallel, sixty leagues to the east of Galam: the journey performed by this caravan is five hundred leagues. There are other travellers and merchants who cross the Desert between Tatta and Tombucto, and this journey is near four hundred leagues.

It is likewise certain, that frequent journeys have been performed between Tombucto, Tripoli, and Cairo; and that a part of the caravan from Morocco proceeds along the Niger to Kassina, Ghana, and Kauga; sometimes stopping at Sennaar, arrives at Gerri, on the right bank of the Nile, and finally reaches Suakim, on the borders of the Red Sea, having performed a route of nearly one thousand three hundred leagues. The vast Desert of Zaara is, therefore, consantly travelled over in several different directions.

The soil of this Desert consists of fine sand, which is nothing but a mass of small and uncombined particles: these particles, however, are not stony, like the elements of sand, but susceptible of petrification: the sands of Zaara, being composed of infinitely diminutive grains, are of a very great depth, and, being agitated by the winds, in a manner similar to the waves of the sea, they are thus formed into mountains, which, from the same cause, are shortly after dispersed, and raised to a considerable height, till their expansion obscures the rays of the sun.

On this sandy extent there may frequently be seen columns of sand, resembling water-spouts met with at sea: in short, the nature of these sands is averse from combination, since, in the whole of this vast Desert, there are scarcely any rocks, and fertile countries are seldom discoverable in it.

"From the vast, moving, dry, and arid plains, which border on the north of the Senegal," says our author, "I have seen these sand-spouts arise in the form of columns, sometimes advancing with rapidity; at others, proceeding with a majestic slowness, and affording a grand and magnificent spectacle. Their rapidity is sometimes so great, that they are scarcely perceptible, before they vanish to such a degree as to resemble ribands floating in the air at the pleasure of the wind, but the lower extremity of which always touches the earth; at other times, their upper extremities rise to such an immense height, that they are lost in the clouds: these spouts frequently break at a great elevation, and the immense volume of sand is dispersed through the atmosphere; at other times, they break, to appearance, in the middle, and the report occasioned by this rupture is similar to the explosion of a mine."

At no great distance from the right bank of the Senegal, there are, however, some considerable rocks, of a black colour, containing virgin iron, isolated and dispersed. It is a matter of surprise, that masses containing native and virgin iron should be found isolated in countries where iron-mines are unknown, and is a subject of curiosity and research worthy of the attention of naturalists.

This vast Desert is divided, by the Arabs, into three parts, by the names of Cabel, Zaara, and Asgar, which names are given in affinity to the different soils; the first signifying sandy, the second stony, and the third marshy. Modern geographers have, in general, divided it into the following provinces: Zanhaga, Guenziga, Terga, and Lemta.

ZANHAGA extends from the river Sue, which divides it from Morocco, on the north, to that of Senegal, on the south. It is bounded, on the east, by the territories of Serem, Sunda, and Zuenziga; and, on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean. The inhabitants of this province are of various nations, and among them are some tribes of Arabs, who chiefly live by plunder. The district called Tagazza is remarkable for producing vast quantities of rock-salt. This country is very dangerous to travellers, especially in summer, there not being any water to be found for miles together; so that, if a proper provision be not made, they are liable to perish with thirst.

GUENZIGA is more barren than the former, and both men and beasts frequently perish on their journeys for want of water, particularly in that part of it called Gog-

den, where they travel for ten days together without meeting with any refreshment to quench their thirst, except what may casually happen to fall from the clouds. The inhabitants are a mixture of Africans and Arabs, the latter of whom receive a kind of tribute from their neighbours, for tilling their land; and they have abundance of cattle, with which they wander to various parts of the Desert, in search of pasture. They breed a great number of horses, and are so powerful, that the beys of Barbary take some pains to preserve their alliance and friendship.

TERGA is not so dry or so barren as the two already mentioned; nor is it so sultry and unwholesome. It has many good springs of water, and the land produces several sorts of useful herbs. In some parts are found great quantities of manna, which the inhabitants gather in calabashes, and export for sale: the negroes dissolve it in the water wherein they boil their meat, and attribute to this beverage the health they generally enjoy.

LEMTA, the next province, is situated to the north-east of Terga, and is more barren than any other part through the whole Desert of Zaara. It is dangerous for travellers, not only on account of the excessive heat and scarcity of water, but also from the natural ferocity of its inhabitants, who are a wild breed of Moors, that rob and plunder all strangers they meet with; and, if any resistance be made, they murder them without the least remorse. It is the high road for the merchants and caravans that travel from Constantia, and other towns of Algiers, Tunis, &c. into Negroland; and, notwithstanding the great danger of the journey, such is their attachment to commerce, that they hazard their lives with the utmost intrepidity.

All the southern parts of the Zaara, in the vicinity of the Senegal, from the mouth of this river to even far below the cataract of Felow, are either frequented or inhabited by Moors.

Several colonies of savages are dispersed in the oases of this Desert: others have formed kingdoms to the north of the Senegal and the Niger; and there are many hordes and their establishments even near Bornou, in forty degrees thirty minutes east longitude from the Isle of Ferro. These dispersed and expatriated Moors, therefore, extend to the very extremities of the Desert, and between the sixteenth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude; an extent of eight hundred and seventy-five leagues from east to west.

These Moors, being dispersed in hordes, tribes, colonies, and even kingdoms, through the immense deserts of Barbary, and along the northern banks of the Niger and the Senegal, present, when observed with attention, a mixture of races, in every respect different from each other.

"We may perceive among them," says our author, "men whose physiognomy is grave, whose look is penetrating, who have high foreheads, aquiline noses, venerable beards, well-formed muscles, a sallow skin, a serious air, a tranquil countenance, and, in short, the whole appearance of an Arabian philosopher. Others, by their superior stature, vigour, activity, and agreeableness, by their firm and noble aspect, by features of a softer cast, by their bright, though languishing, eyes, their courageous and tender looks, and by their yellow, though florid, complexion, remind us of those Saracen heroes of Spain, who were so celebrated for their courage and amours.

"There are, likewise, amongst them men of a large size, whose proportions are fine and muscular, whose features are regular, and whose complexion, though brown, is enlivened by the finest natural carnation, like that of the Turks at Constantinople. But the majority of these people are of a vulgar and savage appearance, and, by their habitual commerce with the Jalof and Fonlah negroes, with whom the Moors of Zaara often mix, many of them acquire distinctive characters."

The principal tribes, who reside in the interior of the Desert, are the Wadelims, Labdesseba, Laroussye, Chelus, Tucanois, Ouadelis, Gedingouma, Jafanon, and Ludamar. The first two are the most formidable, and extend their predatory system as far as the environs of Morocco, whose emperor is in constant alarm at their excesses. They consist of large, strong, and well-made men, have generally stiff hair, a long beard, a furious look, large pendent ears, and nails like talons: they even convert these into a formidable kind of weapon, in the quarrels which they have with their neighbours. The Wadelims, in particular, are the most arrogant and warlike race, and spread terror wherever they pass; though, like all the other Moors, their courage fails them, unless they have a decided superiority of numbers in their favour.

These people live in tents, which they remove at will: they are usually of a round form, terminating in a cone; and are covered with a thatch, made of camels' hair, so compact that rain never penetrates through it. This covering is made by the women, who also prepare the leather, of which the saddles, bridles, and various other articles, are manufactured.

The furniture of these dwellings consists of two large leather sacks, which hold a few rags and scraps of ironwork; sometimes they have a box or two, which become the object of cupidity amongst a whole horde. Three or four goat-skins, in which they keep their milk and water, several wooden platters, two large stones, for pounding barley, a lesser one for driving in the pickets of the tents, some osier-mats, which serve them for beds and covering, and a small copper-kettle, are the whole of the goods which distinguish the rich from the poor.

It is the business of the women to prepare the provisions, fetch water, and attend to the horses and cattle, which always lodge in the same tent. Those who are in

easy circumstances keep negro-slaves to do the principal part of the labour; but they are always obliged to wait upon their husbands themselves. In short, nothing can exceed the arrogance of a Moor to his wife, nor the humility of the woman in the presence of her husband.

When a horde changes its situation, the women strike the tents, load and unburden the camels; and, when the husband mounts his horse, his wife holds the stirrup: they are not even admitted to eat with the men; but, when dinner is ready, they retire, and wait till they are called on to take what is left: indeed they may be considered, in some degree, as the property of their husbands; for a Moor does not marry till he is able to buy himself a wife. The fathers sell their daughters, and he who has most of them is considered the richest man. The price agreed on is always paid in advance; and the husband may afterwards put away his wife; but what he has given for her is never returned. Nevertheless, a Moor cannot turn away his wife without obtaining permission of the oldest people of the horde, but which they never refuse to give; so that the demand is a simple matter of form.

The Moors, in general, treat their women with the most sovereign contempt: they never take the names of their husbands, nor do the children even bear the names of their fathers. Amongst almost all the hordes, they admit only of four or five different names. The men are distinguished by that of their tribe, and have some kind of surname.

Although these women are so badly used, and though they are very indecent in their manners and gestures, they are faithful to their husbands. An instance to the contrary seldom occurs; but, when it does, the offender is driven from the dwelling of her lord, and his relations generally revenge themselves, by her blood, for the disgrace which she has brought upon their family.

The Moors consider the women as an inferior race of beings, created solely for their pleasure and caprice. Their ideas with respect to female beauty are very singular. An elegant shape, majestic walk, a mild and expressive physiognomy; in short, all the charms which delight European eyes, are to them without attraction. They must have women particularly fat; for, with them, corpulence seems to be every thing. "Hence," says Durant, "those women who only require the assistance of two slaves to help them to walk, can have but moderate pretensions; but those who cannot stir, and who are obliged to be conveyed upon camels, are considered perfect beauties; particularly if they have long teeth projecting out of the mouth."

This taste of the Moors for corpulent beauties, induces the women to take the greatest care to make themselves fat. Every morning they eat an enormous quantity of coscofu, and drink several jugs of camel's milk. The girls are obliged to take this food, whether they have an appetite or not; and, when they refuse, they are beaten till they comply. This forced diet, however, does not occasion indigestion, or any other disease; on the contrary, it occasions that degree of fatness, which passes for perfection in the eyes of the Moors. The Moorish girls are, in other respects, little attended to, and their education is totally neglected.

The boys are generally taught to read and write the Arabic language; and, as soon as they begin to grow up, they are respected by the Moorish women, and even by their mothers, who no longer eat with them. At an early period they are accustomed to use the poniard adroitly, and to tear out, with their nails, the bowels of their adversaries: they are taught to give a lie the semblance of truth; are, in short, familiarized with wickedness, and are instructed to commit a crime with as much pleasure as they would do a good action.

As a plurality of wives is permitted amongst the Moors, a hut is seldom seen with less than eight or ten children. The women live together under the same tent, without betraying any marks of jealousy.

The tent destined to receive a new-married couple is ornamented with a small white flag, and the bridegroom has a band round his forehead of the same colour.

On the day of the ceremony, the bridegroom causes a camel to be killed, for the purpose of regaling the guests. The bride, with the women and young girls of her acquaintance, dance all day round a kettle-drum, and their motions are of the most indecent kind. They dance singly, and one after the other. She who begins the performance stretches out her neck, and makes the most shocking grimaces, which are repeated by the spectators with astonishing precision. They beat time with their hands, and at length all the company put themselves in motion.

It is difficult to reconcile the sentiments of affection which the Moors seem to possess for their children, by whom, in return, they are tenderly loved, with the obdurate and barbarous conduct which they display in their families. For the slightest fault, the offender is corrected with a revolting degree of severity; and the girls, being indifferent both to the father and to the mother, suffer the greatest punishment.

Nothing can exceed the joy of the parents on the birth of a son. The mother has no assistant, and is most frequently alone. She lays down her infant, takes some milk to refresh herself, and then goes to bed for the night. The mother who gives birth to a son, in order to testify her joy blackens her face for forty days. On the birth of a daughter, she only daubs it half over, and keeps it so no longer than twenty days.

"It is difficult," says our author, "to form an idea of the pride and ignorance of the Moors: they think themselves the finest people in the world, and suppose that the sun rises for them alone. 'Contemplate that planet,'

said a Moor to a Christian slave; 'it is unknown in thy country: during the night you are not enlightened, like us, by that orb, which rules on our days and our fasts, or by those luminaries which fill the celestial arch, and indicate the hours for our prayers;—(he alluded to the stars). You have no trees, nor camels, nor sheep, nor sand, nor goats,' continued he; 'nor are your women made like ours. You do not inhabit the earth, but are born, live, and die in your houses that float on the sea."

The greatest luxury of a Moor is to see his wives and daughters richly dressed, and on them he exhibits all his opulence, by ornamenting their ears, arms, and legs, with rings of gold and silver.

Their language is a gross kind of Arabic: it seems, however, that its rudeness is rather in consequence of their pronunciation, than of the corruption of the language itself, since several of these Moors speak it in great purity, and make themselves perfectly understood among their own countrymen.

They have very little knowledge of the arts, though they make, in a rude manner, pikes, knives, and even kettles, from the native iron which is furnished to them by the Negroes. Every thing else for which they have occasion comes to them either directly or indirectly from the Europeans.

They are but little acquainted with the cultivation of land. The person who is charged with the labour repairs to a spot which appears most moistened by rain, and scatters indifferently the seeds of millet, barley, and wheat, which he covers by drawing over them a plough harnessed to a camel. This implement, without breaking the ground, makes a simple furrow at its surface. If the subsequent rains promote the growth of the seed, each person takes the portion that belongs to him, and retires to his camp. Sometimes, instead of waiting till the grain comes to maturity, they cut it down, and dry it on hot ashes, by which they deprive themselves of an abundant harvest, as well as of the straw that would feed their horses.

The head and rump of their horses are not so handsome as those of the Arabian kind; but the legs are much finer, and the chest and body more perfect in their proportions. "I have seen some," says Golberry, "whose colour was uncommonly beautiful; many were of the most charming cream tint, others were of a slate colour, and had fine coats and black tails; there were also some of a most beautiful black. These horses are gentle and obedient: the Moors teach them a number of singular actions; they kneel down in order to be mounted, even by children six years old, and, when a child falls from the back of one of these animals, it not only stops in an instant, but caresses him, and solicits him to remount, at the same time giving him every assistance that can possibly be conceived. These animals are taught to bow the head at the will of their master; they bend their right knee to the ground, afterwards their left, and in this manner they walk at the word of command; they also make rapid evolutions, with their heads turned towards their tails, and their gallop is, at least, equal to that of the finest English racers. When a Moor has ridden his horse for some hours, the animal's mouth and flanks are always covered with blood. These barbarians are, nevertheless, perfect horsemen; they raise their legs like the Cossacks; but they are so active, that we may see them, while at full gallop, adjust and throw behind the sort of lance called sagaye. They throw these lances with so much accuracy, that they never miss their mark; and it is by the strength and rapidity of their horses that they stupify, run down, and overcome, the ostriches, with which their oases are surrounded, and which they thus expel from their desert plains.

In the interior of the Zaara, which is the chief residence of these tribes, the Moors also raise numerous flocks and herds of sheep, goats, and oxen: none of these animals are of the kind which are known in Europe by the name of Barbary sheep; the Zaara species is very strong, and is covered with hair instead of wool; this hair is extremely thick, but not curled: these sheep are generally either black, brown, red, or yellow: when they have been fed for some time they become very fat, and their flesh is excellent.

In their solitary residences, the Moors raise a great number of oxen, amongst which may be distinguished two species; one smaller than the common kind of European oxen, but in other respects exactly similar: these small oxen of the Desert are of the same form and colour as ours, but they are more gentle and active: the other species is large and strong, but has a hunch upon its shoulders, and is, in fact, a degenerate species of the bison. These hunch-backed oxen have a very extensive beard, which reaches almost to the ground; their horns are very fine, and almost come in contact at the points; but the distinctive character of this species is a large fleshy wen, which rises between the shoulders: this mass of flesh forms a projection of nearly a foot in height, and is considered as a great delicacy by epicures. These animals are very strong and docile; and, as their pace is very gentle, the Moors are fond of riding them; but, instead of a bit, they pass a cord of camel's hair through the nostrils; to this substitute for a bit they fix smaller cords, which serve for reins, and which pass and hang over the hunch on the back of the animal: they saddle them in the same manner as a horse; and, without requiring much excitement or irritation, they go at a very quick rate, and travel twelve or fifteen leagues without being fatigued. They are susceptible of an attachment to the person who habitually attends and rides them, and are obedient to his commands: their flesh is good, tender,

and succulent, and their produce is equal to that of oxen in general.

The Moors pass over Africa with herds of four hundred of these animals at a time, which they sell at upwards of a thousand leagues from their deserts. They perform these journeys under the protection of the negro princes whose estates they travel through, but more particularly, as they conceive, by the favour of their amulets, which are profusely distributed by their Marabouts.

It is uncommonly interesting to see these savages, with their numerous herds, cross over the largest rivers in Africa. Golberry has given an account of the passage of a herd of upwards of four hundred oxen, which was performed by the Moors, between Albreda, situated on the right bank of the Gambia, and the village of Bahio, on the left bank: the river is upwards of three thousand five hundred fathoms wide.

"This herd," he says, "was collected on the shore, to the south of Albreda, where the Moors let them rest for several days, without suffering them to graze. The conductors of this herd were one hundred and twenty in number, and were armed with muskets, sagayes, sabres, and poniards.

"When they had resolved on passing the river, they caused their oxen to be collected together, and suddenly made a great shouting: they then selected about forty animals from the herd, which were destined to form the advanced-guard, and were considered as if they possessed a charm: from this a select number were again chosen of those which were the best swimmers, and, at the same time, the strongest and most docile. Ten Moors were then chosen to direct this advanced-guard, and each of these conductors seemed to pay great attention in selecting the animal which was to convey him across the river. Across the horns of each ox they fixed a cord of camel's hair, about four feet in length; they then mounted their oxen in a standing posture, their feet firmly adhering to the projection on the back of the animal; they kept their bodies erect, but rather inclining backwards, and they supported themselves by means of the cord fixed to the animal's horns: on their heads they carried their arms and clothing.

"When every thing was thus arranged, the advanced-guard was conducted to the banks of the river: the leaders then made loud outcries, which were answered by the cattle of the advanced guard; and the Moors and oxen of the main body also repeated them. Immediately afterwards the advanced-guard entered the river, excited by the voice of their conductors: the eldest of the Moors led the van; his ox made way through the current with great resolution; the other animals followed the chief of their file, being animated by the young Moors, who incessantly excited them by their expressions.

"When they were all immersed, the scene was truly singular; only the heads of the oxen were perceptible, and the upper part of the bodies of their conductors, who, inclining backwards, held firmly by the cords, which served them for support. The chief of the file continued to lead the van, and the others followed exactly in his track: they were three hours in passing the river, during which time the main body of the troop continued on the right bank, close to the river, with their eyes attentively fixed on those who were making the passage.

"When the advanced-guard had arrived at the opposite bank, the conductors suddenly gave three great shouts, which were answered with three bellowings by the oxen, and the noise was distinctly heard by the main body on the opposite bank.

"The signals were repeated by the Moors and oxen of the principal troop, and then one might easily see the impatience of the animals, who stedfastly looked on the advanced-guard, that had safely arrived, and testified by their motions their desire of a junction.

"The principal troop was now collected, and several other oxen were chosen to lead the way; these chiefs of the body were twenty in number, and twenty Moors mounted the predestined animals, in the same manner as their predecessors had mounted the advanced-guard.

"Five Moors placed themselves at the head of the troop, very near to each other, and repeated their shouts; the chiefs entered the river, all the oxen immediately followed, and were at once surrounded by the tide: the interest of this view was greater than the former, on account of the vast number of cattle.

"Several of the young Moors occasionally swam amongst the beasts, supporting themselves by their horns: this second passage lasted upwards of four hours.

"It is thus that the Moors, and their oxen, cross the largest rivers, and are never interrupted or impeded in the direction they are inclined to take."

The ordinary food of the Moors is millet, barley, wheat, milk, honey, locusts, and wild animals. They make no use of poultry or domestic animals, except at the last extremity, or on solemn occasions, such as the visits of princes or distinguished friends, the birth of sons, marriages, or deaths. They pass alternately from abstinence to voracity. Their religion subjects them to frequent and rigorous fasts: in their travels they endure hunger and thirst; but, when they find an opportunity of satisfying their appetite, they eat at a single meal more than three Europeans, and drink in proportion.

These people are almost continually at war; frequently among themselves, but oftener with the Negroes. In battle, those who are mounted on horses are hidden in clouds of dust; but the camel, whose pace is heavy, though it takes long steps, is scarcely less useful than the horse;

for, animated by the shouting of its rider, it dashes amongst the crowd, and produces more carnage by its bites than is effected by the musketry. The Moors never make their attack in order of battle; but as many men as there happens to be, so many separate combats take place; and he who throws his adversary to the ground, seizes on his arms, and retires precipitately with the fruit of his conquest; but, if the person conquered be a negro, he is detained and made a slave.

Such incursions generally ruin one party or the other. Those who possessed a considerable stock of cattle are reduced, in one day, to the most dreadful misery, and despoiled by others, who, the evening before, had no property at all. The weaker tribes are, of course, the most exposed; and, therefore, take care to live at a distance from the others, especially from the Wadelims and Labdessebas.

Their ordinary arms are sabres, sagayes, and arrows, the last two of which they throw with great strength and accuracy. Some of them procure from the Europeans or Negroes muskets or pistols; but they cannot make use of them for any length of time, because those which are brought to them from Europe are of a very bad kind; besides which, the humidity of the climate causes them to be speedily covered with rust, while the heat spoils the temper of the metal: they, therefore, soon become useless, as there are no workmen clever enough to repair them.

The Moors are very hospitable: every stranger, of whatever country or tribe he may be, or whether known to them or not, is kindly received. If several travellers arrive at any place together, the inhabitants defray amongst them the expenses of their reception. They all, without distinction, congratulate him upon his arrival, assist him in taking off his luggage, and convey it to a place of security. He is then conducted behind a bush to pass the night; for it is an invariable custom among these people never to admit a stranger into their tents. When this ceremony is over, the people sit down around him, and enquire the news of the country from which he comes; whether such a horde have evacuated the spot on which they last encamped, whether he have met with others on his passage, and the motives for and extent of his journey. They never put any questions about his health till he has satisfied them on all the other points of their curiosity.

The next day the traveller continues his route, and goes off without taking leave of any one: if he happen to remain longer, it is considered an infringement upon their hospitality, and they let him know it by giving him a smaller allowance, which they continue to diminish as long as he stays, and thus politely force him to depart.

Justice, among the Moors, is prompt and decisive. Civil rights are little respected; but they know the necessity of checking men from committing crimes by the example of punishment. On these occasions, and in ordinary cases, the guilty individuals are conducted before the king of the tribe, who judges them alone, and according to his caprice. When a man is accused of a capital offence, the prince calls in the most ancient people of the horde, and pronounces his judgment according to their opinion, which is instantly carried into execution. Capital punishments, however, are only inflicted upon Negroes: those of the Moors are fines, restitution, and banishment.

The most common diseases of the Moors are intermittent fevers and dysenteries, which are speedily cured by sudorifics, a few simple syrups, and a mild diet. Indeed, the patients often abandon themselves to the sole aid of nature, and quickly recover. The Moors have no physicians, and the old women are employed in taking care of the sick. There may be seen amongst them a great number of old men, who enjoy full health and vigour, though their whole time has been passed in continual exertions; and under all the fatigues and privations inseparable from their mode of life. It has, however, been remarked, that the less they have been connected with Europeans, the less have they been liable to infirmity and disease; because, while they remained in their frugal and simple mode of life, their constitution was not affected by strong drinks or high-seasoned food.

The small-pox makes, from time to time, great ravages amongst the Moors, from whom it passes amongst the southern Negroes: those of the Senegal and the Gambia practise inoculation. Amongst them a death is announced by terrible cries, and the women are employed to make the notification. On this occasion, all those belonging to an encampment repair to the tent of the deceased, where some cry, and others sing his praises. Very often they change parts; so that the women cry, laugh, and sing, alternately. Afterwards the body is washed, dressed, and carried to an elevated spot, where it is placed in a grave, with the face turned towards the east, and the head rather raised. They cover the grave with stones, to secure the corpse from the attacks of carnivorous animals.

Their dress is very simple. The rich wear trowsers and pagnes, or pieces of cotton, which hang down to the ground; the latter forms a sort of great-coat, without buttons, which they pass over the breast, and fasten with a belt; in this belt they place a poniard or large knife, sometimes two; and, as they have no pockets, they put in their bosom whatever they have occasion to carry about them. A handkerchief is attached to the belt, but they use it more for wiping their hands and face than any other purpose: those who are of some respectability

carry two. The common people have their head, legs, and feet, naked; but the others wear Morocco slippers, or, sometimes, half-boots, and always round the head a roll of white linen, which forms a turban. The latter, likewise, wear a woollen cloak, which is of a white colour, very finely made, and is brought to them from Morocco or Tunis: this oloak is very simple, and has at top a pointed cape, with which they cover their heads; at the end of this hood is a long string with a tassel. They never wear sabres, except in the army; and then they either carry them in the hand, or pass them between the belt and their body. When they ride on horseback, the princes wear a sort of jockey-boots, of Morocco, and a mass of arms, which are fastened to the saddle-bow; and they carry a lance or sagaye in their hands. The others ride almost naked, but are always armed either with muskets, bows and arrows, or sagayes.

The kings are dressed in finer stuffs than the other Moors: they have likewise larger tents, and are remarkable for being covered with white linen or cotton.

The head-dress of the Moorish women is composed of a bandeau of white cotton, a part of which is larger than the rest, and serves as a veil for the face when they go in the sun: they often go veiled from head to foot. They have fine and long hair, which they plait, and leave flowing on their shoulders: they wear long trowsers, shifts with very wide sleeves, and a girdle under the bosom; and round the neck a piece of linen, generally blue, which hangs down to the heels; they walk with their legs and feet naked; but the princesses, when they pay visits, or on days of ceremonies, use European slippers.

Their religion is Mahometanism; and they are very zealous, but ridiculously superstitious, and cover themselves with charms: their priests have these articles ready prepared for all circumstances and occasions, and sell them at a very high price.

These charms, or amulets, are various, and contained in little cases of Morocco, made with considerable ingenuity: they have some for the head, others for the eyes, and, in short, for all parts of the body, as well as for all diseases, dangers, and sorceries: they hang these charms in every corner of their tents; they cover their oxen, camels, and horses, with them.

In the Desert, they have no mosques, but they meet in the open air: for the duty which they most scrupulously observe is that of prayer, of which there are several repetitions in a day, and the first of which begins before sun-rise.

The priest is remarkable for his long beard, and is dressed in a piece of woollen cloth, half white and half crimson, which floats loosely about his body. His figure is, in general, emaciated by fasting and the continual wearing a kind of chaplet of an enormous size; and his voice is melancholy and lamentable. He begins his office by ordering the people to come and range themselves under his banner, to hear and sing the praises of the Prophet: they all run towards him with the most holy respect. The priest first inclines himself towards the earth, scatters with his hands that on which his feet have rested, and then, taking a handful of that which has not been sullied by his steps, he, for want of water, rubs it over his face, hands, and arms, in order to purify himself; in which action the people all imitate him.

The commerce of these Moors extends to every object with which they can traffic, and to every thing that holds out a prospect of advantage.

CHAPTER IV.

NEGROLAND AND SIERRA-LEONE.

Situation, Climate, Soil, &c.

NEGROLAND is an extensive country of Africa, reaching from eighteen degrees of west to a hundred and fifty degrees of east longitude, and from ten to twenty degrees of north latitude. It is bounded by the Great Desert of Zaara, on the north; by unknown countries, on the east; by Guinea, on the south; and by the Atlantic Ocean, on the west; and is watered by the great river Niger, which runs through it from east to west

The entrance into the Niger or Senegal River is narrow and difficult; but, after sailing up eight or ten leagues, it is found broad and deep; and, excepting about five leagues on each side above the mouth, which consists of sandy and barren ground, the banks are covered with stately trees, and the country appears tolerably fertile.

To the east and north-east of the island of Senegal, the country, as far as is known, is overrun with woods and marshes; the Senegal, Gambia, and Sherbro, which are regarded as branches of one immense river, passing through it, in their way to the Atlantic Ocean. During the rainy

months, which continue from July to October, they lay the whole country under water; and, indeed, the sudden rise of these waters is incredible to persons who are unacquainted with the violent rains that fall between the tropics. At Galam, nine hundred miles from the mouth of the Senegal, the river rises gradually, during the rainy season, above twenty feet perpendicular over part of that flat coast, which of itself so freshens the water, that ships laying at anchor, at the distance of three leagues from its mouth, generally make use of it, and take in water there for their voyage home. When the rains are at an end, the intense heat of the sun usually dries up those stagnating waters which lie on the higher parts, and the remainder from lakes and marshes, in which are found all sorts of dead animals. At this season the winds blow so hot from the land, that they may be compared to the heat proceeding from the mouth of an oven, and bring with them an intolerable smell. The lions, tigers, and other wild beasts, then resort to the river, and seek a respite from the intolerable heat, by steeping their bodies under water: the birds, also, soar to an immense height, and fly a prodigious way over the sea, where they continue till the wind changes.

SIERRA LEONE is so called from the river of that name, which is said to have derived this appellation from the great number of lions that infest the adjacent mountains.

A British settlement was formed, in the year 1791, on this part of the coast of Africa. The purposes for which it was established were, the introduction of Christianity and civilization among the natives of Africa. This colony is situated in eight degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and about thirteen degrees west longitude from Greenwich, on the south bank of the river Sierra Leone: this river is near two leagues wide at its entrance, and has a safe and deep channel for ships of any burden, at all seasons. About six or seven miles from its mouth it divides into two branches, one of which contains Bance Island, and runs to Rokelle and Port Logo; the other is called Bunch River, in which the island of Gambia is situated.

On the north of Sierra Leone the land is low and champaign, producing abundant crops of rice; the cultivation of which, and the making of salt, constitute the chief occupations of the natives. On the south, it rises into hills, which, forming one upon another, become lofty mountains, which are covered with perpetual verdure. The valleys near the sea are inhabited, but the mountainous parts are neglected. The natives cultivate little more rice than is necessary for their own consumption; so that, when a crop fails, they are reduced to the greatest distress.

The distinction of seasons here is into rainy and dry. From December to June may be denominated the dry season; the other months constitute the rainy and tornado season. The tornados generally commence early in June, and continue the greatest part of July: they begin again some time in October, and last till the end of November. A singular circumstance is, that they always happen at or near the time of high or low water; from which circumstance, it is probable, that they are influenced by the same causes that operate on the flux or reflux of the sea.

Towards the middle of December, the air is raw, moist, and cold, and, giving a dangerous check to the perspiration, renders the skin dry and chapt, and frequently causes fevers and agues. Even the birds and beasts droop under the influence of this ungenial temperature of the air; and the very woods shrink from its effects. These winds, which are denominated the haramatans, are frequent along the African coast, from December to March, generally without fog; and some writers describe them as little less than pestilential. It appears, however, that health may be preserved by care and judicious medical assistance, with little more danger than in the variable climate of England.

Minerals, Fossils, &c.] Negroland contains mines of iron, copper, silver, and gold, though we are not certain whether many of them are wrought. Mr. Moore informs us, that the gold which the merchants bring down to the European traders on the river Gambia is of a very good quality, and finer than the sterling gold. They bring it in small bars, thick in the middle, and turned round into rings, from ten to forty shillings value. These merchants are blacks of the Mandingo race. They are very unwilling to say much of the interior countries; and all our author could gather concerning the gold was, that it is not washed out of the sand, but dug out of mines in the mountains.

The same author informs us, that there are several hills of a beautiful marble, of different colours, but chiefly red, and that it would be no difficult matter to bring it to Europe. He also mentions another mountain of red marble, mixed with white veins, which are so bright and shining, that they appear like silver. This marble is so hard, that it is used instead of flints by the natives.

The natural salt, formed at the bottom of certain pools near the sea, is a curiosity mentioned by the same author. He reckons eight of these pools, wherein the salt is naturally formed at the bottom of the water, like a scaly stone; which being broke with long iron crows, the salt rises up to the surface, and the natives skim it off, and dry it in the air. Whatever quantity they take, it does not appear to diminish in the least; but this salt, being very corrosive, is only used to cure raw hides.

Vegetables.] The palm-tree, in Negroland, Mr. Moore describes as growing to the height of sixty, seventy, or a hundred feet. From this tree the natives extract a sort of whitish liquor, like whey, called palm-wine, by making an incision at the top of the trunk, and inserting a pipe, made

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of leaves, through which the liquor runs into gourd-bottles. "This wine," says our author, "is pleasant to drink as soon as drawn, being exceeding sweet, but it is apt to disorder the bowels. In a day or two, however, it ferments, and grows hard and strong, like Rhenish wine; at which time it may be drank without any dangerous consequences. It is very surprising to see how nimbly the negroes climb up these trees, having nothing to assist them but a piece of bark, made round like a hoop, with which they enclose themselves and the tree, and so, setting their feet against the tree, and their backs against the hoop, they ascend very swiftly; sometimes, however, they fall down, and lose their lives, either by missing their footing, or by the breaking of the hoop."

What is called the ciboa-tree, seems to be another species of the palm, growing, like that, to a great height, and yielding a wine in the same manner, but not quite so sweet as the former. The trunk of this tree, as well as the palm, is full of sap when young, but very tough when old; and the leaves that grow on the top are of great service in covering of houses.

There is also a species of palm growing in these parts, which yields an oil, called palm-oil, or oil of Senegal: it is of an orange-colour and fragrant smell, and is obtained from the pulp of the fruit, by adding to it a large quantity of boiling water, and stirring them in a kettle over the fire till they are completely mixed. Then, taking the kettle off the fire, they let the matter stand till its more solid parts subside to the bottom; and, having skimmed off the oil that floats on the surface, they repeat the operation by pouring on it more boiling water. This oil is of the consistence of butter, and used as such by the Africans, who also burn it when old. In Europe it is esteemed a good remedy against cold humours, and is said to strengthen the nerves, give ease in pains of the gout, remove weariness, and relax contracted parts.

Mr. Stibbs has given a description of a tree called pau de sangue, or blood-vessel, from a reddish gum which it yields. This tree grows plentifully all up the River Gambia, and is a hard wood, of a beautiful grain, and polishes finely, so that it is very proper for cabinet-work: but, as it does not grow to any great height or bulk, it is not easy to find one that will produce a plank of fifteen or sixteen inches broad. It grows generally in a dry rocky soil, on the sides and tops of hills; and, when the wood is first cut, it has an agreeable smell. Upon wounding this tree, the juice oozes out like drops of blood, which, joined together, and being dried by the sun, congeal into lumps. Mr. Moore has had some as large as pullets' eggs; but he gives no account of the trees growing so plentifully near the river as Mr. Stibbs represents.

The principal commodity on the banks of the River Senegal is gum Senegal, which is used both in medicine and in many arts and manufactures, particularly by silk weavers, dyers, and painters in water-colours. The tree, from which it is produced, is described by Lebat as a species of acacia; being small, prickly, full of branches, and covered with very narrow leaves, moderately long, and of a perpetual verdure. According to some authors, it bears a white flower, composed of five leaves, which form a kind of cup; but other naturalists represent it as formed of one leaf, in the manner of a funnel, and the flowers are in clusters; the flower is succeeded by a pod, three or four inches long, filled with small, round, hard, and black, grains, which serve to propagate the species. Of this kind of gum-tree there are three forests, all in the desert north of the river, and nearly at equal distances from it. Every year produces two crops of gum; the first in December, and the other in March. The first tears or exudations are the largest, driest, and most pure, with every other advantage required in this drug; and the other more soft, glutinous, and impure. The December crop is gathered after the rains have ceased, and the moisture of the earth has rendered the sap more abundant; but that in March is procured by making incisions in the trees, which have then too little vigour to produce it of themselves. The natives, who feed upon this gum after it is dissolved in milk, sell it by a cubic measure, called a quintal, which holds about two hundred weight; and this they exchange for goods of about two shillings value. The white and smaller tears of this gum are often sold for the true gum Arabic, and indeed their properties and qualities are much the same.

The banana-tree bears a fruit six or seven inches long, covered, when ripe, with a yellow and tender skin. Its leaves are two yards long, and about twelve inches wide; and the fruit grows upon a stalk about six yards high, each stalk bearing only one single cluster or bunch, which perhaps consists of forty or fifty bananas. When the bunch is gathered, they cut off the stalk, otherwise it would bear no more fruit. The pulp of the fruit is as soft as marmalade, of a very pleasant taste, and said to be very nourishing. The fruit of the plantain-tree is not much unlike the banana, either in taste or shape, only it is somewhat longer.

The tree called agon, resembles a beech, and is extremely poisonous. Its fruit is of an oblong form, like the pod of a bean; and is distinguished, by its size, into three kinds, all of which have the most malignant qualities. Within the pod are enclosed four or five square beans, each encircled with a hard rind, and containing a yellow kernel, from which the poison is extracted. These are used by the natives in poisoning their arrows, and nothing can more effectually answer that purpose, as the smallest quantity, being infused into a wound, proves fatal.

Animals.] This part of Africa abounds with elephants, lions, and other wild beasts. Mr. Stibbs tells us, that one morning, as he was examining a hill in the vicinity of

the Gambia, he found, near the top, a lion's den, and soon after heard the lion roaring at no great distance, which occasioned him to hasten to the bottom of the mountain. The den, he says, was cunningly chosen in a solitary place, about three-quarters up the hill, at the foot of a precipice in the side of a rock. It was difficult of access, but large and commodious, yet undoubtedly formed by nature. The track to it, with the footsteps, excrements, and even some of the hair, of the animal, left him no room to doubt but that it was the residence of a lion. The roaring of these creatures he frequently heard in the night, but he could not say that ever he had seen one in the woods. However, he had once the sight of two or three hundred elephants in a drove, coming down to the river to drink, which raised the dust like the smoke of a glass-house fire; and another time he saw a great number of those animals swim across the river, not above a quarter of a mile a-head of his vessel.

Here are also plenty of guanas, which resemble little alligators. The natives say, that, when a man comes near them unawares, they will sometimes break his legs with their tail; which, however, appears almost impossible, the whole animal being seldom above a yard long. The negroes, and some white men, eat the guana as a great dainty; and affirm that it tastes as well as any rabbit.

Snakes and other venomous reptiles abound here, as in most hot and sandy countries. Mr. Moore tells us, "that the natives are much afraid of the black snakes, which he himself has seen three yards long, and as large as the small of his leg. He shot a green snake about two yards long, but in the thickest part not above three inches in circumference. This kind of snake, he was informed by the natives, is not at all venomous; but they have so many that are so, that they seldom go without a remedy about them, in case they should be bitten by any of these poisonous animals.

In some places, there are said to be toads as large as a plate: these are mortal enemies to the snakes, with which they have frequent engagements. There are likewise many centipedes, whose bite occasions a violent pain for several hours, but is not mortal. Spiders of a monstrous size are also found here, and are said to be very venomous.

Several remarkable insects are found near the river Gambia, and other parts of Negroland. Mr. Moore tells us, that during the time of a very dreadful tornado, a sort of large flies, with long wings, came on board a sloop in the river, in such prodigious numbers, that flying into the flame of the candles, the table was soon covered with those that had burnt their wings; and others, which were not burnt, shed their wings as they walked along the table, and then were nothing but so many large maggots.

The mosquetoes are the greatest plague of any vermin on the river. They are even worse than the sand-flies, which are so little as hardly to be discerned. These, if any wind be stirring, are not able to bite; but the mosquetoes regard neither wind nor any thing else, giving a person continual disturbance, especially in the night-time. They may be compared to our English gnats, but are much more troublesome; when they bite, the part itches very much, and cannot be scratched without great danger.

In the rainy season, the frogs, of which there are vast numbers, are much larger than those in England, make as much noise in the night as a pack of hounds, and not unlike it at a considerable distance. The noise, together with that of the screech-owls, and the wild-beasts in the woods and mountains, is extremely disagreeable.

Cities, &c.] Bornou, the capital of the kingdom or province which bears the same name, is situated in a level country, near the banks of a small river; it is encircled by a strong wall, of considerable height, and encompassed with a ditch. The city has seven gates, that are regularly shut every evening about sun-set; but the streets are erected in a careless manner, without any regard to order or regularity.

The houses, which, exclusive of their dimensions, are exactly similar, are divided into parallel squares, subdivided into apartments, except the interior space, which is left uncovered; there is likewise a detached square at the back of each house, for the protection of cattle. The rooms in the largest houses are commonly eleven feet in height, and twenty in length and breadth. The walls are composed of alternate layers of clay and stone, plastered with tempered clay, and white-washed. The roofs, which are constructed of branches and brushwood, are water-proof, for about two years; but, at the expiration of that time, they require some repairs, as they cannot longer resist the violence of the frequent storms.

The furniture is extremely simple, comprising merely a skin, or mat, to sleep on, a few articles of pottery, a lamp, a kettle, and some wooden bowls or dishes. The higher class of natives, however, have handsome carpets, leathern cushions, brass candlesticks, and copper utensils.

This city is furnished with several mosques and public seminaries, where the children are instructed in the doctrines of the Koran. The palace is surrounded with a high wall, in a corner of the town, and the principal mosque is erected in the centre. A market for provisions is likewise established in the city, at which a camel will generally sell for six or seven pounds; a horse from three pounds to seven pounds ten shillings; a cow or bull, six shillings; an ostrich, six shillings; a sheep, three shillings; and an antelope, one shilling and six-pence, sterling.

The city of Kassina resembles in appearance that of Bornou, and is the usual residence of the monarch: it is situated at the distance of five days journey from the River

Niger. The currency consists of little shells, called cowries, that are also used by the Negro states, on the south of the River Niger: two thousand five hundred of these shells are equivalent to a mitkal of Fezzan, or ten shillings and three halfpence sterling.

Religion, Government, &c.] The ruling powers are Mahometans, who usually speak Arabic, and decipher the Bornou language in Arabic characters. Many of the common people still retain the Pagan opinions of their forefathers; but this diversity of religion never affects the intestine peace of the country.

The natives acknowledge the existence of a God, who made and governs all things: but they have no idea of thanking him for benefits, or deprecating his wrath. Their offerings are made to their genii, who are supposed to be the immediate agents of the deity. These genii are small images of clay, in the rude form of a man: they are generally placed at the foot of a tree, and a small shed is erected over them. To these they offer the most insignificant articles, such as bits of cloth, cups, brass-rings, or beads. When they wish to render them propitious, they make small libations of some liquor, and drink the rest themselves, before the altars. Besides these, they have small images of wood, painted black, which may be considered as their lares, or household gods; but they meet with little attention, except on particular emergencies, when their assistance is deemed necessary.

The monarchy of Bornou is elective, though the king assumes the title of Sultan; and hence the felicity of the people is frequently destroyed, while their pride is gratified, by so splendid an acknowledgment of their power. On the demise of a king, three of the chief citizens are nominated, to select, from among the princes, a successor to the government, without any regard to the rights of the first-born. During this deliberation, the members of the royal family are confined in separate apartments, and when the election is made, the new monarch is liberated, and conducted in silence to a spot, where he beholds the lifeless remains of his father. An oration is then pronounced over the corpse, in which the virtues and the vices of the late ruler are faithfully described, and the various measures recited, that tended to immortalize his honour, or tarnish the glory of his reign. This harangue is always closed by these words, which are addressed to the subject of their choice, "The end of your *mortal* career is before your eyes; the *eternal*, that must succeed, will be happy or miserable, in the same proportion as your actions shall prove a blessing or a curse to your subjects."

The successor is then conducted to the palace, amidst the joyous acclamations of his people, who invest him with a complete authority over the slaves of his father, and give him two-thirds of the lands and cattle, retaining the other part as a suitable portion for the other branches of the royal family.

His majesty's brothers are then admitted, who prostrate themselves before the throne, and publicly promise allegiance, by kissing his hand; but, if their sincerity is suspected, they are either doomed to perpetual captivity, or removed by death; sometimes an ambitious or popular prince veils his disloyal intentions with the specious disguise of warm attachment, till he has created a party sufficiently powerful to dethrone the reigning brother, and seize upon the throne: such an example, if successful, immediately raises a similar attempt, and, unless he secures his ill-acquired greatness, by the extirpation of his own family, a just retaliation inevitably descends upon him.

Such of the royal children as are accounted too young to receive the division of their father's wealth, are brought up at the palace, till they arrive at years of discretion, when they are invested with their respective portions. Each of the four lawful wives, belonging to the deceased monarch, has a separate dwelling assigned her, with an establishment suitable to their dignity. The royal concubines are permitted to return to their friends, with all their ornaments and apparel, and are at full liberty to enter into the marriage-state, whenever they think proper.

Governors are appointed by the king over the various parts of the empire, and the execution of criminals is left to the direction of the cadi, who generally causes a slave to behead the malefactor. In this instance the humanity of the sovereign appears considerable, when compared with the neighbouring princes, who both act as judges and executioners among a wretched people.

The revenue of the king arises from his hereditary lands, and taxes upon various articles of commerce; besides which, he might procure an immense sum from the salt-lakes; but, though the neighbouring parts and several Negro countries are totally destitute of this valuable article, the provincial traders of Agades are permitted, according to an ancient custom, to load their camels every year, at the lakes of Bornou, and thus monopolize all the profits of the trade. The military force consists chiefly of cavalry, whose arms are lances, sabres, pikes, and shields, composed of hides. If the sovereign finds it necessary to raise an army, he commands his servants to place a date-tree at one of the gates in the capital, for the horsemen to pass over singly, till the tree is worn asunder by the horses' feet, which is then regarded as a signal, that the needful levy is completed.

Customs, Manners, &c.] Children, of both sexes, in Negroland, wear no clothes till they are thirteen or fourteen years of age, when those of distinction wear a cotton cloth from the waist downwards, while the poorer sort remain in their primitive nakedness. Women of middle

rank wear girdles of rushes, or palm-leaves, neatly interwoven, and hanging down to their knees. They likewise have copper, brass, or iron, bracelets round their wrists, and large rings upon their legs, to which they hang silver bells. The most common dress is the tomy, which is made of woollen cloth, manufactured by themselves. This the females tie round their waists, letting it fall to the knee; but the men, fixing it before, bring it between their legs, and fasten it to a girdle behind. The women endeavour to attract the regard of the men, by drawing a line of white, yellow, or red paint across their forehead, with circles of the same round their arms, legs, and waist. The men wear much the same ornaments, which differ only in the size of the bracelets and rings on their arms, legs, fingers, and toes. The poorest negro is seldom without some of these, and their number is increased in proportion to the wealth or vanity of the wearer.

In general the common people go hare-headed and barefooted. The principal men, in imitation of the Europeans, wear a red cap and sandals, and also ornament their shirts and drawers with worsted embroidery. All the men are provided with a large straight knife, hung in a sheath on the right thigh, by way of defence, and another smaller one, for the purpose of eating. Tatooing is pretty general, which not only distinguishes the different tribes from each other, but likewise marks the condition of the party, as a slave is not allowed to be tatooed in the same manner as a free-man. Some raise the skin in such a manner as to make their bodies appear embossed; others are punctured with a sharp-pointed instrument, dipped in a liquid, which leaves an indelible mark.

The negroes of the interior countries are extremely libidinous; but they are said to be temperate, gentle, and sociable. They have an aversion to the shedding of human blood, and seldom make war but in their own defence. They are united by friendship, and ready to assist and relieve each other. Hence, if a friend be under misfortunes, they will share their clothes, their provisions, and all they have, with him; and, should it be their case to be distressed, they would meet with the same treatment in return.

In Sierra Leone, no notice is taken of a stranger on his arrival till he announces his visit in form, and then he is provided with every necessary apart from the family. When the women meet upon visits, they join their right-hands, and curtsey; but the young and unmarried embrace with the most apparent affection. Mothers never wean their children till they are able to walk, and carry a calabash of water, which they are instructed to do as soon as possible. Sterility is dreaded, as the greatest reproach. In their domestic arrangements, the head wife, surrounded by her husband's women, is employed in spinning or carding cotton, while one of the company amuses the rest by telling stories.

Both sexes are passionately fond of dancing, and they seldom lose the opportunity of a fine evening for enjoying this diversion. Besides the birth of a child and the arrival of a friend, even the death of a relation, furnishes them with a pretext for their favourite amusement. These dances are called cullunjee; the performers in which are dressed in a grotesque style, and in their hands they hold pieces of flat wood, which they clap together, by way of keeping time.

The most favourite musical instrument is the drum, and of this there are various sorts, which give a different sound. They have also two kinds of stringed instruments; one is a sort of guitar; the other is in the form of a Welch harp, but not above two feet long. The strings are made of the fibres of a plant, and the hair of an elephant's tail.

The carpenter, blacksmith, and charm-maker, are the only trades in general estimation among them, and their workmanship is not destitute of neatness and ingenuity. Every family spin and weave their own cloth, and make up their clothes.

The houses are only one story high, and they are either round or an oblong square, the sides being formed of upright posts, wattled, and covered with a stiff clay; the roofs are supported by long poles, and thatched with grass. They have, generally, two doors on opposite sides, which admit an agreeable draught of air in this hot climate. Their doors, however, are not like ours, except amongst those who pique themselves on imitating the Europeans: the others consist of a mat fixed to the roof; and, when this mat is let down, no one must be so rude as to enter without giving notice, though this precaution is unnecessary when the mat is raised. The edges of the roof project seven or eight feet over the wall, and is thus converted into a sort of portico, which secures the wall from rain, and, with certain additions, serves as a place for their stores. The junction of several of these habitations forms a town, which often covers a quantity of ground, and is generally enclosed with a mud-wall. When the people are at war, they have several barriers, which they enclose always at sun-set, and never open them on any occasion whatever till morning: they are guarded all the night by vigilant sentinels.

In the more distant parts of the country, the natives, however, build large houses of bricks, baked in the sun; and these houses may last many years, if care be taken to secure them from the injuries of the weather. No chimneys are constructed in their habitations, though they make a fire in them every evening, to drive away the mosquetos, and prepare their food.

The common people, slaves, and children, sleep on mats or dried skins, spread upon the ground; but the free negroes, and those in easy circumstances, have a kind of

alcove, formed of four stakes driven into the earth, on which are hung mats, in the manner of curtains. In the men's apartments is a box to contain their clothes and treasure, which is covered with a mat or a skin, whereon they place their weapons. The women's chamber contains the domestic utensils, mats, stools, and always a looking-glass.

"Polygamy in these regions is practised," says Durant, "in its utmost latitude. The women are frequently hostages for alliance and peace; and the chiefs of two tribes, who have been at war, cement their treaties by an exchange of their daughters; private individuals do the same; and this circumstance may be the reason why the chiefs, in particular, have such a great number of women.

"A girl is frequently betrothed to a man as soon as she is born; and, on the day agreed on for marriage, the bridegroom places on the road which the bride has to pass several of his people, at different distances, with brandy and other refreshments; for, if these articles be not furnished in abundance, the conductors of the bride will not advance a step farther, though they may have got three parts of the way, on their journey. On approaching the town, they stop, and are joined by the friends of the bridegroom, who testify their joy by shouting, drinking, and firing their guns.

"At this period an old woman takes the girl on her shoulders, and the attendants cover her with a fine veil. Mats are now spread before the old woman, who must not, on any account, touch the ground with her feet. In this manner the bride is conveyed to the house of her husband, followed by the friends of both families, singing, dancing, and firing off their muskets."

These people have the greatest veneration for the dead; and they pay them the last duties with profound and melancholy respect. As in Europe, they bury them either in the morning or evening, as suits their convenience. The place of interment is sacred, and is always a wood beyond the town. One of their dogmas is, that none die without having a presentiment of their death, unless they be victims of magic or poison; or when the charms of an enemy have been more powerful than the talismans which they carry about them.

The body that is to be interred is wrapped in a piece of white linen, and placed on a bier, which is carried on the heads of six boys, or six girls, according to the sex of the deceased: the corpse is preceded by a friend, who holds a green bough in his hand, and asks the body several questions, as to the cause of its death. His principal interrogatories are, "Did you foresee it?—Is it natural?—Is it in consequence of poison or magic?" The bearers interpret the answers of the deceased according to the movements of the body, which they pretend to feel. A simple rotation indicates that the death was natural; in which case the body is asked, what could induce it to die and leave its friends; whether it was from chagrin, at not being able to procure such good clothes, or such a fine musket, as a certain person; or whether it was through despair, at not having taken vengeance upon one who had offended it?

A movement forwards is a proof of poison or magic, upon which they immediately attempt to discover the guilty individual, by mentioning to the deceased the names of several persons, not even excepting those of his own family. If the body be silent, it is supposed to be irritated at the suspicion against its relatives, and they beg it to tell them who is the guilty person. To ascertain this fact, they invite it to turn the bier towards the person who carries the branch. If the body should then push the bier forwards, and strike the bough with it, the guilty person is thus named, and the spectators are convinced. Three motions forwards indicate magic, and two poison. The criminal is then seized; and, if the accusation be for magic, he is sold without formality. It often happens, when the deceased is a person of distinction, and the one whom he accuses is poor, that they sell his whole family with him; but, if he be accused of poisoning, they reserve him for a subsequent trial, from which, however, he rarely escapes.

After depositing the dead man in his grave, in which, according to their custom, they throw his best clothes, and whatever else they conceive he may want, they return to the accused, who is confined, but in such a manner that he might escape if he please; and he is informed, that the laws which he has transgressed require the privation of his liberty. As soon as night approaches, the criminal makes his escape to the nearest town, where he invokes the protection of the chief, who is supposed to be impartial. He protests his innocence of the crime, and demands the ordeal of red water. This request is generally complied with, and the friends of the deceased are invited to assist at the ceremony.

On the appointed day, they place the criminal on a high seat, strip off his clothes, and leave him nothing but an apron of plantain-leaves round his waist. He then, in presence of the whole town, who assemble on these occasions, eats rue or cola, and drinks poisoned water. If he die, which almost always happens, he is declared guilty; but, should he live twenty-four hours after the ceremony, he is adjudged innocent.

A person once acquitted by this judgment acquires a general confidence, and has a right to bring an action against the parents and friends of the deceased, for defamation and false poisoning. The latter, in such cases, are always condemned, and pay a fine equal to the injury.

When the accusation of magic falls on a person whom they cannot sell, either on account of his age, or the rank of his family, he is conducted to a field out of town, where

he is obliged to dig his own grave; while the people who surround and guard him load him with insults, and say, as a common phrase—"You kill others, and do not wish that death should strike you in return." During these injuries, he continues his doleful work with an apparent insensibility, and merely answers, "It is true, I have killed such-a-one, and many others; and, if I were to live, I should kill many more." From time to time he takes measure of the grave with his own body; and, when he thinks it deep enough, they place him at one end, with his face towards it: in this position, one of the assistants give him a violent blow on the nape of the neck, which causes him to fall into the grave on his face; they then cover him with mould, and strike a sharp pike several times into his body. The grave is then filled up, and the name of the criminal is condemned to oblivion.

CHAPTER V.

GUINEA PROPER.

THIS country extends from twelve degrees of west to eight degrees of east longitude, nearly in the parallel of six degrees north latitude; and is bounded, on the east, by the unknown parts of Africa; by Congo and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south; by the same ocean on the west; and by Negroland, on the north. It is divided into four parts, under the appellations of the Slave Coast, the Gold Coast, the Ivory Coast, and the Grain Coast; each of which, for the sake of perspicuity, will be separately described.

SECTION I.

THE SLAVE COAST.

Whidah and Ardrah were, for a long series of time, the principal kingdoms on this coast; but, being subdued by the king of Dahomy, they were annexed to his dominions, which are supposed to reach from the sea-coast about one hundred and fifty or two hundred miles inland, though no European has penetrated above half that distance: the capital, Abomey, lies in about eight degrees of north latitude, and about two degrees of east longitude.

Soil and Productions.] The soil of this country is a deep rich clay, of a reddish colour, with a little sand on the surface. In some places, it is light and gravelly; but there is not a stone so large as an egg in the whole country, so far, at least, as it has been visited by Europeans. It produces maize and millet, or Guinea-corn, of different sorts, a kind of kidney-beans, called callavances, and also a species of beans called ground-beans. The Dahomans likewise cultivate yams, potatoes of two sorts, the cassada or manioka: the plantain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits, also abound in this fertile country. Nor is it destitute of productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; such as indigo, cotton, sugar-cane, tobacco, and palm-oil, together with a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper, very similar in flavour, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East-Indies. Dahomy abounds with buffaloes, deer, sheep, goats, hogs, both wild and domestic; poultry of various kinds, particularly pintados, or Guinea-hens, and Muscovy-ducks. The elephant, though its flesh be coarse, is made use of as food by the natives, and dogs are reared for the same purpose.

Religion and Government.] The religion of the Dahomans, like that of many other countries, consists of a jumble of superstitious nonsense, of which it is impossible to convey any satisfactory idea to the reader. The Portuguese word *feitiço*, or, as the English pronounce it, *fetish*, signifying witchcraft, has been adopted by most of the maritime natives of Africa, as well as by the Europeans who trade thither. The word, at present, is very comprehensive in its signification, meaning either the several objects of worship, whether ideal or corporeal, the act of worship itself, or the various amulets, charms, and superstitious mummery of the priests, or *fetish-men*, who abound in this country. They observe no sabbath, unless their market-days, which are considered as days of recreation, may be so called. Most of the savage nations have some confused notion of a Supreme intellectual Being, the maker of the universe; but this idea not being easily understood among a people not much addicted to metaphysical reasoning, a variety of corporeal beings have been selected as objects of devotion, such as the sun, moon, animals, trees, and other substances. The tiger is the fetish of Dahomy. Among the amulets, or charms, the principal is a scrap of parchment, containing a sentence of the Koran, which the natives purchase from the Moors who visit this country. This they hang up in their

apartments, which are likewise decorated with crude misshapen images, tinged with blood, besmeared with palm-oil, stuck with feathers, bedaubed with eggs, &c.

The government of the Dahomans is a perfect despotism, the policy of the country admitting of no intermediate degree of subordination between king and slave; at least in the royal presence, where the prime-minister is obliged to prostrate himself, with as much abject submission as the meanest subject, all acknowledging the right of the sovereign to dispose of their persons and property at pleasure. A minister, on his entrance, crawls towards the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal presence, where he lays himself flat, and, rubbing his head in the dust, utters the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives the king's commands, or communicates any particular business, still continuing in a recumbent posture; for not any person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the royal presence, except the women; and even they must kiss the earth, when they receive or deliver the king's message.

Strangers are received by the king and all his subjects with the most remarkable courtesy. Ambassadors, from whatever state, salute the sovereign according to the fashion practised in their own country. Chairs are placed for European governors, or masters of ships, upon which they sit, covered, till the king makes his appearance, when they make a bow, standing and uncovered; after which they resume their seats.

White visitors are always honoured with a glass of some cordial liquor, filled by the king's own hand; the refusal of which would be considered as an affront. Favours of this kind are received with avidity by his own subjects, not so much for the sake of the liquor as the honour conferred on them. On such occasion, the subject lies on his back, while the king holds the bottle to his mouth. In this posture he must drink till the royal hand be withdrawn; which sometimes does not happen before the whole contents be emptied, especially when the king is disposed to sport with the drinker.

In Dahomy a considerable standing-army is maintained: this army is commanded by an agaow, or general, with several other subordinate military officers, who must hold themselves in readiness to take the field upon all occasions, at the command of the sovereign. The payment of these troops chiefly depends on the success of the expeditions in which they are engaged. On extraordinary occasions all the males able to bear arms are obliged to repair to the general's standard, every caboceer, or chief, marching at the head of his own people. Sometimes the king takes the field, at the head of his troops; and, on very great emergencies, at the head of his women; for within the walls of the different royal palaces in Dahomy are enumerated not less than three thousand women. Several hundreds of these are trained to the use of arms, under a female general, and subordinate officers, appointed by the king, in the same manner as those under the agaow. These warriors are regularly exercised, and go through their evolutions with as much expertness as the male soldiers. They have their large umbrellas, their flags, their drums, trumpets, flutes, and other musical instruments. In short, the singularity of this institution never fails to attract the particular attention of the Europeans, when, among other exhibitions, they are presented with the unusual spectacle of a review of female troops.

The king of Dahomy has several palaces; each occupying a piece of ground of nearly a mile square. That at Calmina, which is similar to the rest, is surrounded with a very substantial clay-wall, of a quadrangular form, and about twenty feet high. In the middle of each side is a guard-house, with two centinels at the gate, and a guard of armed women and eunuchs within. On the thatched roofs of these guard-houses are ranged, on small wooden stakes, many human skulls. Such of the inner apartments as the Europeans have an opportunity of seeing, consist of large courts, communicating with each other, generally square or oblong, encompassed by clay walls. In each of them is a sort of piazza, or shed, formed of posts, about seven feet high, planted in the ground, at the distance of about twelve or fourteen feet from the wall. The intermediate space is covered with a slanting thatched roof, supported by bamboo-rafters, resting upon the posts, and reaching to the top of the wall, which in this part is also about twenty feet, though only eight or ten feet on the other sides of the court. The areas of these courts are of the common soil of the country; but under the sheds the ground is elevated a few inches by a bed of clayed mortar, which forms the floor; and the wall is in some parts white-washed with a species of pipe-clay, which the country produces. In the middle of the palace there stands a large building, of two stories, and about thirty or forty feet high, so that the top of it may be seen from without. This house seems to be intended more for shew than use; for the king never dwells in it. The whole has somewhat the resemblance of an assemblage of farm-yards, with long thatched barns, hovels for cattle and carts, and low mud-walls, to separate them from each other. The interior of the palace is scarcely ever entered by any but the females, whose apartments are guarded from intrusion with more than eastern jealousy.

The vulgar among the Dahomans affect to believe that their king does not eat. Indeed he does not eat in public, though he scruples not to drink. He entertains the whites who visit him with great hospitality. They often dine in his presence; sometimes in the piazzas, or sheds before mentioned, and sometimes in the open area

of one of the courts. On such occasions, the table and the guests are screened from the sun by large umbrellas, held up by attendants, clothed in the country dress. There is no want of table apparatus: the table-cloth is commonly a piece of new linen, cut off for the purpose; the dishes are of pewter or earthen-ware, and the knives and forks silver-handled. The white men, on such occasions, are seated on chairs; the caboceers, and heir-apparent, are placed on the ground, near the Europeans. The dishes are few, but excellent: of these black soup is the chief. It is made either of flesh or fish, with a variety of mucilaginous vegetables, well seasoned with pepper and salt, and enriched with palm-oil. This dish is likewise seasoned with an ingredient which is made of the seeds of a tree, called, in the country, wild tamarind, somewhat resembling those of the cucumber. Their bread is of maize or millet, sometimes boiled into a pudding, and sometimes baked, either with or without leaven; they make also a very light, white, and delicate fermented bread of calavances, first stripped of the husks, and a kind of paste or flummery of fermented Indian corn.

At the approach of the customs, which are usually celebrated soon after Christmas, the king leaves Calmina, where he generally resides during the rest of the year, and repairs to Abomey, his ancient capital, and the burial-place of the royal family. About this time he despatches his messengers extraordinary, called half-heads, from having the half of their heads shaved, with his gold-headed cane and compliments to the European governors at Grigwee, inviting them to witness the solemnization of this festival.

An annual present, consisting of a piece of rich silk for a dress, together with some brandy and other articles, amounting in the whole to about fifty pounds sterling, is presented to the king by the governors. These articles are received, not as the consideration by which they hold their respective forts, but as a token of friendship and good correspondence: for the king takes care to make them sensible that he does not accept such presents for the sake of their value, as he always returns more than is equivalent; such as a young female slave, which he presents to each, under the denomination of a washer-woman; and one fine cotton cloth, at least, for a counterpane. Besides this, he entertains them during their stay at Dahomy with the greatest liberality and kindness.

The governors, on their arrival at Abomey, are received with a salute of cannon, and lodged, during their stay, in apartments belonging to the master of the ceremonies. They are liberally supplied with mutton, poultry, and other articles, for their own tables, and those of their attendants, which are sent from time to time by the king or his caboceers.

The celebration of the customs usually continues about a month, during which there is some public exhibition every fourth or market-day, the intermediate days being employed in preparations. The whole would afford a very amusing spectacle, if it were not for the human sacrifices which are annually made for the purpose of watering, according to the country expression, the graves of the deceased royal family.

One of the first days is set apart for singing and dancing. There are professed singers, who perform by the hour before the king. The songs are mostly extemporary, in praise of the monarch and his exploits; and the performers are rewarded upon the spot, according to the merit of their compositions. Their bards likewise, on solemn occasions, rehearse the whole history of their country, sitting at the king's gate. This recital takes up several days; and they are attended by young men of the best memories, who endeavour to qualify themselves to become their successors, when there shall be a necessity for their services.

Another day is allotted for feasting in the market-place, where a large camp is made for the purpose, and several tents pitched for the accommodation of the king, caboceers, white visitors, and ambassadors from foreign states. Here a very large quantity of viands, previously dressed, and carried in procession by the king's women, in their best clothes, is distributed, not only among the more distinguished guests, but even without the camp, where the vulgar partake plentifully. A liquor, brewed by the women of the palace, is likewise dealt out with a liberal hand upon the same occasion; nor is there any want of brandy and other liquors from Europe. In short, the whole resembles what is sometimes seen at a general election, with this difference, that it is more orderly.

This ceremony is generally concluded by the following extraordinary spectacle:

Contiguous to the palace, a large stage, of about one hundred feet by forty, is erected: this is supported by a vast number of piles, ten feet long, driven into the ground, upon which are laid joists, and then branches and straw. The wall of the palace forms the boundary behind; the front and sides are railed. The floor, as well as the railing, is covered with carpets and country cloths; and the front and sides are adorned with a multitude of flags, streamers, and large umbrellas, of various colours, some of which are made of gold and silver tissue. At a little distance, a fence of thorns keeps off the rabble. On this stage are piled a great quantity of cowries, strung in branches of two thousand each, pieces of brocade, and other silks, strings of coral, European and country cloths, Brazil tobacco, pipes, bottled liquors, and a variety of other articles. At an appointed time, the king, with all his caboceers and vassals, repairs to the stage, where the Europeans also are present. Here each officer is allowed to choose a cloth for himself, the prime-minister making

the first election, and the rest following his example, according to their rank. Sometimes, also, a string of coral is given to each. After this the king takes up a bunch of cowries, and throws it over the fence, among the multitude. All the caboceers, and Europeans, if they please, follow his example, and toss over all the goods, except a few bunches of cowries, which are reserved for some of the favourite servants, who are permitted to take their stand between the stage and the fence, and which are handed to them by their masters. The rabble come prepared for this sport; being all naked, except a strong bag, girt round the loins, and which hangs before, for the reception of the cowries. Some associate themselves in parties, in order to be able to carry off a piece of silk or cloth. Such a prize becomes frequently the object of competition between two parties, and a violent struggle ensues; but as no kind of weapon is allowed to be carried by the people assembled on this occasion, no fatal accidents follow. The effusion of blood, however, commonly making part of a Dahoman exhibition, this also is closed with the death of, at least, one human victim, who, together with several animals, is thrown, bound, from the stage, to be murdered below.

Arts and Manufactures.] The specimens of art produced by the Dahomans discover a degree of perfection little to be expected from the rude simplicity of their tools. Their looms are the most awkward machines imaginable; yet they manufacture very durable cloths of cotton, which are held in very great estimation among themselves, and are often purchased by the Europeans, for counterpanes, at a high price. Their dyes stand washing very well, especially their blues, which are not inferior to any. They likewise weave cloths of the palm-tree leaves, which they sometimes dye, but oftener wear in the natural colour, which is somewhat higher than that of nankeen. They likewise make neat mats of the same substance.

The implements of the forge are very simple. The bellows consists of two bags of rough goat's skin, with a stick of about three feet in length, fixed perpendicularly to each, and also a horizontal tube (an old gun-barrel) to convey the air from the bag, through a little clay party-wall, to the fire. While the smith is at work, a boy holds a stick in each hand, blowing the fire with alternate puffs, so that the air is expelled and drawn in by turns through the two pipes, there being no other communication with the bags. In this way they contrive to make a sufficient heat, and fabricate not only the necessary implements of husbandry, but carpenters' tools, cutlasses, spears, &c.; the hammer which they use is a thick piece of rounded iron, of about a foot in length, which they hold by one end. Besides blacksmiths, there are a sort of braziers or silversmiths, who make bracelets, handles to cutlasses, rings for the fingers, and other trinkets, of brass or silver, which they melt in crucibles of their own making. Some of them are good potters, having learned that art from the Portuguese. Though their earthen-ware is thin, yet it is very substantial, and equally good for use as any made in Europe.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives of Dahomy, of both sexes, are generally tall, lusty, and well-proportioned. Their character is marked by a mixture of ferocity and politeness. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies, and in the celebration of those customs which have been sanctioned by the immemorial practice of past ages, under the idea of performing a grateful oblation to the deceased: the latter they possess far above all the African nations with whom Europeans have hitherto had any intercourse; this being the only country, in this part of Africa, where strangers are not exposed to insults, and where it is easy to reside in security and tranquillity. The nature of their government makes them very reserved with regard to every state transaction; but, on occasions where this restraint is unnecessary, they are very affable and communicative.

In Dahomy, the dress of the men consists of a pair of striped or white cotton drawers, of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large square cloth, of the same, or European manufacture. This cloth is about the size of a common counterpane, for the middling class, but much larger for the grandees. It is wrapped about the waist, and tied on the left side by two of the corners, the other ends hanging down, and sometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of silk, or velvet, of sixteen or eighteen yards, makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is generally covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. The king, as well as some of his ministers, frequently wears a gold or silver laced hat and feather. The arms and upper part of the body are usually naked; and the feet are always bare, none but the sovereign being permitted to wear sandals.

The dress of the warriors consists of what is commonly called a grass-cloth, made in the country, of the skin of palm-tree leaves, parted into small threads, knotted and wove. This is afterwards tinged with various dyes, and wrapped round the loins. They also wear a cartouch-box, of their own manufacture, a powder-flask or calabash, with many grotesque ornaments, which, together with the uncouth devices painted on their faces and bodies, give them a very fiend-like appearance. Every Dahoman also carries a tobacco-pouch, containing tobacco, a flint, steel, and tinder, together with one or two tobacco-pipes, in a neat wooden case.

The dress of the women, though simple, consists of a greater number of articles than that of the men. They use several cloths and handkerchiefs, which they wrap round the waist, and cover occasionally the breasts and upper

part of the body. They adorn the neck, arms, and ankles with beads and cowries, and wear rings of silver or baser metals on their fingers: girls, before the age of puberty, wear only a string of beads or shells round their loins, and young women usually expose their breasts to view. The children go quite naked till they are ten or twelve years of age, when they wear a cloth fastened round the middle.

Their habitations are composed chiefly of mud, clay, and wood. The dwellings of the better sort are built of the same materials as those of the common people, but are more lofty and spacious. The houses in general have small huts adjoining them, most of which are divided into different apartments, by partitions made of rushes, bound closely together: these apartments are for the accommodation of their wives, each woman having one to herself.

Their furniture is very simple, consisting of a few stools, some earthen pots, to hold water and dress victuals, and a few small wooden cups. The poorer sort have only a mat to lie on, which they spread on the ground, covering themselves with the skins of beasts. The better sort use quilts, made of rushes, on which they lay a fine mat, with a bolster, and by it keep a large kettle, with water, to wash them. They all keep a good fire in their bedroom, to preserve them against the damp of the rainy season, and always sleep with their feet towards it.

Among the amusements which prevail in this, and indeed every part of Guinea, dancing is so universally admired by both sexes, that it is the custom for them to assemble every evening at the market-place for that purpose. On these occasions they dress themselves in their best attire. The women have a number of small bells hanging at their feet and legs, and the men carry small fans in their hands, made of the tails of elephants or horses. Those who compose the dance divide into couples, opposite to each other, and the dance commences by their throwing themselves into many wild ridiculous postures, advancing and retreating, leaping, stamping on the ground, bowing their heads to each other as they pass, and muttering some strange noise. The men then strike each other alternately with their fans, and the women lay large circles of straw on the ground, into which they first jump, and dance round them, then throw them up into the air, and catch them with their hands. Thus they divert themselves for about an hour, when they break up the dance, and return to their respective habitations.

In this country the marriage-ceremonies are very concise. When a man fancies a young woman, he applies to her father, and desires her for his wife, which is seldom refused. He then presents her with a fine pagne, or garment, as also necklaces and bracelets; after which he provides a grand entertainment, which concludes the ceremony. If a slave is inclined to marry a girl who is the slave of another, he asks her of her master, without applying to her parents. The boys of this marriage belong to the master of the wife.

Polygamy is universally prevalent here. It is no uncommon thing for a poor man to have forty or fifty wives; a chief, or grandee, three or four hundred, and a king as many thousands. These wives may be considered only as so many slaves; and, indeed, the principal part of those belonging to the great are, probably, captives, that happen to please their masters, who, therefore, rather choose to keep them than sell them to the Europeans.

The relations and friends on the death of any one immediately assemble, and, surrounding the corpse, express the most hideous lamentations. They then wrap the body in an old cotton cloth, and put it into a coffin, made of the bark of a tree, covering the face over with the skin of a goat. In this manner they expose it in the open air for half a day, the favourite wife sitting by it all the time, and rubbing the face with a wisp of straw. If the deceased be a woman, the husband uses the same ceremonies. During this time, the nearest relations, appointed on the occasion, sing mournfully, and beat their brass basins, till the bearers come to remove the body, and every thing is ready for the procession. In the interim, an old woman goes from house to house, and collects something for the funeral-charges, towards which every person in the town or village is obliged to contribute in proportion to their circumstances. With the money thus collected they purchase a cow or an ox, which they present to the priest for performing the functions of his office. This beast the priest sacrifices, and sprinkles the fetish of the deceased with its blood, which is considered as a propitiatory offering for the dead. The corpse is then laid on a board, and the company sing and dance round it for a short time; after which it is carried to the grave by men, but only women are suffered to attend as mourners. The chief or favourite wife walks immediately after the corpse; and, if the deceased be a woman, the husband only follows it, not any other man being permitted to attend. When they come to the place of interment, the body is immediately laid in the grave, which is generally made about four feet deep. It is inclosed with stakes, and over it they raise a shed or covering, so that neither rain nor beasts can come near it. When the body is deposited, the women creep beneath this shed, and renew their lamentations, by way of a conclusive farewell. They then raise a square heap of earth over the body, on which they lay the principal tools and instruments used by the deceased in his life-time, as also his clothes and weapons.

WHIDAH.

This kingdom extends about ten leagues along the shore, and in the middle reaches six or seven inland, after which

it divides itself like two arms, being in some places thirty or forty miles broad, and in others much more. It is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Ardrati; on the west, by the river Volta; on the north, by the country of Dahomy; and, on the south, by the gulf of Guinea. It is a fine, populous, and fertile country, being watered by two excellent rivers, both of which take their rise in the kingdom of Ardrah. The southernmost of these runs within about a league and a half of the sea, and is called the river of Jakin, from a town of that name in the kingdom of Ardrah: it is only navigable for boats, some parts of it not being more than three feet deep. The other river is called Euphrates: it runs about a league to the south of Xavier, or Sabi, the capital of Whidah, and is much deeper than the former. The water is exceeding good, and the river would be navigable, were it not for the banks and shoals in the channel. The road where the ships ride is at the mouth of this river, but in the months of April, May, and July, the landing is exceeding dangerous, on account of the prodigious swell of the sea at those times.

The soil of this country is so fertile, that, as soon as one harvest is over, the ground is sown with some other grain; so that they have two, and sometimes three, crops in a year. They plough their land in ridges; by which means, the dews falling into the hollows, and the sun heating the sides, whatever is planted soon comes to perfection. The grain consists of rice, millet, and maize, or Turkey corn. The negroes are so industrious that they will not suffer any spot of ground to lie uncultivated; even the enclosures of their houses and villages are planted with melons and other fruits.

The vegetable productions of Whidah are, in general, similar to those of the kingdom of Dahomy: they have, however, one species of pea, of a very peculiar nature, producing small trees, like those that bear the pimento, or red pepper; but they have no flower, and seldom exceed six feet in height: the peas grow in a bag, or membrane, almost as strong as parchment, placed beneath the stem, among the roots which yield nourishment to the plant: the bag contains, in general, about one hundred and fifty peas. When the leaves begin to grow yellow, they pull up the plant with the roots, open the bag, and extract the peas. But if they wish to have them tender, like those of Europe, they pull up the plant while the leaves are green. These peas are sown at the end of the rainy season, and they grow so fast that they are fit to gather in six weeks. They are as well tasted as the peas of Europe, are easy of digestion, and make excellent soup.

As the people in general leave no part of the country uncultivated, they are seldom troubled with wild beasts: but, in the more inland parts, there are elephants, buffalos, and tigers. There are many deer and hares, the latter of which are much like those of Europe; they have also a greater plenty of all sorts of apes and monkeys than in any other part of Guinea. Their tame beasts are oxen, cows, goats, sheep, and hogs, which are exceeding large, and the flesh as white and sweet as those of England. This, indeed, is little to be wondered at, for the poorer sort of negroes pay much more regard to their hogs than to themselves, and feed them much better. Their tame poultry consists of cocks and hens, geese, ducks, and turkies.

They have great plenty of wild-fowl, as partridges, pheasants, thrushes, pintados, wild ducks, teal, wood-cocks, ortolans, and ring-doves. There are also many parrots, which are chiefly grey, with some red feathers on the head and the tips of their wings and tails. The crown-bird is likewise found here, but is not so beautiful as those of the Gold Coast; however, here are several other sorts of birds, among which the most peculiar are the Kurbalot, the Guinea-hen, and the Numidian Damsel.

The Kurbalot, or fisher, is a small bird, about the size of a sparrow, and its plumage beautifully variegated; the bill, which is as long as the body, is very strong and sharp, and is furnished on the inside with small teeth, not unlike those of a saw. They build in high trees, by the sides of the rivers, and their nests are composed of earth, mixed with feathers and moss: they make their nests at the extremity of the most slender branches, where they hang by a reed, or straw, about a foot long; they are of an oval form, and are entered by a projection at the top, that bends a little; so that the inside is perfectly secure from the weather. These birds are exceeding numerous, and breed so fast, that sometimes a dozen nests are found on the same tree. They not only fly in the air, but skim on the surface of the water with prodigious swiftness.

The pintado, or Guinea-hen, has a round back, with a tail turned downwards, like a partridge, and the feet are furnished with membranes, or webs, like water-fowl. The head is covered with a kind of helmet, and the whole plumage is black, or dark grey, speckled with white spots. It is of the size of a common fowl, and the helmet on the middle of the head is of a horny substance, and a dusky red colour. The feet are of a greenish colour, and covered with large scales before, but behind there is only a rough skin, like shagreen-leather; and the hinder toe is short. They go together in large flocks, and feed their chickens indiscriminately, each attending to those that first come in their way.

The Numidian Damsel is very delicate in its construction. The body is long and taper, as are also the legs. The feathers, on the upper part of the wings and back, are of a light colour; but the tail, which is long and

ragged, is black. The sides of the head are white, and from the top of it, behind, hangs a long tuft, which reaches for several inches down the back of the neck. It is a bird much esteemed among the blacks, the flesh of it being firm and well-tasted.

The swans here are very different in shape to those of Europe. From the head to the shoulder of the wings they are white; but from hence to the tip the colour is a dark brown, as is also the tail. The legs are long and taper, and the back is also long and very thick, but terminates with a sharp point. Their flesh is very coarse, and rather obnoxious than grateful to the palate.

Great plenty of various kinds of fish are found in the rivers, as well as in the road of Whidah, which are caught by the natives with lines, they being strangers to the use of nets. Among the fish caught here is a remarkable one, called by the people the ape or monkey-fish. It is, in general, about ten feet long, and between three and four broad, from the extremity of the neck till within a third of its length, when it diminishes insensibly, ending in a long round tail. The head is round, the eyes small, the chin short, and the upper lip is furnished with hair, like whiskers. The neck is very distinct from the body, and on that part of it next the head is a round excrescence, like a crown. It has four fins, which resemble the beard or whiskers of a whale: the two foremost are so situated that they supply the place of hands, for it can convey any thing with them to the mouth. The hinder fins are placed beneath the middle of the belly, and are less than the former. It has no scales, but a skin spotted with small pimples, like that of the shark. It is of a black colour, and shines when first taken out of the water, but, when dead, it loses its lustre. The flesh is tolerably good, and, in its taste, greatly resembles lean beef. It is a lively fish, and swims very swift. When he appears first on the surface of the water, before he takes the hook, his motions are truly diverting. He comes gently near it, looks at it, tastes it with the edge of his lips, and then quits it; but, after several evolutions, he, at length, swallows it.

There are two sorts of snakes, or serpents, which abound in this country, one of which is black and poisonous, but the other is perfectly harmless, and is worshipped by the natives. The poisonous sorts are about twelve feet long, and three inches in diameter. They have a flat head, with two large crooked teeth, and always creep with their heads erect and their mouths open, and attack their prey with great eagerness.

The fetish-snake has a large round head, with beautiful eyes; the tongue is short, pointed like a dart, and its motion exceeding slow; the tail is slender and sharp, and the skin very beautiful; the ground of it being white, with waved streaks, or spots of yellow and brown, agreeably intermixed. These snakes are so gentle, that they will not hurt any creature, except the venomous serpents, to which they have the greatest enmity, and seem to take pleasure in destroying them. Both negroes and whites handle and play with them without the least danger.

These snakes are held in so sacred a light by the blacks, that should a negro kill one of them, whether on purpose or by accident, his life would probably pay for it. If a white man should happen by chance to kill one of these serpents, the only means to secure him are to go immediately to the king, and satisfy him that it was not done designedly; in which case, by a handsome present made to the priests, he may probably escape the rage of the populace; but even then his situation is dangerous.

Bosman relates that, a hog happening to devour one of these snakes, a proclamation was immediately issued for destroying all the hogs in the country, and abundance of them were slaughtered on the occasion; but, at the instance of some of the rich owners, and some presents made to the king, the severe decree was revoked; but it seems that so many of them were destroyed for this offence, that hogs' flesh became very dear while he was there.

The natives of Whidah are generally tall, lusty, and well-proportioned; but their colour is not so shining a black as those of the Gold Coast. Their dress consists of three or four ells of stuff, called a pagne, which is wrapped round the waist, and then descends to the middle of the leg. The ladies wear a silk garment, with two or three rows of fringes, the bottom of it covering the feet. The better sort of the men are distinguished by their hats, which they purchase of the Europeans: the larger they are the better they like them, and are particularly proud of them, even after they are old and rusty; others have bonnets, made of deer or dog skins. They wear strings of pearl or coral on their necks, and on their arms and wrists they have bracelets of the same materials.

The negroes here, although very illiterate, are more polite and civil than any other people on this part of the coast; and, although they are very industrious, they are extremely addicted to gaming; and, when they have lost their money and other property, they will play for their wives and children; after which they will stake their own liberty, and thus become the property of their countrymen, who sometimes sell them to the European traders.

There is little difference between the religion of the Whidah blacks and those of the other parts of the coast, except that the number of the fetishes of the former is much more considerable. The chief deity is a serpent of a particular species, whose bite is not mortal, and is so well used by his votaries, that he scarcely ever attempts to hurt them. They address themselves to this animal on

the most important occasions; as for seasonable weather, the preservation of the state, or whatever else concerns the public welfare. The snakes are kept in religious houses, built for that purpose in groves; and to these the people sacrifice hogs, sheep, fowls, goats, &c. The principal snake-house, or cathedral, situated about seven miles from the king's village, is built under a beautiful and lofty tree. It is called the Grand Snake, being the largest of them all, and is chiefly worshipped by the king and great men. The offerings made to this snake are very considerable, consisting not only of various kinds of provisions, but also money, pieces of silk, or stuff, and all sorts of European and African commodities. These offerings are presented to the priest, or grand sacrificer, who adapts the disposal of them to the idol in such a manner as to enhance his own emolument.

An annual pilgrimage is likewise made to the Grand Snake by all the nobility and great men of the kingdom, when the richest offerings and most valuable presents are bestowed. The grand master of the king's household also goes once a year, in the king's name, and offers presents to the snake for the preservation of the government. A solemn procession is also made after the coronation of a new king.

When the natives of Whidah are afflicted with drought or rain, famine, or other public calamities, they generally invoke the snake or serpent, conceiving that the private fetishes have not power to protect them. The common people go daily in large bodies to their snake-house, with drums beating, and trumpets sounding, where they perform their worship, which consists of certain songs and dances, to the honour of their idol, from whom they implore either a propitious journey, fair weather, a good crop, or whatever else they stand most in need of; to obtain which they present their offerings, and then return home.

The next public fetishes are lofty trees: to these they apply in their sickness, or any private misfortune. The sacrifices offered to the trees consist of loaves, millet, maize, or rice, which are placed by the priest at the foot of the tree: if the patient compliments the former with a pecuniary present, he leaves them to be devoured by the beasts and birds; if not, when the patient is gone, he takes them home, and converts them to his own use.

The sea is another fetish, which they firmly believe is able to do as much for them as the snake, or the trees. When the weather is so stormy as to hinder trade, the grand sacrificer is consulted, and, according to his answer, a procession is made to the sea, where an ox or sheep is killed on the shore, letting the blood flow into the water, and, at the same time, throwing a ring into the sea, as far as the strength of the arm will reach. The carcase of the beast sacrificed is the property of the priest, who disposes of it in such a manner as he thinks proper: sometimes he divides it among the people, but, in general, he converts it to his own use.

Another of their public fetishes, called Agoye, is an image made of black earth, or clay, and, in form, somewhat resembles a negro squatting. It is placed on a kind of pedestal, ornamented with a slip of red cloth, bordered with cowries; the head is crowned with lizards and serpents, intermixed with red feathers; and from the top issues the point of an assagaye, that goes through a larger lizard, beneath which is a silver crescent. This idol is placed on a table, in the house of the grand sacrificer. Before it stand three wooden bowls, or half-calabashes, in one of which is a number of small earthen balls. With this idol the people generally advise before they commence any capital undertaking; for which reason he is called the god of councils.

The office of the priesthood is not vested in the males exclusively; the females also enjoy it in a superior degree, being wholly exempt from the control of their husbands, who treat them with the utmost reverence. Girls are trained to the priesthood, under the inspection of an old priestess, from whom they imbibe many absurd principles and maxims, both as to religious tenets, ceremonies, and practices. The high-priest, or grand sacrificer, presides over the rest, who pay him the greatest homage; even the king himself considers him with equal respect. The priesthood of the grand serpent is peculiar to one family, of which the grand sacrificer is the chief, all the others being subject to, and dependent on, him. The priests, as well as the priestesses, are easily known by the scars and marks on their bodies, made at the time they are initiated into the religious order. In other respects, they differ but little from the laity. They trade like other people, and acquire considerable possessions, by the sale of cattle and slaves; but their greatest gains arise from the credulity of the people, from whom they extort offerings and presents for the great serpent; which their deluded devotees imagine are religiously bestowed.

Whidah, at present, may be considered only as a province, and its king as a tributary prince, though the inhabitants are under the same laws and government, and possess the same indulgences in their religious maxims, as before it was conquered by the Dahomans. The civil and military government is vested in the king, aided by officers appointed to the respective departments in the several districts. Besides these, there are a great number of honorary captains, and another sort, that are entrusted with the care of the markets, slaves, prisons, &c.

The only crimes which are considered as capital are murder and adultery. For the first offence, the criminal is cut open alive, his entrails taken out and burnt, and his body fixed on a pole, erected in the market-place, where

it continues for some days, and is then carried to a remote place, to be devoured by birds or beasts of prey. Adultery is punished not less severely than murder, especially when it is committed with one of the king's wives. If the guilty couple happen to be surprised, the king pronounces sentence of death immediately; the manner of executing which, according to a late writer, is thus performed:—The king's officers cause two graves, or pits, to be dug, six or seven feet long, four broad, and five deep, so near each other, that the criminals may see and speak together. In the middle of one they plant a stake, to which they fasten the woman, tying her arms behind the post; her legs are also tied at the knees, and at the ankles. At the bottom of the other, the king's wives lay bundles of small faggots, after which they retire; and two forks of wood being fastened by the officers at the ends, the man, naked, is tied to an iron bar, like a broad spit, with iron chains, that he cannot stir, and laid across the two forks. They then set fire to the wood, so that the flames may just reach the body, which is thus roasted by a slow fire. This cruel punishment would be lingering, if they did not take care to turn the criminal with his face downwards, so that the smoke suffocates him before he is quite broiled. When they no longer perceive signs of life, they untie the body, fling it into the pit, and fill it up with earth. When the wife of a grandee is taken in adultery, the husband is at liberty to use his own discretion, either to put her to death, or sell her as a slave to the Europeans. If he determine on the former, she is strangled or beheaded by the executioner, and the king is sufficiently satisfied on being made acquainted with the fact. Crimes of an inferior nature are left to the viceroys, who generally inflict either some kind of penance, or a pecuniary mulct, which is always paid to the king.

Markets are established in this country for the regulation of commerce; the chief articles of trade being slaves, elephants' teeth, wax, and honey. The women, in many instances, are the chief agents, and deemed the best accomptants. Slaves are paid for in gold-dust; but the payments for other commodities are made in strings of cowries, each of which contains forty in number. Five of these strings make what the natives call a fore; and fifty fores make an alkove, which generally weighs about sixty pounds.

ARDRAH.

The kingdom of Ardrah is bounded, on the east, by the kingdom of Benin; on the west, by that of Whidah; on the south, by the Gulf of Guinea; and, on the north, by the unknown parts of Africa. It is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Great and Little Ardrah. It lies in three degrees five minutes east longitude, and five degrees north latitude.

This kingdom is not so considerable as that of Whidah, but is very populous, and contains many good towns and villages. The country, in general, is very flat, and, being watered by several small rivers, in different parts of it, the soil is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of Indian wheat, millet, yams, potatoes, and also several kinds of fruit, particularly pine-apples, bananas, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and lemons.

The manners, customs, and dress of the inhabitants of Ardrah differ but little from those of Whidah. They are cleanly in their persons, washing themselves every morning and evening in pure water, and anointing themselves with civet or some aromatic perfume. Rice, pulse, herbs, and roots, with beef, mutton, and dog's flesh, constitute their common food. Their ordinary drink is the beer called pito, which they generally mix with water; but the higher classes drink palm-wine.

Those who live near the sea-side are employed in fishing, boiling of salt, and trading; but the inland inhabitants dedicate their time solely to the cultivation of their lands, and breeding cattle.

The natives are, in general, illiterate; for which reason, in buying and selling goods, they make use of cords, tied in knots, each of which has a particular signification, known only to themselves, and those who are accustomed to deal with them. Some few of them, however, understand the Portuguese tongue, which they not only speak fluently, but also read and write with great accuracy.

Their religious maxims are much the same as those in Whidah, except that they do not worship serpents; on the contrary, they not only kill them, but are exceedingly fond of their flesh. They are greatly alarmed at sickness, and tremble at the very name of death. A person taken sick sends for a priest, who immediately goes to him, and sacrifices some animal, for the recovery of his health. The priest rubs the patient's fetish with the blood, but the flesh of the animal is thrown away. The fetishes belonging to the king and court are appointed by the high-priest, and are birds of a black colour, not unlike the crows in England. Prodigious numbers of these birds are kept in the gardens of the palace; and it is equally criminal to pay disrespect to them here, as it is to the grand serpent at Whidah. The fetishes of the common people consist of a particular stone, a piece of wood, or some inanimate substance, which they always keep hid in their house, underneath an earthen pot. Every six months they make a public offering to their priest, in honour of their fetish, at the same time proposing questions to the idol relative to their future welfare.

The king's court is kept with great splendour, though his majesty, like the sovereign of Whidah, is dependent on the king of Dahomy. He seldom goes abroad, and, when he does, it is in so private a manner, that few of

his subjects see him. He keeps a great number of women, the principal of whom has the title of queen.

No person whatever eats in company with the king; and, when he drinks, an officer makes a signal, by striking two small rods of iron together, in order that all who are within sight may turn away, and not look at his majesty; for it is a capital offence for any one to see him drink. An instance of this was once seen in an infant, who, being asleep near the king, was awakened by the noise of the rods; and his majesty, observing that the child turned its eyes towards him while the cup was at his mouth, ordered it to be put to death.

So severe, indeed, are the laws of Ardrah, that whoever disobeys the royal command is beheaded, and his wives and children become the king's slaves. Insolvent debtors are left to the mercy of their creditors, who have liberty to pay themselves by selling them for slaves. The same punishment is also inflicted on him who has seduced another man's wife. The punishments for adultery committed by the women, and other crimes, are the same as at Whidah.

Assem, called by the Europeans Great Ardrah, the capital of the kingdom, is situated about sixteen leagues inland to the north-west from Little Ardrah, a spacious road leading from one to the other. The king's palace is a spacious edifice, though greatly inferior to the original building, which was destroyed in the year 1726. Europeans are treated by the king and grandees of Ardrah with the same respect as at Whidah.

BENIN.

The kingdom of Benin, which lies contiguous to Ardrah extends about six hundred miles from east to west; but its extent from north to south cannot be ascertained. It is bounded, on the east, by the kingdoms of Mujac and Makoko; on the west, by Ardrah and part of the Gulf of Guinea; on the south, by Congo; and, on the north, by part of Gago and Biafara.

This is, in general, a low and woody country; but it is well watered with rivers, the most distinguished of which is that called, by the English and French, the River Benin; but, by the Portuguese, Rio Formosa, or the Beautiful River. Its length and source are not known; but its branches are supposed to extend through most parts of the neighbouring countries. Its banks are exceedingly pleasant, being ornamented with lofty trees, and many small but neat villages.

The noxious vapours, exhaled from the low grounds by the heat of the sun, render the climate of this kingdom rather unwholesome; but the soil is tolerably fertile, and well adapted for the produce of millet and rice: but, as the inhabitants are not partial to those grains, little of them are cultivated. Their principal attention is directed to the cultivation of yams, which they use instead of bread; and they have also great plenty of potatoes, and other roots. The chief fruits here are oranges, lemons, and bananas; and they have some cotton and pepper-trees; the latter of which produce a tolerable commodity, but not in such quantities, neither are the corns so large as those of the East-Indies.

In this country the wild beasts are tigers, leopards, bears, and monkeys. The tame ones consist of horses, cows, sheep, dogs, and cats; the two latter of which the natives prefer to any other kind of flesh. They have also great plenty of poultry, and the woods abound with game, as hares, turtle-doves, pheasants, partridges, &c.

The state of Benin is divided into four classes; the first of which is composed of three persons, called Great Lords, or great men, who are always near the king's person. Whoever desires to obtain any favour from his majesty, must apply to them, in order to acquaint him with their desires, and return his answer. As there is no intermediate person between these, the king, and those who solicit favours, they act on these occasions in such a manner as best suits their own interests; so that, in reality, the whole government is entirely in their hands.

The second rank, or class, is composed of those called Ores-de-Roes, or Road Chiefs, who are of four sorts: the meanest preside over slaves; those a degree higher over the rabble; the third inspect the conduct of those concerned in husbandry and agriculture; and the fourth, or superior order, superintend the military. The latter are very numerous, and from them are chosen the viceroys and governors of those countries subject to the king. They are all under the command of the three great men, and are responsible to them on all occasions. They obtain their posts by the recommendation of the three lords; and the king, as an ensign of their honour, presents each of them with a string of coral, which they are obliged continually to wear about their necks; and, if any one should lose his badge of honour, whether by accident or otherwise, the consequence would be not only degradation, but the loss of his life.

The Fiadors, or brokers, are the third class: they are appointed by the government to treat with the Europeans, on behalf of the traders of Benin; and their business is to see that all matters of commerce are fairly transacted between the respective parties.

The commonalty form the last class. The generality of these are very indolent, nor will they go to work but when necessity obliges them. The laborious part of their business is executed by their wives; such as tilling the ground, spinning of cotton, weaving of cloth, and other handicrafts. The principal artificers among them are smiths, carpenters, and leather-dressers.

The negroes here, particularly the better sort, dress in

a white calico, or cotton cloth, fastened round the waist, and neatly plaited in the middle; but the upper and lower parts of the body are entirely naked. The dress of the meaner sort is of the same form, and only differs in the quality of the stuff with which it is made.

Calico pagnes are worn by the wives of the grandees: these pagnes, which are wove in this country, are very fine, and beautifully variegated with different colours. They are fastened round the waist, the upper part of the body being covered with a piece of cloth, about a yard long, which serves instead of a veil. They wear necklaces of coral, agreeably disposed; and their arms, legs, wrists, and fingers, are ornamented with copper and iron rings.

The buildings are, in general, spacious and lofty, but they are indifferently constructed, some of them being square, and others oblong. The doors are made high and narrow; the windows are few in number, and small. They are all made with a flat roof, on the top of which is a covering, raised several feet, to keep off the heat of the sun. Here they frequently regale themselves, when they pay a visit to each other.

The diet of the better sort consists chiefly of beef, mutton, or chickens. Instead of bread, they use yams, which, after being boiled, are beaten fine, and made into cakes. Their common beverage is water, with which they sometimes mix brandy. The poorer sort live on dried fish, yams, bananas, and pulse.

Polygamy is allowed here, with the same latitude as on the coast of Guinea; and the marriage-ceremonies consist only in the consent of the parents, a present to the bride, and an entertainment to the guests on both sides. The men are very jealous, for which reason the wives of the poorer class enjoy a pleasure to which those of the better sort are strangers; for, while the former have their liberty, the wives of the great are closely confined. Though jealous of each other, they are not so of Europeans; as they think it impossible that the taste of the women can be so depraved as to grant any liberties to a white man.

All the boys born in this country are presented to the king as his property; for which reason all the males of this country are called the king's slaves; but the females are the property of the father, who has liberty to dispose of them at his own discretion.

If a woman happen to be delivered of two children at a birth, immediate information is given to the king, who orders public rejoicings to be made on the occasion. Such circumstances are considered as happy omens, in all the territories of Benin, except at a place called Arebo, where they are productive of the most horrid cruelties; for the people there generally sacrifice both women and children to a certain demon, which, they say, inhabits a wood near the town. Sometimes they will spare the wife, by the husband's offering a female slave in her stead; but the children are condemned without redemption.

The thoughts of death are not so alarming to the negroes of Benin as to their neighbours on the coast of Guinea. When a person falls sick, he immediately applies to the priest, who also acts in the capacity of physician, and furnishes him with medicines; but, if these prove ineffectual, he has recourse to sacrifices.

On the demise of a person, the corpse is kept only one day before interment, except it happen at a distance from the general place of residence: then, in order to preserve it for conveyance, it is dried over a gentle fire till the moisture is extracted, when it is put into a coffin, and publicly exposed; after which it is carried on men's shoulders to the place of interment. When the funeral is over, the nearest relations bewail their loss by cries and lamentations. The shew of mourning consists only in shaving their heads, some half-way and others all over; and the men shave off their beards. At the funeral of a grandee several slaves are usually sacrificed.

Various kinds of idols are worshipped in Benin, some of which are made of elephants' teeth, claws, dead men's heads, skeletons, &c. Each person is his own priest, and addresses himself to such of his idols as he likes best; to which they make daily offerings, consisting of a few yams, mixed with oil. Sometimes they offer a fowl; but they only sprinkle the blood of it on the idol, for the flesh they convert to their own use. The great men make annual sacrifices, which are very expensive, and celebrated with great pomp. They kill multitudes of cows, sheep, and other kinds of cattle; and they provide an elegant entertainment for their friends, that lasts several days.

Two annual festivals are observed, besides those held on the sabbaths. The first of these is in commemoration of their ancestors, when they not only sacrifice a great number of beasts, but also human beings; but the latter are generally malefactors sentenced to death, and reserved for these solemnities. If it happens that there are not so many criminals as are requisite on these occasions, the king orders his officers to parade the streets, and seize indifferently such persons as they meet not carrying lights. If the persons so seized are wealthy, they are permitted to purchase their redemption, but, if poor, they are sacrificed on the day appointed. The slaves of great men so seized may be also ransomed, on condition that the masters find others to supply the place.

But the most considerable is their second annual festival, which is called the coral-feast. It is celebrated in the month of May; and the king appears in public the day on which it is held. At this time the king bestows the strings of coral on those whom he advances to any preferment, or post of honour, which he never does but on this festival, unless a particular urgency of state require it.

Though the will of the monarch in this kingdom is an absolute law, the chief direction of government is vested in the three great lords. Their laws are, in general, very mild. When a person of property dies, the right of inheritance devolves to the eldest son; but he is obliged to present a slave to the king, and another to the three great lords, with a petition that he may succeed his father in the same quality. He is not compelled to make any allowance to his younger brother, that being wholly left to his own discretion; but, if his mother be living, he must allow her a maintenance suitable to her rank. If the deceased leave no children, the brother inherits the effects; and, in case of deficiency of such heir, the next of kin; but, if no lawful heir appears, the whole becomes the property of the king.

Criminals are punished in proportion to the nature of their offence; but, from the particular respect which they pay to foreigners, the injuring of any European is considered as a capital crime, and the punishment for such offence is thus executed: they take the offender, tie his hands behind his back, and blindfold him. After this, the judge raises him up, so that his head hangs towards the ground, which the executioner cuts off with a hatchet, and, separating the body into four quarters, leaves it for the wild beasts and birds to devour.

Murder is punished with death, except the offence be committed by the king's son, or a grandee; in which case the offender is banished to the most distant part of the kingdom, and never permitted to return.

If a person kill another by accident, he may purchase his life, by first burying the deceased, and afterwards producing a slave to suffer in his stead. When this slave is sacrificed, the offender must bend his body, and touch the slave's knees with his forehead; after which he must pay a fine to the three great lords, when he obtains his freedom; and the relations of the deceased think a sufficient atonement has been made for the offence.

The punishment for adultery is in proportion to the circumstances of the parties. If a common person surprise his wife in the fact, he is entitled to all the effects of the person that has injured him; and the woman, after being severely chastised by her husband, is totally discarded, being left to provide for herself the remainder of her life.

Other crimes are punished by fine, which is proportioned to the nature of the offence; and, if the culprit be not able to pay the fine levied, he is subject to corporal punishment. Part of the fine is paid to the person injured, after which the governor has his share, and the remainder of it goes to the three great lords.

The principal city of this kingdom is Benin, which is the usual residence of the king: it is a large town, being at least nine miles in circumference, and pleasantly situated on the banks of the river, about forty miles from its mouth. It contains a great number of streets, most of which are spacious, and the houses uniformly built. The principal street is broad, and, at least, three miles in length: it is intersected by many cross streets and lanes, all of which are straight, and of considerable extent. The houses of the grandees are much higher than those of the commonalty, and are ascended by steps. At the entrance of each is a vestibule, or porch, which is spread with mats of straw. The inner chamber is square, with an opening in the centre for the admission of light. The king's palace is very extensive, superb, and magnificent. It consists of several large squares, surrounded with galleries, each of which has a portico or gate, guarded by soldiers.

This city is entirely inhabited by the natives, no foreigner being permitted to reside in it. Some of them are wealthy, and spend their whole lives at court, leaving trade and agriculture to be conducted by their wives and servants. These go to the adjacent villages, and either trade in merchandise, or serve for daily wages; the greatest part of which they give to their masters, otherwise they would be sold for slaves.

There is a daily market in the principal part of the city, for the sale of provisions and merchandise. The former consists of dogs, of which the natives are very fond, roasted baboons, and monkeys, bats, and large rats, parrots, hens, lizards, dried in the sun, fruits, and palm-wine. Their merchandise consists of cotton, elephants' teeth, wooden platters, cups, and other household articles; also cotton-cloth, lances, darts, &c.

SECTION II.

THE GOLD COAST.

Situation, Boundaries, &c.] The Gold Coast, which is situated within the fifth degree of north latitude, is bounded, on the north, by Negroland; on the east, by the Slave Coast; on the south, by the ocean; and, on the west, by the Ivory Coast. It is about one hundred and eighty miles in length, and contains eleven districts, some of which contain two or more towns or villages, lying on the seashore, either under or between the European forts and castles. These villages, however, are only for the convenience of trade and fishing, for the principal towns lie in the interior, and are very populous. Some of these districts are independent republics, under the direction of their own magistrates; and seven of them are kingdoms, governed by their respective chiefs.

Climate, &c.] The heat is excessive from October to March; but the other six months it is tolerably temperate. The coast is very unhealthy, owing to the extreme heat of the day and the coolness of the nights; to which may be

added the damp sulphureous mists that arise every morning from the mountains. Tornados are also frequent here, particularly in the months of April, May, and June. These are violent storms of wind, rising suddenly from the east and south-east, and sometimes from the north, with a few points to the west. They are generally attended with repeated claps of thunder and dreadful lightning, with prodigious showers of rain, falling like a flood, and an uncommon darkness. They sometimes last an hour, or more; but, as soon as they are over, the weather immediately becomes clear and fine. If they happen in the summer-season, which is sometimes the case, they are not so violent as in the winter, but they are more incommodious, both to land and sea-faring people, being usually followed by cold rains for several days together.

The rains that fall then are of so pernicious a quality, that, if a person sleep in his wet clothes, he is sure to contract a dangerous disease; and it has been found that clothes laid by wet have, in a short time, been so rotten as to fall to pieces with the most gentle touch.

Minerals.] The inland districts abound with mines. Gold is also gathered on the sea-shore by the following method:—In the morning succeeding a rainy night, numbers of the natives go to the sea-shore, each being furnished with two calabashes, one of which they fill with earth and sand. This they wash with many waters, by turning the calabash round; the water, with the lightest of the mud, washing over the brim, while the gold, if there be any, sinks, by its own weight, to the bottom. Thus they continue till two or three spoonsful are only left, and this they put into the other calabash; then fill the other again, and continue washing till about noon, when the calabash that receives the settlings, being pretty well filled, is taken home, and minutely searched. They sometimes find as much gold as is worth half-a-guinea, sometimes the value of a shilling, and sometimes none at all.

Vegetables.] This coast abounds with a variety of trees. One of the most remarkable, and which grows in great abundance, is the papay-tree. The fruit, at first, is produced at the top of the trunk, without any branches; but, as the tree grows older, it shoots out branches, towards the top, which resemble young stocks, whereon likewise fruit grows. The inland countries on the coast of Guinea are, in general, fertile, and produce several sorts of grain, particularly maize and millet, which grow in great abundance. They have also several kinds of vegetables and roots. Palm-trees grow here in abundance, and are of infinite service to the natives, not only from the wine that flows from the trunk, but the oils which they extract from their nuts. They have also plenty of various kinds of fruits, as plums, pears, oranges, citrons, cocoa-nuts, and figs, to which may be added ananas, water-melons, and the kormantin apple. The last fruit is more peculiar to this country than any other: it is about the size of a walnut, and has a green husk; but the outer rind is of a yellowish cast, somewhat inclined to red. In the core are four large flat kernels, separated by the pulp, which is red and white, of a sweetish sharp taste, but most inclining to the latter. It is a very agreeable and refreshing fruit, and of infinite service to those afflicted with the bloody-flux; for it is very astringent, and, when boiled with wine and sugar, is not only more useful, but more pleasant, than tamarinds.

Animals.] The tame quadrupeds of this country are bulls, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs; but the pasture is so indifferent, that they are, in general, exceeding poor and small. The cows yield but little milk; and one of the best, when full grown, is so light, that it will not weight above two hundred and fifty pounds. The sheep are not above half the size of those in Europe; and, instead of wool, their bodies are covered with long shaggy hair. The goats are very plentiful, but small in proportion to those of Europe. The flesh, however, is very fat and sweet, and greatly preferred to that of sheep.

The chief domestic animals are dogs and cats. The negroes frequently eat the former, and prefer their flesh to any other. The dogs here are much like our foxes, and have long upright ears. Their tails are long, but taper, and without hair: the skin is also naked; and they never bark, but only howl. They are very disagreeable to the sight, but more so to the touch. The blacks call them *cabra de matto*, which signifies a wild goat; and so universally are they admired in this country, that, in some places, they breed them for sale, and carry them to the markets, where they fetch a much better price than the sheep. Cats are also greatly esteemed by the negroes, but they do not eat them unless out of necessity.

The wild beasts, both on the coast and in the interior parts, are of various sorts. Among these none are more distinguished than the elephants; for though in other parts these animals are rendered docile and useful, yet here they are never tamed.

On this coast there are various sorts of apes and monkeys, some of which are called bearded monkeys, from their having long white beards: the hair on their backs is of a light brown, that on the belly white, and the rest of the body is covered with spots. There are others, called white noses, from that part of them being only of a white colour. These animals, though of various sorts, are all very cunning, and ready to imitate what they see. They are fond of their young, always in action, and greatly resemble the human form; so that the negroes call them cursed men, and say they could speak if they would.

There are also several sorts of wild cats on this coast, some of which are spotted like tigers, and are extremely fierce and mischievous. Among these is the civet-cat,

called by the negroes *kankan*. They generally vex and teeze them, before they take out the musk from the bag; for the more the animal is enraged previous to this operation, the better will be the civet. The bag which contains the civet is largest in the male. The liquor of which the civet consists, appears to be excreted from certain glands that lie between the coats that compose the bag from which the civet is taken.

Here are some porcupines, which are, in general, about two feet in height, and their teeth are remarkably sharp. They are very daring, insomuch that they will attack the largest and most dangerous snakes. When irritated, they shoot their quills at the enemy, and with such violence that they oftentimes prove fatal. The negroes esteem their flesh as a great delicacy.

The sloth, which is called by the natives potto, is found in this part of Guinea. This animal is said to be the most ugly creature in the universe; and it is so slow in its motion, that it cannot travel above twenty yards in a day. The head is strangely disproportioned, and the fore-feet greatly resemble hands. The hair of the young ones is of a pale mouse-colour, but that of the old is red, and looks more like wool than hair. The female, when big with young, climbs the trunk of some old tree, in which there is an hollow, from some accidental decay, at a distance from the ground. Here she deposits her young, which are generally two in number. During the time she suckles her young, she continues in the same hole, and, though that period is very short, before it is expired she becomes almost emaciated. When the young ones are able to crawl after her, she leads them to the nearest branches of the tree, where they devour the leaves first of one and then another. When the tree is quite stripped, they are obliged to seek a new place of abode. The journey, however, to the next tree, takes up no small time in performing; and though the creature is fat at the time he leaves his former habitation, yet, before he has reached his new one, he becomes as poor and lean as possible; and, if the tree be high, or at any distance, and he meets with nothing on his journey, he inevitably dies with hunger. While he is thus travelling slowly on the ground, any beast may kill and devour him; for he is entirely defenceless, and, when attacked, only makes a noise like the crying of a kitten. The characteristics of this animal are its slow pace, and its having the fore-feet longer than those behind, with three claws on each foot.

The crown-bird, which is found on this coast, is more beautiful than those in the other parts of Guinea. They are about the size of a stork, and receive their name from a large tuft that grows on their heads; some of which are red, others blue, and some of a shining gold. Their bodies are chiefly covered with black feathers; the sides of their heads are beautified with purple spots; and the feathers of their wings and tails are of different colours, as red, yellow, white, and black. Their tails are very long, and the negroes pluck their feathers to ornament their heads.

Several species of large and venomous snakes abound on this coast, as also large scorpions, some of which are as big as small lobsters, having a bladder full of poison at the end of their tails, which they discharge at their enemies at pleasure. Locusts are very numerous here, and sometimes make great destruction among the corn and vegetables. The millepedes, or hog-lice, are very numerous; and, though their sting is not so dangerous as that of the scorpions, yet it occasions a very sharp pain for some time.

The most remarkable insects on this coast are the large ants, which are different from those in other parts of the world. These are of various sorts and colours: some are white, others black, and some red. They are very rapacious, and will sometimes attack a living sheep, which, in a night's time, they will reduce to a perfect skeleton, leaving not the least thing except the bones. Fowls and chickens frequently share the same fate; and even rats, though such active animals, are not able to escape.

The gnats on this coast are very troublesome, especially near woods and marshy grounds. Their sting is very sharp, and raises prodigious swellings, attended with violent pain. They are most troublesome in the night, and frequently oblige the inhabitants to desert their habitations.

Religion, Government, &c.] The negroes on the Gold Coast are, in general, idolaters. Every one has a fetish, or charm, to which they pay the greatest reverence. These fetishes are formed of different things, according to each person's fancy; some have the tooth of a dog, tiger, elephant, or civet-cat; others have an egg, the bone of some bird, the head of a fowl, ox, or goat; and others, again, the bone of a fish, the end of a ram's horn, or a bunch of cords, made of the bark of trees: their regard for them is so great, that whatever they promise them they perform in the strictest manner, and that in every instance of abstinence and mortification.

Each kingdom has its particular fetish: this is generally some large mountain, or remarkable tree, which, if any person should be so indiscreet as to cut or disfigure, he would be put to the most cruel death. Each village has also its guardian fetish, dressed at the common expence, to which they pray for general benefits; and for this patron they erect, in the most public place, a kind of altar, made with reeds, and covered with a roof of palm-leaves. In short, they are, in general, from the highest to the lowest class, most inviolably and unreservedly attached to the particular objects of their adoration.

The negroes on this coast tremble at the idea of the

devil, to whom they ascribe all their misfortunes, and are even terrified at his name. Such are their notions of the injuries they receive from this fiend, that they have an annual custom of banishing him from every town and village throughout the respective district.

They have generally two days of worship in the week, one of which is dedicated to their fetishes, and the other is called their bossum-day, being that on which they were born. On the latter day, they clothe themselves in white, and besmear themselves with earth of the same colour, as emblems of innocence; but the fetish-day is observed with the greatest devotion.

There are five degrees, or classes, among the natives on this coast. The first are their kings; the second their nobility; the third may be called civil magistrates, their province being only to take care of the welfare of the city or village, and to appease such tumults as may arise among the inhabitants; the fourth are the common people, employed in agriculture, fishing, &c.; and the fifth and last are the slaves, who are either taken in war, or become so by poverty.

The different kingdoms are governed either in the form of monarchies or republics. The kings are, in general, hereditary, but some few of them elective. Their chief justices, or judges, as well in kingdoms as republics, are commonly chosen from among the most wealthy, and particularly the governors of towns and villages. These take cognizance of all civil and criminal cases; but their decision is not absolutely ultimate, as the parties can appeal to the king.

The crime of adultery, on this part of the coast, is punished only by fine; for which reason many women, by consent of their husbands, bestow their favours, merely to take advantage of those who have been captivated by their charms. The inland negroes, however, are more rigid in exacting the penalty than those of the coast. Nothing less, in general, than life will satisfy the party offended, though the punishment is sometimes mitigated by virtue of an enormous pecuniary consideration; in which case, the negroes are responsible not only for their children, but also their relations, who, in such cases, help one another by a mutual contribution, each giving something towards the fine, according to his circumstances: otherwise the offender would be condemned either to slavery or death. In like manner, every man is obliged to make good the injury done by his slave; for whatever crime he commits, his master must pay the fine imposed. In general, the fine is proportioned to the circumstances of the criminal.

When any contention breaks out among the different princes on this coast, war is formally declared, and the kings, by their governors, appoint a day for their subjects to assemble in arms. This being done, a herald is sent to announce it to the enemy, at the same time fixing the day, place, and hour, of battle. The grandees, or nobles, then repair to court, and, after complimenting the king, proceed to the place of battle, taking with them their wives and families; and, if the motives of the quarrel be great, before they set out, they destroy their houses and towns, that the enemy, if victorious, may gain the less advantage of their conquest.

The kings have a great number of guards, who constantly attend their persons, either at home or in the field. These are well furnished with arms, and make a most formidable appearance. They are very dexterous in the use of their warlike implements, which consist of muskets, sabres, lances, shields, and bows and arrows.

In battle, each commander has his men close together in a crowd, without the least attention to order, himself being hid in the midst of them. In case a few are killed the rest immediately run away, unless surrounded by the enemy; and so natural is cowardice to them, that, when one officer sees another enthralled, instead of advancing to assist him, he consults only his own safety by a speedy flight. They do not stand upright in battle, but stoop, that the bullets may fly over their heads: as soon as they have discharged their guns, they immediately run back to load them, and then return and resume the fire. The victorious party make as many prisoners as they can. Those who cannot raise their ransom are either kept or sold as slaves; if a person of rank is taken, he is well secured, and his ransom is fixed very high; but if the person who occasioned the war fall into their hands, he is immediately put to death.

The contending princes, when a treaty of peace is agreed on, engage to meet each other on a certain day, to proclaim their determinations. The place is generally a large open plain, and each party appears as if armed for battle, bringing with them their fetishes. The priests, who are the principal people in these ceremonies, make the chiefs swear reciprocally to cease hostilities, to forget what has passed, and, as a security for their promises, to give mutual hostages. As soon as these oaths are taken, the parties throw down their arms, and embrace each other with the greatest cordiality; after which they pass the remainder of the day in singing and dancing, and commerce is renewed as if no dispute had happened.

SECTION III.

THE IVORY COAST.

The Ivory Coast derives its name from the great number of elephants' teeth purchased here by the Europeans, the principal part of which is found on this coast and in its vicinity. It is bounded, on the east, by the Gold Coast,

on the west, by the Grain Coast; on the north, by Negroland; and, on the south, by the Atlantic Ocean. The whole coast, which extends from Cape Palmas to Cape Apollonia, is about two hundred and fifty miles in length, and is called, by the natives, the Quaqua Coast; the word quaqua, in their language, signifying a tooth.

Soil and Productions.] The country is pleasant to the view, and fertile in soil, producing grain and vegetables in abundance. The natives are not sensible of the value of sugar-canes, and therefore only apply them to the purpose of feeding elephants, which are here very numerous. Indigo and cotton are said to grow without cultivation, and tobacco, under proper care, would prove a profitable and useful article.

Oxen, goats, hogs, sheep, &c. abound here. A good ox is seldom sold for more than a few dozen of knives, and inferior ones in proportion. They have also great plenty of poultry, and variety of fish. Among the latter are frequently found three remarkable creatures, namely, the sea-ox, the zingana, or hammer-fish, and the sea-devil.

The sea-ox, or horned fish, is very long and thick. The skin is hard, rough, and without scales, and of variegated colours. The head resembles that of a hog, and it has a trunk like that of an elephant, which in the same manner receives its food. It has many peculiarities in its form; but the most singular is the extreme part of the tail, which is composed of a strong thick fin, which serves as a defence. It has also other fins, which subserve the same purpose. The zingana, or hammer-fish, is a voracious creature, and is armed with fins, which greatly facilitate the seizure of its prey.

The sea-devil, so called from the ugliness of its form, surpasses all other creatures found in the seas; it is about twenty-five feet in length, and eighteen in breadth: on each side of it is an angular substance, as hard as horn, and very sharp. The tail is long and taper, and terminates with a dangerous point: the back is covered with small lumps, about two inches high, and sharp at the ends: the head is large, but there is no appearance of any neck, and the mouth is furnished with a great number of sharp-pointed teeth: two of the eyes are near the throat, and are round and large, but the other two are placed above them, and much smaller: on each side of the throat are three horns, of an equal length, the middlemost of which is three feet long, and an inch and a half in diameter, but they are flexible, and therefore can do but little harm; the flesh of this creature is hard and ill-tasted, but the negroes catch them for the sake of the liver, from which they extract large quantities of oil.

The places most worthy of description on the Ivory Coast are the following:—Cape la Hou, or Laho, which produces elephants' teeth, of the largest size, and in the greatest abundance. The town is extensive, the soil fertile, and the natives are tolerably civil. Between two villages, called Cape-la-How and Corbi-la-How, is a track of the sea, called by some the Bottomless Pit, many efforts having been made in vain by the natives to fathom it. At length the bottom was found by the Europeans, and the depth appeared to be no more than sixteen fathoms. Near Cape Apollonia, at the eastern extremity of the coast, are three villages, inhabited by some negro natives, who carry on an occasional traffic with the Europeans.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Quaqua blacks, or natives of the Ivory Coast, are tall, lusty, and well featured, and very honest in their dealings, particularly with the Europeans that visit this coast. When they go to trade with any ship, they take some water in their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes: this is a kind of oath, by which they intimate, that they would rather lose their eye-sight than cheat those they trade with. They are no less averse to drunkenness than fraud; and, though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they will not drink any palm-wine, but only a certain liquor, called bordon, or tombo-wine, which is much weaker, and rendered still more so by being mixed with water.

Their dress is much the same as the inhabitants of the coasts in general. They file their teeth very sharp, but they are, in general, irregularly placed, and very crooked. They are fond of having long nails, and take particular pride in the length of their hair, which they plait and twist in different forms, and grease it with palm-oil mixed with red earth. With this composition they every day anoint their bodies, and continually chew betel, the juice of which they rub about their mouths and chins. They ornament their legs with a great number of iron rings, and in these consists their chief dignity, for the greater a man's quality is, the more rings he wears.

Their language is altogether unintelligible to a European, and they speak hastily and by starts. When they meet each other, they use the word *quaqua*, at the same time each laying one hand on the other's shoulder, and taking hold of the fore-finger, pull it till it snaps, when they again, in a low voice, repeat the word quaqua, which closes the salutation.

In religion they are all idolaters; and though there are several petty princes in different parts of the coast, yet the whole are subject to a king, called Soccoo, whom they not only respect but dread; and imagine that, if he would only make use of his fetishes or enchantments, he would cause all his enemies to die.

By the fundamental laws of this country every one is obliged to continue all his life in the condition in which he was born; so that, for instance, one whose father was a fisherman can never become any thing else but a fisherman; and so of all other trades and professions.

In some parts of the coast, particularly Laho, they manufacture a pretty sort of cotton-stuffs, striped blue and white, about three-quarters broad, and three or four ells long. These are much valued, and sell for a good price in most parts of Guinea. The natives are very fond of trade; but they are cautious in going on board European ships, lest they should be trepanned. In negociation, all is done by signs and gestures of the hands or fingers, and by setting a quantity of goods against the teeth they offer to dispose of.

Besides the articles of ivory, gold, and slaves, the negroes here carry on a great trade in salt, which they sell to their neighbours, who carry it further into the inland countries, and dispose of it to great advantage, it being in those parts exceeding scarce. The inland parts of this coast produce the largest and best elephants' teeth to be found in the universe. The country is so full of elephants, that the inhabitants of the hilly parts are obliged to dig their houses in the backs of the mountains, and to make their doors and windows narrow and low, and are forced to use all kinds of artifices to drive them from their plantations, or lay snares for them, and kill them. The reason of ivory being so plentiful here is, because the elephants cast their teeth every three years; so that they find more loose teeth in the forests than they get from those they kill.

SECTION IV.

THE GRAIN COAST.

Climate and Productions.] Though the climate of the Grain Coast is very unhealthy, owing to the periodical rains and winds, the soil is tolerably good, and, besides pepper, produces plenty of vegetables and roots, as also various kinds of fruits, particularly, oranges, lemons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, and dates. Their cattle consists of cows, sheep, hogs, and goats; and they have a few horses, but they are very small, and of little use. There are also several kinds of wild beasts, as elephants, buffaloes, tigers, apes of various sorts, and great plenty of hares and deer. Their poultry consists of geese, turkies, and ducks, with plenty of cocks and hens, the latter of which are esteemed as good in quality as those of Europe.

Inhabitants.] The natives of this coast, in person, are, in general, tall and well featured, and are said to be more liberal and honest in disposition than those of the adjacent coasts. Their dress, in point of distinction and form, is much the same, and they are equally fond of trinkets, and all sorts of ornaments. They are mostly abstemious in their diet; intemperance, in drinking especially, being severely punished by royal mandate.

Here are some of a mixed breed, called Mulattoes, who are an abandoned set of people, and have proceeded from the intermixture of negroes and Europeans. These are of a tawny complexion, and profess themselves Christians, notwithstanding which they retain many of the most superstitious notions of the Pagans They imitate the Portuguese in their dress, but exceed both them and the negroes in their vices. The men are drunkards, lewd, thievish, and treacherous; and the women are the most abandoned prostitutes, sacrificing themselves at all times, and to all sorts of men, without the least degree of restraint.

Their sovereign is despotic, and he is never seen abroad, unless on particular occasions, and then he appears with the greatest pomp and magnificence.

Manufactures, Trade, &c.] Their chief employment is husbandry; but there are some tolerable artificers among them. They purchase fire-arms, gunpowder, and bullets, of the Europeans; but darts, arrows, lances, and broad-swords, they make themselves. The carpenters make canoes, of various sizes, with great neatness; and they also build their houses or huts, which are made of wood and clay, and thatched with reeds, or branches of the palmetto-tree.

As the Europeans have no settlement on this part of Guinea, the trade here is carried on by signals from the ships, on the appearance of which the natives immediately go in their canoes, carrying with them their pepper, ivory, &c.

Large ships go up the river Sherbro for about seven leagues from its mouth; but farther up it grows shallow, and is only navigable for canoes. The country round is very mountainous, and the river has many turnings and windings, but the stream is not rapid, except at two or three cataracts or water-falls, one of which is exceeding large, and makes a prodigious noise, the water falling from the rocks upwards of twenty feet perpendicular. The negroes that sail up this river, before they reach the cataract, are obliged to go ashore, and land their goods, which, with their canoes, they drag along the mountains, till they have passed the cataract. The other two water-falls are trifling; notwithstanding which, they frequently have their canoes overset, especially when they are heavily laden: but as the camwood, with which they are generally loaded, is very heavy, it sinks, and in the dry season they go and take it up, there being at that time hardly any water in the river. Their times of going up the river are in the latter end of the rainy seasons, which generally continue five months out of the twelve, when they cut the camwood, and search for elephants' teeth.

CHAPTER VI.

LOWER GUINEA.

THIS extensive tract of country is situated between the equinoctial line and eighteen degrees of south latitude; and extends upwards of seventeen hundred miles from north to south. Its boundaries are, the kingdom of Benin, on the north; the interior parts of Africa, on the east; Mataman, on the south; and the Atlantic Ocean, on the west. It is divided into four kingdoms, viz.—Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; which will be described under their respective heads.

SECTION I.

LOANGO.

Extent, Boundaries, &c.] This kingdom extends along the African coast from two to five degrees of south latitude, and is four hundred and ten miles in length, and three hundred in breadth. It is bounded, on the north, by the kingdom of Benin; on the south, by Congo; on the east, by Makoko; and, on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean. This country, as well as Angola, was formerly a part of the kingdom of Congo; but has long been dismembered from it. It is watered by several small rivers, and divided into four provinces, called Loangiri, Loango-mongo, Chylongo, and Piri.

Climate, and Vegetable Productions.] Though Loango is situated almost in the middle of the torrid zone, the climate is by no means unwholesome, and the soil is capable of improvement, though greatly neglected, through the indolence of the natives: they have, however, several sorts of peas and beans, with large and small millet, of all which the ground yields annually three crops. They have fruits of various kinds, as oranges, lemons, bananas, pompions, cocoa-nuts, and the kola.

Animals.] The wild animals of this country are tigers, leopards, elephants, civet-cats, and a variety of monkeys. The only tame animals are goats and hogs; and poultry is so plentiful, that sixpenny-worth of beads will purchase twenty good fowls.

Among the birds, the most remarkable is the pelican, a bird larger than a swan, in shape resembling a heron. Its feathers are black and white, and it has a bare place on the breast. But the most remarkable circumstance belonging to this bird is the bones, which appear to be transparent, with many fibres and veins running up and down throughout their whole length. To this may also be added another singularity, which is, that near the middle of the stomach the windpipe is divided into two branches, a circumstance not to be met with in any other bird whatever.

Chief City.] Loango, the capital of the kingdom, is situated in four degrees and a half of south latitude, and is about four miles from the sea-coast. It is a large and populous city, and the streets are long and spacious. Near the centre of the city is a spacious square, surrounded with lofty trees, where a daily market is held for the sale of all kinds of provisions, also palm-cloths, of various sorts, and great quantities of elephants' teeth.

The royal palace consists of a number of detached buildings. The king's apartments are in front; behind are those belonging to his women. The whole is surrounded with lofty palm-trees, and is at least a mile and a half in circumference.

The articles sold here by the natives consist of ivory, tin, lead, copper, iron, red-wood, and several sorts of cloths, the manufacture of the country; in exchange for which they purchase of the Europeans, salt, Silesia ticking, cutlasses, looking-glasses, beads, and other articles.

Power and State of the King.] The king of Loango is a very powerful prince, and able to bring into the field a considerable army, for all his subjects are obliged to equip themselves with arms, and immediately attend at his command. His dress is elegant and sumptuous, and both he and his nobles wear, on their left arm, the skin of a wild cat, sewed together, with one end stuffed. The king shuts the door of his apartment, and continues by himself during the whole time he is at dinner: for should any person happen to see him either eat or drink, he would be immediately put to death. So punctually is this law observed, that even animals are subject to the same fate, which happened to a fine dog presented the king by a Portuguese. The creature not being very well fed by those who had the care of him, smelling the viands one day when the king went to dinner, followed the scent, and his majesty not fastening the door properly, the dog, while he was at dinner, thrust it open with his feet, and entered the room, when the king immediately quitted the apartment, and ordered him to be killed.

Every day after dinner the king goes in state, accompanied by his nobles, and a great crowd of people, to

the banquetting-house, in order to refresh himself by drinking palm-wine. As soon as he arrives there, he seats himself on the throne, and on each side of him is a cup-bearer. He on the right-hand reaches him the cup when he is inclined to drink, but at the same time turns his head, notice of which is given to the company by him on the left, who strikes two iron rods, pointed at the ends, one against the other. At this signal the people turn their backs to the king, and bend their faces to the ground, in which posture they remain so long as the irons continue ringing; after which they rise, turn their faces to the king, and wish him health by clapping their hands.

At sun-set he goes a second time to the apartments adapted for eating, where his provisions are prepared for him as before, after which he again visits the banquetting-house, where he remains till nine or ten o'clock, when he returns, and retires to rest. The king seldom appears abroad, except on the before-mentioned occasions, or when an ambassador arrives, or some strange accident has happened; such as when a leopard is taken in the country, or else lodged near the city ready for the chace, or, lastly, when his land is to be tilled, and his chief nobility bring him tribute.

His majesty appears in public at the commencement of the seed-time, which is always on the first of January. He takes his seat at three o'clock in the afternoon, when the women who till the ground appear before him with their instruments of husbandry, and the men walk backwards and forwards, armed and clothed in their military habits. The king generally stays about an hour, when he returns to his palace, amidst the acclamations of the people, who spend the rest of the day in mirth and festivity.

When any of the inhabitants have discovered a leopard in the woods adjoining to the capital, intimation of it is given to the king, who immediately appears in public, and a trumpet is sounded, to give notice to the people to attend him at the sport. If the place where the leopard lies be too far for the king to walk, he is carried on men's shoulders, in a kind of chair, made of wicker, and curiously ornamented. As soon as they arrive at the spot where the leopard is secreted, the people surround it, armed with bows and arrows, lances, and darts, leaving only a small place open, that the king may have a convenient opportunity of seeing the sport. Before this opening, nets are spread, that, if the leopard should happen to take his course that way, he might be caught alive. When every thing is ready, the beast is roused by the people making an universal shouting, with the blowing of horns and beating of drums. As soon as he finds himself surrounded, he endeavours to make his escape, but is impeded by the volleys of darts and arrows that are discharged at him by the multitude, who follow him close, and, if he happens not to take the net, overpower and despatch him. When the leopard is killed, the king retires to his palace, before which the hunters bring the carcase, and exult over it by dancing, singing, and exhibiting various kinds of diversions. The king then orders the beast to be flayed, and the skin is brought to him; after which the body is buried very deep in the earth, except the gall, which is taken out and thrown into the river.

When the king dies, the succession of the crown does not devolve to his children, but to his eldest brother; but, for want of such kindred, it falls to his sister's children. Those who have pretensions to the crown are five in number, and reside in towns or villages at some distance from the court: they preserve their titles agreeably to the names of the respective villages in which they live. The next heir to the crown is called Mani-Kay, who resides at a large town of that name, situated about five miles from Loango. When the king dies, Mani-Kay succeeds him; and thus, by a regular rotation, they succeed to each other's villages, and afterwards to the crown.

On the decease of the king the Mani-Kay enters immediately upon the government, but he does not go to court till the funeral of the late king is over; the ceremonies attending which are as follow: They first make two vaults under ground, adjoining to each other, in one of which they lay the royal corpse, richly dressed, on a stool, and by it pots, kettles, pans, cloths, and garments. They then place round it little images of wood and red earth, representing the household servants of the deceased. After this, they leave the royal corpse, and go to the other vault, where they place the bodies of several slaves, who have been sacrificed, to serve the king in the other world, and to make attestation in what manner he behaved during the course of his life. The two vaults are then closed, and over each is erected a covering, to preserve it from the weather.

Revenues.] The king of Loango's revenues principally arise from elephants' teeth, copper, and slaves. The greatest part of the copper is brought, by stealth, from an inland country, the inhabitants of which are always at variance with the king of Loango.

Laws.] By the laws of this kingdom, theft is never punished with death, unless it be committed on the king: in common cases, where the theft is detected, either he or his friends must restore the goods stolen, or atone for the want of them by an adequate compensation; besides which, the thief is tied to a post, in the middle of the street, where he continues an hour, as an object of ridicule and contempt to the spectators. If he is unable either to restore the goods or pay the value of them, his relations must work for the party robbed, till such time as he thinks himself sufficiently satisfied for the loss he has sustained.

When any person is suspected of a crime, and it can

not be clearly proved against him, he is sworn by drinking a certain quantity of a liquor, called *imbonda*. It is made from the root of a small tree or shrub, which is about six inches long, and resembles a carrot. The root is scraped into water, which is boiled in gourds. The liquor is as bitter as gall, and so strong that one root would serve to try a hundred people. When the person drinks the liquor, if it be too much infused, it strikes up into the head, inebriating to such a degree, that he falls down as if dead, in which case he is pronounced guilty, and is accordingly executed; but if he can stand upright, he is deemed innocent. The determination of this matter rests entirely in the person appointed to administer the potion; for however innocent he may be that is suspected, yet, if the imbonda-giver has any dislike to him, or his accuser is a person of importance, the liquor is so strongly infused, that its operation proves fatal.

Religion.] With respect to the religion of these people, they are all idolaters, though an attempt was once made to bring them to a knowledge of Christianity. They have some notion of a Supreme Being, whom they call Sambian Pogo, but their ideas are very imperfect. Their idols, which they call mokissos, are of various forms; some of them are made to resemble the human species; others consist of a piece of wood, about a yard long, with small bits of iron on the top, or else the figure of some animal carved at the end of it. The heads of their greater idols are ornamented with the feathers of hens or pheasants, and their bodies decorated with various kinds of trinkets. All acts of devotion are performed to these idols, of which they have great numbers. Each has a peculiar name, according to its office or jurisdiction.

All circumstances that happen to them, whether good or evil, they suppose to arise from the power of the mokisso. If a man preserves a good constitution by chastity and temperance, he ascribes his health to the mokisso, and not to those virtues. If a sick man recovers, they never impute it either to the force of nature, or the application of medicines, but the mokisso has the credit of the cure which is performed; and, if the patient happens to die with old age, or by any accident, they believe he was killed by sorcery, for having violated the injunctions laid on him by the mokisso.

Besides their private mokissos, they have many public ones, that are kept in temples or huts, to which they daily repair to their devotions. One of these is at a village called Thiriko, and in figure resembles a man. The ganga, or high-priest, who is lord of the village, performs the service every morning, in the following manner: As soon as the people are assembled, he sits down upon a mat, and with a leathern bag strikes his knee several times, having small iron bells fastened to his fingers. After this he strikes the bag several times on his breast, and then uses many strange motions and postures of his body, hands, head, and eyes; sometimes he raises his voice, and then depresses it, frequently repeating the word, Mariomena; to which the assembly answer, Ka. When this has continued for some time, the ganga appears as if distracted, and his rage becomes so violent, that he is obliged to be held; but, by virtue of a sour liquor, drawn from cane, with which they sprinkle him, he recovers, and then declares what he has received from the mokisso, and what must be done in cases of sickness. After this he recommends to the mokisso the health of the king, the welfare of the country, flourishing of the seed, success to the merchants, and full nets to the fishermen. At the mention of the king's name, the whole company clap their hands, in token of affection, and then the ceremony is concluded.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Loango, who are called Bramas, are tall, well shaped, and of a shining black colour. In disposition they are civil, but jealous, and much addicted to drinking. It is affirmed, by several writers, that the children of the natives are born of much the same colour as those of Europeans, but in two days become as black as their parents.

Another circumstance here, relative to the birth of children, is very remarkable. Though both parties are negroes, yet sometimes it happens that the offspring is very different in colour to that of its parents. These lusus-naturæ at a distance greatly resemble Europeans: they have grey eyes, and red or yellow hair; but, when you are close to them, their colour is like the corpse of an European, and their eyes appear, as it were, fixed in their heads. Their sight is very imperfect in the day, but at night they see clearly, especially if it be moon-light.

The children of this description are called Dondos, by the negroes, and Albinos, or whites, by the Portuguese. They are always presented to the king a few days after they are born, are brought up in the court to attend his person, and are held in such high esteem by him, that no person dare offend them: if they go to the markets, they have the liberty of taking such articles as they think proper, without control.

On the death of any person, the relations immediately make it known, by running about the town or village, and shrieking in the most hideous manner; after which they bring the corpse into the street, and wash and clean it. When the grave is dug, they carry several of their household goods and lay by it, as also the most valuable things used by the deceased in his life-time. They then take up the corpse, and carry it with all expedition to the grave, in which it is immediately deposited, some of the goods being thrown into it; and, after they have shewed their lamentations by howling and the most strange gesticulations, it is filled up with earth. The remaining goods are

set over the grave on poles, being first cut, to prevent their being stolen. The relations of the deceased bewail his loss by attending the grave morning and evening, for six successive weeks.

No foreigner is permitted to be buried in Loango. When it happens that an European dies here, his body is carried in a boat two miles from the shore, and thrown into the sea. This custom took its rise from a Portuguese being buried here some years ago, soon after which the country was afflicted with a famine. The priests attributed the cause of the general calamity to the interment of the foreigner, whose body, in consequence of their opinion, was taken up, and thrown into the sea: and, from this circumstance, they have never since permitted a stranger to be interred in their country.

SECTION II.

CONGO.

Congo is situated between the second and eleventh degree of south latitude, and between the thirty-second and forty-first degree of east longitude, extending in length, from north to south, five hundred and forty miles, and in breadth, from east to west, about four hundred and twenty miles.

Climate.] The climate is less sultry than might be expected from its situation, it being so near the equator. The winter months are April, May, June, July, and August; during which they have almost continual rains, by which the rivers are so swelled as to overflow the principal part of the country. The winds in winter blow from north to west, and from north to north-east. These winds drive the clouds towards the mountains, where, being gathered and compressed, they, at length, condense into water. In the summer, the winds blow from the south to the south-east, and, as they clear the southern skies, so they drive the rain into the northern regions. These winds are of infinite service in cooling the air, the heat of which would otherwise be insupportable.

Soil and Vegetable Productions.] The soil of this country is fertile, and produces several sorts of grain, particularly rice and maize. They have also great plenty of a grain called luko, which, in its form, resembles mustard-seed, but, when ground, produces flour, little inferior to that from wheat. The manioc-root is likewise cultivated here, and much admired by the Portuguese, who, instead of making it into bread, bruise it very small, and either eat it raw, or else boil it in broth. Various sorts of vegetables are cultivated with very little labour. Among these are turnips, cabbages, potatoes, radishes, cauliflowers, carrots, and spinage, besides others not known in Europe. They have also several useful herbs, as hyssop, thyme, sweet marjoram, balm, sage, mint, &c.

Among the fruits are oranges, lemons, citrons, ananas, bananas, pompions, melons, dates, and the kola fruit. The last of these is about the size of a pine-apple, and the fruit, which is enclosed within a thin husk, tastes much like chesnuts. It is not only valued for being pleasant to eat, but for its great efficacy in removing any disorder that particularly affects the liver. There are several sorts of trees here that are distinguished for having medicinal qualities; among these is one called angaria, the root of which, boiled in water, is an infallible remedy for violent pains in the sides.

The khisekka is another tree of a medicinal virtue, any part of which, being reduced to powder, and mixed with water, is good against fevers; and, in cases of fainting, if applied either to the forehead or temples, is equally efficacious as hartshorn.

The jakassa-tree grows very tall, is of a red colour, and has the virtue of curing the tooth-ach and sore gums; but it is very pernicious to birds; for, if they once settle on its boughs, they fall lifeless to the ground.

In the kingdom of Congo are every year two harvests; for they begin to sow in January, and reap in April; the second time is in September; and they reap what is then sown in December. In the cultivation of the earth, they use neither plough nor spade; for the clouds no sooner begin to afford the least moisture, than the women set fire to the herbs and roots; and, after the first heavy shower has fallen, proceed to turn up the ground with a slight hoe, fixed to a handle about two spans long, cutting into the earth with one hand, while, with the other, they scatter the seed, which they carry in a bag by their sides. While thus employed, they have generally one or more children upon their backs, to prevent their being hurt by the insects, which, upon this occasion, come out of the earth in great numbers.

Fossils and Minerals.] In many places in the mountains of Congo are quarries of excellent stone, of various kinds; whence whole columns of a prodigious size, with their capitals and bases, may be dug entire. There are even said to be whole mountains of jasper, porphyry, and marble, of various colours, resembling the marbles of Ethiopia, Numidia, and Africa. There is also a stone, speckled with grains and streaks, some of which contain beautiful hyacinths; for the streaks, which are disposed like veins through the body of the marble, may be picked out like the kernels of a pomegranate, when they fall into grains and little pieces of perfect hyacinths. Beautiful columns may be formed of the whole mass, which is very sparkling. There are other stones, seemingly inlaid with copper and other metals, which likewise appear very beautiful, and take a fine polish.

The mountains of Congo are likewise said to abound with gold; but this is denied by some writers: it is, how-

ever, allowed that there are mines of silver and excellent copper, and also some of iron, which are wrought: the usefulness of that metal in making knives, arms, instruments of agriculture, and other kinds of utensils, being well known to the inhabitants. Of the other minerals and fossils of this country, we have no satisfactory account.

Animals.] The wild animals are elephants, lions, tigers, leopards, buffaloes, bears, wolves, large wild cats, chameleons, apes, monkeys, &c. The tame animals are oxen, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs; besides which, they have great plenty of stags, fallow-deer, roebucks, hares, and rabbits.

Poultry is very plentiful, particularly cocks, hens, geese, and ducks. They have also abundance of wild fowls, as partridges, pheasants, woodcocks, pigeons, doves, &c. &c. There are great numbers of parrots, most of which are very large, and either of a grey or green colour; but there is one species exceeding small, not being larger than sparrows, and their feathers are beautifully variegated. The most admired among the small birds are those called birds of music: they are about the size of a canary-bird, but they greatly differ in the colour of their feathers; some are all red, and others green, with their feet and bills only black; some again are all white, grey, dun, or black. These last have the most agreeable note, and are kept in cages, by the better sort of people, merely for the sake of their song.

The reptiles here are scorpions, millipedes, vipers, snakes, and serpents. Among the snakes there is one species amazingly large: it is called the great water-adder, from its being chiefly found in the rivers.

The seas and rivers abound with great variety of fish: in the former are prodigious quantities of anchovies; and in the latter are plenty of sturgeons, soles, barbel, trout, tench, &c. They have also several kinds of shell-fish, as oysters, muscles, cockles, and large crabs, which are generally found at the mouths of the rivers.

St. Salvadore, the capital of this kingdom, is situated upon a very high hill, mostly of solid rock, on the top of which is a plain, about ten miles in circumference, which commands a most extensive and delightful prospect, and is beautifully shaded with a great variety of fruit-trees, as palm, tamarinds, plantain, kola, lemon, and orange-trees. The air is also exceeding salutary. The hill has some iron-mines, which are of singular use to the inhabitants, who fabricate it into weapons and instruments of agriculture. From these and other conveniences, the Congoese monarchs have made this spot their usual place of residence. The king's palace is a very spacious and beautiful structure.

The most considerable buildings in the city, exclusive of the palace, are twelve churches, of which one is the cathedral; and the Portuguese fort, which is a strong and spacious edifice. The churches, and other public buildings have stone foundations; but the roofs are mean, being covered only with straw; and they are indifferently provided with utensils for the celebration of divine service.

The city is well supplied with fresh water by two excellent fountains. The one is in a place called St. James's Street, and the other within the walls of the court. Besides these, there is, on the east side, near the foot of the hill, a spring of excellent water, called the Vese, which falls into the river Lelundo, and serves to water the adjacent country. Before the great church is a spacious square, on one side of which a large market is kept every day for the sale of provisions. The rest of the square is surrounded with elegant houses, chiefly inhabited by noblemen. The city is very populous, the number of inhabitants being computed at forty thousand.

The Portuguese principally reside at St. Salvadore, where they carry on a considerable traffic with most other parts of the kingdom. The goods they sell to the natives are various sorts of grain, fruits, plants, and other provisions, which they bring from Brazil. The articles from Europe are English cloth, and stuffs, copper and brass vessels, several kinds of earthen-ware, rings, and other ornaments; tobacco, wine, brandy, and other spirituous liquors; light stuffs, made of cotton, linen, and woollen; with a great variety of tools and utensils. In return for these, they receive from the natives elephants' teeth, furs, and other commodities of the country: but the chief article is slaves, prodigious numbers of which are annually exported to the plantations in America. The best and most serviceable of these are brought from Angola, the country of the Jaggas, and other adjacent parts, where they are naturally very robust and strong; whereas those in the provinces of Congo, being for the most part brought up in sloth and indolence, either die in their passage, through misery and sickness, or soon after their arrival, through the change of climate, or the severe treatment they receive from those to whom they are sold.

Religion.] The Portuguese have taken great pains to introduce and establish their religion in this country. The Romish faith was introduced in the reign of Don John the Fourth, by means of a naval commander of rank, called Diego Cam, who, desirous of discovering the coast of Africa, in the course of his voyage came to anchor in the mouth of the River Zaire. Pleased with his reception by the natives, he took five of them home with him, and presented them to his majesty, at the court of Lisbon. Having acquired some knowledge of the Portuguese language during the voyage, they ingratiated themselves so far with the king, by the pertinent answers they made to the questions he put to them, that he ordered Cam to take them back to their own country, and to

use his utmost endeavours to make a convert of the African king to the Romish church. The attempt succeeded: the king became a convert, erected a magnificent church, and was himself baptized in the most public manner, as were his queen and court soon after. But, notwithstanding the great pains taken by the Portuguese to establish their religion in this country, few of them seriously profess it, and even those appear to do it more from policy than being affected by religious sentiments.

Government, Dignity of the King, &c.] The authority of the king of Congo is absolute, the lives and property of his subjects being entirely at his disposal. They approach him, on all occasions, in the most submissive manner; and whoever neglects paying proper respect and obedience to him, is punished with perpetual slavery. He has a council, consisting of twelve persons, who are his favourites, with whom he advises in all matters relative to the affairs of state. All orders of a public nature are made known by them, to which the people are obliged to pay the same obedience as if issued by the king himself. He is always attended by a number of the nobility, who dwell in and about the palace, besides his domestics and other officers of his household. He has also a strong guard, which he keeps not only for the dignity of his court, but for the security of his person. He gives public audience twice a week; but no one is permitted to speak to him except his favourite nobles. His dress is very rich, being for the most part a cloth of gold or silver, with a long velvet mantle. He generally wears a white cap on his head, as do all his favourites; but, if any of the latter come under the displeasure of the king, he orders the cap to be taken off, which is the highest mark of indignity they can receive; this cap being considered here as a badge of nobility, and of no less honour than the star or garter in England.

When the king goes abroad, he is attended by a numerous retinue; for not only his nobles accompany him, but likewise all the principal men of the city, some of whom go before and others behind. He is also attended by a numerous guard, armed with sabres, lances, or bows and arrows. When he goes to the cathedral, the Portuguese, both temporal and spiritual, as well as the grandees, must wait on him, and return with him to the palace: but the Portuguese are not obliged to attend him on any other occasion. At these times the king is dressed in his richest robes, which consist of a long mantle or cloak of silk or velvet, ornamented in the most sumptuous manner. On his head he wears a bordered cap, and round his neck are chains of gold, intermixed with the finest coral. He has a sort of half-boots on his legs, and his arms and wrists are decorated with bracelets of gold. There are other times also when his majesty's pomp and grandeur are particularly displayed. One of these is, when he gives public audience to his nobles, or any foreign envoys, which is generally after dark. The courtiers pass through a long gallery, between two ranks of negroes, bearing waxen flambeaux. His majesty is seated in a chair of state, under a superb canopy. He is elegantly habited in a robe of tissue, ornamented with brilliants of the first lustre. On his right-hand stands an officer, waving a handkerchief at a little distance, to cause an agreeable breeze. At his left stands another, bearing in his right-hand a sceptre, and in his left a bow. He is surrounded by attendants, each holding a flambeau in his hand.

The king has one lawful wife, who is called Mani-Mombada, that is, queen; besides whom he keeps a great number of concubines. The queen is maintained at the expense of the public, an annual tax, called pintelso, being gathered for that purpose from every house in the kingdom. The tax is collected on the king's wedding-day, when the proper officers of each province go to the respective houses, and measure the length and breadth of every bed, the owner of which is taxed according to its breadth, viz. for every span, he gives either a slave or the value of one; which is the reason that most of the common people lie on the ground, and those who do not, have their beds very small.

The queen lives with great splendour, having apartments in the palace peculiarly appropriated to her use: she has a great number of women, who attend on her alternately both day and night, and the king's concubines are obliged to pay her the greatest homage; for, should they behave to her with the least disrespect, they would be punished with perpetual slavery.

With respect to the succession to the crown of Congo, no order is observed, neither legitimacy or seniority taking place, farther than the ruling nobles think proper, who esteem all alike honourable, and choose him among the king's sons for whom they have the greatest respect, or whom they think the most proper to govern. Sometimes they set aside all the children, and give the crown to a brother, nephew, or some other distant relation. The king does not stir from his palace for eight days after his coronation: in which time all the nobility, and the Portuguese, come to visit him, and wish him success. The blacks do him homage on both knees, by clapping their hands, and kissing the king's right-hand: the Portuguese and clergy do homage only on one knee.

After the expiration of the eight days, the king appears in the market, attended by his nobles, where he makes a speech to the people, declaring his resolution to perform what was proposed to him at his coronation; and assuring them that it shall be his constant study to promote the welfare of his kingdoms, and the propagation of the Romish religion.

Revenue.] The king's revenue consists chiefly in the tribute that is paid to him by several vassal princes, and which the mani, or governors of the six chief provinces, are obliged to gather for him. There are others that make him a kind of free-will offerings, some of cattle, others of grain, wine, palm-oil, and the like, as acknowledgments for the lands they hold under him. He is also proprietor of all the zimbis, or cockle-shells, (the current coin of this and the neighbouring kingdoms,) which bring him in exchange slaves, elephants' teeth, stuffs, cattle, millet, and other commodities. Fines and confiscations likewise bring him a considerable income. To which may be added his power in levying taxes on his subjects as often as he pleases; but this he seldom does, except in cases of necessity; the poverty of his subjects being so great, that, if he were to repeat such impositions often, it might induce them to revolt, and produce disagreeable consequences.

Military Force.] The king's forces are not very numerous, nor are they either well-clothed or disciplined. The best of them are the musketeers, who, having been taught the use of fire-arms by the Portuguese, retain the art of handling them with surprising dexterity. All the king's subjects may be said to be soldiers; for, whenever there is occasion, and he thinks proper to command, they must all attend.

These soldiers are taught to fall on the foe with a dauntless bravery, or rather fury; but, as their arms are of little use in such violent and irregular onsets, for want of better discipline, they are sometimes put to the rout; and, when that happens, are seldom able to rally; so that the breaking of the very first body is mostly attended with the loss of the battle. The flight of one army generally animates the other to an obstinate pursuit, the consequences attending which are dreadful, and the carnage always great. When the conquerors relinquish the pursuit, they return and plunder the enemy's camp, seize all the men, women, and children, they meet with, and sell them to the Europeans for slaves. Few of those wounded in battle survive, their arrows and darts being infected with so deadly a poison that, if they draw blood, and the person is not provided with some extraordinary antidote, they are sure to cause a speedy and unavoidable death.

After a conquest, terms of peace are generally proposed by the victor, which, though favourable on his own part, are generally accepted by the vanquished; but they are no longer attended to by the latter than while he becomes sufficiently formidable to renew the war.

Laws, &c.] For the better administration of justice, a judge is appointed by the king in every particular province, to hear and determine all causes, whether of a civil or criminal nature. These are called Royal Judges; from whom an appeal may be made to the king, who, for that purpose, presides twice a week at the supreme court.

Treason and murder are the only offences which are deemed capital; in both which cases the punishment is solely vested in the king, who generally condemns them to the loss of their heads and estates, the latter of which are confiscated to his use. In trifling matters the offenders are punished various ways. If they are poor, they are either bastinadoed or whipped; if rich, they are punished by having fines levied on them, at the discretion of the judge.

In this kingdom the poorer sort are subject to many instances of cruelty and oppression from their superiors, among which are the following:—If a poor man happen to contract a debt with a rich one, he is not only liable to be stripped of all he possesses, (not excepting his wife and family, who, in such cases, are often sold for slaves,) but to be also bastinadoed, dragged to a jail, and there inhumanly treated, in order to oblige some of his friends to procure him his liberty at an exorbitant rate. Another proceeding, not less cruel and oppressive, is, that if an insolvent debtor secretes himself from his tyrannic creditor, or flies into some other country, either to avoid a jail, or being sold for a slave, the creditor makes no hesitation to seize on some wealthy relation of his, and imprison him in his stead, till he has extorted, by the most cruel usage, a sufficient sum from his other friends to satisfy him for the debt. This arbitrary power extends even so far as to the debts contracted by gaming, a vice to which the people of Congo are greatly addicted.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The complexion of the original natives of Congo is generally black, but, since they have intermixed with the Portuguese, many of them are of an olive-colour. They likewise differ in their persons, according to the respective provinces in which they are born; some of them are very tall and robust, but the generality are of a middling stature. They have all black curling hair, but their noses are not so flat, neither are their lips so thick, as those of the negroes in general. In their dispositions they are proud and haughty among themselves, but to strangers they are very affable and courteous. They have a natural propensity to theft, and whatever they get, either by stealing or otherwise, they spend in liquors, of which they are very fond, and frequently drink to the greatest excess. They have naturally a ready turn of wit, and, when sober, will converse with great circumspection. They are very revengeful, and, whenever they think themselves offended, nothing will satisfy them but destroying the object of their resentment, which they generally effect by poison.

The dress of the common people consists only of a loose garment, which reaches from the waist to the middle of the ankles, and some have the bottom ornamented with a

fringe. It is fastened round the waist with a kind of string, made of leaves. Some use girdles, made of bulrushes or palm-leaves, which they plait together. They have a cap on their heads, made to sit close, and generally carry some weapon in their hands. The upper part of the body is bare in both sexes, and their arms and legs are ornamented with brass, copper, or iron, bracelets. The dress of the better sort is made of cloth, or serge, under which they have a white shirt. The garments of the women are much shorter than those of the men, and some of the ladies have a velvet-cap, richly ornamented with jewels, over which they wear a veil.

Their towns, or villages, consist of several houses, erected in the midst of an inclosure. These buildings are made of wood, and covered with the branches of trees; each house is divided into several apartments, the innermost of which is adapted for the women: they are all on the ground-floor, and without windows, the only light they have being admitted at the door, which is so small that they are obliged to stoop when they pass it. The inclosures of the houses are formed by trees, which grow so close together, that they not only serve as a fence, but also keep off the violent heat of the sun.

Their houses are very thinly stocked with furniture, the whole of which consists of only a few necessary utensils, such as pots, kettles, calabashes to hold provisions, a mill to grind their corn, a hatchet to fell timber, and some instruments of agriculture. Some of them, however, have beds, made of coarse cloth, stuffed with straw, or the leaves of trees; but the generality lie upon loose straw, spread on the ground.

The food of the common people consists principally of rice, fish, potatoes, and other roots; but the better sort live chiefly on flesh and fowl. Their common drink is water, but they sometimes regale themselves with palm-wine, or brandy mixed with water.

The natives who reside near towns live chiefly by trade; but in the country parts they are principally employed in agriculture and keeping cattle. About the River Zaire, some of them subsist by fishing, some by drawing palm-wine, and others by weaving.

Persons of rank, when they travel, are carried in hammocks, made either of net-work or strong stuffs; the hammock is fastened to a long pole, about a foot from each end; and, when the person has got into the hammock, two men, one before and the other behind, take up the pole, and lay it on their shoulders, carrying the person in this manner a considerable way without resting. When they go long journeys, they have four men, who relieve each other, in doing which they are so expert, that they never stop, but shift as they walk, at the same time keeping their usual pace. This is a very easy method of travelling, the person sitting or laying in the hammock at pleasure; and they have sometimes a piece of calico thrown over the pole, to shelter them from the heat of the sun.

Sometimes, instead of a hammock, they fasten two ropes to the pole, one of which is much shorter than the other; they are each tied in two parts, and hang like swings: in the former the person sits, and at the bottom of the latter is a square piece of board, on which he rests his feet. The person carried generally holds an umbrella in his hand, to shelter him from the heat of the sun, or the inclemency of the weather. The reason of their travelling in this manner is from their want of horses, there not being any of those animals in the whole country.

The inhabitants of Congo are very fond of festivity and diversion, and, in most villages, the people assemble every evening at some open place, where they form a ring, in the centre of which is placed a wooden platter, full of provisions. The eldest of the company, who is called Makuluntu, gives to each his portion, which he divides with such exactness, that not any person has the least reason to complain. They do not make use either of cups or glasses, but only a large flask, which, when any one wants to drink, the makuluntu holds to the person's mouth; and when he thinks he has drank enough he takes the flask away. If any strangers happen to come by at the time of these festivities, they are equally welcome to participate with the rest of the guests.

They have also feasts on several particular occasions, such as gaining a law-suit, a marriage, the birth of a child, or any singular advancement in life. At these feasts they dance, and sing love-songs, which are attended with a variety of musical instruments, consisting of flutes, pipes, ivory-trumpets, and drums, the latter of which are made of thin wood, and covered with the skin of a beast. One of their most ingenious instruments, and the most common in use, is called the miramba. It consists of sixteen calabashes, of several sizes, placed uniformly between two boards, joined together, on a long frame, which is hung about a man's neck with a thong. Over the mouths of the calabashes are thin slips of red-wood, which, being struck with two small sticks, produce an agreeable sound, somewhat resembling that of an organ.

The marriages of those who have been converted by the Portuguese to the Romish religion, are celebrated according to the rites of that church; but the generality of the natives of Congo preserve their ancient idolatrous maxims, being married by their own priests, and having a number of wives, each taking as many as he thinks himself able to maintain.

In Congo the pagan priests lay certain injunctions on young people, such as obliging them to abstain from eating either some sorts of poultry, the flesh of certain beasts, fruits of different kinds, roots, either raw or boiled after

this or that manner, with the like ridiculous obligations, which they call kejilla. These rules are as inviolably kept as they are strictly enjoined. They would sooner fast till they perished, than taste the least morsel of what has been forbidden; for they think that, if they commit the least trespass against the kejilla, they shall certainly die in a very short time. An instance illustrative of the prepossession of their minds in this respect is related by Merolla, in his voyage to Congo. "A young black, upon his journey, who had received the kejilla, coming to a friend's house at night, his host next morning had for breakfast a wild fowl, which is much better than a tame one. The guest demanded if it was a wild hen, and being answered in the negative, he sat down and ate very heartily. Four years after, these two meeting together again, the country black asked his friend, who was not yet married, if he would eat a wild hen? The young man answering that he had received the kejilla, and therefore could not, the other laughed, and asked why he refused it now, when he had eaten it at his table so many years before? On hearing this the other began to tremble, and, by the effects of imagination, died in less than twenty-four hours."

Previous to the interment of any great personage, they strew the way with leaves and branches of trees. On these occasions several slaves were formerly sacrificed, to serve their master in the other world; but since the Portuguese have introduced Christianity into Congo, that practice has been laid aside, and only preserved by a few, who still adhere to their original pagan maxims; but these are obliged to do it by stealth; for, should it be known, they would not only be rebuked, but severely punished by those of superior power, who are, in general, strong advocates for the Romish religion.

SECTION III.

ANGOLA.

This kingdom was originally called, by the natives, Dongo, but the Portuguese afterwards gave it the name of Angola, in compliment to a prince of that name, who first usurped it from the king of Congo. The country is, in general, mountainous, and watered by several rivers, the chief of which are the Danda and Coanza. These rivers are stored with most kinds of fish, but it is dangerous to catch them, on account of the crocodiles. The Portuguese have a fort, at a place called Cambamba, upon the River Coanza. Angola is composed of several provinces, the principal of which are Chissama, Sumbi, Rimba, Sietta, Bembea, Temba, Oacco, Cambezzo, Lubolo, Loando, Benga, Danda, Illamba, Moseche, Oarii, and Membacca.

The province of Chissama is divided into three parts, each of which is under the direction of a governor, deputed by the king. The country is mountainous, and poorly cultivated: it is famous for producing a peculiar salt, made, by the natives, from a briny kind of water, which they dig for, and, being formed into a mass, they make cakes of it, which they exchange with the Portuguese for meal, oil, and other commodities. The merchants derive considerable advantages from exporting this salt to most parts of Ethiopia, as it is not only excellent for food, but also in physic, being a very pleasant diuretic.

Sumbi is, for the most part, flat. The natives, though tall and strong, are, in general, indolent, and, of course, neglect the cultivation of the land, which, wherever industry prevails, proves fruitful, and produces several sorts of excellent grain.

The province of Rimba is divided into twenty-eight lordships, or districts, under as many governors. The land is fertile, and the rivers abound with fish. The inhabitants are idolaters, but of a tractable and industrious disposition.

Sietta is one of the most rocky and mountainous provinces in all the kingdom, particularly on one side of it, where a ridge of perpendicular rocks covers a spot of thirty miles in length, without interruption. The surface of these rocks, which is well inhabited and cultivated, enjoys a serene and wholesome air, and is plentifully supplied with fresh water. The low-lands are well watered, and produce excellent pasture for cattle, great numbers of which are bred by the inhabitants; but they often sustain considerable loss from the number of wild beasts that infest this part of the country. The torrents that flow from the hills bring with them great quantities of iron-ore, which the inhabitants gather carefully, by laying straw and other materials across the streams to receive it. In this country are also found great quantities of a kind of transparent ore, which the natives call tare, and, when wrought, it is, in appearance, much superior to iron.

The province of Bembea extends itself on one side along the sea, and on the other divides the kingdom of Angola from other nations on the south. The great river Sucano, or San Francisca, waters most part of this province; but it is of little other use; for though it abounds with fish, yet the inhabitants dare not venture to catch them, owing to its being infested with great numbers of sea-horses, and monstrous serpents, which not only destroy great quantities of fish, but also do considerable mischief to the adjacent grounds. The country is very extensive and populous, and abounds with small cattle, the hides of which the inhabitants convert into garments, and anoint their heads and bodies with the fat. These people are much more savage than their neighbours, being almost all idolaters, and having a language peculiar to themselves.

The province of Temba is in general flat and low, and is well watered by a number of small rivers. The Rio Longo, or Long River, is the most remarkable: it springs out of a rock, on the top of which the Portuguese have a fortress, that defends the whole district. This province is divided into twelve lordships, whose chiefs, though under the protection of the Portuguese, live free and independent, being only obliged to furnish them with a certain number of militia, in cases of emergency. The whole country abounds with wild cows and mules, which the inhabitants hunt and kill for food. Some of the inhabitants have been converted to the Roman Catholic religion, which they strictly adhere to; but most of them are idolaters.

Oacco is bounded, on the south-west, by Lubolo; and, on the north-east, by the river Coanza. It is beautifully variegated with hills and plains, and so well watered with rivers and springs, that it is one of the most delightful provinces in the kingdom. But these advantages are of little use to the natives, as they are restrained by their lords from cultivating any more of the land than what is absolutely necessary to produce provisions for their families. The chief governor of this province has twenty others under him, whose principal business is to discipline and exercise the militia, for which reason this is one of the most formidable provinces in the kingdom.

There is a distemper which the natives of this province are subject to, and peculiar to the climate of this part of the country; it generally begins with a violent headache and vertigo, and is followed by convulsions, which soon reduce the patient to a mere skeleton. The medicine for this disease is made from a plant, something like our hyssop, which they pulverize, and drink the infusion: they also extract an oil from it, with which they anoint the parts convulsed. They are, likewise, subject to a kind of swelling, that begins at the mouth, and spreads itself all over the neck, which often swells to the size of the head, causes excessive pain, and is frequently attended with suffocation. This disease is generally cured by anointing the parts with the oil extracted from the above-mentioned plant.

A very singular insect, resembling the dragon-fly, is found in this province: its sting is so dangerous, that, if a quantity of blood be not immediately drawn from the part affected, the person is thrown into a violent fever, attended with excessive tortures, that commonly end in a total delirium, and, if not speedily relieved, in convulsive death. The most remarkable circumstance attending this is, that, when the person is cured, he seldom fails of a relapse, owing merely to the bare remembrance of what he felt during the time he was affected: and some persons undergo such excessive torture, that they close their miseries by putting an end to their existence.

When the inhabitants happen to be stung by these insects, they have recourse to their priests, who seek out for an insect of the same kind, which having found, they dig a hole in the earth to put it in, adding sundry fumigations, exorcisms, and superstitions, known only to themselves; after which they fill the hole with water, and replenish it as that sinks, stirring it, and letting the earth settle again several times; at length, without staying till it is quite clear and divested of its disagreeable earthy taste, they give the patient plenty of it to drink: this occasions a violent vomiting, by which so great a part of the poison is thrown out, that the natural strength of the patient enables him to throw off what is left behind. Many, however, who are cured by this strange method, are some time after seized with pains and convulsions in their nerves, which frequently end in a settled lameness, and sometimes in a dead palsy. Though this method is altogether superstitious, yet, from its being sometimes effectual, the Europeans, unable to bear the excessive pain arising from the sting, have recourse to it.

The province of Cambezzo is very populous and fertile, producing not only abundance of cattle, but also most kinds of provisions. In one part is a high hill, called the Iron Mountain, from its yielding great quantities of that metal, which the Portuguese have taught the natives to purify, and work into various kinds of instruments. In this province are many large and lofty trees, particularly palm and cocoa-trees. There is one sort that resembles our apple-trees, the bark of which, being cut with a knife, yields an odoriferous juice, which is very useful in medicine, and is of the colour and consistence of honey. The Portuguese have taken great pains to propagate the Roman Catholic religion in this province, and not without success, as there are less idolaters in it than in any other in the kingdom.

Lubolo is situated on the southern bank of the river Coanza. Its climate is wholesome, and its soil remarkably fertile, producing great plenty of all sorts of provisions; but it is chiefly noted for its excellent palm-trees, which produce better wine, oil, and timber, than is to be met with in all the other parts of the kingdom. The greater part of the people of this province are of the Romish religion, and tributary to the Portuguese.

The province of Loanda is one of the most considerable places belonging to the Portuguese settlements on this side of Africa, and is remarkable for having in it the capital of the whole kingdom of Angola. It is a large city, pleasantly situated on the declivity of a hill, near the sea-coast. It is strongly defended by a spacious fortress, in which is a church, dedicated to St. Amaro, and a convent of Cistertians, besides several bulwarks that serve to guard the entrance of the port. This city is called, by the Portuguese, San Paulo de Loanda, and was

built by them in the year one thousand five hundred and seventy-eight, under the direction of Paulo dias de Novais, the first governor of this part of Angola. It is very populous, and greatly resorted to; not only on account of its being the residence of the Portuguese governor, but also for its containing the chief courts of judicature for the whole kingdom.

The churches and other public buildings are sumptuous, as are also the houses of the merchants and officers, both spiritual and temporal. The streets are straight, wide, and regular, and always kept exceedingly clean. The houses belonging to the Portuguese are built of stone, and most of them elegantly furnished; but those of the natives are very mean, being built only of earth, and thatched with straw. In the centre of the city is a large convent, belonging to the Jesuits, who are here held in the highest esteem. It is a stately edifice, and endowed with a considerable revenue. On one side of it is an hospital, called the Miseracordia, which has twenty-four wards or rooms for patients, besides convenient apartments for the attendants. On the other side of the convent is a church, belonging to the fraternity of St. John the Baptist. At a small distance from these three buildings is the cathedral, which is a large stately structure, dedicated to Our Lady of the Conception, under which is another, dedicated to the Holy Sacrament. Here are also, besides the parochial churches, many monasteries and chapels, belonging to the capuchins, carmelites, and friars

Prodigious numbers of slaves are kept in this city, who are employed in tilling the ground, carrying burdens, and fetching water from springs in an adjacent island, called Loanda. On the north side of the city, at a small distance from it, is a lofty hill, on which the original city stood. It still bears the name of San Paulo, and upon it are some fine houses, together with the ruins of a monastery, which formerly belonged to the Jesuits. The present city suffered much by the Dutch, who took it from the Portuguese, in the year 1641; but the latter, soon after retaking it, restored it to its primitive grandeur. Notwithstanding the want of water, the country round is very fertile, well cultivated, and beautifully diversified with a variety of fruit-trees, gardens, and villas.

About half a mile from the city is situated the island of Loanda, which is very disproportionate in its form, being fifteen miles long, and only one broad. The Portuguese have many houses on it, as also a great number of gardens, which they keep well stocked with most sorts of fruit-trees and vegetables. They have also on this island several handsome churches; besides which there is a spacious convent, belonging to the Jesuits, who have, at least, two thousand slaves in this place. In the neighbourhood of the capital (which is called by the name of the island) are many elegant seats and villas belonging to the Portuguese, most of which are richly furnished, and adorned with gardens, orchards, and other embellishments; in some of them are also very handsome chapels, in which service is performed by priests, who are allowed a sufficient salary for that purpose. The city, which contains about three thousand houses, is built of stone, and covered with tiles.

Small payments are made here either in zimbis (the shells of a small fish) or else beads, the latter of which are of various sizes, colours, and fashions, and are worn, by some of the natives, as ornaments to their arms, necks, and wrists. Larger payments are made with pieces of cloth, of their own manufacture, of a stated length and breadth; and goods are usually paid for in slaves, where the sum is considerable.

Benga is divided into many districts, the chiefs of which are natives, though tributary to the Portuguese. It is situated on a river of the same name; and is bounded, on the west, by the sea, and, on the east, by the province of Moseche. Here are eight churches, three of which are called parochial; and one of them belongs to the Jesuits, who celebrate their festivals in it with the greatest pomp and magnificence. The country is fertile, and produces great plenty of maize and millet, as also a prodigious number of banana and bacova-trees.

The province of Danda is situated to the north of Bengo, on the south side of the river of that name, which separates the kingdom of Angola from that of Congo. As this country is well watered, it is very fertile, and produces plenty of grain, with various kinds of fruits; but it is greatly infested with crocodiles and large serpents, which harbour in the River Bengo. As the inhabitants are, for the most part, Christians, here are several churches, regularly served by secular priests. The chief of these is situated at the mouth of the Danda: and at some distance from it is another, as also several churches and chapels, all of which belong to the Jesuits.

The province of Illamba is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of higher and lower. They are both very fertile; and the natives, who are chiefly Christians, pay a tribute to the Portuguese. The Higher Illamba has mines of excellent iron, and is almost covered with small hills. In the centre of it is a large mountain, from the summit and sides of which flow a prodigious number of springs and rivulets of clear and wholesome water, which is of infinite service in contributing to fertilize that part of the country. This province pays a considerable tribute to the king of Portugal, and the governor of it is obliged to maintain a numerous militia for his service.

Moseche is situated on the northern banks of the River Coanza. The soil is very fertile, and, besides grain, is remarkable for producing the manioc-root, which is so

plentiful that large quantities of it are annually sent to the city of Loanda. In this province are mines of several metals. It is remarkable that each mine tinges the complexion of the inhabitants who live in the territory; for, though they are all naturally black, yet those near the silver mines differ in their complexion from those that live near the mines of gold and lead, which cannot be otherwise accounted for than from the effluvia that exhales from the different metals.

Oarii is situated on the northern bank of the River Coanza, and adjoins to the province of Moseche. It is watered by a great number of small rivers, that fall into the Coanza, but which, in the time of the great rains, becomes large, rapid, and dangerous. In this province are two fortresses, belonging to the Portuguese, at each of which they keep a strong garrison. One of these is built at Quitongo, an island of great importance on the River Coanza. and the other at a place called Maopongo.

This last-mentioned fortress is situated on the top of a number of large rocks, and appears, at a distance, like a considerable city, surrounded with high walls, and diversified with steeples, turrets, pyramids, obelisks, triumphal arches, and other eminent structures: on a nearer approach, however, it shews itself to be no more than a heap of gigantic rocks, parted from each other by intervals of a vast depth, and several fathoms wide; and the summit of it, exclusive of a small part round the fortress, is a large, barren, and uncultivated plain. Though this place is near one hundred leagues from the sea, yet it abounds with a variety of springs of brackish water, very proper for making salt, and which, rising and falling with the tide, mount up at high water, in large streams, above the level of the plain. A circumstance still more singular than this, is, that these springs are intermixed with an equal number of fresh ones, the waters from which are both clear and well-tasted. The sepulchres of the ancient monarchs of Angola, called, by the Portuguese, Las Pubuillas de Cobazzo, are still to be seen about six miles from this place.

The province of Membacca is situated on the north side of the River Lucala, and between that and the Higher Illamba. It is wholly subject to the Portuguese; for though the lord who governs it assumes a claim to a kind of independency, it is granted him only on condition that he shall maintain, at his own expense, a numerous militia for their service. These troops, though idolaters, are stout, warlike, and well-disciplined, and never betray any fear of death when they engage an enemy; for which reason the Portuguese value them above all the rest in the kingdom.

The purchase of slaves constitutes the chief trade carried on in this kingdom by the Portuguese and other Europeans. The commodities brought in exchange are broad-cloths, crimson and other silks, velvets, cambrics, gold and silver lace, broad and narrow striped tickings, black serges, Turkey carpets, threads, and silks of all sorts, Canary and other wines, brandy and other spirituous liquors, oil, spices of all sorts, loaf-sugar, knives, fishing-hooks, pins, needles, small bells, variety of other trinkets and baubles, glass-beads of all sizes and colours, rings of the same or other materials, fire-arms, swords, cutlasses, and other weapons.

The kingdom of Angola was formerly subject to Congo, but it does not, at present, acknowledge any dependence; and the king, from the protection he receives from the Portuguese, preserves an absolute authority. When his troops engage an enemy, they divide themselves into three bodies, at certain distances from each other. In the centre one is the general, who directs all their motions by the sound of several warlike instruments. They then move forwards, retire, or wheel-about, as these direct; and fall on the enemy with great fury, making at the same time a most hideous noise. If they find themselves likely to be disconcerted, they take to flight, nor is it possible for their general to rally them; so that the fate of a battle depends on the success of the first onset.

The dress of the military officers is very grand, their caps being ornamented with a variety of ostrich, peacock, and other feathers. About their necks they wear several links of iron chain, to which are fastened great quantities of rings, that jingle at every motion. For the same purpose, also, they hang a great number of bells about their middle, the noise of which, they suppose, animates the soldiers to fight with more ardour, and, at the same time, gives them a greater air of pomp and grandeur. They wear buskins on their legs, after the manner of the Portuguese. Their weapons are the bow, sword, target, and dagger. Those, however, who carry the bow, are not allowed to wear the target, but only the sword and dagger. The common soldiers, who go naked from their waists upwards, fight with bows and daggers, and in their girdles they wear large crooked knives.

The language of the people of Angola and Congo is radically the same; but the dialects of the different provinces differ so essentially in pronunciation, that it is difficult for those born in places remote from each other to converse together.

SECTION IV.

BENGUELA.

Benguela extends about three hundred miles from east to west, and one hundred and eighty from north to south. The climate is so unwholesome, that the very provisions are affected by the noxious quality of the air; and the

Europeans who reside here are striking spectacles of mortality.

The chief rivers of Benguela are the Longo, the Nica, the Saint Francisco, which runs through the middle of it, and the great River Cuneni, which runs from east to west.

Benguela, the capital, lies in ten degrees thirty-five minutes of south latitude, and gives its name to a province that extends about thirty miles along the coast. In this city the Portuguese have built a fort, encompassed with pallisadoes and a ditch: the whole is surrounded with houses, and shaded with orange, lemon, banana, and other trees. The bay of Benguela, which lies to the south of the town, is about two leagues broad at the entrance, and deep enough for ships of burthen to anchor in.

At a village, called Manikicongo, about twenty miles from the mouth of the bay, the Portuguese have a storehouse for divers articles, which they sell to the natives: the chief of these are linens, cottons, fire-arms, and gunpowder.

To the northward of a river called Caton-helle is another bay, which, from its convenience for anchorage, the Dutch call the Good Bay. The land here is low and fertile, and the natives breed great numbers of black cattle and hogs.

The inland parts abound in wild beasts, as lions, tigers, elephants, rhinoceroses, and wild mules. The greatest curiosity here is a remarkable animal, peculiar to the country, called, by the natives, Abada. It is of the size of a half-grown calf, very shy, and swift of foot. It has two horns, one on the forehead, the other on the nape of the neck. When the animal is young, the front horn is straight; but, as it advances in age, the horn bends gradually up, like the tusk of an elephant. The natives hunt it for the sake of the front horn, which they esteem as an excellent antidote against poison. They look on the virtue of it to be greater or less, according to the age of the animal when killed. The Portuguese, in order to know the goodness of it, make use of the following expedient:—They set the horn upright on the ground, and suspend a naked sword over it, point to point. If the horn be good and hard, the point of the sword will not penetrate it, whereas, when the horn is soft and young, the sword immediately sinks into it, which shews that it is not arrived at its full perfection, and, of course, lessens its value. They also make a poultice of pulverised bones of this creature, mixed with water, which, they say, is a sovereign remedy against all pains of the body, by drawing away the peccant humours not only from the part affected, but from the whole mass of blood.

CHAPTER VII.

UPPER ETHIOPIA.

THIS extensive tract of country comprises the kingdoms of Nubia, or Sennaar, Abyssinia, and the coast of Abex; each of which shall be separately described.

SECTION I.

NUBIA, OR SENNAAR.

Situation, Climate, &c.] The kingdom of Nubia, or Sennaar, is bounded, on the north, by Egypt; on the east, by the Red Sea and part of Abyssinia; on the south, by some unknown parts of Africa; and, on the west, by Gaoga and the desert of Gerham. The soil and climate of this country are extremely unfavourable, both to man and beast. The men, though remarkable for bodily strength, are generally short-lived; and there is such a mortality among the children, that, were it not for a constant importation of slaves, the metropolis would soon be depopulated. No horse, mule, nor ass, will live in the city of Sennaar, or for many miles round it. The case is the same with bullocks, sheep, dogs, and poultry; all of which must be sent to the sands, at least twice a year. It is difficult to account for this mortality; though Mr. Bruce assures us it is the case every where about the metropolis of this country, where the soil is a fat earth, during the first season of the rains. Several of the kings of Sennaar have endeavoured to keep lions; but it was always found impossible to preserve them alive after the wet season; though they will live, as well as other quadrupeds, in the sands, at no great distance from the capital. No species of tree, except the lemon, will blossom in the vicinage of this city; and even the cultivation of the rose has been frequently attempted without success. In some places, however, the soil is very fertile, and produces exuberant crop of doura, or millet, which is the principal food of the common people. In some parts, the earth is so strongly

impregnated with salt, that a sufficient quantity to serve the inhabitants is extracted from it.

"Nothing," says Mr. Bruce, "is more pleasant than the country around Sennaar in the end of August and beginning of September. The grain, being now sprung up, makes the whole of the immense plain appear a level green land, interspersed with great lakes of water, and ornamented at certain intervals with groupes of villages; the conical tops of the houses presenting, at a distance, the appearance of small encampments. Through this extensive plain winds the Nile, which is here about a mile broad, full to the very brim, but never overflowing. Its banks, about Sennaar, resemble the pleasantest part of Holland in the summer-season; but, when the rains cease, and the sun exerts its utmost influence, the doura begins to ripen, the leaves to turn yellow and to rot, the lakes to putrify and become full of vermin, and all beauty suddenly disappears; bare scorched Nubia returns, with all its terrors of poisonous winds and moving sands, glowing and ventilated with sultry blasts, which are followed by a troop of terrible attendants; epilepsies, apoplexies, violent fevers, obstinate agues, and lingering painful dysenteries, still more obstinate and mortal."

With regard to the climate of the country round Sennaar, our author has several curious observations. The thermometer rises, in the shade, to a hundred and nineteen degrees; but the degree indicated by this instrument does not at all correspond with the sensations occasioned by it; nor with the colour of the people who live under it. "Nations of blacks," says Mr. Bruce, "live within latitude thirteen and fourteen degrees; about ten degrees south of them, nearly under the line, all the people are white, as we had an opportunity of observing daily in the Galla Sennaar. Cold and hot are terms merely relative, not determined by the latitude, but elevation, of the place. When, therefore, we say *hot*, some other explanation is necessary concerning the place where we are, in order to give an adequate idea of the sensations of that heat upon the body, and the effects of it upon the lungs. The degree of the thermometer conveys this but very imperfectly; ninety degrees is excessively hot at Loheia, in Arabia Felix, and yet the latitude of Loheia is but fifteen degrees; whereas ninety degrees at Sennaar is only warm, as to sense, though Sennaar is in latitude thirteen degrees.

"At Sennaar, then, I call it *cold*, when one, fully clothed and at rest, feels himself in want of fire. I call it *cool*, when one, fully clothed and at rest, feels he could bear more covering all over, or in part, than he has at that time. I call it *temperate*, when a man, so clothed and at rest, feels no such want, and can take moderate exercise, such as walking about a room, without sweating. I call it *warm*, when a man, so clothed, does not perspire when at rest; but, upon taking moderate exercise, sweats and again cools. I call it *hot*, when a man at rest, or with moderate exercise, sweats profusely. I call it *very hot*, when a man, with thin or little clothing, perspires much, though at rest. I call it *excessive hot*, when a man, in his shirt and at rest, sweats excessively, when all motion is painful, and the knees feel feeble, as if after a fever. I call it *extremely hot*, when the strength fails, a disposition to faint comes on, and a straitness is found in the temples, as if a small cord were drawn tight about the head; when the voice is impaired, the skin dry, and the head seems more than ordinarily large and tight. This, I apprehend, denotes death at hand; but this is rarely or never effected by the sun alone, without the addition of that poisonous wind which pursued us through Atbara, where it has, no doubt, contributed to the total extinction of every thing that hath the breath of life. A thermometer, graduated upon this scale, would exhibit a figure very different from the common one; for I am convinced, by experiment, that a web of the finest muslin, wrapped round the body at Sennaar will occasion, at mid-day, a greater sensation of heat in the body than a rise of five degrees in the thermometer of Fahrenheit.

"At Sennaar, from seventy to seventy-eight degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer is cool; from seventy-nine to ninety-two temperate; at ninety-two degrees begins warmth. Although the degree of the thermometer marks a greater heat than is felt by strangers, it seems to me that the sensations of the natives bear still a less proportion to that degree than ours."

Vegetables.] Nubia produces some very fine fruits, as also plenty of sugar-canes; but the natives are unacquainted with the method of making good sugar. They have also a great variety of medicinal plants, roots, and drugs, with others that are extremely obnoxious; particularly a most dreadful poison, so quick and fatal in its operations, that a single seed, taken inwardly, causes instant death. These seeds grow on the top of a plant that resembles our nettles; and it is said that considerable quantities of it are exported to the neighbouring countries. Nubia also affords gold, ivory, sanders and other medicinal woods, and drugs.

Animals.] This country abounds with various kinds of wild beasts, as lions, tigers, leopards, crocodiles, vipers, and several kinds of serpents, particularly one of a colour which so nearly resembles that of the dust or sand, in which it lurks, that it is not easily avoided, and its bite is commonly attended with almost immediate death, and that of the most painful nature. Here are likewise great numbers of camels, dromedaries, and horses, of which the breed of the latter is the chief boast of this country.

These animals are generally about sixteen hands high; and, by Mr. Bruce, who has given the most accurate ac-

rant of them, they are said to be the breed which was introduced into Nubia at the Saracen conquest, and has been preserved unmixed to the present time. Our author represents this as a much finer animal than the Arabian horse. "What figure," says he, "the Nubian horse would make in point of fleetness is very doubtful, his make being so entirely different from that of the Arabian; but if beautiful symmetry of parts, great size and strength, the most agile, nervous, and elastic movements, great endurance of fatigue, docility of temper, and seeming attachment to men beyond that of any other domestic animal, can promise any thing for a stallion, the Nubian is above all comparison the most eligible in the world."

The Nubians are very jealous in keeping up the pedigree of their horses, which are black or white; but a vast proportion of the former to the latter. Our author observes, that he never saw the colour which we call grey; but he has seen some bright bays, and a few inclining to sorrel.

All noble horses in Nubia are said to be descended from one of the five upon which Mahomet and his four immediate successors fled from Mecca to Medina, on the night of the Hegira. No European, however, can be expected to pay much regard to this legendary tale, or to believe that the strength and beauty of this breed of horses is owing to any virtue communicated to the first of them by the Arabian impostor and his deluded associates. Mr. Bruce accounts for the excellence of these animals upon rational principles. He observes, that the best horses of this breed are found in the tribes of Mowelli and Amecy, which lie in about thirty-six degrees of north latitude; and Dongala, which is situated in twenty degrees latitude, seems to be the centre of excellence for this noble animal. Hence he infers, that the bounds in which the horse is in the greatest perfection, are between the twentieth and thirty-sixth degrees of latitude, and between thirty degrees of longitude east from Greenwich, and the banks of the Euphrates. If, to the effects of climate, we add the manner of feeding the Nubian horses, we shall, probably, have the true cause of their superiority over all others. They are kept fat upon doura, and suffered to eat nothing green, but the short roots of grass that are to be found by the side of the Nile, after the blades have been withered by the sun.

Chief City.] SENNAAR, the capital of Nubia, is situated in latitude thirteen degrees thirty-four minutes thirty-six seconds north, and in longitude thirty-three degrees thirty minutes thirty seconds east from the meridian of Greenwich. It is on the west side of the Nile, and close upon the banks of it. The ground on which it stands rises just enough to prevent the river from entering the town, even in the height of the inundation, when it comes to be even with the street.

The town of Sennaar is very populous, there being in it many good houses, after the fashion of the country. Poncet says, in his time, they were all of one story high, but now the great officers have all houses of two stories. They have parapet roofs, which is a singular construction; for in other places the roofs are all conical. The houses are all built of clay, with very little straw mixed with it, which sufficiently shews the rains here must be less violent than to the southward, probably from the distance of the mountains.

Language.] The language of the Nubians is peculiar to themselves, but bears some kind of affinity to the Arabic: it is not, however, universally spoken throughout the whole kingdom; for in the desolate parts, which are inhabited by a different kind of people, they speak a language that does not border either upon the one or the other; so that these and the inhabitants of the more civilized parts of the country can scarcely converse together at all.

Religion.] The inhabitants in general, according to Mr. Bruce, pay adoration to the moon; which worship, he says, is performed every night that she shines, with great pleasure and satisfaction. Coming out from the darkness of their huts, they say a few words upon seeing her brightness, and testify great joy, by motions of their feet and hands, at the first appearance of the new moon; but he never saw them pay any attention to the sun. Their priests seem to have great influence over them, but through fear only, and not from affection. They are distinguished by thick copper-bracelets about their wrists, as also sometimes one or more about their ankles. There are some, however, who profess Mahometanism, but they are by no means strict adherents to its injunctions.

Government, &c.] The government of Nubia is monarchy in the most absolute sense, the king having uncontrolable sway over the lives and property of the people.

The king and his officers administer justice in all cases, whether civil or criminal, and that with the utmost expedition. On the person found guilty, sentence is no sooner passed than executed. For trifling matters they are punished with the bastinado; but in cases of murder and treason they are put to death; the manner of doing which is by laying the criminal on his back, and beating him on the breast with a stick till he expires, which, from the severity of the strokes, is generally effected in a very short time.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Nubia are swarthy, and small of stature. Those of superior rank, in the interior of the country, are clothed in a vest, without sleeves, but the common people only wrap a piece of linen-cloth about them, and the children go quite naked. Persons of quality, however, wear fine long robes of

silk or cotton; and those of the women reach to the ground; the last also adorn their hair with rings and other ornaments of gold, silver, and brass, but have nothing on their legs or feet, except sandals.

Both men and women anoint themselves, as least once a day, with camel's grease, mixed with civet, which they imagine softens their skins, and preserves them from cutaneous eruptions; of which they are so fearful, that they confine themselves to the house if they observe the smallest pimple on their faces. With the same view of preserving their skins, though the better sort have a clean cotton shirt every day, they sleep in a greased one at night, having no other covering. Their bed is a tanned bull's hide, which this constant greasing softens very much; it is also very cool, though it gives a disagreeable smell to their bodies, from which they cannot be freed by any washing.

The poorer class of people live upon the flour of millet; but the rich make this into puddings, toasting the flour before a fire, and putting milk and butter into it; besides which they use beef, partly roasted and partly raw. They have very fine horned cattle; but the meat commonly exposed to sale is camels' flesh; and it appears that the liver and spare-rib of the camel are invariably eaten raw. Hogs' flesh is not sold in the market; the common people, however, eat it openly, and those in office, who pretend to pay an implicit obedience to the precepts of Mahomet, do the same in secret.

The generality of the inhabitants are said to have neither modesty, civility, nor religion. Mr. Norden, who proceeded up the Nile a considerable way into Nubia, found them base, treacherous, mean, and avaricious, especially some of the great, who scruple neither threats nor intreaties to obtain the treasures they dare not plunder by open violence. They fight to greater advantage on horseback than on foot, for they are very expert horsemen; but, as they poison their weapons, the Turks seldom venture to attack them.

A French physician, named Poncet, who passed through this country in his way to Abyssinia, says, they are subject to a prince, who wears a long robe, embroidered with gold and silver, fastened with a girdle of the finest cotton. On his head he has a turban of the same; but never appears in public without having his face veiled with silk gauze, of various colours. Those strangers who are admitted to pay their homage to him, are obliged to pull off their shoes, and, kneeling, to kiss the ground two or three times.

One of the most remarkable customs of this country is, that the king ascends the throne with an expectation of being murdered whenever the general council of the nation thinks proper. The dreadful office of executioner belongs to a person called the *Sid el Coom*, and who is always a relation of the monarch himself. The Sid el Coom in office at the time Mr. Bruce visited this country was named Achmet, and was one of his best friends. He had murdered the late king, with three of his sons, one of whom was an infant at its mother's breast; and he was, also, in daily expectation of performing the same office to the reigning sovereign.. This man was by no means reserved concerning the nature of his office, but readily answered every interrogation. When asked by our author, why he murdered the king's young son in his father's presence? he replied, that he did it from a principle of duty to the king himself, who had a right to see his son killed in a lawful and regular manner, (which was by cutting his throat with a sword,) and not in a more painful or ignominious way, which the malice of his enemies might possibly have inflicted.

The same man observed, that the king was very little affected at the sight of his son's death, but he was so unwilling to die himself, that he frequently pressed the executioner to let him escape, but, finding all his entreaties ineffectual, he submitted, at last, without resistance. On being asked, whether he was not afraid of coming into the king's presence, considering the office he might possibly have to perform? he answered, that he was not in the least afraid on this account; that it was his duty to be with the king every morning, and very late in the evening; that the king knew he would have no hand in promoting his death; but that, when the matter was absolutely determined, the rest was only an affair of decency; and it would undoubtedly be his own choice rather to fall by the hand of a relation in private, than by that of a hired assassin in the sight of the populace. Baady, the king's father, having the misfortune to be taken prisoner, was sent to Acbara, to Welled Hassan, the governor of that province, to be put to death there. But the king, who was a strong man, and well armed, kept so much upon his guard, that Welled could find no opportunity of killing him, but by running him through the back with a lance, as he was washing his hands. For this, Welled was afterwards executed, not on account of the murder itself, but because, in the first place, he, who was not the proper executioner, had presumed to put the king to death; and, in the next, because he had done it with a lance, whereas the only lawful instrument was a sword.

On the death of any of the sovereigns of this country, the eldest son ascends the throne; and as many of his brothers as can be found are apprehended, and murdered by the Sid el Coom in the manner already related. The princesses are excluded from the sovereignty, and are worse off than those of Abyssinia; having no settled income, nor being treated, in any degree, better than the daughters of private persons. The king is obliged, once in his life-time, to plough and sow a piece of ground; whence he is named *Baady*, "the countryman or peas-

sant;" a title as common among the monarchs of Sennaar as Cæsar was among the Romans.

The royal family were originally negroes; but, as the kings frequently marry with Arab women, the white colour of the mother is communicated to her children. This is said to be invariably the case when a negro man of Sennaar marries an Arab woman; and it holds equally good, when an Arab man marries a negro woman.

Mr. Bruce gives a very curious description of the queens and ladies at the court of Sennaar. He had access to them as a physician, and was permitted to pay his visit alone. He was first shown into a large square apartment, where there were about fifty black women, all in a state of nudity, excepting a narrow piece of cotton-cloth about their waists. As he was musing whether these were all queens, one of them took him by the hand, and led him into another apartment, much better lighted than the former. Here he saw three women, sitting upon a bench, covered with blue Surat cloth; themselves being clothed from the neck to the feet with cotton-shirts of the same colour. These were three of the king's wives: his favourite, who was one of the number, appeared to be about six feet high, and so extremely corpulent, that our author imagined her to be the largest creature he had seen next to the elephant and rhinoceros. Her features perfectly resembled those of a negro: a ring of gold passed through her under lip, and weighed it down till it almost covered her chin, leaving her teeth bare, which were small and very fine. The inside of her lip was blackened with antimony. Her ears reached down to her shoulders, and had the appearance of wings: there was a gold ring in each of them, about five inches in diameter, and somewhat smaller than a man's little finger; the weight of which had drawn down the hole where her ear was pierced so much, that three fingers might easily pass above the ring. Her neck was adorned with a gold necklace, of several rows, one below another, to which were hung rows of perforated sequins; and upon her ankles were two manacles of gold, larger than those used for chaining felons. The other ladies were dressed much in the same manner; only one of them had chains coming from her ears to the outside of each nostril, where they were fastened. A ring was, also, put through the gristle of her nose, and hung down to the opening of her mouth; having altogether something of the appearance of a horse's bridle.

SECTION II.

ABYSSINIA.

Extent and Boundaries.] Abyssinia is about nine hundred miles in length, and eight hundred in breadth. It is bounded, on the north, by the kingdom of Nubia; on the south, by Alaba; on the east, by the Red Sea; and, on the west, by the River Maley.

Climate.] The climate of Abyssinia is, in general, very sultry; but the extreme heat is only felt in the valleys or low lands, for the ridges of mountains, most of which are of a prodigious height, enjoy a degree of coolness; insomuch that there are some parts where the summers are less sultry than in Portugal, and others where the inhabitants are more afraid of cold than heat. This difference of climate is frequently productive of violent storms of thunder and lightning, which are sometimes so terrible as to prove destructive both to man and beast. These storms are also generally attended with excessive rains, which are frequently so violent, that their streams carry away with them trees, houses, and even hills, whilst all the rivers overflow, and inundate the country: after the water retires, the lanes and roads are so covered with a thick slimy mud, that they become for some time entirely impassible. But the greatest inconvenience that attends these rains is, that they infect the air with a dangerous malignancy; for, falling on the ground, that has been parched up for a considerable time, they raise such quantities of unwholesome vapours as seldom fail of producing violent distempers.

The seasons are, properly speaking, three; namely, the spring, which begins at the latter end of September; the summer, which commences on the twenty-fifth of December; and the winter, which begins on the twenty-fifth of June. The summer is divided into two parts, of three months each; the first is the most sultry and disagreeable; the other is much more moderate and pleasant.

The winds differ as much as the climate: some, especially on the high lands and lofty mountains, are very refreshing and pleasant; whilst others, on the low lands, where the air is less agitated, are hot and insalubrious. One of these, which is rather a hurricane, is called Sengo, or the Serpent. This is sometimes so violent, that it overturns houses, tears up trees by the roots, and is frequently very prejudicial to the shipping. Notwithstanding these inconveniences, this wind has some good tendency, as it clears the air of the lower grounds, which would otherwise stagnate, and prove infectious.

The whole country is intersected with prodigious high mountains, between which are such dreadful precipices as must naturally excite terror in the beholder. Some of them have very large plains on the top, covered with trees and other verdure, and afford springs of excellent water; and in some parts they are so well cultivated as to produce most of the principal necessaries of life.

These stupendous hills appear, at some distance, in a delightful variety of shapes. Some of them resemble pyramids, others towers of various shapes. Some are of an exact square, others perfectly round. Some, again, so deceive the eye, that, when the traveller arrives at what

he supposed to be the top, he discovers it to be only the foot of another eminence, equally high and difficult of ascent.

That the reader may form a proper idea of one of these hills, and the great danger and difficulty there is in ascending them, we shall present an account of that called Guza, situated in the province of Tigré, which travellers, who come from the Red Sea, are obliged to cross in going to Dambea. "When you have gained the top, it presents a spacious plain, in the midst of which stands another mountain of equal height. The ascent takes up about half a day's journey, and goes winding all the way up. The paths are very narrow, and cut into the side of the solid rock: the passage presents to the view a most deep and dreadful precipice, the bottom of which cannot be reached by the naked eye, but only offers a gulf, which at once turns the head, and fills the heart with terror. Should any of the caravans that go up and down these steep and narrow roads chance to meet another in its way, both men and beasts are in the greatest danger of being thrown down the precipice, and dashed in a thousand pieces before they reach the bottom, unless they take the utmost care in passing by one another. The mules are by far the best for those that ride, because they are the surest footed; but they will always [illegible] close to the edge of the precipice, and cannot, without great risk, be turned to the other side of the road, or be kept to it when they are there. What adds still more to the horror of the journey, whether it be up or down the steep declivity, is, that, at the bottom of the valley below, there commonly runs a swift torrent of water, with a most hideous roar, which, being echoed by the adjacent rocks, and often heightened by loud winds, as well as by the continual trampling of the men and beasts upon the rock, increases the horrid din to such a degree, as precludes the possibility of hearing or being heard. But the wished-for summit once attained, the traveller is amply gratified by the beautiful prospect presented to the view, which is not that of rugged and intersected peaks above, and deep gaping valleys beneath, as might be expected, but of a small delightful plain, about two miles in compass, and a musket-shot in breadth, and terminated, at one end, by a new, flat, and upright rock, like the back of a chair, of which this little plain is the seat: so that, take the whole mountain together, that of Guza seems to be a kind of pedestal to this; and the latter, which the natives call Lamalmon, represents, in some measure, a chair without arms, the back of which is the upright rock at the end of the plain, which is as perpendicular as if it had been hewn out with a chissel. Along what we may call the seat of this wonderful chair is pleasantly situated a town of the same name, whose inhabitants obtain a livelihood by helping the caravans to load and unload the beasts of burthen during a great part of the way of the craggy ascent."

There are other mountains in this country that resemble the above, particularly one situated between the provinces of Amhara and Oleca. But the most considerable amongst them is that called, by the natives, Thabat Mariam, whose summit greatly exceeds all the rest, and is, at the same time, very spacious. This remarkable mountain, whose bottom is watered by two large rivers descending from it, has seven handsome churches on its summit, one of which, dedicated to St. John, is very beautiful, having been formerly the burial-place of the Abyssinian emperors. Within it are five monuments, erected to the memory of these monarchs: they are covered with tapestry, on which are represented the arms of Portugal.

There is a remarkable hollow high rock situated in the province of Gojam, directly opposite to which, at a small distance, is another, much of the same height and bulk, so exactly placed by nature, that it echoes back a word faintly whispered in the former with amazing force; and the united voices of three or four persons speaking together produce a sound not inferior to that arising from the shouts of a numerous army.

Vegetables.] Among the vegetable productions of Abyssinia is the *balm*, or balsam, which appears to have been highly valued in the early ages. We know from scripture, that the Ishmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking, with the Indian commodities, into Egypt, brought with them balm, as a part of the cargo. The *ensete* is an herbaceous plant, which grows to great perfection at Gondar; but it mostly abounds in that part of Maitsha and Goutta west of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and it is there, almost exclusive of every thing else, the food of the Gallas inhabiting that province. When soft, like the turnip well boiled, if eaten with milk and butter, it is the best of food, wholesome, nourishing, and easily digested. The *teff* is a grain commonly sown all over Abyssinia, where it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground: from it is made the bread which is commonly used throughout this country. The Abyssinians have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make as fine wheaten bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste; but the use of this is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The acacia-tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world.

This country produces great variety of fruits; but those most cultivated are the black grape, peaches, pomegranates, almonds, citrons, and oranges. They have also great plenty of roots and herbs, which, notwithstanding the heat of the country, grow naturally. Sugar-canes are, likewise, very plentiful; and they have prodigious quantities of honey, which is here very excellent, and of many different sorts.

Abyssinia produces great quantities of senna, and abundance of cotton, which grows on shrubs, the same as in India. There are also various sorts of flowers, that grow in such abundance, that the banks of the rivers are ornamented with them the principal part of the year. Many of these are peculiar to the country; but the generality are those natural to Europe, particularly jessamines, lilies, jonquils, and roses: among the latter is one that grows on trees, and is much more odoriferous than those produced from shrubs.

Animals.] The quadrupeds of this country are both various and numerous. Those of the tame kind are horses, mules, camels, dromedaries, oxen, cows, sheep, and goats. The oxen, in particular, are of a prodigious size; their horns are so large, that the inhabitants make them into various necessary utensils. The horses are, in general, fleet and docile, but seldom used, except in times of war. The beasts of carriage are mules, camels, and dromedaries, all which they train up to an easy, yet quick, pace. They use the mules when they travel over the craggy mountains, those beasts being not only very gentle, but also sure-footed; and the camels and dromedaries when they travel through hot and sandy deserts.

The natives prefer riding on mules to horses, not only on account of those beasts being more gentle and sure-footed, but also out of respect to their own pedigree; for, as they boast themselves to be descended from the Jews, whose princes and grandees are recorded to have chiefly ridden upon mules, they esteem it an honour to do the same here, and to have the horses led by the bridle, till some martial engagement obliges them to mount.

The wild quadrupeds of this country are lions, tigers, hyænas, leopards, various kinds of apes, wolves, foxes, and other beasts of prey; all of which are very numerous, fierce, and mischievous. Lions are numerous, and of several sorts and sizes, but the most remarkable are those of the kingly or royal breed. As these do considerable mischief among the larger cattle, the inhabitants are very assiduous in endeavouring to destroy them, and will even encounter them with no other weapons than their lances and daggers.

The elephants in Abyssinia generally go in large droves, and frequently make havoc among the corn and other grain. They also make great destruction among the forests, by rooting up large trees, and breaking down small ones, to feed on their leaves.

The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other animals, the high and low countries being equally stored with them. Many species of the eagle and hawk, and many more of the vulture kind, as it were, over-stock all parts of the country. That species of glede called haddaya comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains. The nissar, or golden eagle, is not only the largest of the eagle kind, but one of the largest birds that flies. From wing to wing he is about six feet four inches. The most distinguished bird in this country is the maroe, or honey-bird: it receives its name from having a particular instinct in discovering the hidden treasure of the industrious bees, of which they have prodigious numbers, and of various sorts; some of them are domestic, and kept in hives; others are wild, and lay up their honey in hollow trees; and a third sort hide it in small holes and caverns in the ground, which they take surprising care to cleanse for their use, and afterwards to stop them so close and artfully, that it is almost impossible to find them out, though they chiefly lie along the most public highways. This last is the sort that the maroe discovers to the inhabitants, by an unusual noise and fluttering of its wings, which, when perceived by the passenger, he has nothing to do but to follow him to the place, where the feathered guide begins a more pleasing note, which he continues till the man has taken possession of the hidden store; in the plundering of which he takes care to leave a small quantity behind for his songster, it being the chief food on which he exists.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web-footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains become constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and there are swallows of many kinds unknown in Europe: those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyssinia; but those few are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Goose, or Goose of the Nile, common in all the south of Africa: these build their nests upon trees, and, when not in water, generally sit upon them. There are ducks, turkeys, and hens, with a variety of uncommon birds, peculiar to this country.

Towns, Cities, &c.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. The houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building, flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burned at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are sur-

rounded by a substantial stone-wall, thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the street. There appear to have been never any embrasures for cannon, and the four sides of the walls are above an English mile and a half in length.

DIXAN, the first town in Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta, is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a sugar-loaf; a deep valley surrounds it every where, like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill till it terminates among the houses. The inhabitants consist of Moors and Christians, yet the only trade of either of these sects is that of selling children. The Christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia to Dixan, as to a sure deposit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia or India. The priests of the province of Tigré, especially those near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice.

AXUM is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive; but, like the cities of ancient times, consist altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a *patera*, exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taste. There are several manufactures of coarse cotton-cloth; and here too the best parchment is made of goats' skins, which is the ordinary employment of the monks. Axum is watered by a small stream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley where stand the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magnificent basin, one hundred and fifty feet square, and thence it is carried at pleasure to water the neighbouring gardens.

SIRE' is situated on the brink of a very steep narrow valley, and through this the road lies, which is almost impassible. In the midst of this valley runs a brook, bordered with palm-trees. The town is built in form of a half-moon, fronting the plain, but its greatest breadth is at the west end; all the houses are of clay, and thatched; the roofs are in form of cones; as, indeed, are all in Abyssinia. Siré is famous for a manufacture of coarse cotton cloths, which pass for current money through all the province of Tigré. Besides these, beads, needles, cohol, and incense, at times, are considered as money.

ADOWA is situated on the declivity of a hill, on the west side of a small plain, surrounded every where by mountains. This plain is watered by three rivulets, which are never dry, even in the midst of summer. The town consists of about three hundred houses, and occupies a much larger space than would be thought necessary for these to stand on, by reason that each house has an inclosure round it of hedges and trees. The mansion-house of the governor of Tigré, which stands here, is not distinguished from any of the others in the town, unless by its size: it is situated upon the top of the hill, and resembles a prison rather than a palace; for there are about it more than three hundred persons in irons, some of whom have been there for twenty years, mostly with a view to extort money from them; and, even when they have paid the sum of money which the tyrant asks, they do not always obtain their deliverance; but are kept in cages, like wild beasts, and treated in the same manner.

The houses in Adowa are all of rough stone, cemented with mud instead of mortar. The roofs are in the form of cones, and thatched with a reedy sort of grass, something thicker than wheat-straw. Excepting a few spots, this is the only part of Tigré where there is soil sufficient to yield corn; the whole of the province besides being one entire rock.

Trade.] There is a considerable trade carried on at Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and unjust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and for articles in which a small capital is invested. Property here is too precious to risk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every transaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country, depend for the necessaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the sources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where sixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with their commodities, to the capital.

Language.] A variety of languages are spoken in this country. The Jews speak a dialect of the Hebrew; the Moors, an impure Arabic; the Gallas have likewise a language of their own. The dialect of the court is that of Amhara; that of Tigré, however, approaches nearest to the old Ethiopic, which has a considerable affinity to the Arabic, and is called the learned language; and is still used, not only in all their literary and religious books, but also in their public instruments and records.

Government.] The monarchs of Abyssinia claim descent from Menelik, the son of Solomon, as they pretend, by the queen of Sheba. The crown is hereditary in this family, but elective as to the person. A peculiar custom formerly prevailed of confining all the princes of the blood royal in a palace on a high mountain, during their lives, or till they were called to the throne; but this practice, it appears, has now fallen into disuse.

The king is anointed with plain oil of olives, which,

being poured upon the crown of his head, he rubs into his long hair with both his hands. The crown is a kind of helmet, in the shape of a priest's mitre, covering the forehead, cheeks, and neck. The outside is a mixture of gold and silver, enriched with beautiful filligree-work; and it is lined with blue taffety.

The king goes to church regularly, his guards taking possession of every door and avenue through which he is to pass; and no persons are allowed to enter with him, excepting two officers of his bed-chamber, who support him. He kisses the threshold and side-posts of the church-door, and the steps before the altar, and then returns home: sometimes there is service in the church, sometimes there is not; but he takes no notice of the difference. He rides up stairs into the presence-chamber on his mule, and lights immediately on the carpet before the throne.

It is customary for the Abyssinian monarchs to allow themselves a plurality of wives; and not only to imitate their progenitor in that respect, but in taking those of different religions, even Mahometans and Pagans; and some have carried this privilege so far as to allow their heathen wives to have their own temples and idols; so that on one side might be seen the church of God, and on the other a Pagan temple. Others, however, have had so much regard to their religion, as to cause those Pagan or Mahometan ladies to be instructed and baptized before they married them.

The kings of Abyssinia are above all laws. They are supreme in all cases, ecclesiastical and civil: the land and persons of their subjects are equally their property, and every inhabitant of their kingdom is born their slave.

When the king sits to consult upon civil matters of importance, he is shut up in a kind of box, opposite to the head of the council-table. The persons who deliberate sit at the table, and give their opinions according to their rank, the youngest or lowest officer always speaking first. The first that give their votes are the shalaka, or colonels of the household troops. The second are the great butlers, men that have the charge of the king's drink. The third is the badjerund, or the keeper of that apartment in the palace called the lion's house; and after these the keeper of the banquetting-house. The next is called lika magwass, an officer that always goes before the king, to hinder the pressure of the crowd. After the lika magwass comes the palambaras; after him the fit-auraris; then the gera kasmati, and the kanya kasmati; after them the dakakin billetana geeta, or the under-chamberlain; then the secretary for the king's commands; after him the right and left azages or generals; then the rak massery and basha; and after these the kasmatis of Damont, Samen, Amhara, and Tigré, the last of whom is called nibrit, as being governor of Axum, or keeper of the book of the law supposed to be there.

After the governor of Tigré comes the acab saat, or guardian of the fire and the chief ecclesiastical officer of the king's household. After him comes the first master of the household; then the ras; and last of all the king gives his sentence, which is final, and sends it to the table, from the balcony where he is then sitting, by the officer called kal-hatzé.

It is a constant practice in Abyssinia to beset the king's doors and windows within his hearing, and there, from morning till night, to cry aloud for justice, in a complaining tone, and in all the different languages they are masters of, in order to their being admitted to have their supposed grievances heard. In a country so ill governed as Abyssinia, and so perpetually involved in war, it may be easily supposed there is no want of people who have real injuries to complain of. But if it were not so, this is so much the constant usage, that when, in the rainy season, few persons can approach the capital, a set of vagrants are maintained and paid for the sole purpose of crying and lamenting, as if they had really been much injured; and this they affirm is for the king's pleasure, that he may not be lonely by the palace being too quiet. This, of all their absurd customs, was the most intolerable to Mr. Bruce. Sometimes, while busied in his apartment in the rainy season, he was entertained with a concert of sighs, groans, and complaints, so artfully performed, that no ear could distinguish but that it proceeded from real distress. Our author was often so surprised as to send the soldiers at the door to bring in one of the performers; and upon asking what misfortune had befallen him, he would answer very composedly, that nothing was the matter, but hearing from the soldiers that Mr. Bruce was retired to his apartment, he and his companions had come to make a noise under his window, to do him honour before the people, lest he should be melancholy by being alone; and therefore hoped he would order them something to drink, that they might continue with a little more spirit. The violent anger he fell into did not fail to be punctually reported to the king, at which he would laugh heartily; and sometimes he himself was concealed not far off, for the sake of being a spectator of the European's displeasure.

No man is condemned by the king in person to die for the first fault, unless the crime be of a horrid nature, such as parricide or sacrilege; and, in general, the life and merits of the prisoner are weighed against his immediate guilt; so that if his former behaviour appear to have had more merit towards the state than his present delinquency is thought to have injured it, the one is placed against the other; and when the sovereign judges alone, the accused is generally absolved. Six judges always attend the king of Abyssinia to the camp, and, before them, rebels taken on the field are tried and punished on the spot.

When a prisoner is condemned in capital cases, he is not again remitted to prison, which is thought cruel, but he is immediately carried away, and the sentence executed upon him. The capital punishments are crucifixion and lapidation, or stoning to death, which is chiefly inflicted upon strangers, called Franks, for religious causes.

To these may be added the plucking out of eyes, which is generally inflicted upon rebels. Mr. Bruce informs us that, after the slaughter of the battle of Faggitta, twelve chiefs of the Gallas, taken prisoners by Ras Michael, had their eyes torn out, and were afterwards abandoned to starve in the valleys below the town. Several rebel noblemen of Tigré underwent the same misfortune; and it appears that not one of them died in consequence of the operation, though it was performed in the most brutal manner, with an iron forceps or pincers.

The bodies of criminals, who have been put to death for treason, murder, or violence on the highways, are seldom buried in Abyssinia. The streets of Gondar are strewed with their limbs, which bring the wild beasts into the city in such numbers, as soon as it is dark, that it is almost impossible to walk from one house to another in safety.

Revenue.] The royal revenues are derived from four branches; the first of which is the tribute paid by the governors of such provinces and kingdoms as contain gold-mines, particularly those of Narea and Gojam, from which he annually receives a certain weight of that metal; the second arises from the sale of all the great places in the empire; the third consists in a tenth levied every third year upon all the cattle in the empire. By this last, which, it appears, was unknown till about the middle of the third century, every man that has cows is obliged to pay him one out of ten every third year; and the country breeding great numbers, renders this the most considerable branch of the three. It is called the burning or branding tax, because the emperor's officers brand those animals which they set aside for his use with a particular mark. The fourth arises from a duty laid on every loom of cotton-cloth. If it belong to a Christian, he pays one piece of cloth; if to a Mahometan a piece of eight, per annum. The kingdom of Dambea and adjacent parts yield a duty of about one thousand pieces, and that of Gojam three thousand.

Military Force.] Notwithstanding the great exaggerations that have been used, it does not appear that any king of Abyssinia ever commanded forty thousand effective men at any time, or upon any cause whatever, exclusive of his household troops. Their standards are large staves, surmounted at the top with a hollow ball: below this is a tube, in which the staff is fixed; and immediately under the ball a narrow stripe of silk, made forked, or swallow-tailed, like a vane, and seldom much broader. The standards of the infantry have their flags painted two colours crossways, yellow, white, red, or green. The cavalry have upon their flag, some a red, some a green, and some a white, lion. The black cavalry have a yellow lion, and over it a white star upon a red flag.

The king's household troops consist of about eight thousand infantry, of whom two thousand carry firelocks, and supply the place of archers, bows having been laid aside for nearly one thousand years. These troops are divided into four companies, each under an officer called shalaka, who answers in rank to our colonel. Every twenty men have an officer, every fifty a second, and every hundred a third; that is, every twenty have one officer who commands them, but is commanded likewise by an officer who commands the fifty; so that there are three officers who command fifty men, six command a hundred, and thirty command five hundred, over whom is the shalaka; and this body they call Bet, which signifies a house or apartment, because each of them goes by the name of one of the king's apartments. There is, for example, an apartment called Ambasa Bet, or the lion's house, and a regiment bearing that name has the charge of it; and their duty is at that apartment, or that part of the palace where it is; there is another called Jan Bet, or the elephant's house, that gives the name to a regiment; another called Werk Sacala, or the gold house, which gives its name to another corps, and so on.

There are four regiments that seldom, if ever, amount to one thousand six hundred men, which depend alone upon the king, and are all foreigners, at least the officers; these have the charge of his person while in the field. Sometimes, when the king's minority has elapsed, they amount to four or five thousand, and then oppress the country, as they have great privileges. When the king is a minor, they are kept incomplete, out of fear and jealousy.

With respect to the cavalry, about one thousand five hundred of them are properly mounted; but the rest are indifferently armed and accoutred, having no other arms but spears and a buckler. The spears are of two sorts; the one like half-pikes, and the other resembling a halbert. The staves of the former are slender, and the iron narrow, like our pike; but the iron of the other is broad and thin: the first is darted at the enemy, and the last used in close fight, with one hand, while the other holds a buckler, made of a buffalo's hide, which is usually very thick and strong.

The infantry have each of them two spears, and those of a higher rank have likewise swords, which they seldom use in battle, but rather wear them as a mark of distinction, and, in time of peace, commonly hold them in their hands when in conversation; but, if they walk, their servants carry them. They have the hilt of gold, or silver gilt, and the scabbard of velvet, or rich damask, which is commonly red: these weapons are chiefly worn by way of

ornament. They likewise wear a kind of dagger under their girdle, and some also carry a club, made of hard heavy wood, with a dagger in it. This weapon they commonly use by darting at the enemy, when they come to a close engagement.

These soldiers are but little acquainted with fire-arms, and poorly furnished with powder and ball. There are not more than three or four hundred musketeers in any action, who are generally so ill-trained, that they never fire above once, principally for want of powder and ball: these they seldom have at their exercises, except a few of the higher rank, who use a rest to their muskets. Their cavalry are said to be very good horsemen, and are all armed much like the infantry: they mount and sit their horses extremely well; but, in other respects, are very ill-disciplined.

In time of battle, the Abyssinians generally draw up their armies with little regularity, so that the first shock, in most cases, begins and ends the battle, the one side turning their back, and the other pursuing; for it is so common to run from the enemy, that it is not considered as any disgrace; and they never endeavour to rally their troops, nor indeed know how to go about it. This is entirely owing to their want of discipline; for they are naturally hardy, and inured to hunger, thirst, and fatigue; and, as they continue in the field the greatest part of the year, they are equally capable of bearing the most excessive heat, the sharpest cold, and the most violent rains, with very little sustenance; and even this they procure by their labour, from the lands the emperor allows to those in his service. Another disadvantage is, their taking their wives and children with them, who are generally so numerous, that a camp of thirty thousand men always consists of above one hundred thousand persons, all of whom are obliged to live on the produce of lands assigned for their maintenance. They have also a vast number of priests, who not only perform the divine service in the pavilions, but escort and attend the sacred utensils with great pomp and ceremony, and with vocal and instrumental music. The army is also attended by drums and kettle-drums, larger, and producing a louder sound, than ours; besides trumpets, hautboys, flutes, and other instruments.

Religion.] The religion of the Abyssinians is a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, Mahometanism, and Paganism; but the former is by far the most prevalent, and, as it were, the established one of the country. Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks, of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark, it follows, that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek church; and every rite or ceremony in the Abyssinian church may be traced to its origin in that church, when both of them were orthodox.

Frumentius preserved Abyssinia untainted with heresy till the day of his death; but, after that event, the monks of Egypt introduced the detestable doctrines of Arius, and other heretics, by which the church soon became infected.

It was settled by the first general council, that one baptism only was necessary for the listing man under the banner of Christ. The Jesuits, however, affirmed, that in Abyssinia all adults were re-baptized every year; and the following narration is extracted from the travels of Mr. Bruce, who was an eye-witness of the ceremony here introduced to the notice of our readers.

"The small river running between the church of Adowa and the Nile had been dammed up for several days; the stream was scanty, so that it scarcely overflowed. It was in places three feet deep, in some, perhaps, about four. Three large tents were pitched here the morning before the feast of the Epiphany. About midnight, the monks and priests assembled, and began their prayers and psalms at the water-side, one party relieving another; and at dawn of day the governor, Welleta Michael, came thither with some soldiers.

"As soon as the sun began to appear, three large crosses of wood were carried by three priests, dressed in their sacerdotal robes; each of whom, on coming to the side of the river, dipped his cross into the water, whilst a confused firing, skirmishing, and praying, went on together. The priests with the crosses then returned, one of their number carrying somewhat less than an English quart of water in a silver chalice. On approaching Welleta Michael, one of the priests took as much water as he could hold in his hands, and sprinkled it upon his head, holding the cup at the same time to the governor's mouth, and saying, at the same time, 'May God bless you.' The three crosses were then brought forward to Welleta Michael, and he kissed them. The ceremony of sprinkling the water was afterwards repeated to all the great men in the tent. Some of them, not contented with aspersion, received the water in the palms of their hands, and eagerly drank it; and after the whole of the governor's company had been sprinkled, the crosses returned to the river, their bearers singing hallelujahs, and the skirmishing and firing still continuing."

Our author observed that, soon after the governor had been sprinkled, two horses and two mules, belonging to the Ras Michael and Ozoro Esther, came and were washed. Afterwards the soldiers went in, and bathed their horses and guns; and heaps of platters and vessels, that had been used by Jews or Mahometans, were brought to be purified. From Mr. Bruce's account, however, this ceremony seems rather intended for a solemn lustration or purification, than for the rite of baptism, properly so called.

The Abyssinians receive the sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread and in the grape, bruised with the husk together as it grows; so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. Whatever the priests may pretend, some mixture seems necessary to keep it from fermentation in the state that it is in, unless the dried cluster be bruised just before it is used; for it is little more fluid than common marmalade; but is perfectly the grape as it grew, bruised stones and skin together.

It is a mistake that there is no wine in Abyssinia; for a quantity of excellent wine is made at Dreeda, about thirty miles from Gondar, which might supply a greater quantity than could be necessary for the celebration of the eucharist in all Abyssinia twenty times over. The people themselves are not very fond of wine, and plant vines in one place only; but a small black grape, of an excellent flavour, grows plentifully in every wood in Tigré.

Large pieces of bread are given to the communicants, in proportion to their quality; and our author asserts that, he has seen some great men, who, from the respect the priest bore them, had such a large portion of the loaf put into their mouths, that water actually ran from their eyes, from their incapacity of chewing it. After receiving the sacrament in both kinds, a pitcher of water is brought, of which the communicant drinks a large draught. He then retires from the steps of the inner division, where the administering priest stands, and, turning his face to the wall of the church, repeats a private prayer, with seeming decency and attention.

Before we dismiss this subject, it may be proper to present our readers with an anecdote, which was related to Mr. Bruce by the priest of Adowa, on the very day of the Epiphany.

"The sunday before Ras Michael's departure from Adowa, he went to church in great pomp, and there received the sacrament. There happened to be such a crowd to see him, that the consecrated wine was thrown down, and spilt upon the steps where the communicants stood at receiving. Some hay was instantly gathered and sprinkled upon it, to cover it; and the communicants continued the service till the end, treading that hay under foot.

"This giving great offence to some of the priests, it was told Michael, who, without explaining himself, said only, 'As to the fact of strewing the hay, they are a parcel of hogs, and know no better.' These few words had galled the priest of Adowa, who, with great secrecy, begged Mr. Bruce would inform him what was his opinion of the circumstance, and what would have been done, in such a case, in England. Our author told him, that the answer to his question depended upon two things, which being known, his difficulties would be very easily solved. 'If,' said he, 'you believe that the wine spilt upon the steps, and afterwards trodden under foot, was really the blood of Jesus Christ, then you was guilty of a most horrid crime, and you should cry upon the mountains to cover you; as ages of atonement are not sufficient to expiate it. But if, on the contrary, you believe, as many Christian churches do, that the wine, notwithstanding consecration, remained in the cup nothing more than wine, but was only the symbol of Christ's blood of the New Testament; then the spilling it upon the steps, and the treading upon it afterwards, having been merely accidental and out of your power to prevent, you are to humble yourself, and sincerely regret that so irreverent an accident happened in your hands, and in your time; but, as you did not intend it, and could not prevent it, the consequence of an accident, where inattention is very culpable, will be imputed to you, and nothing further."

The priest declared to Mr. Bruce, with the greatest earnestness, that he never did believe that the elements in the eucharist were converted, by consecration, into the real body and blood of Christ. He said, however, that he believed this to be the Roman-catholic faith; but, for his own part, he conceived that bread was bread, and wine was wine, even after consecration. From this example, which occurred accidentally, and was not the fruit of interrogation, it appears that some, at least, among the Abyssinians do not believe the real presence in the eucharist; but the majority may probably hold a contrary opinion.

The Abyssinians are not at all agreed about the state of souls before the resurrection of the body. The general opinion is, that there is no third state; but that the souls of pious men enjoy the beatific vision immediately after the separation from the body. This doctrine, however, is contradicted by their practice; for, when any person dies, alms are given, and prayers are offered for the departed soul, which must certainly be useless, if it were supposed to be already in the presence of God, and in possession of eternal felicity.

The ceremony called incision is an usage frequent, and still retained, among the Jews, though positively prohibited by their law. As soon as a near relation dies in Abyssinia, such as a brother, parent, or cousin-german, every woman in that relation lacerates the skin of both her temples with the nail of her little finger, which is suffered to grow to a considerable length for this purpose: hence it appears that either a wound or a scar may be seen in almost every fair face in Abyssinia; and in the dry season, when the troops are engaged in war, these wounds seldom have liberty to heal, till peace and the armies return.

Their churches appear to have been formerly large and elegant structures; but they are now so decayed, that it is impossible to form a proper idea of their ori

gind magnificence. The most distinguished are those of St. Emanuel, St. Saviour, St. Mary, the Holy Cross, St. George, Golgotha, Bethlehem, the Martyrs, Marcoreos, and Lalibela. Incredible as it may appear, yet certain it is, that these ten churches were all cut out of a solid rock, by dint of the hammer and chissel. The last of them bears the name of their founder, who, being desirous of having them finished, sent for a number of workmen from Egypt, and so expeditiously was the undertaking carried on, that the whole were completed in twenty-four years: a short time, considering the number of them, and the stately manner in which they are constructed, being proportionable in all their parts, as gates, windows, pillars, arches, chancels, &c. Besides the churches, there are many monasteries in Abyssinia, most of which contain two chapels, one for the men and the other for the women; but how they came to be introduced, and of what order the first founders of them were, is not known.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of this country may be classed in the following order:—Christians of the Abyssinian church, and those whom the Roman missionaries brought over to their communion. Jews, settled here from time immemorial. Mahometans, dispersed throughout the empire, and forming one third of the inhabitants; and Pagans, inhabiting several parts, who are chiefly descendants of the Gallas. The Abyssinians are in general well made, and of a lively tractable disposition; some of them are black, but the principal part are of a brown, or olive complexion; they are very tall, and their features well proportioned: their eyes are large, and of a sparkling black, their noses rather high than flat, and their teeth white and uniform.

Among them the olive is reckoned the finest complexion, and next to that the jet black; but the reddish, and particularly the yellowish, brown is esteemed the most disagreeable They have regular and agreeable features, and their eyes are black, brisk, and lively: their noses are not flat, nor their lips protuberant, as among the natives of Guinea. In their form they are stout and strong, active and healthy; and their labour, together with the temperance they use in eating, prolongs their lives to a good old age. Most of them are so nimble and active, as to climb up the tallest trees, or steepest rocks, with surprising ease and agility. The women greatly exceed those of Europe and Asia in strength and sprightliness; they breed easy, are delivered without help, and can take care both of the child and themselves, without the assistance of a nurse. Indeed, except where they are weakened by a sedentary life, this strength of constitution is common to all the women in these hot climates.

The common people wear a kind of scarf, which hangs loose from the shoulders to the waist, from whence they have a pair of cotton drawers, that reach to the ankles. The superior classes wear a long vest, made either of silk or cotton, and tied about the waist with a shell girdle. The women of the higher class dress in the best silks and brocades, and ornament their heads various ways; their necks are decorated with chains, jewels, and other embellishments, and in their ears they wear the richest pendants. The habit of the women is indeed always as fine and genteel as their circumstances will admit; for they are far from being kept in so recluse a manner as those among the more eastern nations. Their upper garments are wide and full, not unlike surplices. Both sexes take particular pains with their hair, which is the only ornament they have on their heads, none but the emperor being permitted to wear either cap or any other covering.

The greater part of the Abyssinians reside in tents, or camps, and remove from one place to another, as suits their convenience. The houses, or rather huts, that form their camps, are made only of lath and clay, and covered with straw: the furniture is equally miserable with their houses, consisting only of a large table, to sit round at their meals, and a few trifling utensils. The more wealthy lie upon couches, and cover themselves with their upper garments, but the poorer sort lie on mats on the ground, and wrap themselves up in the skin of some beast.

The natives of Abyssinia are not only very temperate in their eating, but far from being particular in the choice of their food; for none can be coarser, or more disgusting, than theirs, even that which is eaten by the superior classes. It generally consists of a piece of flesh, which is sometimes par-boiled, but for the most part quite raw: this is served up on apas, or cakes of bread, ground and made by the women, of wheat, peas, millet, teff, and other sorts of grain, according to their circumstances; so that this apas serves them not only instead of a dish or plate, but likewise a napkin, or table-cloth, neither of which they ever use at their tables. The sauces they use to their meat are no less disagreeable than the flesh itself, being chiefly butter turned into oil, mixed with some ingredients, the smell and taste of which are so disgusting, that a stranger could not eat with them, not even a Spaniard or a Portuguese.

They eat no wild or water-fowl, not even the goose, which was a great delicacy in Egypt. The reason of this is, that upon their conversion to Judaism, they were forced to relinquish their ancient customs, as far as they were contrary to the Mosaic law; and the animals of their country not corresponding in form, kind, or name, with those mentioned in the Septuagint, or original Hebrew, it has followed, that there are many of each class that know not whether they are clean or not; and a ludicrous confusion and uncertainty have taken place, through ignorance or mistake, the people being unwilling to vio-

late the law in any instance, through not understanding it.

The highest dainty is a piece of raw beef, brought in reeking warm from the beast; and, if they invite company to eat with them, the whole quarter is served up at once, with plenty of salt and pepper; and some add an ingredient called malta, which is made of what they draw out of the paunch of the ox or cow. This they stew some time on the fire, with pepper, salt, and sliced onion, before they bring it to table, which, when covered with such a large piece of warm raw beef, is esteemed by them a most delicious repast. This dish, however, can only be purchased by the rich, on account of the pepper, which is very expensive.

In confirmation of the predilection of these people for raw beef in particular, the following circumstances are stated in Mr. Bruce's travels in Abyssinia. He relates that, in his journey from Masuah to Axum, he overtook three travellers, who appeared to be soldiers, driving a cow before them. The cow did not seem to be fatted for killing, and it occurred to Mr. Bruce and his attendants that it had been stolen: he observed that the attendants attached themselves in a particular manner to the three soldiers who were driving the cow, and held a short conversation with them. Soon after, the drivers suddenly tripped up the cow, and gave the poor animal a very hard fall upon the ground, which was but the beginning of her sufferings. One of them sat across her neck, holding down her head by the horns, the other twisted the halter about her fore-feet, while the third, who had a knife in his hand, got astride upon her belly, before her hind-legs, and gave her a very deep wound in the upper-part of her buttock. When Mr. Bruce saw them throw the beast upon the ground, he rejoiced, thinking that, when three people were killing a cow, they must have agreed to sell part of her to them; and he was much disappointed upon hearing that they were not then to kill her, that she was not wholly theirs, and they could not sell her. This excited our traveller's curiosity: he let his people go forward, and staid himself, till he saw, with the utmost astonishment, two pieces, thicker and longer than our ordinary beef-steaks, cut out of the higher part of the buttock of the beast; after which they drove her gently on as before.

The same author gives the following description of an Abyssinian festival:

"Consistent with the plan of this work, which is to describe the manners of the several nations through which I passed, good and bad, as I observed them, I cannot avoid giving some account of this Polyphemus banquet, as far as decency will permit: it is part of the history of a barbarous people; whatever I might wish, I cannot decline it.

"In the capital, where one is safe from surprise at all times, or in the country or villages, when the rains have become so constant that the valleys will not bear a horse to pass them, or that men cannot venture far from home, through fear of being surrounded and swept away by temporary torrents, occasioned by sudden showers on the mountains; in a word, when a man can say he is safe at home, and the spear and shield are hung up in the hall, a number of people, of the best fashion in the villages, of both sexes, courtiers in the palace, or citizens in the town, meet together to dine, between twelve and one o'clock.

"A long table is set in the middle of a large room, and benches beside it, for a number of guests, who are invited. Tables and benches the Portuguese introduced amongst them; but bull-hides, spread upon the ground, served them before, as they do in the camp and country now. A cow or a bull, one or more, as the company is numerous, is brought close to the door, and its feet strongly tied. The skin that hangs down under the chin and throat, which I think we call the dew-lap, in England, is cut only so deep as to arrive at the fat, of which it totally consists, and by the separation of a few small blood-vessels, six or seven drops of blood only fall upon the ground. They have no stone, bench, or altar, upon which the cruel assassin lays the animal's head in this operation. I should beg his pardon, indeed, for calling him an assassin, as he is not so merciful as to aim at the life, but, on the contrary, to keep the beast alive till it be totally eaten up. Having satisfied the Mosaical law, according to his conception, by pouring these six or seven drops upon the ground, two or more men fall to work: on the back of the beast, and on each side of the spine, they cut skin-deep; then, putting their fingers between the flesh and the skin, they begin to strip the hide of the animal half-way down the ribs, and so on to the buttock, cutting the skin wherever it hinders them commodiously to strip the poor animal bare. All the flesh on the buttocks is then cut off, and in solid square pieces, without bones, or much effusion of blood; and the prodigious noise the animal makes is a signal for the company to sit down to table.

"There are then laid before every guest, instead of plates, round cakes, if I may so call them, about twice as big as a pan-cake, and somewhat thicker and tougher. It is unleavened bread, of a sourish taste, far from being disagreeable, and very easily digested, made of a grain called teff. It is of different colours, from black to the colour of the whitest wheaten-bread. Three or four of these cakes are generally put uppermost, for the food of the person opposite to whose seat they are placed. Beneath these are four or five of ordinary bread, and of a blackish kind: these serve the master to wipe his fingers upon, and, afterwards, the servant for bread to his dinner.

"Two or three servants then come, each with a square piece of beef in their bare hands, laying it upon the cakes of teff, placed like dishes down the table, without cloth or any thing else beneath them. By this time all the guests have knives in their hands, and the men have the large crooked ones, which they put to all sorts of uses during the time of war. The women have small clasped knives, such as the worst of the kind made at Birmingham, and sold for a penny each.

"The company are so ranged, that one man sits between two women; the man with his long knife cuts a thin piece, which would be thought a good beef-steak in England, while you see the motion of the fibres yet perfectly distinct, and alive in the flesh. No man in Abyssinia, of any fashion whatever, feeds himself, or touches his own meat. The women take the steak, and cut it length-ways, like strings, about the thickness of your little finger, then cross-ways, into square pieces, something smaller than dice: this they lay upon a piece of the teff-bread, strongly powdered with black or Cayenne pepper, and fossil-salt: they then wrap it up in the teff-bread, like a cartridge.

"In the mean time the man, having put up his knife, with each hand resting upon his neighbour's knee, his body stooping, his head low and forward, and his mouth open, very like an idiot, turns to the one whose cartridge is first ready, who stuffs the whole of it into his mouth, which is so full that he is in constant danger of being choaked. This is a mark of grandeur. The greater a man would seem to be, the larger piece he takes in his mouth; and the more noise he makes in chewing it, the more polite he is thought to be. They have, indeed, a proverb, that says—Beggars and thieves only eat small pieces, or without making a noise. Having despatched this morsel, which he does very expeditiously, his next female neighbour holds forth another cartridge, which goes the same way, and so on till he is satisfied. He never drinks till he has finished eating; and, before he begins, in gratitude to the fair ones that fed him, he makes up two small rolls of the same kind and form; each of his neighbours open their mouths at the same time, while with each hand he puts their portion into their mouths. He then falls to drinking, out of a large handsome horn: the ladies eat till they are satisfied, and then all drink together. A great deal of mirth and joke goes round, very seldom with any mixture of acrimony or ill-humour.

"All this time the unfortunate victim at the door is bleeding indeed, but bleeding little. As long as they can cut off the flesh from his bones, they do not meddle with the thighs, or the parts where the great arteries are. At last they fall upon the thighs likewise; and soon after the animal, bleeding to death, becomes so tough, that the cannibals, who have the rest of it to eat, find very hard work to separate the flesh from the bones with their teeth, like dogs.

"In the mean time, those within are much elevated; and every thing is permitted with absolute freedom: there is no coyness, no need of appointment or retirement, to gratify their wishes: there are no rooms but one; but in this they sacrifice both to Bacchus and Venus. When a couple leave their seats, the two men nearest the vacuum which they have made on the bench, hold their upper garments, like a screen, before them; and, when they resume their place at the table, their health is drank by the company; but not a licentious word is uttered, nor the most distant joke upon the transaction."

Although the Jesuits have written a great deal about marriage and polygamy, yet there is nothing which may be asserted more truly, than that there is no such thing as marriage in Abyssinia, unless that which is contracted by mutual consent, subsisting only till dissolved by dissent of one or other, and to be renewed as often as it is agreeable to both parties. Mr. Bruce tells us, that he was once, at Hoseam, in presence of the *iteghé*, where, in the circle, there were seven men who had all been the husbands of a woman of great quality, but none of them was the happy spouse at that time.

Upon separation, they divide the children. The eldest son falls to the mother's first choice, and the eldest daughter to the father. If there be but one son, he is the right of the mother; and, if the numbers are unequal after the first election, the rest are divided by lot. There is no such distinction as legitimate and illegitimate children, from the monarch to the humblest peasant; for supposing any one of their marriages valid, all the issue of the rest must be adulterous bastards.

In computing their time, the Abyssinians have continued the use of the solar year. Diodorus Siculus says, "they do not reckon their time by the moon, but according to the sun; thirty days constitute their month, to which they add five days and the fourth part of a day, and this completes their year. Whence they derive the name of their months cannot be possibly ascertained, as they have no signification in any of the languages of Abyssinia."

One method of describing time among these people is peculiar to themselves. They read the whole of the four evangelists every year, in their churches, beginning with St. Matthew, proceeding to Mark, Luke, and John, in order. When speaking of any particular event, therefore, they say, "it happened in the days of Matthew," that is, in the first quarter of the year, whilst the gospel of St. Matthew was yet reading in the churches. The time of the day is computed in a very arbitrary irregular manner. The twilight is very short, almost imperceptible, and was still more so, when the court was situated farther to the southward in Shoa. As soon as the sun falls below the hori-

zon, night comes on, and all the stars appear. This term, the twilight, they have chosen for the beginning of their day, and call it *naggé*, which is the very time the twilight of the morning lasts. The same is observed at night, and *meset* is meant to signify the instant of beginning twilight, between the sun's falling below the horizon and the stars appearing. Mid-day is called *kater*, a very old word, signifying culmination, or a thing being arrived at the highest part of an arch. All the rest of times they describe, in conversation, by pointing out the place in the heavens where the sun was when such and such circumstances happened

Mr. Bruce observes, that nothing can be more accurate than Abyssinian calculations; for, besides their ignorance of arithmetic, their aversion to study, and a number of fanciful combinations, by which every particular scribe or monk distinguishes himself, there are obvious reasons why there should be a varintion between their chronology and ours. Our years begin on the first of January, and their's on the first day of September, so that there are eight months difference between us. And in the reigns of their monarchs they seldom mention either month or day beyond an even number of years. Supposing, then, it be known that the reign of ten kings extended from such to such a period, where all the months and days are comprehended, when we come to assign to each of these an equal number of years, without the correspondent months and days, it is plain that, when all the separate reigns are added together, the one sum total cannot correspond with the other, but will be more or less than the just time which each prince swayed the sceptre.

Their funeral-ceremonies are few. As soon as the person has expired, and the body is washed, they perfume it with incense, sprinkle it with holy water, and, wrapping it in a sheet, place it on a bier. The bearers then take it, and hurry it away with such swiftness, that those who attend can hardly keep pace with them. When they come to the church or church-yard, (for they bury in either,) they again incense it, and throw plenty of holy water upon it. After the priest has read the first fourteen verses of the gospel of St. John, they shoot the corpse into the ground, instead of letting it down gently, the priest repeating the service, and the grave is immediately filled up. The relations mourn for their dead many days; and their lamentations begin early in the morning, and continue till the evening. The parents, relations, and friends, meet at the grave, together with women-mourners, hired to accompany the solemnity with their outcries, all clapping their hands, beating their breasts, and uttering the most affecting expressions.

The funerals of the kings and grandees are performed with great pomp and magnificence, and are accompanied with all the insignia of their dignity, and with the most solemn and doleful music, which is in a manner drowned by the loud cries and lamentations of the retinue. But they use neither torches or any other lights either in the procession or in the church.

The Agows, in whose country Mr. Bruce discovered the sources of the Nile, are, in point of number, one of the most considerable nations in Abyssinia: when their whole force is raised, they can bring into the field four thousand horse and a great number of foot: they were formerly much more powerful; but the frequent inroads of the Gallas have considerably diminished their strength. Their riches, however, are still greater than their power; for, although their province is no where sixty miles in length, nor half so much in breadth, yet Gondar and all the neighbouring country depend for cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and other useful articles, upon the Agows; who come constantly in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these commodities to the capital.

It is natural to suppose, that in a long carriage, such as that of a hundred miles, in a hot climate, butter must melt and be in a state of fusion, consequently very near putrefaction: this, however, is prevented by the root of a herb, called *mocmoco*, which nearly resembles the shape and colour of a carrot: this they bruise and mix with their butter; and a very small quantity preserves it fresh for a considerable time.

Besides the market of Gondar, the neighbouring Shangalla purchase the greatest part of these commodities from the Agows; and give, in exchange, elephants' teeth, rhinoceros' horns, gold, in small pellets, and a quantity of very fine cotton.

The clothing of the Agows consists entirely of hides, which they soften and manufacture in a method peculiar to themselves; and this they wear in the rainy season when the weather is cold, for here the wet seasons are very violent and of long duration. Their dress is like a shirt, reaching down to their feet, and girded with a belt about their waist: below the girdle it resembles a large double petticoat, one part of which they turn back over their shoulders, fastening it with a broach, or skewer, across their breast before. The women are generally thin, and, like the men, below the middle stature. There is no such thing as barrenness among them: they begin to bear children before they are eleven years of age, and generally leave off before they are thirty.

Besides what they sell, and what they pay to the governor of Damot, the Agows have a particular tribute, which they present to the king: one thousand dabra of honey, each dabra being a large earthen vessel, containing about sixty pounds weight. They also pay fifteen hundred oxen, and one thousand ounces of gold. The officer who keeps the accounts and sees the rents paid, is called Agow

Miziker: his post is worth a thousand ounces of gold, and by this it may be judged with what economy the revenue is collected.

The Agows are divided into clans, or tribes; and it is said that there never was a feud or hereditary animosity between any two of these clans; or if the seeds of discontent happened to be sown, they did not vegetate longer than till the next general convocation of all the tribes.

Once a year, upon the first appearance of the dog-star, the shum, or priest, assembles all the heads of the clans at the principal fountain of the Nile. Having sacrificed a black heifer, that never bore a calf, they plunge the head of it into this fountain; and then wrap it up in its own hide, so as no more to be seen. The carcase is next divided in half, and cleaned with extraordinary care; and, when thus prepared, it is laid upon the hillock over the first fountain, and washed all over with its water, while the elders carry water in their hands from the two other fountains; they then assemble upon a small hill to the west of St. Michael, where they cut the carcase into pieces, corresponding to the number of the tribes, and each tribe receives, as its privilege, a particular part. After having eaten the carcase raw, according to their custom, and drank the Nile water, to the exclusion of all other liquor, they pile up the bones, and burn them to ashes.

Having finished their banquet, they carry the heifer's head, closely wrapped from sight, into a cavern, which, they say, reaches below the fountains; and there, by a common light, without torches or a number of candles, they perform their worship, which appears to be a secret known to many, but revealed to none. At a certain time of the night they return from the cave; but our author could not learn whether the head was buried, eaten, or burnt. The Abyssinians have an absurd story, that the devil appears upon this occasion, and that with him the Agows eat the head, swearing obedience to him, upon the conditions of his sending rain, and a good season for their bees and cattle.

It is certain that the Agows pay divine honours to a spirit supposed to reside in the river, whom they call the "Light of the World, God of Peace, and Father of the Universe." The priest with whom Mr. Bruce resided, made no scruple of reciting his prayers for seasonable rain, for plenty of grass, and for the preservation of a particular kind of serpent: he also deprecated thunder very pathetically; and ascribed several titles of divinity to the river, which Mr. Bruce could perfectly comprehend without an interpreter.

Our author asked the priest, into whose good graces he had purposely insinuated himself, if ever the spirit of the river had been seen by him? He answered, "Yes, very frequently; and, in particular, about sun-set on the evening of the 3d, he had seen him under a tree, where he told him of the death of a son, and also that a party from Fasil's army was approaching; that, being afraid, he (the priest) consulted his serpent, who ate readily and heartily, from which he knew that no evil would befal him from his visitors." He said, "the spirit was of a very graceful figure and appearance; he thought rather older than middle age, but he seldom chose to look at his face; he had a long white beard, and his clothes were not of leather, but like silk, of the fashion of the country." Mr Bruce asked him, how he was certain it was not a man? at which he laughed, or rather sneered, shaking his head and saying, "No, no, it is no man, but a spirit." Our author then desired to know why he prayed against thunder. He said, "Because it was hurtful to the bees, and their greatest revenue consisted in honey and wax." And, on being asked, why he prayed for serpents, he replied, "Because they taught him the coming of good or evil." It seems, indeed, that all the Agows have several of these creatures in the neighbourhood; and the richer sort keep them in their houses. When they undertake a journey, or any affair of consequence, they take a serpent from his hole, and put butter and milk before him, of which he is extravagantly fond. If he devour it greedily, it is regarded as an auspicious omen; but, if he refuse to eat, misfortune is supposed to be near at hand.

SECTION III.

ABEX, OR HABESH.

This coast formerly constituted a part of the kingdom of Abyssinia; but at the commencement of the last century it fell into the hands of the Turks, who, at the same time, made themselves masters of all the bays and ports belonging to it; so that ever since the Abyssinians have been cut off from all communication with the Red Sea.

The climate of this coast being very sultry, and the soil, in general, sandy and barren, the productions must, of course, be scanty. Here are many animals, tame and wild; and they have some deer and sheep; but grain of every kind is brought from other parts. The country labours under a dearth of water.

Abex is divided into two parts, the northern and the southern. The towns of the northern are Suakin and Arkeko. The former is the residence of the governor, and is tolerably large and populous. The latter has a castle; but it is small, and thinly inhabited. The southern reaches to the end of the coast, and includes the province of Dancali, of which Abex is the capital. Of this part little can be said worthy of notice, but that its chief produce is salt. Here is a sea-port, called Balyur, at which the Portuguese missionaries first landed: and, as their reception and treatment from the king were rather singular,

the relation of them may not prove unacceptable to the reader.

"As soon as the king heard of their arrival, he sent to invite the patriarch or principal missionary and his retinue to his court, which was about three or four days' journey from Balyur, and despatched his own son to meet them in the way, and conduct them to the royal palace, or rather camp, which they found to consist only of half a dozen tents, with about twenty huts, fenced in with a thorn-hedge, and shaded by some wild kind of trees.

"The hall of audience, where they were received by the king, was a large tent or hut, about a musket-shot from the rest. At the upper end was a kind of throne, about two feet from the ground, made of stone and clay, and covered with a carpet and two velvet cushions. At the other end, opposite to the throne, was the king's horse, with the saddle and other accoutrements suspended on one side. Round the hall were about fifty young men, sitting cross-legged on the ground; and, when the Portuguese missionaries were admitted, they were made to sit down in the same posture.

"In a short time the king entered the hall, preceded by some of his domestics, one of whom carried an earthen pitcher, full of hydromel, or wine made of honey; another a drinking-cup, made of porcelain; a third carried a cocoa-nut shell, filled with tobacco; and a fourth a silver tobacco-pipe and some fire. Next to them came the king, dressed in a light silk-stuff, with a turban on his head, from the edges of which hung a parcel of rings, that dangled before his forehead. Instead of a sceptre, he held in his hand a short kind of javelin. He was followed by all the chief officers of his court and household; and among them were his lord high-steward, the superintendant of his finances, and the captain of his guard. The respect paid him at his coming in was by standing on their feet, and squatting down again twice; after which they went towards the throne to kiss his hand. The audience was short, but full of the most bombastic professions of love and esteem on his side, and of respect and gratitude on theirs: but this behaviour soon altered; for when, on the next morning, they came to make their presents to him, instead of the king's accepting them, the patriarch, who was the person that brought them to him, met with a severe reprimand for daring to affront a monarch like him with such trifling presents, and was ordered to take them out of his sight. The patriarch readily obeyed, without betraying either fear or any other emotion than that of disdain, after having given him to understand, that they were of more value than he ought to have expected from religious persons, who had renounced the world, and forsaken their native country, for the sake of carrying their religion into Abyssinia; and told him, at parting, that, since he did not think them worth his acceptance, the next he sent for from them should be much less valuable.

"This spirited behaviour of the patriarch greatly surprised the king, who suffered him to depart with the presents; but, being unwilling to lose them, sent one of his officers to fetch them back, with orders to insist upon some addition being made to them: but he was glad to take them as they were; the patriarch, on his side, insisting upon retrenching them; so that, when they were brought again, the covetous monarch received them with visible signs of dissatisfaction and resentment.

"The disgust in which he held the missionaries on this account was very soon evinced; for he not only detained them, upon some pretence or other, longer at his court than was necessary for getting things ready for their departure, but privately forbid his subjects to sell them any kinds of provisions at any price; so that they must have been obliged either to satiate his avarice by larger presents, or have been in danger of starving, had not the spirited patriarch expostulated with him on the impropriety of his conduct. Notwithstanding this, he not only postponed their departure from day to day, but suffered them to be insulted by his subjects, in hopes of finding some pretences for extorting from them farther presents for their dismission. To avoid this, the only expedient they could find was, to bribe one of his favourite ministers with a valuable gift, who soon after obtained their audience of leave, and such supplies of carriages, provisions, &c. as were necessary to proceed on their embassy to the court of Abyssinia."

CHAPTER VIII.

ZANGUEBAR, MONOMOTAPA, MONOEMUGI, SOFALA, &c.

SECTION I.

ZANGUEBAR.

THIS country received its name from the Arabs, the word Zangue, in their language, signifying black, all the inhabitants being of that colour. It is bounded, on the east, by the Indian Ocean; on the west, by Monoemugi; on the north, by Anian; and, on the south, by the River Cuama, which separates it from Monomotapa. It is very disproportionate in its extent, being one thousand four hundred miles in length, and not more than three hundred and fifty in the broadest part.

The coast is very extensive, and, in the course of it, has many rivers and islands. This part of the country is best known to Europeans, owing to the conquests made here by the Portuguese. The inland parts consist of a large, barren, and unhealthy tract; the lands lying low, and intersected by rivers, lakes, thick woods, forests, and marshy grounds. Most of the inhabitants are Arabs, being the descendants of those who were banished here from their own country, on account of their adherence to the sect of Ali, of which they are still zealous professors.

The principal river of this country is that called Quilmanci, which name was given it by the Portuguese, from a fort and town so called, built by them at the mouth of it.

The continental part of Zanguebar is divided into two kingdoms, Mosambique and Melinda.

Mosambique is divided into several provinces and lordships, each of which has a dialect peculiar to itself. The climate is sultry and unwholesome; but the soil is fertile, producing plenty of millet, rice, and several sorts of pulse; as also abundance of orange and lemon-trees. It abounds with wild beasts, particularly bears and elephants, the latter of which are so numerous, that the inhabitants are obliged to kindle fires round the fields, to prevent them from devouring the corn, nor dare they go abroad at night without carrying lighted torches in their hands, to frighten them away.

The inhabitants are of low stature, very black, and have short curled hair. They are naturally cruel and deceitful. Their towns are very small, and the buildings low and despicable. Their common food is the flesh of elephants, with bread made of millet and rice; from the latter of which they also make a kind of beer. The chief wealth of these people consists in gold, ebony, ivory, and slaves, all of which they sell to the Portuguese only; for they will not suffer any other foreigners to enter their country.

With respect to their religion, some of them are Christians, and others Mahometans; but the principal part are idolaters, and use all those superstitions and ridiculous customs practised in other idolatrous countries.

There are two small districts adjoining to the kingdom of Mosambique, called Mongalo and Angos: the former is situated near the mouth of the River Cuama, and is chiefly inhabited by Arabs; the other is also situated on a bank of the same river, about one hundred and sixty miles from the former. Both these places are fruitful, producing abundance of rice and millet; as also great quantities of cattle. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, but intermixed with negroes, who are idolaters, and remarkable for the lowness of their stature. They have no covering to the upper part of their bodies, but round their waists they wrap pieces of cotton or silk. Some of the better sort wear a turban on their heads The people of both these places carry on a commerce with the inhabitants of Monomotapa in gold, gums, elephants' teeth, &c.

Melinda is situated partly under the equinoctial line, and partly on both sides of it; for its southern boundaries lie under the second degree and thirtieth minute south latitude, and its northern extremity extends to the river Quilmanci. As this kingdom is well watered by rivers, the soil is in general fertile, and produces great abundance of the principal necessaries of life. It abounds also with a variety of fruit-trees, particularly orange, palm, and citron, the latter of which constantly perfume the air with an odoriferous scent.

The inhabitants of this kingdom differ greatly in their complexions, some of them being quite black, some of an olive-colour, and others almost white, particularly the women. The common people wear only a loose piece of cloth about their waists, but the better sort have a garment made of cotton or silk, which reaches from the waist to the knees, and on their heads they wear a turban. The women of rank appear in silk, and ornament their necks and arms, the former with strings of gold, and the latter with bracelets, made of the same metal.

The city of Melinda, the capital of the kingdom, is situated on a very agreeable plain, and contains a great number of houses, most of which are well built of freestone. It is the residence of the king, and in it are a great number of rich merchants, who trade with the Indians of Camboya in gold, ivory, copper, quicksilver, and all sorts of stuffs. The Portuguese are so numerous in this city, that they have built several handsome churches and chapels in it; and before one of the churches they have erected a stately cross of gilt marble.

The king's palace is a spacious edifice, built of stone, and neatly ornamented. Whenever the king goes abroad, he is carried in a sedan, on the shoulders of four of the greatest men in his kingdom, and incense and other perfumes are burned before him as he passes along the streets. At every town he enters, he is always met by a number of beautiful women, some of whom present him with flowers, and others go before him, scattering various kinds of perfumes.

The laws of the country are but few, and those wholly vested in the power of the king. If any one is found guilty of murder, he is immediately punished with death; but thefts and trifling offences are punished only by fine. If any of the king's grandees are detected in having imposed falsities on him, they are either sentenced to pay a fine, or to receive a number of blows, from the king's own hand, more or less, according to the greatness of the offence.

In the latter case, the method of inflicting the punishment is thus:—they strip the criminal naked, and lay him on the ground, in the apartment of the palace assigned for that purpose. The king then gives him a number of blows on his back and breech, with a kind of whip, made with two long pieces of leather, fastened to a stick. As soon as the king thinks he has sufficiently scourged him, he desists, when the criminal rises, puts on his clothes, kisses the king's feet, and thanks him in the most respectful and submissive manner.

The weapons used by the people of this kingdom are bows, arrows, darts, and shields. Some of them are Mahometans, but the principal part are idolaters. The Portuguese have made but few proselytes in this kingdom, the inhabitants being obstinate in preserving their own religious principles.

The country of Ajan is the boundary of Zanguebar towards the north. It lies between latitude two degrees and twelve degrees north, extending from the river Magadoxo to Cape Gardafui. All the eastern coast of Ajan is sandy and barren, but to the north the country is more fertile. The kings of Ajan are frequently at war with the emperor of Abyssinia, and sell the prisoners which they take: they trade likewise in ivory, gold, and horses of an excellent breed

SECTION II.

MONOMOTAPA.

Monomotapa is an extensive country, bounded, on the east, by the kingdom of Sofala; on the west, by the mountains of Caffraria; on the north, by the River Cuama, which separates it from Monoemugi; and, on the south, by the river del Spiritu Sancto. It is situated between the fourteenth and twenty-fifth degrees of south latitude, and between the forty-first and fifty-sixth of east longitude, being nine hundred and sixty miles in length, from east to west; and six hundred and sixty in breadth, from north to south.

This country is divided into six provinces, or petty kingdoms, the governors of which are vassals to the king of Monomotapa. The names of these provinces are, Monomotapa Proper, Quiteve, Manica, Inhambana, Inhamior, and Sabia.

Monomotapa Proper is the most considerable of the whole, and particularly distinguished for containing the capital city of the empire. It is situated in eleven degrees twenty-seven minutes south latitude, and thirty-one degrees ten minutes east longitude. It is large and populous, and the streets are very long and spacious. The houses are built with timber and earth, and the greatest ornament of the city is the imperial palace, which is a large spacious fabric, well flanked with towers, having four avenues, or stately gates, constantly kept by a numerous guard. The other towns in this province are all very insignificant, except one, called Tete, which is large and populous, and was formerly remarkable for being the residence of the Portuguese jesuits.

Quiteve lies to the south of Monomotapa Proper, and is bounded on the east by Sabia, on the west by Caffraria, and on the south by Manica. The capital city is called Lambave, and is situated about one hundred and twenty miles from Monomotapa Proper. It is large and populous, and the place where the king or governor of the province usually resides.

The province of Manica is bounded on the east by Sabia, on the west by Caffraria, on the north by Quiteve, and on the south by the river del Spiritu Sancto. The capital town is called after the name of the province. It is a small place, and poorly inhabited.

Inhambana lies southward from the above province, under the tropic of Capricorn, so that the air is exceeding sultry. The capital town is called Tongue, which, though small, is populous, owing to the number of Portuguese that reside there.

The province of Inhamior is very extensive, but contains not any thing that merits particular notice. Its chief town, of the same name, is the constant residence of the king or governor of the province.

Sabia is also very large, and well watered by two excellent rivers, one of which is called Sabia, and the other Arœ On the coast of this kingdom are the island of Bocica, and the Capes of St. Sebastian and St. Catherine.

The climate of Monomotapa is much more wholesome than many other parts of Africa, and the soil is so fertile, that it produces great plenty of the principal necessaries of life. It abounds with pasture-grounds, on which are bred prodigious quantities of cattle, especially oxen and cows.

The chief grains are rice and millet, and they have plenty of various kinds of tropical fruits. In the woods and forests are great numbers of wild beasts, particularly elephants, the latter of which the natives kill not only for their flesh, but also for their teeth: the former furnishes them with food, and of the latter they make considerable advantage, by selling them to the Portuguese.

The rivers of this country are very numerous, and on the banks of most of them grow many fine-trees and sugar-canes, without any culture. They abound with a variety of excellent fish, and in some of them is found gold, that is swept away from the mines through which they run in the more inland parts of the country.

The natives are in general tall, well shaped, strong, and healthy: they are quite black, and have woolly hair, which they ornament with a great variety of trinkets. They are of a very sprightly and docile disposition, notwithstanding which they are fond of being engaged in war, and prefer that employment to any other. The poorer sort are brought up to diving, and their chief business is to collect the sand or mud from the bottom of the rivers, ponds, and lakes, from which they separate the gold that is intermixed with it, and sell it to the Portuguese, in exchange for cotton and various other articles of merchandise.

Their common food is the flesh of oxen and elephants, with bread made of rice or millet, which is baked into thin cakes; and their drink is either sour milk or water. The better sort use strong liquors, made from honey, millet, rice, and several sorts of fruits; but they mostly esteem palm-wine, which is reckoned a royal liquor, and greatly used at court.

Polygamy is allowed here, as in most other parts of Africa, every man being permitted to take as many wives as he can maintain; but the first wife is the principal, and her children inherit the father's estate.

They pay a religious worship to the dead, every one preserving the bones of the most distinguished of his family. These they hang up in a court, and know to whom they belonged, by fixing certain marks on them. Every seventh day the relations visit them, being all dressed in white, which is the mourning of the country. They spread a table before them with provisions, then pray to the deceased for the king's prosperity, and afterwards sit down and regale themselves, which they look upon as the greatest honour that can be paid to the defunct. Some of the inhabitants here profess the Roman Catholic religion, to which they have been converted by the Portuguese; but the principal part of them are idolaters, and practise the most superstitious rites. They hold a festival on the day of every new moon, and on the anniversary of the emperor's birth. They shew a singular veneration for a certain virgin, whom they call Al Firoo, and have temples erected in honour of her: they have also many nunneries, in which some of them confine their daughters to perpetual celibacy.

The king has a prodigious number of wives, the principal of whom are the daughters of some of his vassal princes; but the first only is called queen. The princess and females of the highest rank always attend upon him: they discharge this business in their turns, and think it the highest honour to be so employed. He is waited on by a great number of officers, who keep most profound silence, except when he drinks, or happens to sneeze or cough, at which time one of them cries aloud, "Pray for the health and prosperity of the king:" as soon as the words are repeated, they all kneel, then rise, and testify their joy by the loudest acclamations.

He takes great pains to preserve the respect of his subjects: he exacts no taxes or tribute from them, instead of which he is satisfied with a trifling present when they apply to him for any particular favour. This is an universal custom from an inferior to a superior of every rank and denomination, and esteemed the highest mark of respect that can be shewn. If at any time he orders his subjects to labour either at the gold-mines or any other service, (as is sometimes the case,) he always sends them cows and other provisions, so that, instead of attending with reluctance, they obey his commands with the greatest cheerfulness.

His ministers and officers, both civil and military, as well as his soldiery, who subsist by his pay, are obliged, instead of taxes, to pay him a kind of service of seven days in every month, either in cultivating his grounds, or any other work he thinks proper to employ them in; the lords and nobles are also bound to the same service when required, unless exempted from it by some particular privilege granted to their family or office.

The king maintains a numerous army of foot, (for he has no cavalry,) there being but very few horses, and those not fit for the purpose, throughout his dominions. Wherever the king encamps, they erect a large wooden house, in which a fire must be kept constantly burning. Neither he nor any of his soldiers are permitted to wash their hands or face while the war continues: when it is over, and they have gained a complete victory, the spoil

is divided, the sovereign reserving one part to himself, and distributing the rest in proportionable shares to his officers and men. This equitable distribution has an excellent effect, as it animates the men, and makes them fight with distinguished intrepidity.

The laws of this country are very few; and so little occasion is there for the confinement of criminals, that there is not a single prison throughout the whole country. Those found guilty of murder are punished with death; but, in trifling matters, they only inflict corporal punishment, which is done by giving the party a certain number of strokes with a knotted cord, according to the nature of the crime.

There are gold-mines in the inland parts, which have produced very considerable advantages to the Portuguese. There are other mines, in different parts of the country, that produce excellent metal, particularly those near Batua, a small place bordering on the province of Manica, and extending itself from the Mountains of the Moon to the River Magnico, whose governor is a vassal to the king.

There are several considerable places between the mines and the sea-coast, where fairs and markets are held for the sale of gold, particularly at those towns which lie on the River Zezebe, and Cuama, where the Portuguese have built fortresses to keep the natives in awe, who come to those markets to exchange their gold for European and other commodities. In each of these markets they have an officer of their own, who decides all contests and differences that arise about their traffic: they have, likewise, in most of these towns, churches and monasteries, of the Dominican order.

The king of Monomotapa first permitted the Portuguese to build their forts here, in gratitude for the service they had done in contributing to reduce some revolted vassals to return to their obedience, as well as to enable them, on all such exigencies, to be near at hand to assist him. This was about the year 1640, since which time they have been on good terms with the sovereigns of the country.

The commodities which they bring the natives are chiefly cloths of various sorts, glass beads of different sizes and colours, and other trifling trinkets; in exchange for which, besides gold, they receive great quantities of ivory, furs of sundry wild and tame beasts, and other valuable articles, which make their commerce very advantageous.

SECTION III.

MONOEMUGI.

Monoemugi, being an inland country, is very little frequented by the Europeans. It is bounded on the east by part of Zanguebar, on the west by Matamba, on the north by Abyssinia, and on the south by Monomotapa

The account we have of this country is chiefly founded on the authority of the negroes, who carry on a commerce with it, European travellers not daring to venture into it, not only by reason of the unhealthiness of the climate, but also for fear of the inhuman Jaggas, who infest the more interior parts of it, and massacre all that happen to fall in their way.

The extent of this country cannot be ascertained, but that it is very great appears from the distance of its confines. The emperor is a powerful and rich prince, and has subdued most of the petty kingdoms about him to obedience.

Monoemugi is divided into five kingdoms, or provinces, all of which are governed by petty princes, subject to the emperor. The names of these are as follow, viz. Mujaco, Gingiro, Cambate, Alaba, and Monoemugi Proper.

Mujaco is bounded on the east by Abyssinia, on the west by Congo, on the north by Nubia, and on the south by Makoko. It is a large kingdom, but very poorly inhabited; neither does it contain any thing that deserves particular notice.

Gingiro, which is also a large kingdom, lies between Narea, the most southern kingdom of Abyssinia, and Makoko and Cambate. A writer, who travelled through this kingdom, says, the king preserves an extraordinary dignity, and that he contends with the sun; for which reason he never goes abroad, or gives audience, but before the sun rises, alledging that two suns cannot appear at once. His palace is no better than a cottage, which, when he dies, is always burnt, and his successor has a new one built for him, which is dedicated with the blood of two or three men, of a certain family, killed at the door, and on that account the said family is free from all other duties, which are so heavy, that they render this cruel composition acceptable; for, when the king buys any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in slaves, and these are the sons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleasure, without any opposition.

Cambate joins to the above kingdom on the west, and is bounded on the east by Alaba, on the north by Abyssinia, and on the south by Makoko. It is a poor country, and badly inhabited.

Alaba is a large kingdom, and situated on the coast of Cambate. It reaches to the coast of Zanguebar, and is inhabited by a cruel people, called Gallas. The prince is a Mahometan, but many of his subjects are idolaters, and of the worst sort, for they offer human sacrifices.

Monoemugi Proper is bounded on the east by Congo, on the west by Tranquebar, on the north by Monomotapa, and on the south by Makoko. This is the largest division of the whole, but not otherwise remarkable, except from its being the residence of the emperor.

The chief productions of this country, exclusive of the

respective mines of gold, silver, and copper, are palm-wine and oil. Honey is here so plentiful, that the negroes cannot consume one-third of it, so that they suffer the rest to be lost.

The natives dress in silks and cottons, which they buy of strangers, and wear collars of transparent beads, brought from Camboya. These beads serve also instead of money, gold and silver being so common that it is considered by them as of no value. They are most of them idolaters, and in their dispositions refractory and cruel.

SECTION IV.

SOFALA.

Sofala is an extensive kingdom; and, like Monomotapa, remarkable for containing many excellent mines of gold. It is bounded, on the east, by the Indian Sea; on the west, by the province of Manica; on the north, by the empire of Monomotapa; and, on the south, by the kingdom of Sabia. It is, properly speaking, a continued coast, extending itself from the River Cuama, on the north, to that of Magnico, or Del Spiritu Sancto, on the south. The inland parts are not extensive, being confined, on the west, by the empire of Monomotapa; notwithstanding which, the whole kingdom is computed to be, at least, two thousand two hundred and fifty miles in compass.

The most considerable rivers of this country are the Cuama and the Del Spiritu Sancto, both of which are supposed to take their rise from the Lake Goyama. The former received its name from the Portuguese; but it is generally called, by the natives, Zambere. This river washes down great quantities of gold, which the negroes collect when the waters are low, by diving to the bottom of such parts of it as, from practice, they know contain the greatest abundance. They bring up the mud in buckets, which, being properly levigated, easily discovers the metal.

On the coast are several capes, the principal of which are called Corientes, St. Catharine, and Sebastian. The former is situated under the twenty-third degree of south latitude: it is noted for the many rocks, sands, and shelves, that lie between it and the island of St. Laurence or Madagascar, and cause frequent shipwrecks along that channel.

The climate of Sofala is very unwholesome, occasioned by the vast number of marshes, which, being in summer dried up by the scorching heat of the sun, infect the air with pestilential steams. The soil, in general, is very uneven, barren, and desert. The inland parts abound with various sorts of wild beasts, particularly elephants, great numbers of which are annually killed by the natives, not only for the sake of their flesh, which is the chief part of their food, but also for their teeth, which they sell to great advantage to the Europeans. The number of these animals destroyed here by the natives is said, one year with another, to amount to near four thousand.

The inhabitants of this kingdom are, in general, well shaped, and have short curled hair: they cover themselves only from the waist to the knees, with a garment made of silk or cotton; but they adorn their arms, wrists, legs, and ankles, with rings of gold, amber, or coloured beads; the better sort wear turbans on their heads, and have swords by their sides, the handles of which are made of ivory, curiously inlaid with precious stones.

Their food consists of the flesh of elephants, large and small cattle, and fish, with which the rivers abound; instead of bread, they use rice and millet. The drink of the common people is water; but the better sort have a kind of beer, which is made of rice and millet: they have also some strong liquors, made from honey, palm, and various fruits.

The king and his court, with a great number of the principal people, are descendants of the Arabs, and not only speak that language, but also strictly profess the Mahometan religion: the original natives are permitted to retain their ancient customs, and their religious maxims, the latter of which are much the same as those observed in the principal parts of Africa.

Sofala, the metropolis, and the only place of any note, is pleasantly situated on a small island, at the mouth of the River Cuama. The Portuguese have built a strong fortress, which is of infinite service to them, as it secures their ships in the harbour, when they stop here in their passage to and from India. The articles they purchase of the natives are gold, ambergris, slaves, and elephants' teeth, in exchange for which they supply them with silks, stuffs, cotton, glass-beads, and other trinkets. Both the fortress and island are tributary to the king of Portugal.

The king keeps a great number of soldiers, who are all paid in gold-dust, each according to his rank. Their original weapons are bows and arrows, with the scymetar, javelin, dagger, and hatchet; but, since the arrival of the Portuguese, they have been taught the use of fire-arms, of which they are very fond, and exercise them with great dexterity.

The inhabitants of Quiloa, Mombaza, and Melinda, come to this country in small boats, called tambues, with stuffs of blue and white cotton, silk stuffs, yellow and red ambergris, which they exchange with the people here for gold and ivory. These again sell them to the inhabitants of Monomotapa, who give them gold in return, without weighing it; so that the profit of the exchange is very considerable. This is the reason that, when the Monomotapans come to purchase these articles, as soon as the Sofalans perceive their vessels at sea, they signify their joy, and bid them welcome, by lighting fires on the shore.

It is said that the gold-mines of this kingdom yield above two millions of metigals per annum, each metigal amounting to fourteen livres; that the ships from Zidem and Mecca carry off about two millions a year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mosambique, whose office lasts but three years, has above three hundred thousand crowns revenue, without including the soldiers' pay and the tribute annually paid to the king of Portugal. Hence many learned men are of opinion, that this is the Ophir to which Solomon sent ships every three years from Eziongeber to fetch gold, Eziongeber being thought to be Suez, a sea-port on the Red Sea. This conjecture is supported by the remains of several stately edifices, which are found in the different parts where the gold-mines are situated, and are supposed to have been originally palaces or castles, built by the king of Israel. It may also be confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who translate the word Ophir (1 Kings ix. 28) into Sophira, which has some resemblance to its present name of Sofala. As a farther confirmation of these conjectures, Lopez, in his voyage to India, says, the inhabitants of this country boast, that they have books which prove that, in the time of Solomon, the Israelites sailed every third year toward these parts, to procure gold.

CHAPTER IX.

INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFRICA;

FEZZAN, BORNOU, CASHNA, TOMBUCTOO, HOUSSA, DAR-FUR, &c.

COMPLAINTS having long existed, that Europeans knew very little, if any thing, of the *interior* of Africa, a number of learned and opulent individuals formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring that tract of country. The association was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. Lord Rawdon, the Bishop of Landaff, Sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of the correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Convinced of the importance of the object which the association had in view, the committee lost no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them, and, appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was Mr. Ledyard, and the other Mr. Lucas.

Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous task of traversing, from east to west, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the African continent. On this bold adventure he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

Hence he transmitted such accounts to his employers as manifest him to have been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Semaar, six hundred miles to the south of Cairo: but death arrested him at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

Mr. Lucas embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed over the desert of Zaara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit, by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford respecting the interior of the continent; and to return by way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

Mr. Lucas, however, was only able to execute a part of this plan. He set out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the pasha's eldest son, in company with sherefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan, intending to penetrate from Tripoli to Gambia: but his peregrinations, which began February 1, 1798, terminated at Mesurata on the 7th of the same month.

Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, he solicited the information of his fellow-travellers, and transmitted to the society the result of his conferences with a sheref, Imhammed, who described the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and

villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, distant south from Mesurata about three hundred and ninety miles. In this kingdom are some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some remarkably fertile districts, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil-alkali, called trona.

The narrative proceeds to state, that, south-east of Mourzook, at the distance of one hundred and fifty miles, is a sandy desert, two hundred miles wide, beyond which are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are said to be fertilized by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of senna.

For a more circumstantial account of this country we are indebted to the researches of Mr. Horneman.

On the 6th of September, 1798, this gentleman set out from Cairo with the Fezzan caravan, for the purpose of making discoveries in the interior of Africa. The caravan proceeded by Ummesogier, a small village, containing but few inhabitants, to the Oasis of Siwah, which is only twenty hours' journey from Ummesogier. Hence from Siwah the caravan proceeded by Augila, a town known to Herodotus, who places it at ten days' journey from the city of the Ammonians, to Temissa, in the territory of Fezzan; thence to Zuila, in the same territory; and thence to Mourzook, the capital, where it arrived on the 17th of November.

The cultivated part of the kingdom of Fezzan, according to Mr. Horneman, is about three hundred English miles in length from north to south, and two hundred miles from east to west; but the mountainous regions of Harutsch, to the east, and other districts to the south and west, are comprised within its territory. The borderers on the north are Arabs, dependent, though rather nominally than really, on Tripoli. To the east, the country is bounded by the mountains called the Black and White Harutsch, and by deserts; to the south and south-east is the country of the Tibboes; to the south-west, that of the wandering Tuaricks; and, to the west, the Arabs. The climate is, at no season, temperate or agreeable. During the summer, the heat is intense; and, when the wind blows from the south, it is scarcely supportable, even by the natives. The winter would be moderate, were it not that a bleak and penetrating north wind frequently prevails. It rains but seldom, and then but little in quantity; but violent winds are frequent. Dates may be considered as the natural and staple produce of the country; some senna is likewise grown in the western parts; and the climate and soil are adapted for wheat and barley; but, from the indolence of the people, their ignorance of the art of agriculture, and the oppressions of the government, there is not sufficient corn grown for the consumption of the inhabitants, who rely for subsistence on importations from the Arab countries from the north. There are but few horses or cattle in Fezzan; the principal domestic animal is the goat. Camels are extremely dear, and only kept by the principal persons and more wealthy merchants.

The population of the country is estimated by Mr. Horneman at seventy or seventy-five thousand souls. He says, it contains a hundred and one towns and villages, the names of the principal of which, next in order to Mourzook, the capital, and royal residence, are Sockna, Sibba, Hun, and Wadon, to the north; Gatron, to the south; Yerma, to the west; and Zuila, to the east.

"The complexion of the Fezzaners," says our author, "is a deep brown; their hair is black and short; their form of face such as may be termed regular, and their nose less flattened than that of the negro. They are but of an ordinary stature, and their limbs are by no means muscular. Their mien, walk, and every motion and gesture, denote a want of energy, either of mind or body. Their dress consists of a shirt or frock, made of a coarse linen or cotton cloth, brought from Cairo, and coarse woollen cloth of their own manufacture, called abbe. The middling classes wear frocks, made at Souda, of dyed blue cloth. The richer people and the Mamlukes of the sultan are clothed in the Tripolitan habit, over which they wear a Soudan shirt of variegated pattern and colours, and likewise the abbe. The ornamental distinctions of dress are chiefly confined to the head-dress, and to rings on the arms and legs. The women of distinction divide their hair into curls or tresses, to which they fix pieces of coral and amber, and little silver bells. They also fasten to the top of the head silver cords, on which are strung a number of silver rings, which hang on each side pendent to the shoulder. The meaner women wear merely a string of glass beads, and curl their hair above the forehead into large ringlets, into which severally is stuffed a paste, made of lavender, caraway-seeds, cloves, pepper, mastich, and laurel-leaves, mixed up with oil. The women of Fezzan generally have a great fondness for dancing, and the wanton manners and public freedoms which are permitted among them, astonish the Mahometan traveller. The men are much addicted to drunkenness. Their beverage is the fresh juice of the date-tree, called lugibi, or a drink called busa, which is prepared from dates, and is very intoxicating.

"The commerce of Fezzan is considerable, but consists merely of foreign merchandise. From October to February, Mourzook is the great market and place of resort for various caravans, from Cairo, Tripoli, Soudan, and companies of Tibboe and Arab traders. The caravans from the south and west bring to Mourzook slaves of both sexes ostrich-feathers, tiger-skins, and gold,

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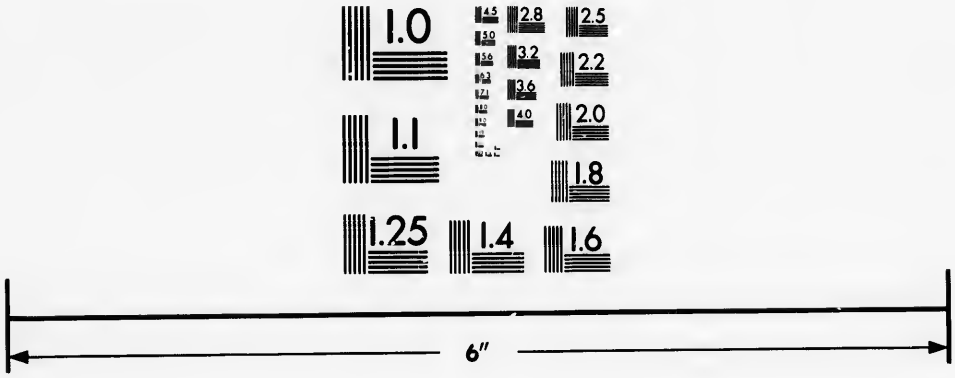

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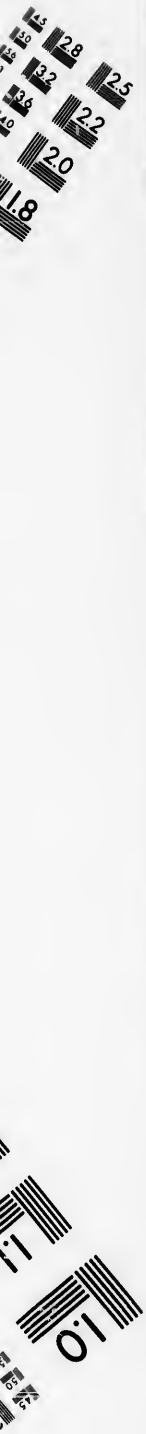
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partly in dust, and partly in native grains, to be manufactured into rings and other ornaments, for the people of Interior Africa. From Bornou, copper is imported in great quantities; from Cairo, silks and woollen cloths; and from Tripoli, fire-arms, sabres, knives, &c.

"Fezzan is governed by a sultan, descended from the family of the sherefs. His power over his own dominions is unlimited; but he holds them tributary to the pasha of Tripoli. The tribute was formerly six thousand dollars, but it is now reduced to four thousand; and an officer from Tripoli comes annually to Mourzook, to receive this sum, or its value in gold, senna, or slaves. The throne is hereditary; but the crown does not, in all cases, descend directly from father to son; the eldest prince of the royal family succeeds, perhaps a nephew, in preference to a son who is younger. This custom frequently occasions contest and bloodshed. The sultan's palace is situate within the castle or fortress of Mourzook, where he lives retired, with no other inmates but the eunuchs who wait on him. His harem, consisting of a sultana and about forty slaves, is contiguous: he never enters it; but the female whom he at any time wishes to see is conducted to his apartment. The apparel of the sultan, on days of state and ceremony, consists of a large white frock or shirt, made in the Soudan manner, of stuff, and brocaded with silver and gold, or of satin interwoven with silver. Under this frock he wears the ordinary dress of the Tripolitans: but the most remarkable appearance is that of his turban, which, from the fore to the hinder part, extends a full yard, and is not less than two-thirds of a yard in breadth. The revenues of the sultan are produced from a tax on cultivated lands, from duties on foreign trade, paid by the caravans, from royal domains, and predatory expeditions.

"The religion of the Fezzaners is Mahometanism. Justice is administered by an officer called a cadi, who is here, at the same time, the head of the clergy, and possesses great influence and authority with the people.

"The title of the present sultan of Fezzan is, 'Sultan Mohammed ben Sultan Mansur;' but, when he writes to the pasha of Tripoli, he only styles himself sheref.

"This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Cashna, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which extends from the river of the Antelopes for twelve hundred miles westward, and including a great part of the Niger's course. Cashna is said to contain a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are spoken. The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country, its capital being situated within a day's journey of the River Wod-el-Gazel, which is lost in the sandy wastes of the desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whose wealth consists in their cattle. Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here grapes, apricots, pomegranates, limes, lemons, and water and musk melons, are produced in great abundance; but one of the most valuable vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which in form and height resembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes when bruised, and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for oil. Bees are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away, as an article of no value in the market. The population is described by the expression, *a countless multitude.*"

We shall pass over the nature of their religion, which is Mahometan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign: but the account of the present sultan, his wives, and his children, is too curious not to be transcribed.

"The present sultan, whose name is Ali, is a man of an unostentatious plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be five hundred in number, and he himself is described as the reputed father of three hundred and fifty children, of whom three hundred are males; a disproportion of which naturally suggests the idea, that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger.

"South-east from Bornou lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and beyond this are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and cannibals. These are annually invaded by the Begarmese; and, when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee.

"The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou."

Under the patronage of the same society for making discoveries in the interior of Africa, Mr. Mungo Park performed a journey eastward, from the mouth of the Gambia to Silla, on the River Niger, above a thousand miles from the Atlantic; and, to use the words of Major Rennell, brought to our knowledge more important facts respecting the geography of Western Africa, both moral and physical, than have been collected by any former traveller.

Mr. Park set out from Pisania, a British factory on the banks of the Gambia, on the 2d of December, 1795, and took his route through the kingdoms of Woolli, Bondou, Kayaaga, Kasson, and Kaarta.

The dominions of the king of Woolli are bounded, on the east, by the Simbani Wilderness; on the west, by Walli; on the north-east, by Bondou; and, on the north, by the Gambia.

The towns are mostly seated in valleys, surrounded by some cultivated spots, whose produce yields an equivalent to the wants of the natives; supplying them with vegetables, tobacco, cotton, &c., while the circumjacent country is universally covered with thick woods and extensive forests.

The natives of Medina, the capital, who are Mandingoes, are divided into two religious sects: the one profess obedience to Mahomet, and the other retains the pagan ceremonies, and are denominated Bushreens, or Kafirs. Those who endure this term of reproach are, nevertheless, the rulers of the nation, and far exceed the Mahometans in their number. The converts to the Koran are, indeed, consulted on any business of public consequence; but the executive power is vested exclusively in the hands of their king or mansa, with the great officers of his appointment, who retain the ancient rites of their ancestors.

On the demise of the sovereign, the crown descends to his eldest son, unless a minor; but if there is no male issue, or if the prince has not attained to the years of maturity, either the brother of the deceased monarch, or his other nearest relative, is established, by consent of a council, with full powers to guide the political helm. The expences attendant upon this government are cleared by the taxes which are paid for all goods conveyed through the country, and likewise by a tribute, which is occasionally exacted from the inhabitants. When travellers proceed from the Gambia to the interior, the customs are claimed in various European articles; but, on their return, con will suffice, which must, however, be paid in every own they enter.

Medina in its extent is considerable, and may probably contain near a thousand houses. The fortifications are in the African style, consisting of a high clay-wall, and an exterior defence of sharp stakes and thorny bushes; but the wall is evidently falling to decay, through the negligence of the people; and the outwork has suffered materially from the industry of the females, who frequently remove the stakes to their own habitations, to supply the want of other fuel.

Mr. Park, in the course of his travels, arrived at a village called Konjour, where, having purchased a sheep, the negro who had killed the animal demanded the horns as his perquisite.

From an enquiry of the interpreter, who attended Mr. Park, concerning the value of those things, he understood they were highly prized, as being easily appropriated to the purpose of cases or sheaths, to contain the saphies, which the people superstitiously fasten to some part of their apparel. These saphies, which are commonly detached sentences from the Koran, written on small bits of paper by the priests of Mahomet, are supposed, by the natives, to include some peculiar virtues, and therefore they wear them as amulets or charms, to defend them from the poison of serpents, the attack of alligators, the weapons of their foes, and the natural diseases of the human body.

They have likewise the weakness to imagine that hunger and thirst may be prevented by the possession of these wonderous papers, and the protection of superior intelligences thereby conciliated. Indeed, the art of writing is, on this part of the continent, considered in itself as a species of magic, and upon that idea they rest their opinions with much greater confidence than on the doctrines of the prophet.

The country of Bondou, like that of Woolli, is generally covered with woods; but its native fertility, in the opinion of our traveller, is not surpassed by any part of Africa. The name of the capital of this country is Fattecenda. The inhabitants are of the tribe of the Foulahs, who are in general of a tawny complexion, with small features, and soft silky hair. The Foulahs of Bondou are naturally of a mild and gentle disposition; but they evidently consider all the negro natives as their inferiors; and, when talking of different nations, always rank themselves among the white people.

In Kayaaga, the next kingdom, the air and climate are more pure and salubrious than at any of the settlements towards the coast; the face of the country is every where interspersed with a pleasing variety of hills and valleys; and the windings of the Senegal river, which descends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the scenery on its banks very picturesque and beautiful. The inhabitants are called Serawoollies, or, as the French write it, Seracolets. Their complexion is a jet black; their government is a despotic monarchy; and they are habitually a trading people.

In the kingdom of Kasson, of which Kooniakary is the capital, from the top of a high hill, Mr. Park had an enchanting prospect of the country. The number of towns and villages, and the extensive cultivation around them, surpassed every thing he had yet seen in Africa. A gross calculation may be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact, that the king of Kasson can raise four thousand fighting men by the sound of his war-drum.

At Kemmoo, the capital of Kaarta, Mr. Park had an audience of the king, who advised him to return to Kasson;

telling him, it was not in his power at present to afford him much assistance, for that all kind of communication between Kuarta and Bambarra had been interrupted for some time past, in consequence of a war between the two kingdoms. Our traveller, however, resolved to continue his journey, and proceeded to Jarra, a town in the kingdom of Ludamar, whence he sent presents to Ali, the sovereign, then encamped at Benowm, requesting permission to pass through his territories. Several days afterwards, one of Ali's slaves arrived with instructions, as he pretended, to conduct him as far as Goomba, on the farther frontier; but, before he arrived there, he was seized by a party of Moors, who conveyed him to Ali, at Benowm, who detained him a prisoner more than three months. He, however, at length found means to make his escape, in the confusion which ensued in consequence of the success of the army of the king of Kaarta, who had invaded the country. His joy at his escape, he tells us, it is impossible to describe; but he soon found that his real situation was distressful in the extreme. He was in the midst of a barren wilderness; and, after travelling a long time, exposed to the burning heat of the sun, reflected with double violence from the hot sand, his suffering from thirst became so intolerable that he fainted on the sand, and expected the immediate approach of death. Nature, however, at length resumed its functions, and, on recovering his senses, he found the sun just sinking behind the trees, and the evening become somewhat cool. It soon after rained plentifully for more than an hour, and he quenched his thirst by wringing and sucking his clothes, by which he was sufficiently relieved to enable him to pursue his journey; and, after travelling several days more, he at length came in sight of one of the principal objects pointed out for his research—the river Niger. "I saw," says he, "with infinite pleasure, the great object of my mission—the long-sought-for majestic Niger, glittering to the morning sun, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly to the eastward. I hastened to the brink, and, having drunk of the water, lifted up my fervent thanks in prayer to the Great Ruler of all things, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with success."

Mr. Park had now reached Sego, the capital of Bambarra, which is thus described:—

Sego, properly speaking, includes four separate towns, two of which are seated on the southern banks of the river, and bear the names of Sego See Korro and Sego Soo Korro; and two are built on the opposite side, which are Sego Korro and Sego Boo, and each of these is surrounded by a high mud-wall. The houses are generally square, with flat roofs, some of them two stories high, built of clay, and occasionally white-washed. Mosques are also frequent in every division of the capital. The streets are tolerably broad, considering that wheel-carriages are unknown, and the population is estimated at thirty thousand inhabitants.

Sego See Korro is the residence of the monarch, who derives a considerable part of his revenue from passengers crossing the Niger, under the care of his slaves, who convey them over in a sort of canoe, formed of two large trees, hollowed out and united at the end, by which uncommon junction they appear of a disproportionable length; they are also destitute of decks and masts, but are sufficiently roomy to contain four horses and several people with ease.

While our traveller stood waiting on the banks, for an accommodation in one of these vessels, the king was informed that a white man intended to visit him; but, on this intelligence, a messenger was despatched to tell the stranger, that his majesty could not possibly admit him to his presence till he understood the cause of his arrival, and also to warn him not to cross the river without the royal permission. This message was accordingly delivered by one of the chief natives, who advised Mr. Park to seek a lodging in an adjacent village, and promised to give him some requisite instructions in the morning.

Our author immediately complied with this counsel; but, on his entering the village, he had the mortification to find every door indiscriminately closed against him. He was, therefore, obliged to remain all the day without food, beneath the shade of a tree, till about sun-set, when, as he was turning his horse loose to graze, and expected to pass the night in this lonely situation, a woman stopped to gaze at him, as she returned from her employment in the field; and, observing his dejected looks, enquired from what cause they proceeded; which, on hearing explained, she immediately took up his saddle, and desired him to follow her to her residence, where, after lighting a lamp, she presented him with some broiled fish, spread a mat for him to lie upon, and gave him permission to continue beneath her roof till morning. Having performed this beneficent action, she summoned her female companions to their spinning, which occupied the chief part of the night, while their labour was beguiled by a variety of songs, one of which was observed by our author to be an extemporaneous effusion, occasioned by his own adventure. The air was remarkably sweet and plaintive, and the words were literally the following:

"The winds roared, and the rain fell. The poor white man, faint and weary, came and sat under our tree.—He has no mother to bring him milk; no wife to grind his corn.

"Chorus—Let us pity the white man; no mother has he."

To which we subjoin the following imitation, from the pen of the Rev. Thomas Smith:

Loud roar'd the wind, while sheets of rain
Descending, delug'd all the plain,
Nor left the mountains free:
When, faint and wearied with the storm,
The white man threw his languid form
Beneath our spreading tree.
Unhappy man! how hard his lot,
Far from his friends, perchance forgot,
As thus he sits forlorn!
He boasts no mother to prepare
The fresh-drawn milk, with tender care;
No wife to grind his corn.

CHORUS.

With glad consent let ev'ry breast
Relieve and pity the distrest!
To him let each a parent be,
For parent none, alas! has he.

Grateful for the kindness he had received, Mr. Park, on quitting his bed, made a small acknowledgment to his benevolent hostess, and remained all day at the village, to oblige the natives, who anxiously crowded to survey him.

A messenger now arrived from the sovereign, to enquire whether any present was prepared for him; which, being answered in the negative, a second person was despatched from the court, who informed our author, that it was his majesty's desire he should immediately depart from Sego; but, anxious to relieve a white man in distress, he had graciously sent him five thousand cowries, and had given orders for his departure, which our traveller immediately obeyed.

Mr. Park observes, that the view of this extensive city, the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state of the surrounding country, formed altogether a prospect of civilization and magnificence, which he little expected to find in the bosom of Africa. Sego is situate, as nearly as can be ascertained, in fourteen degrees ten minutes of north latitude, and two degrees twenty-six minutes of west longitude.

From Sego, Mr. Park continued his journey along the banks of the Niger to Silla, a large town, about eighty miles to the east of Sego; and here, the tropical rains being set in, his finances expended, and various other difficulties concurring to render his farther progress extremely dangerous, if not impracticable, he terminated his travels to the eastward, at a point somewhat more than sixteen degrees east of Cape Verd, and precisely in the same parallel. The line of distance arising from this difference of longitude is about nine hundred and forty-one geographical, or one thousand and ninety British, miles, within the western extremity of Africa, a point which, although short by two hundred miles of the desired station, Tombucto, the attainment of which would unquestionably have been attended with great eclat, was yet far beyond what any other European, whose travels have been communicated to the European world, had ever reached.

Mr. Park gives the following account of Tombucto and Houssa, from the information he was able to collect concerning those cities, at Sego, and in the course of his journey:

"To the north-east of Masina (a kingdom on the northern bank of the Niger, at a short distance from Silla) is situated the kingdom of Tombucto, the great object of European research; the capital of this kingdom being one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which the Moors carry on with the negroes. The hopes of acquiring wealth in this pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this extensive city with Moors and Mahometan converts; the king himself, and all the chief officers of state, are Moors; and they are said to be more severe and intolerant in their principles than any other of the Moorish tribes in this part of Africa. I was informed by a venerable old negro, that, when he first visited Tombucto, he took up his lodging at a sort of public inn, the landlord of which, when he conducted him to his hut, spread a mat on the floor, and laid a rope upon it, saying, 'If you are a Mussulman, you are my friend; sit down: but, if you are a Kafir, (infidel,) you are my slave, and with this rope I will lead you to market.' The present king of Tombucto is named Abu Abrahima. He is reported to possess immense riches. His wives and concubines are said to be clothed in silk; and the chief officers of state live in considerable splendour. The whole expence of government is defrayed, as I was told, by a tax upon merchandise, which is collected at the gates of the city.

"The city of Houssa (the capital of a large kingdom to the eastward of Tombucto) is another great mart for Moorish commerce. I conversed with many merchants who had visited that city; and they all agreed that it is larger and more populous than Tombucto. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the same in both; but in Houssa the negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors, and have some share in the government."

Mr. Park was likewise told by a sheref, who resided at Walet, the capital of the kingdom of Beeroo, to the northward of Sego, and who had visited Houssa, and lived some years at Tombucto, that Houssa was the largest town he had ever seen; that Walet was larger than Tombucto; but, being remote from the Niger, and its trade consisting chiefly of salt, it was not so much resorted to by strangers: that between Benowm and Walet was ten days' journey; but the road did not lead through any remarkable towns, and travellers supported themselves by purchasing milk from the Arabs, who keep their herds by the watering places: two of the days' journey was over a sandy country, without water. From Walet to

Tombucto was eleven days more: but water was more plentiful, and the journey was usually performed upon bullocks. He said, there were many Jews at Tombucto; but they all speak Arabic, and use the same prayers as the Moors.

We shall here add a short account of the country of Dar-Fur, another kingdom of the interior of Africa, lately visited by Mr. Browne. "Dar-Fur, or the country of Fur, is situated to the south of Egypt and Nubia, and to the west of Abyssinia. Cobbe, its capital, stands, according to Mr. Browne, in fourteen degrees eleven minutes of north latitude, and twenty-eight degrees eight minutes of east longitude. In Dar-Fur wood is found in great quantity, except where the rocky nature of the soil absolutely impedes vegetation; nor are the natives assiduous completely to clear the ground, even where it is designed for the cultivation of grain. The perennial rains, which fall here from the middle of June till the middle of September, in greater or less quantity, but generally both frequent and violent, suddenly invest the face of the country, till then dry and sterile, with a delightful verdure. The tame animals in Dar-Fur are camels, sheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild ones, lions, leopards, hyænas, wolves, jackals, and elephants, which, in the places they frequent, go, according to report, in large herds of four or five hundred; it is even said that two thousand are sometimes found together. The antelope and ostrich are also extremely common. The population of the country Mr. Browne estimates at two hundred thousand souls: Cobbe, the capital, he thinks, does not contain more than six thousand inhabitants. This town is more than two miles in length, but very narrow; and the houses, each of which occupies within its inclosure a large portion of ground, are divided by considerable spaces. The walls of the houses are of clay, and the people of higher rank cover them with a kind of plaster, and colour them white, red, and black. The disposition of the natives of Dar-Fur is more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. Dancing is practised by the men as well as the women, and they often dance promiscuously. But the vices of thieving, lying, and cheating, are here almost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is safe out of the sight of the owner. Their religion is the Mahometan; but they allow polygamy without limitation; and they are little addicted to jealousy. To the women are assigned the most laborious employments: they till the ground, gather in the corn, make the bread, and even build the houses. The government is despotic; though the monarch can do nothing contrary to the koran. He speaks of the soil and productions as his personal property, and of the people as his slaves. His revenues arise from the tenth of all merchandise imported; the tribute of the Arabs who breed oxen, horses, camels, and sheep; and some other duties: the sultan is, besides, the chief merchant in the country, and despatches with every caravan to Egypt a great quantity of his own merchandise.

CHAPTER X.

TERRA DE NATAL, CAFFRARIA, CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, AND COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

SECTION I.

TERRA DE NATAL.

THIS country, called Terra de Natal, from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Christmas-day, comprehends about three degrees of latitude from north to south. The River Dellagoa, which bounds the country on the north, is navigable, and has been frequented by European ships, for the purposes of trade. There is plenty of water here. The woods produce good timber, and the fields are covered with grass. They have a variety of beasts and birds. But, though the sea and rivers abound with fish, the natives seldom take any but tortoises, and that chiefly when they come ashore to lay.

The natives of this country are of a middle stature, and tolerably well proportioned; the colour of their skins is black, and their hair crisped: they are oval-visaged; their noses neither flat nor high; their teeth are white, and their aspect altogether graceful. Their chief employment is agriculture. Their cattle are numerous, and carefully attended. The men and women have their respective occupations, and their apparel is light, but mean. Their ordinary subsistence is Guinea-corn, beef, fish, milk, eggs, &c. They are of a facetious and social disposition. They live in small villages, under the government of the oldest man; and those who live in one village are all related; and, as an amiable characteristic, they are just and civil to strangers.

SECTION II.

CAFFRARIA.

This part of Africa was visited by those eminent botanists Sparrman and Thunberg, in the years 1771 and 1772, and by Mr. Barrow, eminent for his skill in astronomy, mathematics, and mechanics, in 1797 and 1798. The latter, from long residence and personal researches, has been enabled to ascertain the geography, state, and produce, of the country, with greater precision than any who have preceded him. To him, therefore, we are principally indebted for the following particulars.

Soil, Climate, and Produce.] The soil of Caffraria is a blackish loamy ground, and so extremely fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. The bread-tree, which is a species of palm, rises to no great height, but is very thick, and from the pith the natives contrive to make their bread. They, however, bury it first in the earth for the space of two months; and, when it is sufficiently decayed, they knead it into cakes, which they bake in the embers. There are great variations in the climate. It seldom rains, except in the summer-season, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furnishes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, found in the woods, which produce a variety of arboreous plants, and some of a considerable size. Among the animals are elephants, buffaloes, &c. There are also varieties of beautiful birds, but they are so shy, that they are procured with the greatest difficulty.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The male Caffres are tall, robust, and muscular, distinguished by a peculiar firmness of carriage, and a fine ingenuous countenance; some of them are six feet ten inches high, and so elegantly proportioned, that, Mr. Barrow affirms, they would not have disgraced the pedestal of Hercules in the Farnese palace. Their colour is a jet black. Their skins and short curling hair are rubbed with a solution of red ochre, that gives them the romantic appearance of bronze figures. They are, in general, destitute of raiment, except a few, who are covered with cloaks of skins.

The features of the Caffre women are agreeable: they have a well-formed contour, an agreeable nose, with sparkling and expressive eyes; so that, setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many among them who might be thought handsome by the side of an European female.

The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and brass-rings. They are seldom seen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusks of an elephant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then polish and round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to make them large enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise, according to the motion of the arm: sometimes they place small rings on the arms of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and fixes the ornament.

They likewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they polish and whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content themselves with the leg-bone of a sheep hanging on the breast. In the warm season only the Caffres wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold they make use of krosses, made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. The Caffre women care little for ornaments. Their aprons are bordered with small rows of beads: but this is the only finery they exhibit.

The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffre woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a kross, or cloak, of calf or ox skin, divested of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy season that either sex wear it.

The huts of the Caffres form perfect hemispheres, and are composed of wooden work, very strong and compact, covered, both within and without, with a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or door-way, is so low, that, to enter the dwelling, it is necessary to crawl on the hands and knees; which makes it easier to defend themselves against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place, is in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim, which rises two or three inches.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of this people. The women are employed in the care of their gardens and corn; and cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country; such as tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. They also make baskets, and the mats which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please; and they teach them to answer a whistle. When they wish them to return home, they go a little way from the house, and blow a small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The government is vested in a chief or king, whose power is very limited. He receives no tax, and has no troops at his command; but, being the father of a free people, is respected and beloved, though poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed; and, as these are his only resources for the

maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither larger nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a groupe of a dozen or fifteen huts: the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

The sovereignty is hereditary, and, in default of male heirs, the eldest nephew succeeds; and, in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these occasions a spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues, which generally end in bloodshed.

The following account, for which we are indebted to Mr. Browne, will give an idea of the nature of royalty in this country, in the year 1797.

On the arrival of the travellers at a village that was honoured by the residence of the king, they were kindly received by the queen and his majesty's mother, who informed them, that the monarch was at his grazing village, about ten miles distant, to which a messenger was instantly despatched, while the travellers were entertained by the conversation and vivacity of the royal females.

Gaika, the sovereign, came galloping to the village upon an ox, with several attendants, and received the strangers under the shade of a spreading tree. After a short conversation, which reflected the highest honour on the sense and prudence of the young monarch. he received a present, consisting of sheets of copper, brass-wire, knives, beads, looking-glasses, and tobacco, and assured them of his favour and protection.

The monarch, who was at this time under twenty years of age, was about five feet ten inches high, of an elegant form, and graceful deportment; his eyes were brown and animated, his teeth white as unsullied ivory, and his countenance strongly marked with the habit of reflection. Vigorous in his mental, and amiable in his personal, qualities, Gaika was at once the friend and ruler of a happy people, who universally pronounced his name with transport, and blessed his abode as the seat of felicity.

His dress consisted of a cloak, faced with the skin of a leopard, large ivory bracelets, a necklace of beads, and a fanciful chaplet, adorned on the left side with a brass-chain; but these ornaments are only worn occasionally, as the king is usually destitute of apparel, like the generality of his subjects.

The queen, who was very young, and agreeably featured, was merely distinguished from the other females by a cloak, with three rows of brass-buttons, that extended from the hood to the extremity of the skirt. Mr. Browne observed, that the skin-caps of the women were covered with a profusion of buttons, shells, or beads, variously placed, according to the suggestions of their own fancy.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies. They instruct their own children, having no priests; but, instead of them, a kind of sorcerers or conjurers, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, proves that they either owe their religion to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance.

It is a custom among the Caffres for each to gather his own grain, which they grind between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small horde sometimes to occupy a square league of ground. The distance of the different hordes make it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several hordes.

The principal weapon of the Caffres is the lance, or assaygay; which shews his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble; despising, as below his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours, seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war, he carries a shield, of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffalo; this defends him from the arrow, or assaygay, but it is not proof against a musket-ball. The Caffre also manages with great skill a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. In a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, and frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces.

Polygamy is allowed to all, but chiefly confined to the chiefs, who generally purchase their wives from a neighbouring nation. The other inhabitants are seldom able to purchase more than one; and, as the females of this country regard themselves as the absolute property of their parents, any suitor, who is able to advance the sum demanded, may rest assured of success.

In cases of infidelity, which seldom occur, the punishment is a fine, with the dismissal of the wife, at her husband's option; but, if he receives ocular demonstration of his dishonour, he is permitted to sacrifice both the parties to his indignation. A murderer is instantly put to death, unless the fact was accidental, when he must pay a certain fine to the relatives of the deceased, as a compensation for their loss. Imprisonment is totally unknown

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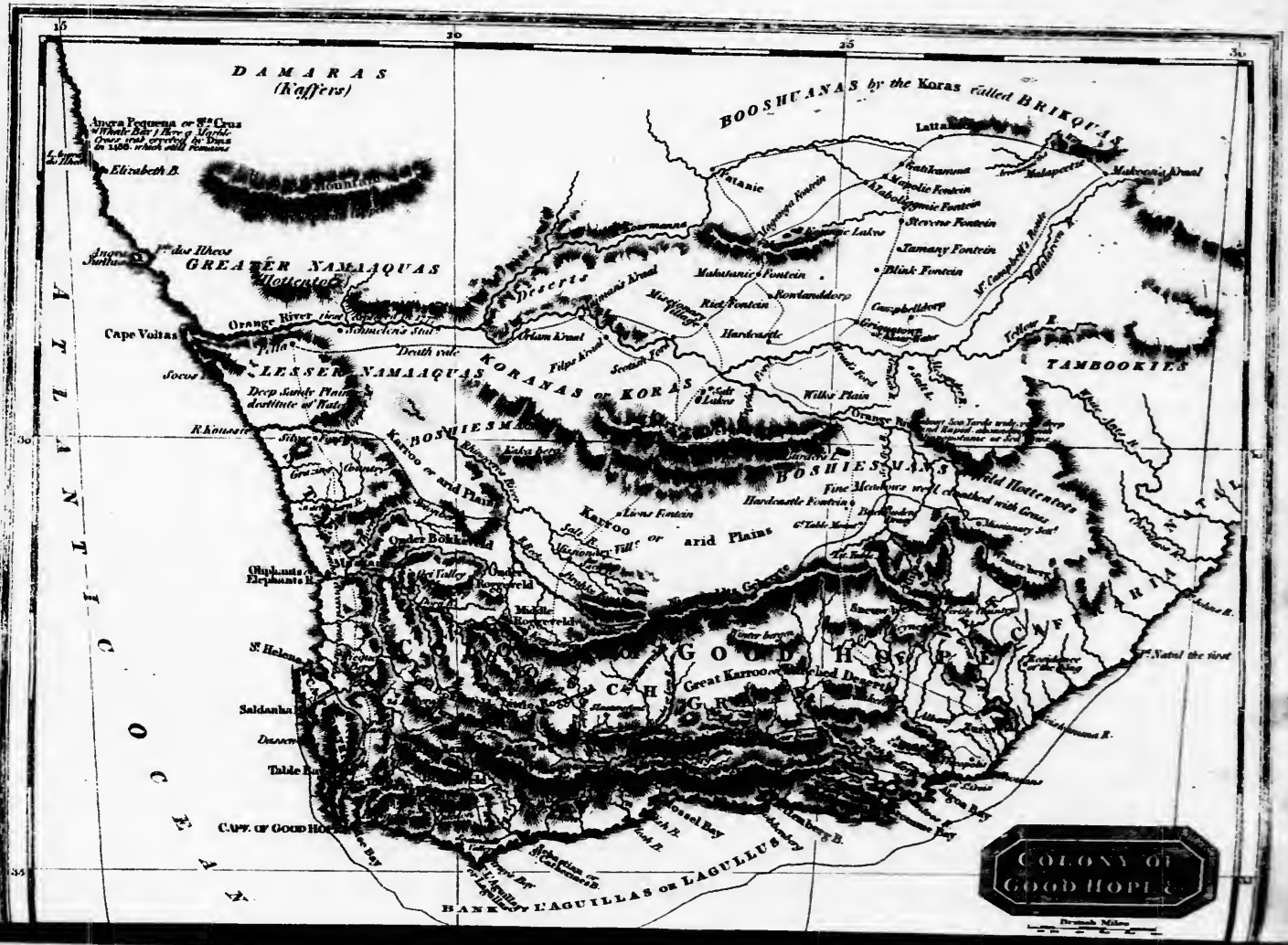

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The Caffres seldom attempt to sing, and when they do, the performance is miserable. Equally destitute of grace are their dances; in which a Caffre woman appears to the greatest disadvantage, as her features are overspread with an unusual gravity, her eyes fixed on the earth, and her body apparently distorted by the most convulsive motions.

Tatooing is extremely prevalent among the women, who frequently devote their leisure hours to this strange amusement, and exercise their ingenuity chiefly upon the stomach and the arms.

Of fishery they are so totally ignorant, that the whole extent of their coast, though washed by the sea, and intersected by several considerable rivers, does not produce a single boat or floating vessel of any construction; probably some peculiar superstition may prohibit the use of fish, or otherwise they are unwilling, from a natural timidity, to trust themselves in a frail bark upon the waters.

The pronunciation of their language is fluent, soft, and harmonious, though not the smallest vestige of a written character is to be found among them. Of astronomy, they only know that, in about thirty days, the moon will have gone through all its various appearances, and that twelve moons will bring a revolution of the seasons. Their chronology, which is kept by the moon, and registered by notches in a piece of timber, seldom extends beyond one generation, when the old series is cancelled, and the death of a favourite chief, or some remarkable conquest, serves for the commencement of a new era.

Their manner of disposing of the dead is extremely singular, and essentially different from the practice of the surrounding nations. Their chiefs are usually buried very deep under the places that are appointed for the repose of the oxen; and their children are commonly deposited in excavated ant-hills; but all other persons are exposed, on their decease, to the wolves; and are instantly dragged away to the dens of those ferocious animals, which are, therefore, held sacred by the Caffres, and permitted to ravage the country without molestation.

SECTION III.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Situation, Climate, Soil, &c.] The Cape of Good Hope, which is the southernmost extremity of Africa, is situate in thirty-four degrees twenty-nine minutes of south latitude, and eighty-one degrees twenty-three minutes of east longitude. The climate, in the summer, would be intolerable, if the heat were not mitigated by the winds which blow from the southern ocean. Violent storms frequently arise, which, though they render the coast very dangerous, are absolutely necessary to the health of the inhabitants

The division of the year may be said to consist of four parts, as in the countries of Europe. The spring, which commences at the beginning of September, and continues till the entrance of December, is indisputably the most agreeable season. The summer, from December to March, is rather sultry. The autumn, from March to June, is distinguished by a variety of weather, though generally pleasant towards the end; and the winter, from June to September, is usually rainy, cold, and stormy.

The south-east and north-west are the most powerful winds; the former of which blows with extreme violence, when a cloud rests upon the Table Mountain, and generally predominates from the end of August till the middle of May. The other commences about the end of May, and blows occasionally, till the termination of August.

The approach of winter is generally observed by the subsidence of the winds, and the disappearance of the fleecy cloud. These tokens are succeeded by heavy dews, thick fogs, and cold north-westerly winds, accompanied by violent storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. At the expiration of three days, however, the atmosphere begins to brighten, and the mountains on the continent appear, with their summits buried in snow.

According to some meteorological observations, made by Dr. Sparrman, at the Cape, it appears that the winters are generally far from severe. The first half of May, the fluctuation of a good thermometer was from fifty-three to sixty-three degrees, and during the latter half between fifty and fifty-eight. In June, the thermometer stood between fifty-four and sixty, though there was either a fall of rain or snow on several days.

To the northward of the Cape the soil is sandy, barren, and desolate; but the traveller, who proceeds in an easterly direction, will meet with some rich and picturesque scenes, to reward his toil.

Mountains.] The stupendous mountains of this country are thus described by Mr. Barrow:—"The *Irregular Belt* encloses a fertile tract of land, from twenty to sixty miles in width, pleasantly intersected with a variety of streams, luxuriant in fruit and forest trees, refreshed with frequent showers, and blest with an equable temperature.

"The *Zevarte Berg*, or Black Mountain, is superior in height to the first, and frequently consists of double ranges; the district enclosed between this and the first chain is about forty miles in width, presenting to the spectator a varied scene of barren acclivities, fruitful meads, and naked plains. Its general surface is considerably higher than that of the Irregular Belt, its temperament more uncertain, and its intrinsic value much inferior. The third mountainous range is called the *Nienweldt's Gebergte*, which, together with the second, encloses the Great Karroo, or Parched Desert, and is utterly destitute of any human habitation.

What is called the Table Mountain is a stupendous mass of naked rock, which imposes an involuntary attention upon the most indifferent observer of nature, and more peculiarly engages the contemplation of the mineralogist. It received its name from mariners, who usually affix the epithet of Table Land to every considerable acclivity, whose summit appears to the spectator in a parallel line with the horizon.

The northern front of this mountain is a horizontal line, about two miles in length, which directly faces the town. The bold front, that rises at right angles to meet this line, is sustained by several projecting buttresses, which, rising from the plain, close in with the front, a little higher than midway from the base. These, with the division of the front into three parts, a curtain, flanked by two bastions, the first retiring and the others projecting, render its appearance similar to the ruined walls of some stupendous fortress.

The height of these walls is three thousand five hundred and eighty-two feet above the level of Table Bay; the eastern side is still bolder, and has one point considerably higher: to the west, the rock is rent into various deep chasms, and worn away into numerous pointed masses; and, about four miles toward the south, the mountain descends in successive terraces to the chain which extends completely along the peninsula. The wings of the front, denominated the Lion's Head, and the Devil's Mountain, are, in fact, but disunited fragments of the Table Mountain.

The height of the former is about two thousand one hundred and sixty feet, and that of the latter three thousand three hundred and fifteen. The upper part of the Lion's Head is a circular mass of stone, which, from some points of view, exactly resembles the dome of St. Paul's cathedral, erected upon a lofty cone-shaped eminence; but the Devil's Hill is broken into a variety of irregular points. The exact horizontal position of these three mountains, which are composed of multitudinous tabular masses, clearly demonstrate their origin to be Neptunian, and that no convulsion of the earth has ever happened in this part of Africa, since their formation, sufficient to disturb the nice arrangement of their parts.

The substratum of the plain on which the town is built, and the shores of Table Bay, compose a bed of blue compact schistus, generally running in parallel ridges towards the south-east and north-west, but occasionally interrupted by considerable masses of a flinty rock, of the same colour. From an island, in the mouth of Table Bay, fine blue flags, diversified with white streaks, are procured, and appropriated to the purpose of paving the terraces before the houses.

A body of strong clay, tinged with iron, and abounding with brown foliated mica, lies upon the schistus; immense blocks of granite are imbedded in the clay, and many coarser blocks, of a similar class, afford shelter to runaway slaves, among the African mountains.

The first horizontal stratum of the Table Mountain commences above five hundred feet above the level of the sea, and rests upon the clay and granite already mentioned. Upon a rough sand-stone, of a dingy yellow colour, is a deep brown sand-stone, containing veins of hematite and calciform ores of iron. This is succeeded by a mass of shining granular quartz, about a thousand feet in height, which, by exposure to the weather, is, in many places, changing into sand-stone. On the summit of the mountain such a transition has entirely taken place, and myriads of pebbles, of semi-transparent quartz, surround the skeletons of rocks in which they were formerly imbedded.

The ascent to the summit of the Table Mountain lies through a deep chasm, about three quarters of a mile in length, which divides the curtain from the left bastion. The perpendicular checks at the foot are above a thousand feet high, and the angle of ascent is equal to forty-five degrees.

After quitting the romantic scenery of the chasm, and passing the portal, which forms two lines of natural perspective upon the summit, the adventurer feels a momentary disgust at the tame and insipid plain, which spreads its dreary extent before his eyes: this, however, must infallibly subside, when he reflects on the great command obtained by the elevation over surrounding objects.

All the objects on the adjacent plain are diminished to insignificance in the eye of the spectator; the houses of Cape Town appear like childish fabrics composed of cards; the shrubbery on the sandy isthmus is merely visible; and the farms, with their enclosures, resemble a small picture held up at a distance.

Vegetable Productions.] Plantations of stone-pine and white poplar, with avenues of oak-trees, are sometimes found near the country-houses in the vicinity of Cape Town; but the timber which they produce is seldom equivalent to the rapidity of their growth. The sides of the hills are abundantly clothed with the silver tree; the conocarpa, and various others, which are collected for the purpose of fuel, and spread over the country in wild luxuriance.

The dwarf tree, called cripple-wood, has very crooked knotty branches, with broad, rough, and thick, leaves, shaped like those of the apple-tree; and the fruit resembles the pine-apple. The bark, which is thick and wrinkled, is not only used by tanners, but the physicians pulverize it, and administer it with success in dysenteries.

There are here four sorts of camphire-trees; one transplanted to the Cape from the island of Borneo, which is esteemed much the best; the other three sorts were brought

from Japan, China, and Sumatra: they all grow very quick, and to the size of a walnut-tree. The inside of the leaves is of an ash-colour, and the outside of a grass-green; and, on rubbing them with the fingers, they send forth a strong odour, like that of camphire. These trees are so soft and tender, that their branches are frequently stripped off by the wind, and sometimes nothing is left standing but the trunk.

The Indian gold-tree, at the Cape, grows about six feet high, and has small leaves, nearly of the colour of gold, speckled with red, and are very beautiful. They have particularly a fine effect, when ranged in gardens among other trees. Yet the blossoms are very small, and of a greenish colour, without the least scent.

The stinkwood-tree grows to the size of an oak, and its leaves are three fingers in breadth. It received its name from its filthy scent; for, while it is under the tool, it exhales so nauseous a stench, that the workmen can scarcely endure it; but, after some time, this goes entirely off. The wood being beautifully clouded, the Cape Europeans have tables, presses, and several other useful and ornamental pieces of furniture, made of it.

Among the exotics, which, in the opinion of Mr. Barrow, might be successfully introduced, are different species of the cactus, the varieties of the cotton-plant, and two sorts of indigo, which are, at present, found in several parts of the colony.

Sugar-canes seem to flourish, as likewise the tea and coffee-plants, the latter of which was brought from the Island of Bourbon. Two sorts of the wax-plant are abundant on the sandy flats. The dwarf-mulberry, the palma christi, and the aloe, are also extremely plentiful.

Many of the tropical, and most of the European, fruits are successfully cultivated; by which means the table may be constantly supplied with a good variety of fruit, either green or dry; as China and Mandarin oranges, grapes, figs, guavas, apricots, peaches, pears, pomegranates, apples, quinces, and medlars; likewise strawberries, walnuts, almonds, chesnuts, and mulberries, all of an excellent quality, and very plentiful. The vineyards, fruiteries, and gardens, are commonly divided into squares, and defended from the parching influence of the south-east winds by hedges of quince-trees, oaks, or myrtles.

The vines are here planted in the same manner as gooseberry-bushes in England, and so abundant is their produce, that one acre will bear five thousand stocks of vines, which will generally yield a pipe of one hundred and fifty-four gallons of wine. The retail price of such a quantity at the Cape is from ten to thirty pounds sterling. That sort which is denominated "Cape Madeira," sells at twelve pounds a pipe, as does, likewise, a tart pleasant wine, called the Steen wine. A great variety of sweet rich wines are also produced in the colony.

Some few persons, who have attended to the distillation of spirits, have produced brandy of an excellent quality. In general, however, this article is extremely bad, as the materials which are thrown into the still are of the coarsest kind, the apparatus is indifferent, and the process is usually committed to the hands of a slave, who, either through drowsiness or inattention, suffers the fire to go out, and then contaminates the flavour of the spirit, by a rapid blaze, which is used to supply the loss of time.

M. Thunberg informs us, that the wheat which grows in this country is much heavier and more productive than that of Europe; and barley is raised upon open grounds with good success.

We shall close this article with the description of a plant, which M. le Vaillant asserts to have been the most beautiful and magnificent he ever saw in the whole course of his travels through the interior of Africa. It was a lily, seven feet high, which waved majestically on its flexible stem, and literally impregnated the passing gales with its exquisite fragrance. The stem was six inches in circumference, and furnished with leaves that were three feet long, and three feet and a half wide. On the upper part were displayed, in beautiful order, thirty-nine corollas, or flowers; of which eighteen were in full bloom, six half-blown, and fifteen just ready to open. The greatest number formed a calyx, one-third larger than that of European lilies; their petals, of a charming flaxen grey on the outside, and as white within as unsullied snow, were finely bordered with crimson, and set off by a pistil and stamina, whose colours were equal to the finest carmine. "In short," says our author, "this plant, produced in solitude, and pure as the sun which had fostered it, had been respected by all the animals of the district, and seemed sufficiently defended even by its own beauty."

Having caused this charming lily to be cautiously dug up, M. le Vaillant found that its bulb measured thirteen inches in depth, and twenty-seven in circumference. In shape and colour it nearly resembled the bulb of a tulip; but, instead of being composed of several coats, it was pulpy, full, and weighty. Having been properly arranged in a basket, it was carried to our author's tent, where he enjoyed the pleasure of seeing all the flowers open in regular succession, and of inhaling its reviving perfume, till its odour was, at length, exhausted, and its strength completely decayed.

Animals.] Among the wild animals of this country are the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the buffalo, all of which are very numerous. The latter are larger than those of Europe, and are of a brown red, whereas the European buffaloes are black. Those of the Cape are well-proportioned, hold their heads aloft, and have their foreheads covered with hard frizzled hair; their horns, however, are short, and bend inwards, so that their points almost meet.

Their skin is hard and tough, so that it is difficult to kill them without very good fire-arms; but their flesh is neither so fat nor so tender as that of the common ox. These animals are enraged at the sight of red cloth, and at the discharge of a gun near them; in both which cases they roar, stamp, tear up the ground, and run so furiously at the offending party, as to beat down all opposition. A considerable body of Europeans at the Cape once chaced a buffalo, and, having driven him to the water-place, as it is called, near the harbour, the beast turned, and ran furiously at one of his pursuers, who was in a red waistcoat, and who, nimbly skipping aside, ran towards the water, where the buffalo pursuing him, obliged him to plunge in to save his life. He swam well, and as quick as possible; but the buffalo, leaping in after him, pursued him so closely, that he could only save himself by diving. The buffalo, thus losing sight of him, swam towards the opposite shore, which was at three miles distance; and our author observes, that he would undoubtedly have reached it, had he not received a shot from one of the ships in the harbour.

The elk of the Cape is generally five feet high; and its head, which resembles that of the hart, is small in proportion to its body. The horns, which are only about a foot long, run up twisting; but the ends are straight, smooth, and pointed: the neck is slender and beautiful, and the legs also slender, and of a great length; the hair of the body, which is of an ash-colour, is smooth and soft, and the tail about a foot long. The flesh tastes agreeably, either boiled or roasted, and bears a near resemblance to that of good beef. These stately animals are generally to be found on high mountains, where there are good pasture-grounds, and near some springs. They climb the highest rocks, and pass the most difficult ways with surprising despatch and security; yet sometimes visit the valleys, and frequently attempt to enter the gardens; whence the inhabitants place traps before those that are most exposed to their inroads. These gardens being usually encompassed with a ditch, over which is a bridge at the entrance, they fix in the ground, at one corner of the bridge, a strong, pliant, taper pole, fixing to the small end of it a long rope, by which that end of the pole is pulled down to the other corner of the bridge, where it is fastened so slightly, that by a small touch it is freed, and flies up with great force. When the small end of the pole is thus properly fixed, the remainder of the rope is formed into several nooses and coils, and laid under the arch of the pole. An elk coming to one of these gardens, and finding no communication but by the bridge before the door, steps upon it through the arch; and, hampering his legs in the coils of the rope, shakes the pole, on which the small end flying up, and fastening him in one of the nooses, he is drawn up, and unable to escape. If, by struggling, he breaks the pole, he is almost sure to fall into the ditch; and, if he escapes that, he drags a piece of the pole after him, which so embarrasses him in his march, that he may be easily taken.

The blue goats of the Cape are shaped like those of Europe, but are as large as a hart. Their hair, which is very short, is of a fine blue; though, when they are killed, it changes to a bluish grey; their beards are long; and their horns, which are short and very neat, are annulated till within a little of the point, which is straight and smooth.

Spotted goats are sometimes seen in herds of above a thousand in number; and are covered with red, white, and brown spots; they are rather larger than the blue goats; and their beards, which are of a brown red, are very long. Their legs are well-proportioned to their bodies; and the joints about their fetlocks are of a dark brown; their horns, which are about a foot long, incline backwards, running up twisting to the middle, from whence to the end they are very straight and smooth. The young ones are easily taken, and rendered so tame, as to run with flocks of sheep; and their flesh is very agreeable food.

There is another sort of goat, which has a very beautiful head, adorned with two smooth, bending, pointed horns, three feet long. A white streak runs from the forehead along the ridge of his back to his tail, and is crossed by three streaks, one over his shoulders; another is on the middle of the back, running down both sides to his belly; the third crosses it above his buttocks, and runs down them. On all the other parts of his body the hair is greyish, with little touches of red; only the belly approaches to white. His beard is grey, and pretty long, as are also his legs. The female, which is less than the male, is without horns; and the flavour of the flesh is also very agreeable.

The Cape rock-goat is seldom bigger than an European kid of a quarter old, and his horns are about half a foot long: as he frequently enters the vineyards and gardens, where he does great mischief, he is narrowly watched, and often taken; and his flesh is esteemed a great dainty.

The diving-goat is almost as large as an ordinary tame one, and is nearly of the same colour; but he no sooner sees any person or thing, from which he apprehends danger, than he squats down in the grass; and seeing nothing but grass about him, perhaps imagines himself unseen; for thus he lies, giving now and then a peep out, and drawing his head suddenly down again, till either the danger is past, or he is shot or knocked on the head.

In this country are two sorts of wolves, one like those of Europe, and the other called tiger-wolves. The latter are of the size of a shepherd's dog, or somewhat larger; and the head broad, like that of an English bulldog. Their jaws, nose, and eyes, are also large, are

their hair is frizzled, and spotted like that of tigers. Their feet are large, and armed with strong talons, which they draw in like a cat, but their tails are short. All day they remain in the clefts of the rocks, or holes in the ground, seeking their prey only in the night, and howling most dismally while out upon the prowl, which rouses the dogs who keep the flocks: these join together against the enemy, and drive them away; but, if they get safely into a fold, they generally kill two or three sheep, and, having fed heartily upon the spot, carry some carcases away to their dens.

There are here, also, wild dogs, which sometimes make great havock among the cattle. They seem to be a species of hounds; and packs of thirty, and sometimes forty, of them encounter lions, tigers, and other animals; which, by their numbers, they conquer. They spend the greatest part of the day in the chase, and drag what they kill to a place of rendezvous, where they share it among them. Both Europeans and Hottentots, when they discover these dogs on the chase, follow them to the place of rendezvous, and take what they think proper of what the dogs have killed, which they permit them to do very quietly. The Hottentots eat what they take from the dogs; and what the Europeans take they salt for their slaves. These dogs, however, sometimes destroy seventy or eighty sheep in one flock.

In this country is a little creature, called a rattle-mouse, though it is larger than an European squirrel, and has a head shaped like that of a bear. The hair on the back is of a liver-colour, but that on the sides is almost black. With its tail, which is neither very long nor very hairy, it, from time to time, makes a rattling noise, and has thence obtained its name. It feeds on acorns, nuts, &c.; purs like a cat; and is mostly seen in trees, leaping from one to another, after the manner of the squirrel. It is so nimble, and bites so sharply, that it is seldom taken alive.

One of the most extraordinary animals of this country is called by the Dutch stinkbingsen, or stinkbox; its noisome stench being the grand defence this creature has received from nature against all its enemies. It is of the shape of a ferret; but as large as a middle-sized dog. When its pursuer, whether man or beast, comes pretty near, it pours from its tail so horrid a stench, that it is impossible to endure it; a man being almost struck down by it before he can get away; and a dog, or other animal, is so strangely confounded, that he is obliged every minute to stop to rub his nose in the grass, or against a tree. The animal, having thus stopped his pursuer, gets a great way a-head before the chase can be renewed; and, if he comes up with him a second time, repeats the same expedient, and by this means escapes again. Thus he proceeds till his pursuer, overpowered by the stink, is obliged to desist. This animal, however, is sometimes shot by the Europeans, but they are obliged to suffer it to lie till it rots; for it is no sooner dead than its whole body contracts so nauseous a smell, that, if any one does but touch it with his fingers, they retain a stench that can neither be endured, nor easily got off by washing.

Among the feathered tribes, the most remarkable are eagles, vultures, kites, and cranes, that constantly hover round the summit of the Table Mountain, and assist the wolves in removing many nuisances. Snipes, teals, ducks, and geese, are frequently seen in the winter, in the vicinity of ponds and periodical lakes; and the gardens near the towns are much frequented by thrushes, fiscal-birds, and turtle-doves.

The following curious particulars, relative to a species of the cuckow, was communicated in a letter from a member of the Royal Academy in Stockholm to a Fellow of the Royal Society in London.

"The Dutch settlers, at the place where this bird is found, have given it the name of Konig-wiser, or Honey-guide, from its discovering wild honey to travellers. It has nothing remarkable, either in colour or size, but the instinct which prompts it to seek its food is truly admirable. Not only the Dutch and Hottentots, but likewise a species of quadruped, which the Dutch call a Ratel, are frequently conducted to wild bee-hives by this bird, which, as it were, pilots them to the very spot. The honey being its favourite food, its own interest prompts it to be instrumental in robbing the hives, as some scraps are commonly left for its support. The morning and evening are its times of feeding, when it is heard calling, in a shrill tone, *Cherr Cherr*, to which the honey-hunters carefully attend, as the summons to the chase. From time to time they answer it with a soft whistle, which the bird hearing, always continues its note. As soon as they are in sight of each other, the bird gradually flutters towards the place where the hive is situated, continually repeating its former call of Cherr Cherr. At last, the bird is observed to hover for a short time over a certain spot, and then silently retiring to an adjoining bush, or other resting-place, the hunters are sure of finding the bees' nest in that very spot. While the hunters are busy in taking the honey, the bird is seen looking on attentively, and waiting for its share of the spoil. The bee-hunters never fail to leave a small portion for their conductor, but commonly take care not to leave as much as would satisfy its hunger. The bird's appetite being only whetted by this parsimony, it is obliged to make another discovery, in hopes of a better reward. It is further to be observed, that the nearer the bird approaches the hidden hive, the more frequently it repeats its call, and seems more impatient."

Among the various sorts of fish, with which the market is constantly supplied, are a rose-coloured perch; red and white stone-breams; the cabeljan; the Hottentot's fish;

the silver perch, of a rose-coloured tinge, with five silver bands on each side; the stompneus, with six transverse bands of black and white spots, one back-fin, and tail bifid; the harder, the klip, or rock-fish; the elst, the scomber, springer, speering, and atherina. Besides these, soles, muscles, crabs, and oysters, are found in abundance; dolphins are frequently caught in the bay after a strong gale. A species of the asterias, or star-fish, is sometimes sent to enrich the cabinets of Europeans, together with the paper nautilus.

Among the insects which infest the Cape are large black spiders, venomous snakes, scorpions, and scolopendras. Land-turtles, chamelions, and other lizards, are frequently perceived by the traveller; a species of locust is exceedingly injurious to the gardens in the hot months; and persons, who have occasion to traverse the sandy isthmus, are greatly tormented by sand and flies, which are so small as scarcely to be visible: the mosquetoes are less troublesome than in most warm climates.

Principal Town.] Cape Town, the principal European settlement here, is situated in thirty-four degrees fifteen minutes south latitude, and sixteen degrees five minutes of east longitude. It is large, commodious, and populous; the streets are spacious, and regularly laid out; and the houses are tolerably handsome, but very low. As well within as without the town are excellent gardens, which produce many culinary vegetables and much fruit; among these is that extensive and beautiful garden belonging to the company. Building, as well as tillage, is greatly encouraged at the Cape, and land given for either purpose to those who choose to accept of it; but the government claims an annual tenth of the value of the former, and produce of the latter, and a tithe of all purchase-money when estates are sold.

Cape Town is embellished with four spacious squares, a Calvinist and a Lutheran church, a castle that affords barracks to a thousand men, and a regular well-designed building, originally intended for an hospital, but now appropriated for the accommodation of the military.

There is a regular guard-house, at which the burgher-senate transacts all business relative to the police of the town, a spacious building appropriated for the reception of government slaves, and a court of judicature, where a final decision is passed in all civil and criminal causes. The weeskammer, or chamber for the administration of the affairs of orphans, is within the walls of the castle, as is the Lombard Bank, whose capital is about six hundred thousand rix-dollars, lent by the old government, in paper money, to the subjects, on mortgage of their property, at an interest of five per cent. Among a number of handsome houses, with which the plain is spotted between Table Mountain and the town, the government-house attracts the attention of the traveller. It is erected on a fertile soil, and surrounded by about forty acres of excellent land; which are divided into a variety of squares, by oak-hedges; the public walks run up the middle, between two charming rows of myrtles, and are effectually shaded by avenues of spreading oaks.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Cape Town, though, in their persons, large, stout, and athletic, have not the characteristic phlegm of Dutchmen; a circumstance which may probably have resulted from the physical influence of climate. The ladies are universally noticed by travellers, on account of their beauty, good humour, and vivacity; and, from their peculiar gay turn, they are said to admit of liberties which would be deemed reprehensible in England; though, perhaps, they as seldom overleap the bounds of virtue as the women of other countries.

Children are not here subject to the caprice of their parents; since the family-property must be equally divided between the offspring, whether male or female; and no person is permitted to disinherit his child, without assigning, on absolute proof, at the least one reason out of the fourteen, which are enumerated in the Justinian code.

The education of youth is, in general, much neglected: it is, however, but justice to remark, that many of the young females have attained several accomplishments, which, to all appearance, the limited means of instruction must render extremely tedious and painful. Most of the young ladies, in respectable families, are conversant with the French and English languages, proficient in all kinds of tambour, lace, and knotting work, and are applauded for a tolerable degree of execution upon the piano-forte, or other musical instruments.

On the marriage of two persons, a community of all property, real and personal, is supposed, by the law of the colony, to take place, unless a solemn contract have been made to the contrary, previous to the celebration of the nuptials.

Occasional balls are the only public amusements at the Cape, and family parties, who assemble for the purpose of dancing or card-playing, are the only proofs of social intercourse between the inhabitants.

Money and merchandise are the universal topics of conversation, though none of the natives are in very affluent circumstances; many, however, enjoy a decent competency, while the objects of public charity are but few; and mendicants are unknown in the colony.

The carriages for pleasure, which are here maintained at a very trifling expense, are open, and capable of containing four or six persons: these, however, are only used for short excursions; as journeys are usually performed in a machine, similar to a light waggon, that is sufficiently spacious to accommodate a whole family, with provisions,

apparel, &c., and is sheltered from the weather by a covering of sail-cloth. The drivers, who are usually of a mixed breed, between a Hottentot and an European, are extremely dexterous in their avocation, and will either turn abruptly, or gallop through the most dangerous avenues, with eight in hand, with the greatest facility.

An indolent sedentary life, excessive gluttony, and an immoderate use of raw spirits, tobacco, &c. are the distinguishing characteristics of a native of the Cape; by which means, a schirrous liver, or an apoplexy, is brought forward: the former usually drags the slave of intemperance to an early grave, and the latter, though seldom attended with sudden dissolution, terminates in a dropsy, and thus proves equally fatal with the other. Few of the inhabitants, indeed, attain to longevity, seldom surviving a period of sixty years.

SECTION III.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

This tract of country extends towards the north of the tropic of Capricorn, and, on all other parts, is bounded by the Southern Ocean. It is occupied by several distinct nations; but, as it would be superfluous to enumerate the whole, we shall only advert to the following, as the principal, and, therefore, most worthy of notice; viz. the Houteniquas, the Damaquas, the Sonquas, the Houzouannas, the Hensequas, the Chirigriquas, the Namaaquas, the Gonaquas, and the Boshiesmen.

The Houteniquas' land is a woody tract, which extends a considerable way along the coast. It, however, contains some fertile vales, and streams of sweet water; so that some farmers have established themselves here. Agloa Bay is one of its boundaries, a station seldom visited by ships, though it is well calculated to supply wood and water. Indeed, between this place and the Cape, the navigation appears to be neglected; nor is any constant and frequent communication kept up between the centre colony and the more distant dependencies, so that trade circulates in a very slow and sluggish manner, to the great detriment of the community.

The people called Damaquas occupy a district which abounds with cattle, game, hemp, and water-melons. Wood is very scarce, and salt-pits are at once numerous and useless; for the Hottentots never eat any salt; and the pits are too far from the coast to be of any service to the Europeans. Those who travel through this territory are much obstructed by the serpentine river Palamites, which meanders through the whole country, and is passed upon floats, or in canoes, as the people have no idea of building a bridge.

The Sonquas are but few in number, and inhabit a very steril rocky country; from the nature of which, and the manner in which they pick up a subsistence, they may be termed the Swiss of the Cape. Cattle is so scarce among them, that they never kill any but upon certain solemn occasions; their food being either the game which they take in hunting, or such roots, plants, and herbs, as their country affords.

The Houzouannas may be considered as one of the richest and most polished of the Hottentot nations; that is, they have the greatest quantity of cattle, the only criterion of riches, and are the most luxurious in their living, the sole mark of refinement in this country. Their kraals or villages are larger and better built; their oxen for carriage stronger and more handsome; and their country is better inhabited than any other about the Cape. They have abundance of game, and, indeed, every thing that is necessary to convenience and pleasure in that tropical situation. Some of these people article themselves as servants to the Dutch for a certain number of years, and generally conduct themselves with propriety during the stipulated time.

The Hensequas differ from the other Hottentots, in applying themselves to agriculture, as well as the breeding of cattle. They cultivate a singular root, called dàkha, the juice of which is sharp and spirituous. The substantial part serves them for food, and the fluid is an inebriating liquor, of which they are very fond. These people catch lions by traps, and are said to possess the art of taming them, so as to render them perfectly domestic.

The Chirigriquas are a strong, active, and bold people, inhabiting a tract of country bordering on the Bay of St. Helen's. The territory is watered by an excellent stream, called the Elephants' River, on account of the great number of elephants which frequent its banks. This district abounds in mountains, which are flat on the top; and the summits of some of them have all the verdure of the finest meadows. The valleys are enamelled with the most beautiful flowers; but it is dangerous to enjoy their fragrancy, on account of the prodigious number of snakes with which they abound; that called cerastes being particularly venomous. The Chirigriquas are very numerous, and are celebrated for being the most dexterous of any of the Hottentots in throwing the assagay, or half-pike, which they do with the most critical exactness. This weapon is made of a taper stick, about four feet long, armed at one end with an iron-plate, sharp at the edge, and tapering to a point: the blade is always kept bright and clean, and, when used in war, is dipped in poison.

The people called Namaaquas are divided into two nations; the Greater Namaaquas, who inhabit the coast; and the Lesser Namaaquas, whose territory extends more to the eastward.

The language of the Namaaquas considerably varies from the other tribes of Southern Africa, though they universally retain that clapping of the tongue, by which the Hottentots are peculiarly distinguished. Their stature is commonly higher, and they are less robust, than the generality of the eastern tribes. Among the females, some were observed whose figures were truly elegant, and their vivacity pleasing. Like the Hottentots of the east, they bestow an abundance of pains upon their little leather aprons, which are fancifully adorned with a profusion of beads, shells, &c.

Their huts are likewise different from those which are erected by the Hottentots of the colony, or the natives of Caffraria; they are framed of semicircular sticks, and covered with a kind of matting, made of sedges; they are about twelve feet in diameter, and so commodious, that the peasantry of the adjacent nations frequently model their own habitations by those simple dwellings of these Namaaquas.

Like the Caffres, they are very attentive to their cattle, and give an artificial direction to the horns of the oxen, after the manner of that nation. The herds that were seen in the possession of both Dutchmen and Hottentots were bony, large, and equal, in every respect, to those which are reared at Sneuwberg.

Though the Namaaquas have relinquished their ancient weapons, which, from the decrease of wild beasts, and a dread of the savage Boshiesmen, are accounted useless, they are evidently acquainted with poisonous substances, with which the points of their arrows were probably rubbed, when the adjacent parts abounded with a variety of game, and beasts of prey.

The Gonaqua Hottentots are a tribe nearly resembling the Caffres. Both sexes wear ornaments of brass-rings, on which they set great value. These people use the initiatory rite of the Jews. The women are less decent in their attire than the Hottentots in general, but their manners are equally modest.

The Gonaquas are very importunate beggars, particularly for tobacco. All of them, Sparrman says, were armed with the assagay, or javelin, and the kirris. They did not, however, appear to be dexterous marksmen; for they could not hit a handkerchief at twenty paces, till after many trials.

The savage race of Boshiesmen inhabit the Sneuwburg, or Snowy Mountains. Mr. Barrow, in the course of his travels, proceeded, with his party, to a kraal or village, that was situated in the mouth of a defile, where the inhabitants were at first alarmed at the appearance of so large a party of Europeans; but, on the reception of a few trifling presents, their terrors subsided, and they contentedly associated with the strangers for several days. The horde contained about twenty-five huts, constructed of small grass mats, fastened upon two semicircular sticks, open before and closed behind. They were about a yard high, and four feet wide, with a hollow place in the middle of the ground, that resembled the nest of an ostrich. In this hollow a little grass was placed, to serve the purpose of a bed, where the inmates lay coiled round, in the manner of some quadrupeds. All the men were entirely naked, and rendered still more disgusting by a porcupine's quill, or a piece of wood, that was passed through the cartilage of the nose. The females wore a small belt, of springbok's skin, cut into long fringes, while their heads were fancifully adorned with leather caps, in the form of helmets.

In their persons they are very diminutive, seldom exceeding four feet nine inches in height; the tallest woman seen in the kraal measured four feet four inches, and another, who was merely three feet nine inches high, was mother of several children. From their complexion, hair, and turn of countenance, Mr. Barrow was inclined to pronounce them of the same origin with the Hottentot race in general; though, in personal appearance, the difference is exceedingly great. The Boshiesmen are peculiarly distinguished by the depression of their noses, the height of their cheek-bones, the prominence of their chins, and the formation of their eyes, the rounded lids of which are nearly similar to those of the Chinese. Their bellies are likewise protuberant, and their backs hollow; though their limbs are commonly well turned; and their agility is such, that they will leap the precipices of the mountains, like the klip-springing antelope, and outstrip the fleetest horse, on rough ground, with the greatest facility.

The disposition of these people is widely different from that of the Hottentots who reside in the colony. Cheerful, active, and vivacious, they earn a precarious subsistence with much danger and fatigue, and usually satisfy the cravings of an empty stomach with the larvæ of locusts, or a few graminous roots, that are pungent and ungrateful to the palate; yet, when the surrounding farmers have retired to their habitations, and the moon breaks forth in unsullied brightness upon the landscape, they apparently forget their perils and their wants, and usually devote the hours to dancing, till the orient clouds are gilded with the beams of the rising sun. They are, likewise, extremely joyful at the approach of the first thunderstorm after the winter, which they consider as a harbinger of the summer's commencement, and express their delight by rending their skin-coverings, throwing them in the air, and dancing for several successive nights.

When their various plans of entrapping game are rendered abortive, and the chase proves unsuccessful, they proceed to the colony, in quest of plunder, though the undertaking is toilsome, and extremely hazardous. They use poisoned arrows, and are so dexterous in their use,

that they will hit a mark at the distance of a hundred yards. The poison being of the most virulent kind, whatever animal is wounded, in a few minutes languishes and expires. Their arrows are about eighteen inches long, and made of a reed, tipped with polished bone.

If they are unexpectedly surrounded by the farmers, they will throw themselves in the midst of their enemies, that, by creating a general confusion, their countrymen may take an advantageous aim from the adjacent concealments, while their wives and children may escape unperceived. If they are pursued, when retreating with a booty, they always divide into two parties, one of which is employed in driving off the cattle, and the other in engaging their pursuers; if, however, the colonists are likely to prove victorious, they instantly stab or maim the whole herd with poisoned weapons.

The most perfect equality prevails within this horde. Hunger or satiety is alike experienced by all, and they are all equally destitute of management or economy with respect to provisions. If their different exertions prove unsuccessful, the horde must contentedly suffer the pangs of a temporary famine; but, if a herd of cattle is brought in from the colony, the kraal is soon covered with a mass of putrefaction, and the circumambient air is tainted with the noxious effluvia.

Their constitutions are much stronger than those of the Hottentots in general, and their lives are usually of longer duration. In every kind of sickness, they cut off the extremities of the fingers, beginning with the little finger on the left-hand, as the least important. This ridiculous operation is performed under the idea that the effusion of blood will carry off the disease.

The capture of slaves from among this race of men is effected in the following manner:—Several farmers, that are in want of servants, join together, and take a journey to that part of the country where the Boshiesmen live. They themselves, with their attendants, who are Boshiesmen that have been caught before, and trained up to fidelity in their service, endeavour to spy out the haunts of that wild race. This is best done by the smoke of their fires. They are found in societies, from ten to fifteen, and sometimes a hundred. Notwithstanding this, the farmers will venture, on a dark night, to attack them with six or eight people, which they contrive to do by previously stationing themselves at a distance round about the spot. They then give the alarm by firing a musket. By this means such a consternation is spread among the savages, that it is only the most bold and intelligent among them that have courage to break through the circle, and steal off. The rest allow themselves to be taken, and carried into bondage. They are, at first, treated by gentle means; that is, the captors intermix the fairest promises with their threats, and endeavour, if possible, to shoot some of the larger kinds of game for their prisoners, such as buffaloes, sea-cows, and the like. Such agreeable baits, together with a little tobacco, soon induce them to go to the place of abode of the colonists. Then this luxurious living is exchanged for more moderate portions, consisting mostly of butter-milk, hasty-puddings, &c., but this diet fattens the Boshiesmen in a few weeks. Their good living is embittered by the taunts of master and mistress, to which are sometimes added blows, for neglect, remissness, or idleness; so that, by nature and custom, detesting all manner of labour, from greater corpulency becoming still more slothful, and having, besides, been used to a wandering life, subject to no control, they most sensibly feel the want of liberty. They accordingly seldom fail of making their escape, when an opportunity offers; but, when any individual of this nation runs from his servitude, he never takes with him any thing that does not belong to him. This is an instance of moderation in the savages towards their tyrants, which is universally asserted, and, at the same time, praised and admired by the colonists themselves. It is necessary to observe, that some of these Boshiesmen live in small societies, peaceably and quietly, in desert tracts, where the colonists cannot easily come at them, and are sometimes in the possession of a few cows.

The generality of these people have no idea of the existence of a Supreme Being; for some of them, who spoke Dutch, being questioned upon the subject, by a traveller, answered him to this effect:—"We are poor stupid creatures, and have never heard, neither are we able to understand, any thing of the matter." Many of the colonists declared, that the Boshies, of both sexes, used, in stormy weather, to abuse the thunder with reproachful expressions; and, at the same time, in a furious manner, with their shoes, or any thing else that was at hand, threaten and bid defiance to the flashes of lightning and peals of thunder. Nay, they most obstinately persisted in declaring that rain was always an evil, and that it would be a happy circumstance were it never to rain.

They seem to have some idea of spirits, and of a future state; as they accost their friends, as soon as they are dead, with reproaches for leaving them so soon, at the same time admonishing them henceforth to demean themselves properly: by which they mean, that their deceased friends should not come back again to haunt them, nor allow themselves to be made use of by wizards, to bring any mischief on those that survive them.

Of the Hottentots in general it may be said that there is something peculiar in their features, which, in a certain degree, separates them from the generality of mankind. The cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that the face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones,

on the contrary, extremely narrow, the visage continues decreasing, even to the point of the chin. This configuration makes the head appear very disproportioned, and too small for a full and plump body. The nose rises scarcely half an inch at its greatest elevation; and the nostrils, which are excessively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of the nose. The mouth is large, and furnished with small teeth, well enamelled, and perfectly white; the eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the Chinese; and, to the sight and touch, the hair has the resemblance of wool; it is very short, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. The male Hottentots have very little hair, yet they employ no small care to pull out by the roots part of what they have. Though they have no beard, but upon the upper-lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, they never fail to pluck it out as soon as it appears. This occasions an effeminate look, which destroys that commanding fierceness usual among savages. The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their figure: they are equally well made: their hands are small, and their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never wear sandals. The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, passing through the throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, they employ a great variety of gestures, some of which are tolerably graceful.

The Hottentots, in general, paint themselves; and the two colours for which they show the greatest fondness are red and black. The first is composed of a kind of ochery earth, which is found in several places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with grease: this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of symmetry. The men never paint their faces; but they use a preparation, made of both colours, mixed, to paint the upper lip, as far as the nostrils.

The Hottentots are naturally timid: their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawney nations give themselves up to pleasure, with the liveliest joy, and without any restraint. A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them to indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past, and being under no uneasiness for the future, they are occupied only by the present; and it is that which alone engages their attention. They are, however, kind and hospitable. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any thing. If a traveller has a long journey to accomplish, and if they learn, from the information he requires, that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit supplies him with provisions, and other necessaries, as far as their circumstances will allow.

Their clothing is very slight, and seldom more than modesty requires. The females, however, cover themselves more scrupulously than the men. They are seldom content with one covering, but frequently wear two, and often three. These garbs are composed of well-greased skins, fastened round their bodies with a thong; the outermost is always the largest, and is sometimes rendered very showy, by ornaments of glass-beads.

The covering for the body, when any is used, is of sheep-skin, with the woolly side turned inwards. This pelisse, or else a cloak, made of some smaller fur, is tied forwards, over the breast. The Hottentots do not burthen themselves with a great many changes of these krosses, as they are called, but generally content themselves with one, which serves both for clothing and bedding. The kross used by the women has a hood, or pouch, with the hairy side turned inwards, in which they carry their infants at their backs.

In general, neither men nor women wear any covering for their heads, though sometimes the former have a cap, made of a greased skin, and sometimes an Europeau slouched hat, and the latter occasionally cover their heads with a cap, in the form of a truncated cone, made out of some animal's stomach. This article of dress is ornamented, according to the taste of the wearer, with rows of small shells, and other decorations. The necks of the men are bare; but the women wear a string of shells, on a leather thong, which is considered as an ornament of a superior kind.

The lower part of the body is principally regarded, by both sexes, as entitled to decoration. Strings of beads adorn their waists, and their aprons, or girdles, are frequently studded with these ornaments, in a very tasteful style. But the rings on their legs and arms are the most singular embellishments of this people, and distinguish them from all other. These rings are made of thick leather straps, cut in a circular shape, and appear to be universally used. The males have several of these rings on their arms, but seldom any on their legs: the females, especially those of higher rank, have often their legs and arms covered with them.

The Hottentots seldom wear any shoes; when they do, they are generally of the same kind as are in use among

all the African peasants. The leather of which they are made is undressed, with the hairy side outwards, and undergoes no other preparation than in being beaten and moistened. A rectangular piece, somewhat broader and longer than the foot, is doubled up at the extremities, and drawn together with thongs, till it fits the wearer, and sits as close as a stocking. These kind of shoes are very convenient, and attended with little expense.

The Hottentots, who reside within the boundaries of the Dutch colonies, seldom use any weapons, unless for their personal defence, or attack against the wild beasts.

The dwellings of the Hottentots are extremely simple, and well adapted to their pastoral roving life. In a kraal they are all uniform, and this contributes to keep envy from insinuating itself under their roofs. The fire-place is in the middle; and the door, small as it is, admits all the light they want, and serves as an aperture to let out the smoke. The whole fabric consists of rods, bent into a proper form, and bound with withies. Over this a mat is thrown, which serves to keep out the rain.

The position of these huts, in a kraal, is, for the most part, circular, with the doors inwards. By this means a kind of area is formed, in which the cattle are lodged at night. The milk is no sooner taken from the cow, than it is put into a leathern sack, with the hairy side inwards, and is never drank while it is sweet; as it is considered more wholesome and nutritious, when fermented or curdled.

When a Hottentot is disposed to take his house down, and remove his dwelling, he lays all the materials on the backs of his cattle, and, by that means, conveys them to the spot he has fixed upon for removal. The furniture simply consists of two or three earthen pots for culinary purposes.

In the colony of Drakenstein, Dr. Sparrman visited the warm baths, called Hottentots' Holland Bath, from the district in which it lies; and here a tolerably large and commodious brick house has been built, by the government, for the accommodation of company resorting thither. From a list, kept by the overseer of the bath for several years, it appears that from one hundred and fifty to two hundred persons use the bath annually.

The bathing-house is situated about a hundred paces from the dwelling-house. This last, at each end, has a cistern or pit, a fathom and a half square, and two feet deep. The warm water is conducted a little way under ground from its source, till it reaches the house, when it runs through an open channel into the cistern, in a stream of an inch diameter.

When the patient is to receive the benefit of the bath, he sits down in the cistern, till the water rises to his chin. It then feels extremely warm, and a kind of pulsation is perceived from the internal to the external parts of the body. The quickness of the pulse is increased; and, in a short time, a deliquium is felt coming on. It is, therefore, necessary to have an attendant; as instances have occurred of persons fainting, and being drowned in the bath. When the patient gets out of the water, he lays himself down at the other end of the room, to sweat, in clothes provided on purpose. When this is over, he washes himself in the water of the bath; and this process is repeated two or three times, without any considerable interval. In general, however, the bath is used only twice a day.

There are several springs of a similar nature in the vicinity, but these are little used, except by the slaves and Hottentots. Some of them, however, seem to be possessed of more powerful virtues than that which is used by the better sort of people. Dr. Sparrman made several chemical experiments on the water; from which he concluded, that the predominant mineral in it was vitriol, with some portion of steel.

The Hottentots sometimes make an intoxicating liquor, composed of honey and a certain root, which they suffer to ferment in a sufficient quantity of water. This liquor, however, is not their usual beverage, nor do they ever keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves in this manner at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant, which they call *dagha*, which seems to be the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greatest part of them are fond of mixing both together. They set less value on the pipes brought from Europe than on those which they fabricate themselves.

Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen, they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service.

Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens must be broke and trained very early to the service, otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. Some Hottentots were observed by Sparrman riding on their oxen, which they drove with great boldness over hills and dales. These animals have a hole bored through the gristle of the nose, sufficiently large to hold a wooden pin, at both extremities of which they fasten the rope that serves both for bit and bridle. The saddle is made of a sheep's skin, folded up, and fastened by a rope round the fore-part of the body of the ox.

These oxen are called pack-oxen, as they are likewise used for carrying packs and burdens. By an order of government, no Hottentot is allowed to have a horse in his possession; and, therefore, they break in their oxen, when young, and bring them to supply the place of that animal.

Of their sheep and kine, each village has one common

herd, every inhabitant taking it in his turn to act as herdsman. This charge requires many precautions, as beasts of prey are both numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tigers, hyænas, and several kinds of wolves, together with other furious animals, that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go or send every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. If an animal of this kind be discovered, the herdsman assembles the whole village, and makes his report; when a party of the stontest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and proceed to the cave or covert where the beast is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines, till the animal is provoked to come out, when he is inevitably destroyed.

They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Besides gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows or their assagays.

The Hottentots measure the year by the seasons of drought and rainy weather. This division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is subdivided into moons; but they never count the days, if they exceed ten, that is to say, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by some remarkable occurrence: for example, an extraordinary storm, an elephant killed, an infectious disorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they distinguish by the course of the sun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, He was there when I departed, and here when I arrived.

The Hottentots have frequent festive meetings, which generally conclude with music, singing, and dancing. Their musical instruments are the greater and lesser gongom and the drum. The gongom is a bow of olive-wood, strung with sheep-sinews. At one end of the bow a quill is placed upon the string, and a cocoa-shell fastened to it by two holes. The mouth is applied to the quill, and the player blows and modulates his breath, as if playing on a Jew's harp. The drum is made of earthen-ware, and covered with sheep-skin, braced on with sinews. Their vocal music is confined to a few songs, and a frequent repetition of the monosyllable "ho," by way of chorus. When they are to have a dance, the men squat down in a circle; then several couple present themselves; but only two couple enter the ring at the same time, performing face to face. Sometimes they dance back to back, but never take hands.

In their country-dances they display very little agility or art. While their feet are employed in a kind of stamping and moderately slow movement, each of them, at intervals, make several gentle motions with a little stick. Their music is equally simple; yet it is calculated to inspire a certain degree of joy and hilarity. They have also dances of another kind, in which they join hands, and move in a circle round some of the party, who are placed in the centre of the ring.

It has been said that these people play at cards. Dr. Sparrman saw the peculiar game, which has absurdly received this name, played by four Hottentots. The chimney-corner was the scene of their sport, and the ash-hole might be considered as their card-table, as it often happened that, in the midst of their ardour for the sport, they struck their hands into the midst of it, and raised the ashes in clouds of dust, that floated all over the apartment. Their sport seemed to consist in an incessant motion of the arms upwards, downwards, and across those of each other, without ever seeming to touch one another. It is probable, however, they observe certain rules, and, in certain circumstances, mutually get the advantage; as each of them, at times, would hold a little peg between his fore-finger and thumb, and burst out into laughter. After some hours play, if play it can be called, one of the party grew tired, and lay down to sleep; but the rest continued their diversion till day-break.

The wealth of a Hottentot consists in the number of his flocks; and commerce is carried on entirely by barter. The articles of the natives are cattle, skins, elephants' teeth, ostrich' eggs, &c.; in return for which they receive from the Europeans, brandy, wine, tobacco, coral, beads, brass, copper, and iron. But a Hottentot will not sell his arms upon any consideration. They are very just and upright in their dealings. From proofs of their dexterity in some handicraft professions, it appears they would be expert in most, were they not prevented by their prevailing indolence from the prosecution of them.

Every Hottentot tribe is governed by a national chief, called the Konquer, whose office is to command the army, conduct negociations of peace, and preside in the councils. His installation is attended with great pomp and solemnity. Next to the Konquer is the Kraal Captain. Every village has one of these, who attends to the preservation of peace, the administration of justice, and, in war, holds command under the national chief. He is bound, by solemn engagement to the people, not to alter or deviate from the ancient laws or customs of his kraal. He hears and decides all disputes of right and property, and tries and punishes for crimes within his jurisdiction.

Justice is dispensed among these people with a laudable impartiality: for, if the captain of the kraal have

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committed a crime, he is seized as rudely, persecuted as severely, and punished as ignominiously as the meanest individual. The charge against a culprit is pronounced by the prosecutor, whose witnesses are heard by the court. The culprit makes his defence, and has his witnesses heard with the greatest indulgence. After some debates on the evidence, the captain collects the voices, the majority of which acquits or condemns. If the latter, and the crime be death, sentence is pronounced, and execution takes place on the spot, without a moment's delay. The captain having pronounced the fatal word, the court rises, but the criminal does not stir. After a profound silence for a minute or two, the captain flies at him, as in a rage, and, with one blow on the head with the kirri-stick, fells him to the ground, when the rest fall on, and complete the execution, by beating him to a mummy, and breaking several of his limbs. He is then buried; but his family and relations suffer nothing in name, privilege, or property. No one is reproached with the memory of his crime or punishment.

M. Thunberg was present at the execution of a slave, who had murdered his master. The delinquent being tied to a cross, his arms and legs were first burnt, in eight different parts, with red-hot jagged tongs; afterwards his arms and legs were broken on the wheel, and, lastly, his head was struck off, and fixed on a pole. This execution was conducted with much solemnity, in the presence of the judge and a circle of attendants.

The Hottentots have very little notion of military discipline. The causes of war are chiefly three; trespassing on each others districts, stealing the cattle, or running away with the wives of their neighbours. Disputes are decided between two nations by fighting one battle, the success of which determines the whole affair. It is worthy of remark, that they never plunder the dead, but suffer their friends to bury them, and dispose of their arms as they think proper.

The pronunciation of the Hottentot language is equally difficult and singular. Almost every word is to be spoken with a clacking of the tongue against the roof of the mouth. In different nations, however, a different dialect and mode of articulation are used. Notwithstanding the apparent difficulty of learning this language, the children of Europeans, in families where there are Hottentot servants, acquire it with as much facility as their mother-tongue. Dr. Sparrman met several children at the Cape, who could speak two or three different languages with equal facility.

Hottentot marriages are negociated by the parents or nearest relations. The day after the nuptials, an ox is killed, to feast the company. The Hottentots who are in the service of Europeans intermarry without any ceremony or regularity. If a married Hottentot at any time undertakes a journey, his wife may marry another in his absence; a circumstance that happened to our traveller's driver, who, on his return home, with all that he had earned in his expedition, found himself a widower.

Dr. Sparrman was very assiduous in his enquiries how far it was true that these people secluded from society, and abandoned to their fate, such as were old and helpless. That such an inhuman practice is sometimes followed, well-authenticated instances seem to testify; but they are not very numerous. Another custom, no less horrid, is that of burying sucking children alive, who have the misfortune to lose their mother.

Those Hottentots who live in their natural manner are seldom afflicted with diseases, to which those who reside among the Europeans are liable. Their practitioners are equally skilled in medicine and surgery. They perform surprising cures by their botanical knowledge. In bleeding they are only provided with a common clasp-knife and a strap. When they have taken away as much blood as is thought necessary, the orifice is closed, and rubbed with mutton-fat, and the leaf of some herb is bound over it. With all their skill they are very superstitious, and fond of divination. In order to know the fate of a sick person, they flay a sheep alive: if the poor animal, in this condition, is able to get up, and run away, the omen is esteemed favourable; but, on the contrary, if it die with the excruciating pain, it is deemed fatal to the patient.

When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner, that the whole body is covered. The relations then carry the corpse to a certain distance from the horde, and, disposing it in a shallow pit, dug for this purpose, cover it with earth, and then with stones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mausoleum, however, proves but a weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna; and the body is soon dug up and devoured.

The generality of the Hottentots have neither temples, idols, nor any peculiar place of worship. They celebrate nocturnal dances, with singing, at the new and full moon; but these are rather pastimes than any thing relative to religious worship. Of late years, however, the glorious doctrines of the gospel have been introduced among them with surprising success; and we may confidently anticipate, that, both in respect of religion and civilization, this part of Africa will soon discover most important improvements.

Mr. Barrow, in his travels, took up his lodging at a place where a small number of Moravian missionaries had been several years established, for the express purpose of teaching the unenlightened Hottentots the truths of the Christian religion. After a night of undisturbed repose, he was awakened early by the most melodious

sounds, which proceeded from a groupe of female Hottentots, who were neatly dressed in printed cotton gowns, and assembled to chaunt their morning-hymn.

The ministers were three in number, of modest manners, humble deportment, and unfeigned piety; lively and intelligent in conversation, they freely answered every question that was asked them, and cheerfully welcomed the traveller to their habitations, which were equally remarkable for cleanliness and simplicity. Their church was a plain neat building; their mill superior to any in the colony, and their gardens abundantly stocked with an excellent variety of useful vegetables.

"Through the unremitting exertions of these men," says our traveller, "six hundred Hottentots have been united in one society, who have been instructed in different trades, and live comfortably in little huts that are sprinkled over the valley, whence they hire themselves out occasionally to the neighbouring peasants, or employ themselves at home in such avocations as are most congenial to their own inclinations, and best adapted for the subsistence of themselves and their families.

"On Sundays, they regularly attend their public devotions, when their apparel is extremely clean, and their behaviour truly devout. At the time of my visit, about three hundred composed the congregation, to whom an excellent and pathetic discourse was delivered by one of the fathers. The voices of the females were, in general, harmonious; and their style of singing was extremely sweet and plaintive."

We shall close this article with the following extracts from the last report of the London Missionary Society.

"During the past year, the communications from Africa have been peculiarly interesting. Mr. Campbell, agreeably to the proposed object of his mission, has visited the various missionary stations in distant parts of South Africa, has suggested many excellent regulations for their improvement, and has fixed upon several new places, in which missionary settlements may probably be established.

"After a careful examination of official papers relating to the missionaries, and obtaining passports from his excellency the governor, Sir John Cradock, to the landrosts of the districts through which he was to pass, he left Cape Town on the 31st of February, 1813, accompanied by Mr. Hammes, his son, Mr. Bartlett, a catechist, and several Christian Hottentots, and others belonging to Bethelsdorp. In a fortnight he reached the Drosdy of George, the inhabitants of which are desirous of having a missionary settled among them. Mr. Campbell promised that Mr. Pacalt should be sent to them for a time, to be succeeded by Mr. Wimmer.

"Mr. Campbell reached Bethelsdorp on the 20th of March, and was received by Mr. Read and all the missionary brethren with the most cordial affection, and, by the Hottentots, with the liveliest expressions of joy.

"He witnessed a greater degree of civilization than he was led to expect, from the reports in circulation, on his arrival in South Africa. He found at Bethelsdorp natives exercising the businesses of smiths, carpenters, sawyers, basket-makers, turners, &c. He saw cultivated fields extending two miles in length, on both sides of a river; their cattle had increased from two hundred and eighteen to two thousand two hundred and six; from three hundred to four hundred calves were produced in a year, not more than fifty of which were in that space of time allowed to be slaughtered. The blessed effects of religion were displayed in benevolent institutions formed among them: they had a fund for the support of the poor and sick, which amounted to two hundred and fifty rix-dollars; they proposed to build a house for the reception of part of their poor. They had also a common fund for the purpose of improving the settlement, amounting to one hundred and thirty dollars, and about thirty head of cattle; and they contributed, during the last twelve months, seventy rix-dollars in aid of this society.

"Such are the fruits of the seed sown among them by Dr. Van der Kemp, Messrs. Read, Ulbricht, Wimmer, and other faithful missionaries! Such are the powerful effects of divine truth among the most degraded of our species, in their civilization, as well as in the more important concerns of religion. Thus we see a Christian church, cultivated fields and gardens, useful manufactories, an hospital, and an auxiliary missionary society, among Hottentots!

"From Bethelsdorp, Mr. Campbell proceeded through a wild country, almost uninhabited, on the borders of Caffraria, in order to fix upon two spots, eligible for missionary settlements, in Zureveld, near the Great Fish River, the government having kindly promised to give sufficient portions of land for that purpose. Two suitable places were accordingly fixed upon, where, the land being good, a part of the people now at Bethelsdorp might settle, and to which some of the cattle might occasionally be sent for the sake of better pasture. Here it was agreed that Mr. Ulbricht, aided by Mr. Bartlett, should assist in forming a settlement.

"Mr. Campbell next travelled, in a north-westerly direction, to Graaf Reinet, where Mr. Kicherer resides, and had the pleasure of witnessing the happy effects of his labours; here also he met with John, Mary, and Martha, the Hottentots who visited England in the year 1803.

"Here Mr. C. continued about a week, and was favoured with an interview with a Mr. Burchel, a botanical traveller in South Africa, who had just returned from an excursion very far north, and who was the first European who had penetrated to that part of Africa from Graaf Reinet.

After receiving from him the most valuable directions and cautions, and accompanied by the native who had been his guide, he commenced his journey to the Orange River, about the 10th of May; Mr. Kicherer and other friends accompanying him a week's journey, as far as the limits of the colony; preaching, wherever they had opportunity, to the boors and the heathen, some of whom had never heard of a God, nor had they a word in their language whereby to denote him. He crossed the wild Boshiesmen's country until he reached the Orange River, and, after travelling about one hundred miles along its banks to the eastward, he found a ford, which he safely crossed: he describes the river as wider than the Thames at London-Bridge.

"On the next day he reached Klaar Water, the missionary settlement, which has long been under the care of Messrs. Anderson, Kramer, and Janz. Here he remained but a few days, and left it, accompanied by Messrs. Anderson, Kok, and Hendrick, in order to explore a large and populous city which had been described to him.

"After travelling ten days in the direction of north-north-east, they arrived at the city of Latakkoo, which contains about one thousand five hundred houses, neatly built, and about eight thousand inhabitants. After waiting ten days for the King, Mateebee, who was absent on a jackal-hunt, Mr. Campbell was introduced to him at sunset; when he requested leave to send missionaries to his people, to acquaint them with the religion of Jesus Christ

"After starting several objections to that measure, which Mr. C. was enabled to answer to his complete satisfaction, the king gave him this laconic answer—'Send them, and I will be a father to them.' This conference was repeated publicly, at the request of the king, on the next day, in the presence of his subjects, and the same liberty to send missionaries was openly granted.

"Here Mr. Campbell obtained the important information, that there were twenty tribes of people north of Latakkoo, who all speak the same language, and who are reported to be still more civilized.

"From Latakkoo Mr. Campbell travelled eastward, and in five days reached a large Coranna-town, called Malapeetze, where he understood that no white man had been seen before; to this place also he obtained leave from the chief and the majority of the inhabitants to send missionaries.

"Travelling southward from thence, he went in search of the Malalaren River, and discovered a kraal, situated in a most beautiful valley, where Makoon, the chief of all the Boshiesmen in that part of Africa, resided: he appeared to be a man of talents, and, though he had never before seen a European, he consented to Mr. Campbell's proposal of sending missions there also.

"From thence Mr. C. travelled along the Malalaren River to its junction with the Great Orange River, which he discovered was composed of four smaller rivers, the Malalaren, the Yellow River, and two others, which he named, in compliment to his respected friends, the governor and the secretary at the Cape, the Craddock and the Alexander. This geographical discovery has since afforded great pleasure to gentlemen of science at the Cape.

"Mr. Campbell and his friends then returned to Klaar Water, after a circular tour of six weeks; and Mr. C. continued about a fortnight there, to arrange the affairs of that settlement.

"He then proceeded on a route entirely new, directly across the continent of Africa, westward, pursuing nearly the course of the Great Orange River; and, on the 15th of September, reached Little Namaaqualand, on the western coast, where he had the pleasure of meeting the missionaries, Albrecht, Schmelen, and Ebner, labouring in their usual manner.

"From hence Mr. Campbell despatched Mr. Schmelen towards the mouth of the Great River, distant about ten days' journey, to ascertain, if possible, whether supplies could be obtained by sea from the Cape. Should this be found practicable, it will prove of inestimable advantage to all the settlers on the banks of that great river, and save the great labour and heavy expence of long journeys by land to and from Cape Town.

"Mr. Schmelen was desired, after exploring the country, especially the coast of Great Namaaqualand, to penetrate, if possible, into the Damara country, to obtain information concerning its inhabitants, and the regions beyond them, known to Europeans only by name.

"One circumstance, among the many difficulties and deliverances which Mr. Campbell experienced, must not be omitted. In the midst of that desolate wilderness through which he passed, an attack was one night made on his company by a party of wild Boshiesmen, who killed one of the Hottentots, and carried off all their oxen, which were more than one hundred. This left the missionaries in a situation, the peril and horror of which we can scarcely conceive; for had not their oxen been recovered, their total destruction seemed inevitable. In their trouble they called upon God, put themselves into the best posture of defence they could, and sent a party of Hottentots in pursuit of the plunderers: most happily they overtook them; the Boshiesmen fled, and the cattle were brought back before morning.

"After a journey of nine months, replete with dangers, discoveries, and mercies, Mr. C. returned to the Cape, in better health than when he set out; and, on the 7th of May, 1814, he arrived in London, and gave the society a full account of his successful mission."

CHAPTER XI.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

SECTION I.

STRAITS OF BABELMANDEL, AND ADJACENT ISLANDS.

BABELMANDEL is situated towards the entrance of the Red Sea, in the very middle of the straits, about four miles from the Arabian, and the same distance from the Abyssinian, coasts. Hence it forms two channels, one on each side of it, and, from its situation, might, if properly fortified, command both.

This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but, since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is comparatively of little consequence.

This island is a barren sandy spot of earth, not more than five miles in circumference, and contains only a few inhabitants, for whom it just supplies a subsistence.

DAHLAK is situated near the coast of Abex, about twenty leagues eastward from the continent, and about the same distance south of Masua. It is the largest and most considerable island on this coast, being near ninety miles in circumference. The air is temperate and salubrious, the land well watered and verdant, and the inhabitants tolerably numerous.

Great numbers of camels, oxen, goats, &c. feed in the pastures; the sea and rivers yield plenty of fish; and the natives are profusely supplied from the continent with honey and grain; but the chief wealth of the place arises from pearl-fishing, as the pearls found here are some of the finest in the universe. Besides pearls, this island produces many emeralds, some of which are of the green colour, in all its different shades, from very dark to extreme pale.

The goats' hair is very fine and long, so that it is manufactured into camblets. Here is a small insect, which feeds on a kind of gum, that distils from a tree which has some similitude to a cherry-tree; and from this insect gum-lac, used in varnishing, &c. is extracted.

Those inhabitants of Dahlak who do not concern themselves in fishing, are, in general, notorious pirates, and plunder all the ships that come in their way. They behave with asperity to all, but particularly to the Turks, when any of them are so unfortunate as to fall into their hands; and, when they return home, they take a peculiar pleasure in boasting of their piratical exploits to their wives, children, and relations.

The king of Dahlak is sovereign of this and many other islands, and his subjects consist chiefly of Christians of the Abyssinian church.

The people of Dahlak are black and ill-favoured, but strong, robust, daring, and loyal to their sovereign. They are sagacious and crafty, pleasant companions, and admirably skilled in story-telling. Their clothing is a large piece of silk, or cotton, according to their respective ranks, tied round the middle, and hanging down to the feet; but from the middle upwards both sexes go naked. Their language is Arabic, with a mixture of some Ethiopian words.

The capital city, which goes by the same name as the island itself, is situated on a point of land to the westward of it; but it is of no great consideration, as the king resides, the greatest part of the year, at the little island of Masua.

MASUA is only half a mile in length, and somewhat less in breadth. It is very flat, and lies near the main land, on the north-west side. It has a good harbour, secure in all weathers, the depth of the water being about eight or nine fathoms, and the ground oozy. The entrance of this port is on the north-east side, towards the middle of the channel, for from the east-north-east point of the island there runs a shoal towards another point; so that ships must take care to keep the middle of the channel, which is very narrow, and consequently dangerous.

The inhabitants resemble those of Dahlak, in their customs and manners. The men are of two classes, those who follow traffic, or the pearl-fishery, and those who live by piracy.

Masua, with all the opposite coast, was formerly subject to the king of Abyssinia; but, within the last century, it was seized by the king of Dahlak, who resides here chiefly for the convenience of carrying on a trade with the continent; from whence he receives abundance of gold and ivory.

MARATE is a low barren island, about three leagues from the continent, and sixty-six from Masua, but in compass it does not exceed five miles. On the south-west side, facing the coast, there is a good haven, formed by two very long points, which extend north by west, and south by east, inclosing a spacious harbour, narrow

at the mouth, where there lies a long flat island, with some sand-banks and shoals, so that no sea can get in. This port has two entrances, both very near the points. The channel, on the east side, lies north by west. The depth is three fathoms in the shallowest place, and increases advancing in the port, where, near the shore, it is four or five fathoms, and the bottom is rather muddy.

The people who inhabit this island differ in nothing with respect to customs, manners, &c. from those who reside in Masua and Dahlak.

SECTION II.

ZOCOTRA.

This island is situated in ten degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and fifty-three degrees sixteen minutes east longitude, about thirty leagues to the eastward of Cape Guardafui, on the most easterly point of the continent of Africa. It is about eighty miles in length, and fifty-four in breadth, and has two good harbours.

The climate is sultry, owing to the short continuance of the rains, which seldom last more than two or three weeks in the season; but this defect is remedied by heavy dews, occasioned by the lofty mountains, whose tops are generally covered with snow, so high as to condense the clouds, and afterwards dissolve them in a kind of heavy mist or fog, which thoroughly waters the earth. In some parts are rivers, which rise from springs, and are never dry: but other parts are totally destitute of water, except in the rainy season. This island is populous; and the inhabitants are under the government of a prince, or sultan, who was once subject to the Sherefs of Arabia, but is now tributary to the Porte.

The country abounds in cattle and fruit, with which, and some other commodities, the natives trade to Goa, where they are better received than the Arabs, who are not permitted to enter that town without passports. The other productions of the island are aloes, frankincense, dragons' blood, rice, dates, coral, and ambergris.

Of coral there are various kinds, some of which resemble small trees without leaves: and others are in the form of a net. The inside of the branches seems to be of the nature of horn; for it has the same scent when put into the fire; but the bark is of a stony nature, and contains much salt. Coral, properly so called, is of a stony nature, and placed in the animal kingdom, because it produces marine insects. Some of these are red, others white, and others of various colours. The red, of the colour of vermilion, is best, and is supposed to be of the male kind; and that which is palish, of the female. The white coral is the next in value. It is always covered with bark, and is stony, solid, and very hard, even in the water; though the branches are a little flexible, they soon grow hard in the air. The bark of the coral is a mixture of tartar, and a fluid of a glutinous nature; and though it is a little rough, it admits of a very fine polish. Some think the black coral to be a sea-plant of a different nature. Red coral is particularly esteemed in Arabia, where it is used for making several sorts of articles, such as spoons, heads of canes, knife-handles, and beads.

Besides the natives, there are great numbers of Arabs on this island; the latter of whom call the former by the name of Bedouins. These last are divided into two sorts, namely, the natives of the coast, who intermarry with the Arabs, and are called Half-Bedouins; and those of the interior parts, who religiously adhere to their own customs, and account it a heinous crime to intermarry with foreigners. These last are the true Bedouins, or original inhabitants of the country. They are much fairer than the Indians, and are in general tall and well-proportioned, but in their dispositions they are deceitful, indolent, and cowardly. Their food consists of milk, butter, rice, dates, and the flesh of their cattle; and their common beverage is water.

The other inhabitants of this island are of a low stature, disagreeable complexion, and hideous features; but they are hardy, strong, and active. They feed on fish, flesh, milk, butter, and vegetables. Their common dish is a composition of all these boiled together, with which bread or rice is eaten.

The native Bedouins go almost naked, having nothing more than a small piece of cloth fastened round the waist, and a cap made of goats' skin. The women go bareheaded, and have a short gown or cloak, with a shift made of goats' hair. But the most general dress of these islanders consists of a long cloak, which reaches from the waist to the ankles: it hangs down in a train behind, and is not unbecoming, though extremely incommodious, on account of the heat of the climate. When they are at work, they gather it up, and fasten it round the waist with a girdle.

These people have several very strange and uncommon customs. They practise polygamy, and divorce their wives at pleasure, either for a certain time, or for ever. A man may even be the father of children, without being obliged to maintain either them or the mother, provided the latter, during her pregnancy, consents that the father shall give away the child, when it sees the light. On these occasions the father kindles a fire before the door of his hut, and then makes proclamation that he will give away the infant of which his wife is on the point of being delivered. After this he fixes upon some particular person for its adopted father, to whom the infant is conveyed immediately after its birth. Here it meets with that tenderness and kindness which are denied it by the un-

natural father, and is ordered to be fed with goats' milk. These children are called *The sons or daughters of smoke*; and it frequently happens that a humane and liberal man has the honour of rearing a dozen children, upon whom he bestows all the affection of a real parent.

Another custom, not less strange and singular than the above, is that of burying their sick before they have breathed their last, esteeming it a duty to put them out of pain as soon as possible. When the father of a family apprehends that his dissolution is near, he assembles his children around him, whether natural or adopted, with his wives, servants, and all his acquaintance, whom he strongly exhorts to a compliance with the following articles of his last will: Never to admit any alteration in the doctrine or customs of their ancestors, never to intermarry with foreigners; never to permit an affront done to them or their predecessors to go unpunished; and, lastly, never to suffer a friend to lie in pain, when they can relieve him by death. Such are the extraordinary requests of the dying man; after which he makes the signal to have the last of them performed upon himself.

Justice is administered by the chief magistrates, who are next in rank to the sultan they are called hodamos, and sit at certain times to judge and determine in all causes, political or ecclesiastical, civil or criminal. They hold their office only for a year, during which they preserve the most distinguished power and dignity. There is no appeal from this tribunal, nor can the successors reverse any decree passed before their coming into office.

The punishment for murder is decapitation or impaling the criminal alive. In cases of theft, if the robber escape with his booty, and take sanctuary in a temple, he is protected; but if he be caught by the person robbed before he reaches the temple, he is delivered up to justice, and the punishment for the crime is the loss of his right-hand. More trifling offences are punished by fines, one half of which goes to the sultan, and the other half is equally divided among the magistrates.

With respect to the religion of the inhabitants of this island, the Arabs amongst them are Mahometans, but all the rest are Pagans, and practise the most superstitious rites.

In seasons of great drought they assemble in a solemn manner, and offer up their petitions to the moon. They make a public sacrifice to her towards the beginning of lent, and offer up numbers of goats in honour of her. They enter into their temples whenever the moon rises or sets, and practise several other religious ceremonies, which prove them to be the zealous votaries of this inconstant deity.

An English traveller says, "At the rising and setting of the moon, or at the new and full moon, they make solemn processions round their temples and burying places, striking against each other two pieces of odoriferous wood, about a yard long, which each man holds in his hands. This ceremony they perform three times in the day, and as often at night; after which, putting a large cauldron, suspended by three chains, over a great fire, they dip into it splinters of wood, with which they light their altars, and the porch of the temple. They then put up their prayers to the moon, that she will enlighten them with her countenance, shed upon them her benign influence, and never permit foreigners to intermix with them.

These particulars, relative to the religion of the inhabitants of this island, are confirmed by Sir Thomas Roe, who, during his stay here, took great pains to preserve, in his journal, a minute account of the manners and customs of the natives. This writer says, that he found the inhabitants of the island to consist of four different sorts of men, viz. of Arabs, whom the king of Caxem had sent to keep the island in subjection to him; of slaves to the prince, who are employed in preparing aloes, and other offices of drudgery; of Bedouins, the primitive inhabitants of the island, who were banished to the mountains till they submitted to the yoke, and agreed to breed up their children in the Mahometan religion; and, lastly, of savages, with long hair, who live naked in the woods, and refuse all society.

SECTION III.

COMORO ISLANDS.

The Comoro Islands derive their name from Comoro, the largest of them. They are five in number; and the other four are distinguished by the names of Mohilla, Angazeja, Hinzuan, or Joanna, and Mayotta. They lie opposite the shore of Zanguebar, and north of Madagascar.

Comoro, the largest, is not frequented by Europeans, as it has no safe harbour, and the natives are averse to commerce with strangers. The reason originated from the cruelties exercised on them by the Portuguese, when they first visited these seas; for they not only robbed them of their property, and committed the most dreadful outrages, but also made them captives, and frequently divested them of every earthly enjoyment, by forcing them on board their ships, and then selling them for slaves. It is, therefore, little to be wondered at, that the descendants of these unhappy people should look with detestation on those who had proved themselves such strangers to humanity.

This island is fertile, and abounds with cattle, sheep, hogs, and fowls of various sorts. It also produces sweet and sour oranges, great and small citrons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, honey, betel, sugar-canes, rice, and ginger.

Hinzuan, or Joanna, one of the principal of the Comoro Islands, is situated between the north end of

Madagascar and the continent of Africa, and is said to possess many natural advantages. The appearance of the island from the bay is thus described by Sir William Jones. "We were at anchor in a bay, and before us was a vast amphitheatre, of which you may form a general notion by picturing in your mind a multitude of hills, infinitely varied in size and figure, and then supposing them to be thrown together, with a kind of artless symmetry, in all imaginable positions. The back ground was a series of mountains, one of which is pointed, near half a mile perpendicularly high from the level of the sea, and little more than three miles from the shore; all of them richly clothed with wood, chiefly fruit-trees, of an exquisite verdure. I had seen many mountains of a stupendous height in Wales and Switzerland; but never saw one before, round whose bosom the clouds were almost continually rolling, while its green summit rose flourishing above them, and received from them an additional brightness.

"Next to this distant range of hills was another tier, part of which appeared charmingly verdant, and part rather barren; but the contrast of colours transformed even this nakedness into beauty. Nearer still were innumerable mountains, or rather cliffs, which brought down their verdure and fertility quite to the beach; so that every shade of green, the sweetest of colours, was displayed at one view, by land and by water. But nothing conduced more to the variety of this charming prospect than the many rows of palm-trees, especially the tall and graceful arecas, on the shores, in the valleys, and on the ridges of hills, where one might almost suppose them to have been planted regularly by design. A more beautiful appearance can scarcely be conceived than such a number of elegant palms in such a situation, with luxuriant tops, like verdant plumes, placed at just intervals, and showing between them part of the remoter landscape, while they left the rest to be supplied by the beholder's imagination. Neither the territory of Nice, with its olives, date-trees, and cypresses, nor the isles of Hieres, with their delightful orange-groves, appeared so charming to me as the view from the road of Hinzuan."

To these remarks we shall append the following account of an excursion by two English travellers, the second day after they landed on the island:

"As we set out early in the morning, we advanced about five miles into the country before the sun began to be troublesome; and this was no small stretch, considering the mountainous tract we had to go. We had fowling-pieces with us, and a view of excellent sport in shooting, could we have reached the places where the game lay; but we could not gain the summit of the hills, though we endeavoured to scramble up them on our hands and knees. We were obliged, therefore, to rest satisfied with what small birds presented themselves in the valleys, and on the hills that were passable. We made our breakfast on pine-apples and the milk of cocoa-nuts. About noon, coming to a beautiful piece of water, we seated ourselves in the shade, by the banks of it, to make a second meal, as well as to enjoy the tinkling of several little springs and natural cascades, that fell from the rocks, and, according to their distance, seemed to sound a gradation of notes, so as to form a kind of agreeable soothing water-music.

"The orange and lime-trees, which stood in great numbers about that spot of ground, bending under the weight of their fruit, diffused a most fragrant odour. There were also pine-apples, which grew wild, of eleven and thirteen inches in circumference, of a much richer flavour than those we afterwards met with in India. Our guides pointed out to us a number of gusava, and especially plum-trees, the size of whose fruit is about that of a damascene, and leaves a pleasing flavour on the palate for some minutes after it is eaten. All these growing promiscuously, and without the least arrangement of order, combined with the falls of water, and the stupendous height of the surrounding hills, covered with trees and verdure, and, in their various breaks and projections, exhibiting the boldest strokes of nature, altogether composed what might, without exaggeration, be called a terrestrial paradise, compared to which, the finest gardens in Europe, with their statues, artificial cascades, compartments, and all the refinements of human invention, would appear poor indeed. Here it was impossible for art to add any thing but what would rather spoil than adorn the scenery. It was not without regret that we quitted so charming a spot, after having feasted our eyes with the beauties of it; to which it may be mentioned, as no inconsiderable addition, that there was no fear of wild beasts or venomous creatures, to interrupt our pleasures."

In the interior of this island is a sacred lake, half a mile in circumference. The adjacent hills, covered with lofty trees, and the unfrequented solitude of the place, seem more calculated to inspire religious awe in those who visit this sequestered spot, than any sanctity in a flock of wild ducks inhabiting it, which are deified and worshipped by the original natives, who occasionally offer sacrifices to them, and consult them as their oracles upon all important occasions. Being extremely averse to conduct strangers to the lake, they always stipulate that all fire-arms shall be left at the distance of five miles. The worship paid to the birds ensures their safety and tranquillity, and renders them so perfectly tame, that they fearlessly approach any one who goes to see them.

The chief cattle of this island are oxen, sheep, and hogs. The oxen are, in general, of a middling size, and, like those in the East-Indies, are remarkable for having a large fleshy excrescence between their neck and back.

Their flesh is very sweet, and the excrescence, when kept for some time in pickle, tastes like marrow, and is generally preferred either to tongue or udder.

In the woods are great numbers of monkeys, of different kinds and sizes, and an animal called mongooz. This animal is about the size of a small cat, and has a head shaped like a fox, with black eyes, and orange-coloured circles round the pupil. The hair about the eyes is black, and hangs downwards in a point towards the nose, which is also black; but there is a space between the eyes and nose entirely white, which is continued to the sides of the face, as far as the ears. The upper parts of the head, neck, back, tail, and limbs, are of a dark-brown ash-colour, and the hair is somewhat woolly; the under side of the body is white, and the paws are like human hands, with flat nails, except a sharp-pointed claw on the second toe of the hinder feet. The tail is long, and the hair thick and soft. Its actions are like those of a monkey. It feeds on fruits, herbs, and almost every thing else, not excepting even live fish. There are several sorts of these animals, which differ only in colour; and they are all very harmless and inoffensive.

The maucauco is an animal about the size of a cat, with a head nearly resembling that of a fox. It has a lively piercing eye, its coat is woolly, and generally of a mouse-colour, and its tail, which is about three feet long, is variegated with circles of black, within an inch of each other, quite to the end. When taken young, it soon grows tame. The country abounds with large squirrels, but they are neither of good shape or colour. They have fowls and ducks here, and great variety of game; but the inhabitants are so inexperienced in the use both of nets and guns, that very few of them are caught.

The sea here abounds with several sorts of excellent fish, which the natives are very expert in catching, particularly thornbacks, mullets, and a flat fish, greatly resembling the turbot. But the most remarkable species is the parrot-fish, so called from its mouth, which is made like the bill of a parrot. It is about a foot long, and the colour is greenish, variegated near the head with yellow. The fins are blue, as are also the eyes, which are very sprightly, and have a yellow iris: the scales are very large, and there are two rows of strong teeth in the mouth, with which it breaks open muscles and oysters. The flesh of this fish is very firm, and well-tasted.

The town of Joanna is the royal residence, and contains about two hundred houses, which are enclosed either with high stone-walls, or palings made with a kind of reed; and the streets are little narrow alleys, extremely intricate, and forming a perfect labyrinth. The better kind of houses, which are built of stone, within a court-yard, have a portico to shield them from the sun, and one long lofty room where they receive guests, the other apartments being sacred to the women. The sides of their rooms are covered with a number of small mirrors, bits of china-ware, and other ornaments, that they procure from ships which come here to refresh: the most superb of them are furnished with cane-sofas, covered with chintz and satin mattresses.

The original natives of Hinzuan occupy the hilly parts of the country, and are frequently at war with the Arabian interlopers, who, being greatly superior in point of numbers, have established themselves on the sea-coast by conquest. Though this is not the largest of the Comora Islands, it claims sovereignty over, and exacts tribute from, all the others. Here also are a regular form of government, and a public exercise of the Mahometan religion, both being introduced by the Arabians.

The colour of the two races of inhabitants is very different: the Arabs have not so deep a tinge as the others, being of a copper complexion, with regular features, and a tolerably animated countenance. They consider a black streak under the eye as particularly ornamental; and this they make every day with a painting-brush. The custom of chewing betel-nut prevails greatly here, as in most parts of the African continent. No one is without a purse or bag of betel; and it is looked upon as an indispensable piece of civility to offer it to a friend, on meeting him or taking leave.

Their religion licenses a plurality of wives and concubines; and of these they are so jealous, that they totally seclude them from the sight of all other men: female strangers, however, are admitted into the harem; and some English women, whose curiosity has led them thither, make favourable reports of their beauty, and the richness of their apparel, which is displayed in a profusion of ornaments of gold, silver, and beads, in form of necklaces, bracelets, and ear-rings.

The men seem not to look with an eye of indifference on our fair countrywomen, notwithstanding they are of so different a complexion. One of the first rank among them, being deeply enamoured of an English young lady, wished to make a purchase of her at the price of five thousand dollars; but, on being informed that the lady would fetch at least twenty times that sum in India, he lamented that her value was so much above what he could afford to give.

Most of these people speak a little English: they profess a particular regard for our nation: repeat that "Joanna-man and Englishman all brothers;" and never fail to ask "How king George do?" They are very temperate and abstemious, wine being forbidden them by the laws of Mahomet. They attend their mosques three or four times every day; and, in prayer, they prostrate themselves on the ground, frequently kissing it, and expressing very fervent devotion. The superstitious adoration paid by

some of the original inhabitants to a flock of ducks, which we have already mentioned in a preceding part of this section, is held in the utmost detestation by the Arabian part of the islanders; but it seems impossible to abolish the practice of it without occasioning a prodigious effusion of blood. In general, they appear to be a courteous and well-disposed people, and very honest in their dealings; there are amongst them, however, as in all other nations, some viciously inclined: and theft is much practised by the lower class, notwithstanding the punishment of it is very exemplary, being amputation of both the hands of the delinquent. It must also be observed that these people, like the inhabitants of most tropical countries, are very indolent, and neglect to improve the richness of that soil with which nature has blessed them.

Mr. Grose, who was a considerable time on this island, has furnished us with a very curious account of the means by which the sovereignty of it was first acquired.

"The grandfather of the present king," says our author, "was an Arab, or Moorish trader to Mosambique, where, in a quarrel with a Portuguese fidalgo, or gentleman, with whom he was dealing for slaves on that coast, he had the misfortune to kill his adversary, and was obliged instantly to fly, and put to sea in the first boat he could seize on the shore; when the first land he made was Joanna, where he took refuge. Here, meeting with an hospitable reception, he remained some years in obscurity, till an Arabian vessel, being driven in there by stress of weather, he made himself known to his countrymen, for whom he procured all the relief the place afforded.

"In the mean time, he had so perfectly acquainted himself with the language and manners of the inhabitants, and was so captivated with the fertility and pleasantness of the island, that he not only relinquished every thought of returning to his own country, but laid a scheme to obtain for himself the sovereignty of this, in which he was greatly countenanced and assisted by the Arabs, his countrymen, who came into his views, from the advantage they expected to receive from his success.

"He proceeded not on a plan of violence, but of insinuation, in making himself necessary to the natives, whom he instructed in the use of arms, before unknown to them, especially in the assagay, or lance, which those of any consideration among them now handle with dexterity. This, with other methods of war, which he taught them, entirely new to these simple people, proving of singular service to them against the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands, especially of Mohilla, with whom they had constant bickerings, sometimes invading, and sometimes invaded, acquired him such consideration and authority, that he soon availed himself thereof, and procured himself to be elected their chief, and was invested with regal power. Yet this was not obtained but by degrees, and by great art; themselves, too, being divided among one another. As soon as he had carried his point, he made them repent of their credulity and confidence; for, not only strengthening himself, by calling in some of his countrymen, with their families, but choosing for his guards the most bold and determined of the natives, he was soon in a condition to establish an arbitrary government. Such as endeavoured to oppose him in his pretensions and innovations, he forced from their families, and sold them to the Arabs for slaves; who, on this alteration, increased their resort there for trade, which they still continue. In short, he succeeded so entirely, as to overcome all opposition, and to bequeath the peaceable sovereignty to his son, who was about forty-three years of age when his father died, and who had no further contention with his subjects, until also dying, a few years ago, he left two sons, of whom the eldest was king of the island when I was there."

The king seldom misses going on board the European vessels, where the captains regale him in the best manner, and compliment him, both on his arrival and departure, with a discharge of five guns. Every captain is obliged to have a licence from the king before he can trade with the natives; but this licence is easily acquired, nothing more being wanting than to compliment him with a few trifling articles of European manufacture.

As soon as a ship anchors in the road, it is immediately surrounded by a number of canoes, hurrying on board with refreshments of all sorts, the produce of the island; and it is diverting enough to observe the confusion and strife among the rowers, who shall get first to the ship to dispose of their commodities. They are sometimes overset, when the sea is high, but without any danger to their persons, as they are excellent swimmers, and lose only their little cargoes. Their canoes are most of them balanced on each side with outleagers, composed of two poles each, with one across, to prevent their oversetting. They use paddles, instead of oars, and make no distinction of head or stern. Their larger boats, called panguays, are raised some feet from the sides with reeds and branches of trees, well bound together with a small cord, and afterwards made water-proof with a kind of bitumen, or resinous substance. The mast carries a sail or two, which is made either of cocoa-leaves or steer-grass, matted together; and in these boats they will venture out to sea for trips of three or four weeks, and sometimes longer.

SECTION IV.

MADAGASCAR.

Extent, Climate, Soil, &c.] Madagascar is the largest of all the African Islands; being about eight hundred

miles in length, and, in some parts, above two hundred in breadth. It is every where watered by rivers and rivulets, which rise from a long chain of mountains that runs through its whole extent from east to west. These mountains are said to contain a variety of minerals and fossils. They are also covered with precipices, the summits of which are crowned with monstrous trees, that seem coeval with the world, and interspersed with great cascades, the approach to which is generally inaccessible. To these views, so sublimely picturesque, rural scenes succeed; little hills, gentle rising grounds, and extensive plains, the vegetation of which is never repressed by the intemperance or the vicissitudes of the seasons. The climate is uncommonly fine, and the soil so extremely fertile, that lands sown in the most careless manner produce a hundred fold.

In the vicinity of Amboule, a large town of Madagascar, there is a fountain of hot water, within twenty feet of a small river, whose sand is almost burning. The water of the fountain is said to boil an egg hard in two hours; and the inhabitants affirm it to be a sovereign remedy against the gout.

Minerals.] Many of the most valuable minerals are found here, among which are beds of pure rock-crystal, often used for optical purposes, and by some called Brazil pebbles, as also topazes, sapphires, emeralds, and spotted jaspers, commonly termed blood-stones.

Vegetables.] Of esculent plants, there are rice, bananas, yams, several kinds of kidney-beans, gourds, water-melons, and cocoa-nuts. The fruits are the pine-apple, tamarinds, oranges, and pomegranates. The spices are pepper, ginger, turmeric, cinnamon, &c. The Indian fig grows here, as does the ebony, the bamboo, the cotton, and indigo.

The fruit rabinsara, which abounds in the woods of Madagascar, is very valuable; and, according to the account of M. de Pagés, it unites in itself the qualities of cloves, cinnamon, and nutmeg, and, when gathered a little before it is ripe, is capable of supplying the place of those spices. The sugar-canes of this island are much larger and finer than any in the West-Indies, being as thick as a man's wrist, and so full of juice, that a single foot of them will weigh two pounds, and one of them will support a traveller for two or three days. Here are also abundance of tamarinds, and such prodigious quantities of limes and oranges, that very large casks may be filled with their juices at a trifling expence.

Animals.] The oxen of Madagascar are remarkably large and fat, and have invariably a protuberance of fat between the shoulders, weighing about twenty pounds. Their flesh is highly esteemed by Europeans trading to India, and ships are frequently sent out on purpose to kill and salt them in the island.

The sheep of this island differ but little from the goats, being equally hairy; only their heads are somewhat larger, their necks resemble that of a calf, and their tails are so extremely large as to weigh nine or ten pounds.

The bats of Madagascar are of an extraordinary size, and prove very troublesome to strangers. This species, called the vampire, has large canine teeth, a sharp black nose, large naked ears, a pointed tongue, terminated by sharp aculeated papillæ, strong compressed talons, and no tail. The head is of a dark ferruginous colour; on the neck, shoulders, and belly, of a lighter red; on the back and the membranes of the wings, dusky.

These odious creatures fly in flocks, and sometimes obscure the air with their prodigious numbers; they begin their flight from one island to another immediately after sun-set, and return in clouds from the first dawn of light till sun-rise. They commonly feed on fruits; and are so fond of the juice of the palm-tree, that they will intoxicate themselves with it till they fall senseless on the ground.

Vast quantities of locusts rise here from the low lands, in thick clouds, which frequently extend to an incredible length and breadth. The natives eat these insects, and even prefer them to their finest fish: their method of cooking them is, to strip off their legs and wings, and fry them in oil. Crocodiles, chameleons, &c., may also be reckoned among the most numerous animals of Madagascar.

Towns, &c.] The French settlement of Fort Dauphin is situated in the south-east extremity of the island. Almost all the towns and villages are built upon eminences, and surrounded by two rows of strong palisades, within which there is a parapet of earth, four feet in height, and sometimes there is likewise a ditch, ten feet in breadth, and six feet in depth. Their household furniture consists only of rush mats, which are either of a yellow or red colour. The floors on which they lie are covered with these mats, without bed, bolster, quilt, or any sort of covering, and the pillow is only a log of wood. Their kitchen-furniture consists of earthen pots, called villangues, wooden dishes and spoons, dried gourds, or calabashes, to hold water, knives, gridirons, mortars to pound rice, troughs, and winnowing-fans, with large vessels for honey-wine. The leaves of dates, twelve feet long, and four broad, are used instead of napkins, and small portions of them serve as plates. These are spread upon mats on the ground, for neither tables nor chairs are used.

Customs, Manners, Religion, and Government.] The natives of Madagascar, called Madecasses, are in person above the middle size of Europeans. The colour of the skin varies considerably in different tribes: among some it is of a deep black, among others tawney: some of the natives are of a copper-colour; but the complexion of

by far the greatest number is olive. All those who are black have woolly hair, like the negroes on the coast of Africa; but those who resemble Indians and Mulattoes have hair equally straight with that of Europeans, and their features are very regular and agreeable. In their dispositions they are lively and obliging; but wholly destitute of genius; vain, whimsical, and interested. Prompt in the use and application of their bodily faculties; but without the powers of ratiocination, or any thing like principle and system.

They wear an apron at their girdle, and something of the same kind on their shoulders, with a bonnet in form of an umbrella. Their hair is combed into small tresses, and the beard is suffered to grow only on the chin.

The women have expressive faces, and are generally of the middle size, or rather under it; and though few can be called ugly, scarcely any can be ranked among the handsome or pretty part of the sex. They tie a long apron round their waist, with a kind of under-waistcoat, which barely covers the breasts. They are fond of silver ornaments about the neck and arms. Their hair is divided into a multitude of little tresses, variously disposed, according to the particular fancy or taste of the individual.

The men are little addicted to agriculture, and are more inclined to look after their cattle, which roam in the woods. On the women is chiefly devolved the care of cultivating the fields, of raising rice, corn, and fruits, particularly the cassava, or Madagascar bread-tree.

Their common food consists of rice, bananas, and dried fish: they consume very little fresh meat, or fresh fish. Their usual beverage is rice-water, or the juice of the sugar-cane, fermented with mustard and pimento.

Though the natives of this island have no regular form of religious worship, yet they adore one Supreme Being, as the patron of justice and goodness, who will judge men after death, and reward or punish them for their demerits or good actions. The initiatory rite of the Jews is generally performed upon males between the seventh and eighth day of their age; but sometimes at a later period; and the day of circumcision is solemnized in all families with much joy and festivity.

They believe also in a devil, or evil being; and upon this article of their creed is founded the craft of the pansaret, or magician, who, being supposed to defeat or control the machinations of the invisible enemy, practises a thousand tricks on the credulity of the multitude. Few Indians, indeed, of good sense, give credit to the virtue of his enchantments; but the more ignorant and superstitious, who always compose the great mass of the people in every country, suffer themselves to be sadly duped by his fraud and imposition.

Amulets of a species of wood, suspended round the neck, or preserved in a little bag, are supposed to secure the possessor against wounds, or the disasters of war. A shrimp, or toad, applied with words of magical power to the head of a patient, is expected to restore him to his wonted health. Exposing the sick in a hut of a certain elevation, with an eastern aspect, from which is let fly an assemblage of party-coloured threads, is deemed a sovereign remedy in the most desperate cases. A cure is sometimes expected from painting the posts of the patient's house with different colours. Perfumes mix in abundance in all the arts and enchantments of the magician; and though the greatest part of this, no doubt, is imposture, the effects of effluvia are not unknown to the physician or the philosopher.

Madagascar presents a traveller with many other absurd observances, of which it may be difficult to trace the origin; but which, for the most part, seem to be the barbarous vestiges of religious notions, indistinctly transmitted to the people from their Asiatic neighbours.

They are accustomed to hunt the whale all along the coast; and, having been fortunate enough to strike him with the harpoon, they wait till his strength is nearly exhausted, when they haul him towards the shore. The women, watching their success, having by this time assembled on the beach, begin songs of praise in honour of him who had the merit of giving the first wound. The singers having withdrawn, the whale is dragged as near as possible to land, and surrounded by all the principal men of the village, when the public orator advances, and having pronounced a long oration on the pre-eminence and excellent qualities of the fish, it is cut up, and affords an immediate repast to the assembly.

All matters of dispute receive a formal discussion in the palaver, or council of the tribe. Here, too, all public business is solemnly and deliberately discussed; and much time is taken in weighing the arguments of different speakers. With all this affectation of gravity, however, the inhabitants of Madagascar have a weak intellect, and are far from being qualified, by a sound understanding, to avail themselves of maxims drawn from experience, in considering the contingencies of futurity.

Besides, as the country is divided into many small and independent states, the interest of any individual community becomes very much involved, insomuch that it is difficult to determine what line of conduct is most eligible. But their chief misfortune, as politicians and men of business, originates in the versatility of their own minds, which can never be fixed on one precise object.

Property in this island consists in cattle, grain, and slaves. Every person who has had the misfortune to be made a prisoner of war, is reduced to slavery, and from that moment is regarded by his own kindred as an object of contempt.

Their arms consist of a shield and a kind of lance, which they have the art of throwing with peculiar address. They are also tolerably well provided with muskets, which they have purchased of the French, and in the use of which they are not unskilful. A few of the petty princes have procured swivel-guns from the same quarter; and, it is said that, one of them is in a condition to bring cannon into the field.

On the eve of war, the women, children, and cattle, retreat to the woods, and remain in concealment till the issue of the campaign. The village is then occupied only by the men, who, previously to an act of hostility, sacrifice an ox. An Indian, distinguished for his eloquence, then rises and makes a long harangue on the arrogance and injustice of the enemy; his countrymen meanwhile dipping their lances in the blood of the victim. The carcase is then cut in pieces with the skin, and distributed among the by-standers, who instantly devour each man his portion with the most horrid voracity; a ceremony sufficiently descriptive of those ferocious sentiments with which they proceed to vindicate their rights, or avenge their wrongs. Their operations in the field are of a very desultory nature, consisting chiefly in harassing the enemy, or in attempting to surprise him when disadvantageously posted, or in the night.

If they have reason to imagine that an enemy is off his guard, or little prepared for the defence of his fort, they form a blockade round it, and endeavour, by a coup-de-main, to make the chief a prisoner of war. Should they have the good fortune to succeed, they plunder his village, drive off his cattle, and enslave his vassals; but seldom or never come to any thing like a regular engagement.

These people are susceptible of very violent enmities; and sometimes execute on their devoted subjects the most deliberate cruelties. M. de Pagés saw a chief dressed in a necklace, formed of the teeth of a rival, whom he had slain in battle. A man of the first quality, having captured a daughter and a cousin of an obnoxious neighbour, ordered them into his presence, and, in cold blood, with a single stroke of his lance, killed the former, and dismissed her companion to carry home the dismal news to the parent.

The customary use of presents is the same here as in India. It is the business of the inferior to make the first advance, as well as the first present; but he is sure of a return. This custom of giving and receiving presents, forms the bond of union between strangers and the oriental nations; and where the protection of a chief is not only necessary to security, but subsistence, we ought not too hastily to condemn a practice different from our own. Here presents are publicly given; with us the same effect is often produced by the less honourable means of private gratuities and solicitations.

The natives of Madagascar indulge in all the offices of hospitality; a virtue which is rather the result of a natural impulse of the heart, than the practice of any fixed and defined precept, such as founds the exercise of it in the nations of Asia. When some travellers tell us, however, that in Madagascar the offices of hospitality are carried to such a pitch of extravagance, as to make it customary for parents to prostitute their children to the embraces of strangers, they speak either from ignorance, or from a desire of exciting wonder in their readers. From a closer inspection of their manners, it will be found, that the little regard shown to chastity among that people may be resolved into a covetous principle, and a long acquaintance with the propensities of dissolute men.

Besides the article of presents, the chief, by means of his daughters, who act as spies on the sentiments and conduct of the paramour, obtains such intelligence as is sometimes conducive to his safety and independence. Thus the young ladies of Madagascar, habituated to intrigue, prompted by the political and mercenary views of their parents, and captivated by the charm of some new personal ornament, are easily won by the vows of their admirers.

In the language of this island, which is by no means harsh or disagreeable, M. de Pagés observed some of the same inflections of voice which occur in that of the Philippine Isles. It seems to be a compound of different dialects, and contains many words borrowed from the Arabic and Portuguese.

The province of Anossi, in Madagascar, is inhabited by three different sorts of whites, and four classes of negroes. The whites are distinguished by the names of Rohandrians, Anacandrians, and Ondzatsi; and the former of these claim a pre-eminence over all the others; for when they proceed to the election of a sovereign, he is always chosen from the Rohandrian race, and the men of his tribe hold the rank of princes, and are honoured as such by all the rest of his subjects. The Anacandrians are accounted the bastards of the princes, as having descended from Rohandrian men and inferior white or black women. These are likewise called by the name of *Ontempassemaca*, or "people from the sandy parts of Mecca," from whence, they say, came the Rohandrians. The Ondzatsi, or lowest class of whites, are descended from the illegitimate sons of the Anacandrians. These are all fishermen, and are allowed to kill no land-animal, except a chicken.

The four classes of negroes are named Voadziri, Lohavohits, Ontsoa, and Andeves. The Voadziri, the richest and most powerful class, are masters of several villages, and descended from the original lords of the country. They enjoy the privilege of killing beasts, when at a distance from the whites, and no Rohandrian or Anacandrian

in the village. The Lohavohits are descendants from the Voadziri, and also lords; but with this difference, that the one commands a whole district, and the jurisdiction of the others extends only to their own family and village. They are also permitted to kill those beasts they intend to eat, when at a distance from the whites. The Ontsoa are next to the Lohavohits, and are their near relations; and the Andeves are the lowest of all, being originally slaves by father and mother.

The Voadziri, Lohavohits, and Ontsoa, enjoy the privilege of submitting themselves, on the death of their sovereign, to any chief they please; but, by the present which the new lord makes on this occasion, he becomes the heir to all their possessions. Hence the lower classes, both of whites and blacks, are generally under the greatest anguish of mind when death approaches, knowing that their lords will not fail to deprive their children of every thing they possess. The Andeves have no choice in the election of a ruler; but in times of famine their chiefs are obliged to supply them with necessaries, or, in failure thereof, the people may throw off their allegiance.

Of the government of the island now under consideration we have the following account, in the second volume of Count Benyowsky's Memoirs:—"The Madagascar people have always acknowledged the line of Ramini as that to which the right of *Ampansacabe*, or sovereign, belongs. They have considered this line as extinct since the death of Dian Ramiri Larizon, which happened many years ago, and whose body was buried upon a mountain, out of which flows the river Manangourou; but, having acknowledged the heir of this line on the female side, they re-established the title in 1776. The right of the Ampansacabe consists in nominating the Rohandrians to assist in the cabars, at which all those who are cited are bound to appear, and the judgment of the sovereign in his cabar is decisive. Another prerogative is, that each Rohandrian is obliged to leave him, by will, a certain proportion of his property, which the successors usually purchase by a small tribute. Thirdly, the Ampansacabe is entitled to exact from each Rohandrian one-tenth of the produce of his land, together with a certain number of slaves and horned cattle."

At the time of our author's visit to Madagascar, it appeared that there were thirty-eight Rohandrians actually reigning, and two hundred and eighty-seven Voadziri. "These orders," continues he, "preserve a regular gradation, of which it would be extremely difficult to give a detailed account. They live in the manner of the ancient patriarchs. Every father of a family is priest and judge in his own house, though he depends on the Lohavohit, who superintends his conduct: this last is also answerable to his Voadziri, and the Voadziri to the Rohandrian."

M. Rochon, from a dissertation of M. Commerson has given the following account of a nation of dwarfs, called Kimos, who inhabit the interior parts of this island:—

"The distinguishing characteristics of these small people are, that they are whiter, or at least paler, in colour than all the negroes hitherto known; that their arms are so long, that they can stretch their hands below their knees without stooping; and that the women have scarcely any breasts, except when they suckle; and even then, we are assured, the greater part of them are obliged to make use of cows' milk, in order to nourish their young. With regard to intellectual faculties, these Kimos are not inferior to the other inhabitants of Madagascar, who are known to be very lively and ingenious, though they abandon themselves to the utmost indolence; but, we are told that, the Kimos, as they are much more active, are also much more warlike; so that their courage being, if we may use the expression, in the double ratio of their stature, they have never yet been overcome by their neighbours, who have often made attempts for that purpose. Though attacked with superior strength and weapons, (for they are not acquainted with the use of gunpowder and fire-arms, like their enemies,) they have always fought with courage, and retained liberty amidst their rocks, which, as they are extremely difficult of access, certainly contribute very much to their safety. They live there upon rice, various kinds of fruits, roots, and vegetables; and rear a great number of oxen and sheep, which form also a part of their subsistence. They hold no communication with the different casts by whom they are surrounded, either for the sake of commerce, or on any account whatever, as they procure all their necessaries from the lands which they possess. As the object of all the petty wars between them and the other inhabitants of the island is to carry away on either side a few cattle or slaves, the diminutive size of the Kimos saves them from the latter injury. With regard to the former, they are so fond of peace, that they resolve to endure it to a certain degree; that is to say, till they see from the tops of their mountains a formidable body advancing, with every hostile preparation, in the plains below. They then carry the superfluity of their flocks to the entrance of the defiles, where they leave them, and, as they say themselves, make a voluntary sacrifice of them to the indigence of their elder brethren; but at the same time threaten, in the severest terms, to attack them without mercy, should they endeavour to penetrate farther into their territories: a proof that it is neither from weakness nor cowardice that they purchase tranquillity by presents. Their weapons are assagays and darts, which they use with the utmost dexterity. It is pretended, if they could, according to their ardent wishes, hold any intercourse with Europeans, and procure from them fire-arms and ammunition, they would act on the offensive, as well as the defensive, against their neigh-

bours, who would then, perhaps, think themselves very happy to preserve peace.

"At the distance of two or three days' journey from Fort Dauphin, the inhabitants of that part of the country shew a number of small barrows, or earthen hillocks, in the form of graves, which, as is said, owe their origin to a great massacre of the Kimos, who were defeated in the field by their ancestors. However this may be, a tradition generally believed in that district, as well as in the whole island of Madagascar, of the actual existence of the Kimos, leaves us no room to doubt, that a part, at least, of what we are told respecting this people, is true. It is astonishing, that every thing which we know of this nation is collected from their neighbours; that no one has yet made observations on the spot where they reside; and that neither the governor of the Isles of France and Bourbon, nor the commanders at the different settlements which the French possessed on the coast of Madagascar, ever attempted to penetrate into the interior parts of the country, with a view of adding this discovery to many others, which they might have made at the same time.

"To return to the Kimos, I can declare, as being an eye-witness, that, in the voyage which I made to Fort Dauphin, about the end of the year 1770, the Count de Modave, the last governor, who had already communicated to me part of his observations, at length afforded me the satisfaction of seeing among his slaves a Kimos woman, aged about thirty, and three feet seven inches in height. Her complexion was, indeed, the fairest I had seen among the inhabitants of the island; and I remarked that she was well-limbed, though so low of stature, and far from being ill-proportioned; that her arms were exceedingly long, and could reach, without bending her body, as far as the knee; that her hair was short and woolly; that her features, which were agreeable, approached nearer to those of an European than to an inhabitant of Madagascar; and that she had naturally a pleasant look, and was good-humoured, sensible, and obliging, as far as could be judged from her behaviour. With regard to breasts, I saw no appearance of them, except the nipples: but this single observation is not at all sufficient to establish a variation from the common laws of nature.

"A little before our departure from Madagascar, a desire of recovering her liberty, as much as a dread of being carried away from her native country, induced this little slave to make her escape into the woods."

SECTION V.

MAURITIUS, OR THE ISLE OF FRANCE.

Situation, Extent, &c.] This island is situated in eighteen degrees thirty minutes of south latitude, and fifty-six degrees eight minutes of east longitude, and is about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference. The form is oval, and from many of the mountains torrents of water rush down with great impetuosity, and form various rapid rivers and rivulets, which are foul near where they fall, particularly in the rainy season, but grow clearer as they turn farther from the mountains, and are perfectly transparent before they disembogue themselves into the sea. Mauritius is watered by above sixty rivulets, some of which deserve the name of rivers, but others do not contain any water in the dry season. The whole have their sources principally in the mountains.

Soil.] The soil is almost invariably of a reddish colour, and mixed with veins of iron, which are frequently found near the surface in pieces about the size of a pea. In some parts, the ground resembles pipe-clay, and, to make trenches in it, they cut it with axes. There is no real sand in the soil; but the ground is every where rocky, except where artificial means have been used to make it otherwise.

Chief Towns.] This island contains two ports, the principal of which is to the south-east, where the Dutch settlement formerly was; the remains of the building belonging to which are still seen. This port may be entered with ease before the wind; but it is difficult to get out of it, as the gales generally blow to the south-east. The other port, named Port Louis, is situated to the north-west, and is smaller than the former; but the town belonging to it is deemed the capital of the island, though it is situated in a most disagreeable spot. This town, denominated the Camp, is built at the bottom of the port, and towards the opening of the valley. The valley is encircled by a chain of mountains, whose summits are rocky, without trees or bushes, but covered with a dingy herb.

The town itself is built with tolerable regularity; the houses are of wood, and only one story high: they stand separate from each other, and are all surrounded by palisadoes. The streets are not paved or planted with trees, nor are there any fortifications, except towards the sea, where the place is defended by the fort called Fort Blanc, and a battery on the little island of Tormellieres.

Vegetables.] On the Island of Mauritius is a turf, which grows in beds near the sea-shore: it is very thick and elastic, and its leaf is small and sharp-pointed. The cattle will not touch this herb, but browse upon a kind of dogs' grass, which grows in many parts, and jets out little hard branches from the joints. The best herb is one that grows on the windward side of the island: it has large blades, or rather leaves, and is green and tender all the year. Here are a prickly sort of asparagus; a mallow, with small leaves; a thistle, with yellow flowers, which yields seeds that are poisonous; a kind of sweet-scented lily, and sweet basil, which is of a healing quality.

The plants called raquettes, which bear yellow flowers,

are used, on account of their sharp prickles, in making hedges. The velantier is a plant whose odour is agreeable at a distance, less so as approached, and perfectly nauseous very near. There is a kind of bramble that bears a nut, the kernel of which is bitter, but efficacious in many disorders of the body. Balm-shrubs, and a bastard kind of potatoe, are common, as is pannier-grass, which latter serves for physic and clothing; for it is used medicinally, and likewise to make thread.

The Europeans seem to have been particularly attentive to the improvement of the vegetable system in this island, and that in all its variety. By means of culture, it produces, in great abundance, the different articles which serve either to please the eye, or to gratify the palate.

Animals.] The only quadrupeds natural to this island are monkeys and rats. The latter are very destructive to the corn and fruit. As the Europeans have transplanted a variety of articles in the vegetable system into this island, so have they, by importation, propagated numbers of useful animals, among which are horses, oxen, sheep, and hogs.

The birds called corbigeaux are deemed the best game on this island, but they are very difficult to catch. There are parrots, paroquets, two sorts of tropic birds, pigeons, and blackbirds, which are much admired by the natives. They have various kinds of poultry; but the most common are ducks and fowls, the former of which were brought from Manilla, and the latter from Europe. The wild fowl are pintadoes, Chinese pheasants, pigeons, and three sorts of partridges.

The most generally esteemed fish for eating here is a kind of turbot, called the water-pullet, the fat of which is green, and exceedingly delicious. The hog-fish has a head which greatly resembles a pike; and upon its back are seven points, as large as its body, united by a membrane, streaked with brown stripes, and resembling the wing of a bat.

Whales are frequently seen to the windward of this island; but they are not so large as those in the northern seas. Some of the fish near this island are poisonous, and others delicate and nutritious.

The eels are of the conger kind: they are, in general, eight feet long, as thick as a man's leg, and exceedingly voracious. There are numbers of lobsters, cray-fish, and crabs: the two former are of a fine blue colour, marbled with black: the latter are principally grey.

There are great numbers of insects in this island: the most destructive are the grasshoppers. Ants are also numerous, and very troublesome in the houses, as it is difficult to secure the provisions from being destroyed by them. Here are wasps, spiders, various kinds of flies, centipedes, and lizards. Moths, or small butterflies, so infest the houses after dark, that the inhabitants are obliged to put their candles into glass cylinders.

There is an insect here, called formicaleo, which is particularly destructive to the ants; and another named cancrelas, of which there are three sorts; the most common are about the size of a cock-chafer, of a reddish brown; another sort is flat, and of a grey colour. The houses are pestered with them, especially in wet weather, and they are very destructive to books and furniture.

The temperature of the climate is so favourable to the propagation of insects, that in a short time the fruits would be eaten up by them, and the island itself become uninhabitable, but most of the fruits of the meridional countries are clothed with a thick rind, and afterwards with a skin, a very hard shell, and an aromatic bark, insomuch that the flies can introduce their eggs but into very few of them. Many of these noxious animals are at perpetual war with each other. The formicaleos lay snares for the ant; the green fly pierces the cancrelas; the lizard hunts the butterfly; the spiders spread nets for every insect that flies; and the hurricane, which rages once a year, annihilates, at once, a great part both of the devourers and their prey.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The male inhabitants of this island are of the ordinary size, and tolerably proportioned. The women are pale, but well made, and, in general, handsome. They have great vivacity, and seem to possess minds capable of improvement. The most usual dress is muslin, trimmed with rose-coloured taffety. They are extravagantly fond of their children; yet, being ignorant themselves, they wholly neglect their education.

The first French settlers were simple, industrious, and hospitable; but, when the importance of the island was known, others came from France, from the same motives, and with the same views, as induce Europeans, in general, to repair to foreign settlements. The leading principle of the emigrators was avarice, to which they sacrificed both humanity and justice; and the same principle is still predominant among those who may be deemed the European inhabitants of the island.

Their houses are mere cabins of wood, which may be easily removed from one place to another upon rollers. The windows have neither glass nor curtains, and the furniture consists of but few articles, and those very plain.

In proportion to the number of people, few here are married. The people, in general, are immoderately fond of dancing; and the women in the plantations seldom come to town but at Easter, to confess, or when a ball is announced.

The mode of travelling, particularly for women and children, is in palanquins, carried by slaves; for the badness of the roads, and the unevenness of the streets, will not admit of the use of wheel-carriages.

The black inhabitants of the island are either Indians or negroes. The Indians are Malabars, or Malayans, who come from Pondicherry, to article themselves as servants

for a certain number of years. These occupy a spot called the Camp of the Blacks. In general, they work at trades, and are sober and frugal. They are dressed in long muslin gowns, wear a turban on their heads, have gold rings in their ears, and silver bracelets on their wrists. Some few serve the principal people as running-footmen. These being equipped with a handsome cane, and a poniard at the girdle, affect great state, and deliver the most trivial messages with an air of importance.

The negroes, or slaves, are brought from Madagascar. These are neither so black, nor so badly featured, as the natives of Guinea, but resemble the Europeans in feature, and, in complexion, incline to a copper-colour. They are, for the most part, active, ingenious, grateful, and faithful; and have a keener sense of an insult done to any one they love, than of any personal injury to themselves.

SECTION VI.

BOURBON.

This island is situated in twenty-one degrees south latitude, and fifty-four degrees east longitude, and is upwards of one hundred miles in circumference. It was first discovered, in the year 1545, by a Portuguese, of the house of Mascarinhas, who gave it the name of Mascarin, which it retained till the year 1654, when M. de Flacourt took possession of it in the name of the king of France, and gave it the name of Bourbon, which it still retains. He left there a few of his people and slaves, who, not liking their situation, were afterwards brought away by an English ship. The French, however, again formed a settlement there in 1674.

According to the latest accounts of this island, it abounds in all kinds of refreshments; and the air is particularly excellent. The roads are good for shipping; but there is not an harbour in the whole island. Here is plenty of wood and water; and the face of the country is beautifully diversified with hills and dales, pastures and woods, and watered by excellent springs and rivulets. In one of the mountains there is a small volcano, which discharges fire, and fills the neighbourhood with a bituminous matter; and the flames are perceived, in the night-time, at the distance of twenty-five leagues.

Some of the trees are fit for building vessels. The Isle of Bourbon likewise produces the shrub that bears coffee, the tamarisk, cocoa, cotton, aloe, and ebony tree. The black ebony is less esteemed than the yellow; and the wild coffee, which is very plentiful, is exceeding good. Many of the trees and plants produce odoriferous gums; and there are plenty of oranges, lemons, tobacco, palms, white pepper, &c.

Vines are successfully planted here, and considerable quantities of different kinds of grapes are annually produced. But the greatest inconveniences arise from the terrible hurricanes and storms, which are not only violent, but very frequent; hence shipwrecks are common, and the most horrid devastations become familiar to the eye.

This island abounds with black cattle, hogs, goats, and boars, the flesh of which is admirable, on account of their feeding on tortoises; many kinds of fowls, pigeons, turtle-doves, parrots, &c. The surrounding seas, and intersecting rivers and rivulets, supply the inhabitants with abundance of fish; and on the shore are found great quantities of ambergris, corals, and beautiful shells.

A French writer, in speaking of this island, says, "The best animal found here, whether for taste or wholesomeness, is the land-tortoise; and the most agreeable fruit is the anana. This tortoise is of the same figure with those in Europe, but of very different size.

"The bat of this island is very singular, and might be called the flying-fox: it resembles this animal in size, hair, head, ears, and even teeth. The female has two teats, and under each wing a bag, to carry her young in. The length of the wing is about four feet from one extremity to the other. The flesh is so delicious, that the natives hunt for them with the same eagerness that we shoot partridges."

A French officer, who visited both this island and Mauritius, relates the following anecdote, concerning one of the pirates who used to infest this island. "The viceroy of Goa came one day to anchor in the road of St. Denis, and was to dine with the governor. He had scarcely set his foot on shore before a pirate ship, of fifty guns, anchored along-side his vessel, and took her. The captain landed, and demanded to dine at the governor's. He seated himself at table between him and the Portuguese viceroy, to the latter of whom he declared that he was his prisoner. Wine and good cheer having put the seaman in good humour, M. Desforges, the governor, asked him at how much he rated the viceroy's ransom? 'I must have,' said the pirate, 'a thousand piastres.' 'That's too little,' said M. Desforges, 'for a brave fellow, like you, to have for a great lord, like him: ask enough, or ask not any thing.' 'Well, then, I ask not any thing,' replied the corsair, 'let him be free.' The viceroy instantly re-embarked and set sail, happy at having escaped on such good terms. The pirate settled on the island, and was hanged, a considerable time after an amnesty had been published in favour of his companions, and in which he had failed to have himself included. This injustice was the work of a counsellor, or judge, who was desirous of appropriating the spoils of the pirate to his own use."

The same writer has also given us the following description of the original inhabitants of this island, with observations on their present state

"The manners of the first inhabitants of Bourbon were very simple; and the greater number of the houses were not made to shut, so that a lock was a curiosity. Some people even put their money in a tortoise-shell over their door. They dressed in blue cloth, went bare-footed, and lived upon rice and coffee. They imported but little from Europe; contented without luxury, they lived without want. They joined to this moderation the virtues that ever attend it, good faith in commerce, and generosity in their proceedings. As soon as a stranger appeared, the inhabitants came to him, and, as a mark of hospitality, offered him their houses.

"The wars in the Indies, however, have made a change in their manners. The volunteers of Bourbon distinguished themselves by their bravery; but the manufactures of Asia, and the military distinctions of France, thereby got footing in the island. The children, richer than their parents, require to be treated with more respect. They now seek pleasures and honours in Europe, in exchange for domestic happiness and the quiet of a country life. The attention of the fathers being chiefly fixed upon their sons, they send them to France, whence they seldom return; hence it is that, in this island, there are, in general, more than five hundred girls marriageable, who have very little prospect of obtaining husbands."

The whites who inhabit this island are estimated at five thousand, and the blacks at six thousand. The principal traffic is with France, to which they export the various commodities of the country. The chief town is St. Denis, the residence of the governor and council. It is a small place, and does not contain any thing remarkable, except a redoubt, built of stone, and a drawbridge.

SECTION VII.

ISLAND OF ST. HELENA.

This island is situated in five degrees forty-nine minutes of west longitude, and in fifteen degrees fifty-five minutes of south latitude, being one thousand two hundred miles west of the continent of Africa, and one thousand eight hundred east of South America. The island is a rock, about twenty-one miles in circumference, very high and steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, which is defended by batteries of guns, planted level with the water.

This island is said to have been first discovered and settled by the Portuguese on the festival of the Empress Helena, mother of the Emperor Constantine, for which reason the Portuguese gave it her name, which it still bears. But, it being afterwards deserted by them, it lay waste, till the Dutch settled it again. But they afterwards relinquished it for a more convenient situation at the Cape of Good Hope. The English East-India Company then settled their servants there, and began to fortify it; but, being yet weak, the Dutch, about the year 1672, retook it, and kept it in their possession. This news being reported in England, an officer was sent to take it again, who, by the advice and conduct of one that had formerly lived there, landed a party of armed men in the night, in a small cove, unknown to the Dutch then in garrison, and, climbing the rocks, got up into the island, and reached, in the morning, to the hills hanging over the fort, which stands by the sea, in a valley. From thence firing into the fort, they soon made them surrender. This island has continued ever since in the hands of the English East-India Company, and has been greatly strengthened both with men and guns, so that at present it is secure from the invasion of an enemy. The common landing-place is a small bay, like a half-moon, scarcely five hundred paces wide, between the two points. Close by the sea-side are guns, planted at equal distances, lying along from one end of the bay to the other; besides a small fort, a little farther in from the sea, near the midst of the bay; all which renders the bay so strong, that it is impossible to force it.

St. Helena is situated in the most serene climate, and is delightfully temperate. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, &c. The flour used here is almost wholly imported from England, and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes, instead of bread. They have also a tolerably good supply of rice, which the East-India Company's ships bring from Bengal. Though the island appears, on every side, a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

There is a small English town within the great bay, standing in a little valley, between two high mountains; and containing about twenty or thirty houses, whose walls are built with rough stones. The furniture is very mean. The governor has a decent house by the fort, where he commonly lives, having a few soldiers to attend him, and to guard the fort. But most of the houses in the town stand empty, excepting when vessels arrive, as the owners have all plantatious farther in the island, where they constantly employ themselves. But, when ships arrive, they all flock to the town, where they live during the time the vessels remain here; for then is their fair or market, to buy such necessaries as they want, and to sell off the productions of their plantations.

Every house is let out in lodgings, which are very dear Their profits must be great, particularly when it is considered they raise all their own stock, enjoy it with their

lodgers, and make them, likewise, pay most extravagantly dear for it.

The company's affairs are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-house-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed them, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and respectable passengers, are welcome. The natives sometimes call the result of their consultations severe impositions: and, though relief may be had from the company in England, the unavoidable delays in returning a redress at that distance, sometimes subject the addressers to hardships; so that, were not the situation of this island very serviceable to our East-India ships homeward-bound, the constant trouble and expence would induce the company to abandon the island; for, though it is furnished with the conveniences of life, yet it has few commodities of any profit to merchants.

There are about two hundred families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The white inhabitants are subjects of the king of Great Britain: these employ negroes, who transport goods of all kinds from place to place on their heads. There are a small number of horses at St. Helena; but they are never employed in draught, there being no such thing as a waggon or a cart on the island, though in many places the land is not so steep, but that such carriages might easily be drawn.

SECTION VIII.

ISLAND OF ASCENSION.

This island is situate in seven degrees fifty-seven minutes of south latitude, and thirteen degrees fifty-nine minutes of west longitude, six hundred miles north-west of St. Helena. It received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day, and is a mountainous barren island, about twenty miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a safe convenient harbour, where the East-India ships generally touch, to furnish themselves with turtle, which are plentiful here, and very large, some of them weighing above one hundred pounds each.

For the following particulars we are indebted to the pen of Mr. Forster:—

"We sent several parties on shore, who passed the night on the watch for turtles, which came to lay their eggs on the sand. The dreariness of the place surpassed all the horrors of Easter Island and Terra del Fuego, even without the assistance of snow. It was, in fact, a ruinous heap of rocks, which seemed to be totally changed by the fire of a volcano. Nearly in the centre of the island rises a broad mountain, of great height, which, from the circumstance of its being partly covered with verdure has obtained the name of the Green Mountain

"We landed early in the morning among some rocks, the surf being always immensely high on the great beach, which consists of minute shell-sand, chiefly of a snowy white, very dry, and intolerable to the eyes, when the sun shines. We ascended among heaps of black cavernous stone, which exactly resembles the most common lavas of Vesuvius, and of which the broken parts looked as if they had been accumulated by art. The lava currents, cooling very suddenly, may easily be imagined to produce such an effect. Having ascended about fifteen yards perpendicularly, we found ourselves on a level plain of six or eight miles in circuit; in the different corners of which we observed a large hill, of a conical shape and reddish colour, standing perfectly insulated. Part of the plain between these conical hills was covered with smaller hillocks, consisting of the same wild and ragged lava as that near the sea, and ringing like glass, when two pieces are knocked together. The ground between the heaps of lava was covered with a black earth, on which we walked very firmly; but, when these heaps did not appear, the whole was a red earth, so extremely loose, and in such dry minute particles, that the wind raised clouds of dust upon it.

"The conical hills consisted of a very different sort of lava, which was red, soft, and crumbling into earth. One of these hills stands directly in front of the bay, and has a wooden cross on its summit, from whence the bay is said to derive its name. Its sides are remarkably steep, but a path, near three-quarters of a mile long, winds round it to the summit.

"After examining this remarkable country for some time, we concluded, that the plain on which we stood was once the seat of a volcano, by the accumulation of whose cinders and pumice-stones the conical hills had been gradually formed: and that the currents of lava, which we now saw divided into many heaps, had been gradually buried in fresh cinders and ashes; and the waters, coming down from the interior mountain in the rainy season, had smothered every thing in their way, and filled up by degrees the cavity of the water.

"We landed a second time, and, crossing a plain, arrived at a prodigious lava-current, intersected by many channels, from six to eight yards deep, which bore strong marks of having been worn by vast torrents of water, but were at present perfectly dry, the sun being in the northern hemisphere. In these gulleys we found a small quantity of soil, consisting of a black volcanic earth, mixed with some whitish particles, and very gritty to the touch.

"Having, with great fatigue, climbed over this extensive and tremendous current of lava, we approached the foot of the Green Mountain, which, even from our vessel in the bay, we had plainly distinguished to be of a different nature from all the rest of the country. Those parts

of the lava which surrounded it were covered with a prodigious quantity of purslane, and a kind of new fern, where several flocks of wild goats were feeding. The great mountain is divided in its extremities, by various clefts, into several bodies; but in the centre they all run together, and form one broad mass of considerable height. The whole appears to consist of a gritty lime-stone, which has never been attacked by the volcano, but probably existed prior to its eruption. The sides of the mountain are clothed with a kind of grass, peculiar to the island; and the master of the New York sloop informed us, that there is a spring of water on one part of the mountain, which falls down a great precipice, and is afterwards absorbed in the sand."

Our author is of opinion that, with proper exertions, Ascension Island might shortly be rendered fit for the habitation of men. "The introduction of furze," says he, "and of a few other plants, which thrive best in a parched soil, would soon have the same effect as at St. Helena. The moisture attracted from the atmosphere by the high mountains in the centre of the island, would then no longer be evaporated by the violent action of the sun, but collect into rivulets, and gradually supply the whole country. A sod of grasses would every where cover the surface of the ground, and annually increase the stratum of mould, till it could be planted with more useful vegetables." Mr. Forster and his companions returned gradually to Cross Bay, in the heat of noon; having a space of more than five miles to traverse, where the sun blistered their faces and necks, and heated the soil to such a violent degree, that their feet were likewise extremely sore. About three o'clock they arrived at the water's side, and, after bathing in a small cove among the rocks, went on board their vessel. Next morning, they made another small excursion toward the Green Mountain; but they were all so much fatigued that they could not reach it."

SECTION IX.

THE CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS.

These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the River Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of three hundred miles, between twenty-three and twenty-six degrees of west longitude, and fourteen and eighteen degrees of north latitude. They were first discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but several of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Fuego, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonia, are the most considerable.

The climate of these islands is exceedingly hot, and, in some parts, unwholesome. The soil differs with the climate; for though several of them are very stony and barren, yet the principal part are fertile, and produce various sorts of grain and fruits, particularly rice, maize, or Indian wheat, bananas, lemons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, cocoa-nuts, figs, and melons. They have also a sort of pulse, like French beans, and great quantities of pumpkins, which form the common food of the inhabitants.

These islands produce two other kinds of fruit, of a remarkable nature, viz. the custard-apple and the papaw. The former of these is as large as a pomegranate, and much of the same colour. The outside husk, or rind, is in substance and thickness between the shell of a pomegranate and the peel of a Seville orange, softer than the former, yet more brittle than the latter. The coat, or rind, is also remarkable for being covered with small regular knobs or risings; and the inside of the fruit is full of a white soft pulp, which, in its form, colour, and taste, greatly resembles a custard, whence it received its name, which was, probably, first given it by the Europeans. It has in the middle a few small black stones, but no core, for the whole of it is entire pulp. The tree that bears this fruit is about the size of a quince-tree, and has long slender branches that spread a considerable way from the trunk. The fruit grows at the extremity of these branches, upon a stalk about nine or ten inches long.

The papaw is a fruit about the size of a musk-melon, and resembles it in shape and colour, both within and without; only in the middle, instead of flat kernels, which the melons have, these have a quantity of small blackish seeds, about the size of pepper-corns, the taste of which is much the same as that spice. The fruit itself, when ripe, is sweet, soft, and luscious.

In addition to the vegetable productions of these islands, may be added the following, as described by Dr. Gillan, who attended Earl Macartney and his suite, on the embassy to China, when they touched at the island of St. Jago.

"The asclepias gigantina, noticed for its milky but corrosive juice, was rich in flower. The jatropha curcas, or physic nut-tree, called, by the French West-Indians, *bois immortel*, was also flourishing; and, in shady vales, some indigo-plants, and a few cotton-shrubs, were successfully cultivated. The mimosa, or sensitive plant, common about the country, growing to the size of trees, did not appear to languish, and, in some parts, the annona, or sugar-apple, was in perfect verdure.

"A tree, which, for size, may be called a phenomenon in vegetation, was discovered in a healthy state, in a vale about a mile and a half from the town of Praya, called, by botanists, Adansonia; in English, monkey bread-tree. The natives of St. Jago call it kabifera; others, baobab. The circumference, or girth of the base, was fifty-six feet,

which soon divided into two vast branches, the one in a perpendicular direction, whose periphery was forty-two feet, the other about twenty-six. Another of the same species stood near it, whose single trunk, girthing only thirty-eight feet, was scarcely noticed."

"This tree," says Golberry, "is the most monstrous of all productions of the vegetable kingdom. It is the most admirable, because, by its nature, it longest resists the action of time; because, by its organisation, and the vigour of its constitution, it attains an unmeasurable size; because, with the faculty of existing for thirty centuries, the heart of its wood is still light and tender; and because, the baobab is a pithy tree, and the pith occupies so considerable a part of the interior of this prodigious vegetable, that, when a sort of mouldiness takes place, to which its centre is subject, there are formed, within these colossi, caverns of twenty feet in height, and as many in diameter. This astonishing vegetable production, which holds the same rank amongst vegetables as the elephant does amongst quadrupeds, or the whale amongst fish, undoubtedly deserves to be spoken of in detail; and will be found worthy of the attention of the curious reader, who wishes to acquire information.

"This tree, which belongs to the genus of *malva*, delights only in the hottest countries, attains an enormous circumference in humid and sandy soils, and it is highly probable that such soils are most congenial to its nature, though the rule is not without exception.

"I saw the greatest number of baobabs on the isthmus of the peninsula of Cape Verd, between the bay of Jof and that of Dakar. This space, which comprises nearly two square leagues, contained, in 1786, at least sixty baobabs, all separated from each other. This country, as well as all the country of Cape Verd, is sandy, and the baobab may be said to be the principal vegetable produced on its soil.

"I have, however, seen several of these trees in a very fat soil, and one enormous baobab, which contained a cavern twenty-two feet high, and upwards of twenty in diameter: this tree existed in a green and flourishing antiquity, completely surrounded with the finest and most beautiful vegetation that can possibly be conceived.

"The young baobabs of the isles of la Madeline, near Goree, which have been observed by others as well as myself, and of which M. Adanson has carefully collected all the facts which can tend to elucidate the character of such a prodigious vegetable, have existed for a number of centuries, and have not yet attained a middling size, on a soil the same as that of the island of Goree, the bottom of which is covered with sand, and appears to contain nothing but the lava of a volcanic rock.

"The colour of the bark of the baobab is a clear brown, interspersed with small grey spots; but the colour of the trunk of the tree is deeper than that of the principal branches; and the ramifications proceeding from these branches are of a dark grey colour, inclining to green. The bark is very thick, compact, and almost as hard as the wood, and both are nearly similar in substance to lignum vitæ. The leaves are from six to eight inches long, by upwards of three wide, and are fixed to the number of three, five, or seven, on a single stalk, like the leaves of the India chesnut-tree, to which they are in many respects extremely similar.

"In the old baobabs it is not the mother-branches which take a horizontal direction, nor is it the large shoots that proceed from them, that bear a number of leaves; they have some, it is true, but they are scarce; it is from the scions of two or three inches in diameter that issue a vast number of ramifications, which rise perpendicularly, and are covered with foliage in incredible profusion, while the mother-branches and large shoots bear leaves only at their extremities: but, as in the old baobabs, that have retained their full vigour, notwithstanding this prodigious age, the number of vertical sprigs is extremely great, the beautiful and venerable head of these patriarchs of vegetation forms an immense dome, of a very rich and elegant verdure."

M. Adanson observed that the roots of this tree extend to an extraordinary distance in a horizontal direction, and almost on the surface of the ground, or at a very little depth from the superficies of the soil.

"These roots frequently exceed sixty feet in length, and the large ones, whose direction is always horizontal, are stronger and thicker than the mother-branches of the tree, with which they rather accurately correspond in number and direction, issuing like ridges from the trunk.

"Below these ridges the trunk of the tree is protracted, and forms a root, the direction of which is perfectly vertical, and the figure that of a large cone: this root penetrates to a great depth; it is the pivot of the tree, is a solid piece, and of thickness proportionate to the colossus which it attaches to the earth, and of which it is the prolongation: it is by means of this pivot, this profound and enormous root, that the baobab derives the greatest part of its nutriment; it is to this, also, that it is indebted, in a great degree, for its solidity and stability. But the bonds which attach such an enormous vegetable to the earth must necessarily possess a power and solidity proportionate to the mass they sustain.

"In the countries of Cape Verd, for example, which are not only very high, but form a point that advances into the sea upwards of thirty leagues, and are subject to all the violence of the land and sea winds, the baobabs, which are separated at a considerable distance from each other, could not resist the impetuosity and force of the winds, if their roots had not been of a very considerable thickness and depth, and if their solidity and resistance had not

been in equilibrio with the power and efforts exercised by the winds on the surfaces of such enormous vegetables.

"The flowers of this tree are white, and very large; when expanded, they are four inches long, and nearly six inches in diameter: they contract and close at the approach of night, and expand in the morning.

"The blacks of Africa incessantly admire this faculty possessed by the flower of the baobab: they say, that this flower sleeps, and they take pleasure in assembling before sun-rise round the baobabs in blossom, for the purpose of observing its expansion. These negroes also adopt the custom, at sun-rise, of collecting the young leaves of the baobab, which they employ for different purposes; but they particularly use them for giving a fine flavour to their hot water, by the steam of which they cook their food.

"The fruit of the baobab is of a very oblong form, terminating in a point: it is eighteen inches long by rather more than eighteen in circumference at the middle; its form approaches to that of the cucumber, but it is thinner at the two ends; its axis is perfectly straight, and its figure tolerably regular, for it produces two cones, almost equal to each other, when separated in the middle. The rind of this fruit is hard and ligneous, of a very dark brown colour, and marked by furrows, which divide its surface into thirteen segments, in a longitudinal direction. The outer surface of the fruit is covered with a very fine and thin down, of a greenish colour; but, when it is at its perfect maturity, this down disappears, and leaves the black bark perfectly exposed, which, being compact and of a brilliant polish, causes the whole to resemble a black cocoa-nut, deprived of its outer rind. This fruit contains a white, spongy, and pulpy substance, extremely light when the fruit is dried, but at the period of its maturity is quite soaked with an acidulated, though sweetish, juice, very agreeable to the palate.

"This pulp is divided by filamentary partitions into thirteen compartments, which take a longitudinal direction: in these compartments are contained the grains or seed, in the form of beans, about six lines wide, and as many long, so that they are nearly globular.

"Each fruit contains several hundred grains. The Africans assert, that the pulp of the fruit possesses several virtues: they reduce it to powder, diluted with milk, or even with pure water, and use it with considerable success in spittings of blood. When mixed in a thin decoction of tamarinds, they consider it an infallible remedy for the bilious bloody flux; and the women, who are subject to hæmorrhages, compose pills with the powder of this pulp and gum, in which they place the greatest confidence."

The Cape de Verd Islands abound with several sorts of poultry, particularly curlews, Guinea-hens, and flamingos, the latter of which are very numerous. The flamingo is a large bird, much like a heron in shape, but bigger and of a reddish colour. They go in flocks; but are so shy, that it is very difficult to catch them. They build their nests in shallow ponds, where there is much mud which they scrape together, making little hillocks, like small islands, that appear about a foot and a half above the surface of the water. They make the foundations of these hillocks broad, bringing them up taper to the top, where they leave a small hollow pit to lay their eggs in. They never lay more than two eggs, and seldom less. The young ones cannot fly till they are almost full-grown; but they run with prodigious swiftness. Their flesh is lean, and of a dingy colour, but it neither tastes fishy nor unpleasant. Their tongues are broad and long, having a large lump of fat at the root, which is delicious in its taste, and so greatly admired, that a dish of them will produce a considerable sum of money.

There are many wild animals in these islands, particularly lions and tigers, monkeys, baboons, and civet-cats. The tame animals are camels, horses, asses, sheep, mules, cows, goats, hogs, &c.

The sea is plentifully stocked with fish of various sorts, and there is such plenty of turtle here, that several foreign ships come annually to catch them. In the wet season, the turtles go ashore to lay their eggs in the sand, which they leave to be hatched by the heat of the sun. The inhabitants go out in the night, and catch the turtles by turning them on their backs with poles, for they are so large that they cannot do it with their hands.

The Europeans settled in these islands profess the Roman Catholic religion. The natives are all negroes, and being subject to the Portuguese, have their religion and language. Both men and women are stout, and well-proportioned; and they are, in general, of a civil and quiet disposition. Their dress is very trifling, consisting only of a piece of cotton-cloth wound round the waist. The women sometimes throw it over their heads, and the men across the shoulders. Neither sex wear shoes or stockings, except on particular festivals.

The population of the Cape de Verd Islands is estimated at forty-two thousand inhabitants. Of these, St. Jago is said to contain twelve thousand; Bonavista, eight thousand; the Isle of Mayo, seven thousand; St. Nicholas, six thousand; Antonio, four thousand; Fuego, four thousand; Bravo, five hundred; and those not specified till fewer.

The English missionaries touched at St. Jago in 1796, and represent it as the most fruitful and best inhabited of all the Cape de Verd Islands. They acknowledge that they were treated by the governor with the greatest hospitality. The town of Port Praya consists of about a hundred small huts, one story high, built of wood, thinly scattered. It has a fort, or battery, almost in ruins. The

jail is the best building, and next to that the church, at which officiated a mulatto priest. The governor resides in a small wooden barrack, at the extremity of the plain, commanding a view of the bay and shipping. Earl Macartney, on his embassy, was received by him with due honour and respect; but, as he had shared in the general wretchedness occasioned by the long drought and arid winds, which at that time prevailed, he had neither wine nor any other refreshment to offer.

SECTION X.

ISLAND OF GOREE.

This island is situated near Cape de Verd, in fourteen degrees forty-three minutes north latitude, and seventeen degrees twenty minutes west longitude, being the only European settlement between the rivers Gambia and Senegal. It forms an excellent road for shipping, and is surrounded by rocks, every where inaccessible, except at a little creek, one hundred and twenty fathoms broad, and sixty fathoms long, enclosed between two points of land: one of which is pretty high, and called the Point of the Burying-ground; the other is lower, and before it lies a sand-bank, over which the sea beats with great fury. All round this island there is good anchoring, and particularly in the before-mentioned creek, between which and the land ships may ride in perfect security from the most dangerous surges.

From the dark and basaltic colour of the rock which forms the island, from the substance of this rock, and the heaps of prismatic rubbish with which some parts of its base are covered, there can be no doubt that Goree has been detached from Cape Verd by a volcanic revolution. A substance which combines many of the qualities of pozzolane, and which is found in several parts amongst the rubbish at the foot of the rock, also gives weight to this opinion, which seems no longer doubtful, on observing all the corresponding devastations on the coast: and though the isles of Cape Verd are one hundred leagues distant from the point of this cape, the same traces of devastations, the same characteristics of volcanos, existing and exhausted, which are found in those isles, authorize us to think, that at this part the ancient Atlantis must have been united to Africa.

In order to give an exact idea of the Island of Goree, it should be divided into three parts: first, what is properly called the rock, which forms a great and naked mass, rising nearly three hundred feet above the level of the sea, and occupying a surface of upwards of two hundred and twenty-five fathoms in length, by a breadth of one hundred and fifteen fathoms. The plain at the top of this rock is one hundred and thirty fathoms long, by a reduced width of seventy fathoms, which gives a surface of nine thousand four hundred and fifty square fathoms.

Secondly, the town, which begins at the foot of the high rock, and occupies almost the whole of the low part of the island. This part is two hundred and fifty fathoms long, by an average breadth of one hundred and sixty fathoms, and its soil is a firm sand, mixed with a small quantity of vegetable earth, that the inhabitants have, at different times, conveyed from the continent.

Thirdly, the north point, which forms a sort of natural mole, one hundred and twenty fathoms long by thirty broad; the base of this mole is a mass of rocks, covered with sand.

It has been said, that the rock was crowned by a plain surface of nine thousand four hundred and fifty fathoms in extent: its western part is terminated by a perpendicular scarpement of the whole height of the rock; and this is the only part which is physically inaccessible. The east and south sides have a very steep declivity, the bottoms of which are defended by rocks that project into the sea, but do not prevent access to such a degree, as to impede boats from disembarking a body of men. An industrious engineer might, however, render these two sides as secure as that on the west.

The north part is the most accessible, and here a mound has been formed, fifteen feet in width, and with a proper slope for conveying heavy artillery up to the plain. If a well were dug in the rock, to the depth of about fifty feet, and filled with powder, its explosion would detach the rock from the side next to the town, the communication might be made by means of a bridge, and the upper part of the rock, if strengthened by some lines of defence on its north front, would give it a degree of power and independence, and would, perhaps, ensure it advantages even more infallible than those of Gibraltar.

The town of Goree occupies, in the lower part of the island, the space contained between the rock and the mole. According to a census taken in 1785, its population amounted to one hundred and sixteen landed proprietors, including free negroes and mulattoes: by supposing only three children to belong to each house, the number of free indigenous negroes, of all ages and both sexes, in which are comprised the free resident negroes who are not proprietors, would amount to five hundred and twenty-two individuals. The number of cottage-slaves amounted to one thousand and forty-four persons; the total indigenous population, therefore, consisted of one thousand five hundred and sixty-six individuals: to this number there were at that time to be added two hundred slaves, who circulated like so many articles of commerce, and from seventy to eighty soldiers, officers, and clerks, which made the customary population of the Island of Goree amount to one thousand eight hundred and forty indivi-

duals, i.. a space of two hundred and thirty-five fathoms long, by a reduced width of one hundred and forty fathoms.

A large powder-magazine is situated on the platform of St. Michael: it is partly dug in the rock, and very well vaulted; but, as it was badly aired, it was deemed necessary to make apertures for the circulation of the air, and to dig a small fosse in the rock, for the purpose of isolating the magazine, and a wall to surround it, and defend it from attack.

The military hospital is situated in an advantageous position. The air of Goree, more pure, and always fresher, than that of the town of St. Louis, renders the former island more healthy, and to its hospital are transmitted all the convalescent individuals from the Senegal, who soon afterwards recover their health. This hospital, situated in the highest part of the town, and in a position favourable for the sick, was, in 1786, composed of a building seventy-four feet in length, by twenty feet wide. In the time of siege, the island of Goree might be reduced to a very precarious state of subsistence, as its only supply of water is derived from a very small spring, situated at the foot of the rock, on the east side, which affords but twelve pints of water per day; while the two little reservoirs in Fort François, contain, together, not more than sixty.

Though of so much importance to the African trade, Goree is only a small island, extending about three-quarters of a mile in length. It is of a triangular form, without wood, and has no water but what the inhabitants catch in cisterns and reservoirs.

Goree was yielded to the Dutch, in 1617, by the king of Cape Verd, and they built a strong fort upon the north-west part of it; but that fort not being sufficient to prevent an enemy's landing in the creek, they erected another to secure the warehouses. It was taken by the English in 1663; and retaken by the Dutch soon after. The latter, however, did not keep it long; for the French conquered it in 1677; after which they thought proper to fortify and maintain it as a place of consequence. It was taken from them in the glorious year 1759, together with Fort Senegal; but it was restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English, given up again by the peace of 1783, and, at an early period of the last war, it was taken, in a very gallant manner, by a *ruse de guerre*, with little loss on our side.

SECTION XI.

THE CANARY ISLANDS.

The Canary Islands, or, as they were anciently called, the Fortunate Islands, are situate in the Atlantic Ocean, near the continent of Africa, and extend from twenty-seven degrees thirty minutes to twenty-nine degrees thirty minutes of north latitude, and from twelve to twenty-one degrees of west longitude.

These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans, destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world till the year 1405, when they were discovered by John de Batancourt, a Frenchman in the service of Spain.

The Canaries include the following islands, viz. Grand Canaria, Teneriffe, Palma, Ferro, Gomera, Furteventura, and Lancerota.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The Canaries enjoy a pure and temperate air; and such is the nature of the soil, that it frequently yields two crops in a year. They abound in the most delicious grapes, which produce those rich wines known by the name of Canary, and of which it is said that, in times of peace, ten thousand hogsheads are annually exported to England.

In Teneriffe the climate is remarkably healthful, and particularly adapted to afford relief in phthisical complaints. By residing at different heights in the island, such a temperature may be procured as is best suited to the constitution. Persons may continue where the air is mild and salubrious, or they may ascend till the cold becomes intolerable; but no person can live comfortably within a mile of the perpendicular height of the Peak after the month of August.

Vegetables.] Great variety of fruits are produced in these islands, besides grapes, figs, mulberries, musk-melons, &c. La Figuera de India, called, in English, the prickly pear-tree, bears a fruit, which is held there in great estimation; but it is neither easily plucked nor eaten. A late traveller gathered one by enveloping the fruit with a tuft of grass, to guard his fingers from the prickles: he warily took off the rind, and the pulp, being exposed to view, proved delicious to the taste, uniting the flavour of a fig, the winter Burgundy pear, and the water-melon. The pumpkins, potatoes, and onions, which grow here, are excellent. Indian corn is produced at Teneriffe, and sold at about three shillings and sixpence per bushel. The fruits and vegetables are, in general, very cheap. The lower hills produce great quantities of the *Euphorbia Canariensis*. The people on the spot imagine its juice to be so caustic as to corrode the skin; but a British botanist convinced them to the contrary, by thrusting his finger into a plant full of it.

There is a shrub common here, agreeing exactly with the description given by Linnæus of the tea-shrub, as growing in China and Japan. It is considered as a weed, and large quantities of it are rooted out of the vineyards every year. The Spaniards who inhabit the island sometimes make use of it, and ascribe to it all the qualities of the tea imported from China. Another botanical curiosity

s called the *impregnated lemon.* It is a distinct and perfect lemon enclosed within another. There is also a certain grape growing here, which is deemed an excellent remedy in phthisical complaints.

The fountain-trees are very extraordinary vegetables, growing in one of the Canary Islands, and likewise said to exist in some other places. Of these very remarkable trees we have the following account in Glasse's history of the Canary Islands: "There are only three fountains of water in the whole island, where the fountain-tree grows. The great cattle are watered at those fountains, and at a place where water distils from the leaves of a tree. Many writers have made mention of this famous tree, some in such a manner as to make it appear miraculous; others, again, positively deny its existence; among whom is Feyjoo, a modern Spanish critic. But he and those who agree with him in this matter, are as much mistaken as those who would make it appear miraculous.

"The author of the 'History of the Discovery and Conquest of the Canaries,' has given a particular account of this remarkable vegetable, which I shall here insert at large:—The district in which this tree stands, is called *Tigulahe;* near to which, and in the steep rocky ascent that surrounds the whole island, there is a narrow gutter, commencing at the sea, and continuing to the summit of the cliff, where it is joined with a valley that is terminated by the steep front of a rock. On the top of this rock grows a tree, called, in the language of the ancient inhabitants, *garse,* or 'sacred tree,' which for many years has been preserved sound, fresh, and entire. Its leaves constantly distil such a quantity of water as is sufficient to furnish drink to every living creature in Ferro; nature having provided this remedy for the drought of the island. Nobody knows of what species this tree is, only that it is called *till,* and stands by itself at the distance of a league and a half from the sea. The circumference is about twelve spans, the diameter four, and its height, from the ground to the top of the highest branch, forty spans. The branches are thick and extended; the lowest commence about an ell from the ground; and the circumference of the whole of them is about a hundred and twenty feet. The fruit resembles an acorn, and tastes somewhat like the kernel of a pine-apple, but is softer and more aromatic. The leaves appear like those of the laurel, but are larger, wider, and more curved: they come forth in a perpetual succession, so that the tree always remains green.

"On the north side of this tree are two large tanks, or cisterns, of rough stone; or rather one cistern divided, each half being twenty feet square, and sixteen spans in breadth. One of these contains water for the drinking of the inhabitants; and the other that which they use for their cattle, and domestic purposes.

"Every morning, near this part of the island, a cloud or mist rises from the sea, which the south and east winds force against the above-mentioned steep cliff; so that the cloud, having no vent but by the gutter, gradually ascends it, and from thence advances slowly to the extremity of the valley, where it is checked by the front of the rock, which terminates the valley. It then rests upon the thick leaves and wide spreading branches of the tree, from which it distils in drops during the remainder of the day, until it is at length exhausted, in the same manner that we see water drip from the leaves of trees after a heavy shower of rain. This distillation is not peculiar to the till; for some bresos, which grow near it, also drop water; but their leaves being few and narrow, the quantity is so trifling, that though the natives catch some of it, yet they make little account of any but what distils from the till, which, together with the water of some fountains, and what is saved in the winter-season, is sufficient to serve them and their flocks. The tree yields most water in those years when the easterly winds have prevailed for a continuance; for by these winds only the clouds or mists are drawn hither from the sea.

"A person lives on the spot near which this curious tree grows, who is appointed to take care of it and its water, and is allowed a house to live in, together with a certain salary. He every day distributes to each family in the district seven pots of water, besides what he gives to the principal people of the island.

"Whether the tree which yields water at the present time be the same as that mentioned in the above description, I cannot determine; but it is probable there has been a succession of them: for Pliny, describing the Fortunate Islands, says, 'In the mountains of Ambrion are trees, resembling the plant ferula, from which water may be procured by pressure. What comes from the black kind is bitter, but that which the white yields is sweet and potable."

Animals.] The oxen on the Canary Islands are small, lean, and bony. Sheep, goats, hogs, and poultry, may be had on reasonable terms. Of birds there are hawks and sparrows, natives of the island; as also the sea-swallow, sea-gulls, partridges, swallows, canary-birds, and blackbirds. The inhabitants are but indifferently supplied with fish by the adjoining seas: they are engaged in a considerable fishery on the coast of Barbary, and the produce of it sells at a very moderate price. There are also lizards, locusts, and three or four sorts of dragon-flies.

Mountains, &c.] The Peak of Teneriffe is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, containing a volcano, which sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts.

The height of this mountain has been described by Dr. Heberden to be fifteen thousand three hundred and ninety-six feet, which is but one hundred and forty-eight yards less than three miles, reckoning the mile at one thousand seven hundred and sixty yards. Its appearance at sun-set was very striking; when the sun was below the horizon, and the rest of the island appeared of a deep black, the mountain still reflected its rays, and glowed with a warmth of colour which no painting can express. There is no eruption of visible fire from it; but a heat issues from the chinks near the top, too strong to be borne by the hand, when held near them.

The following account of this mountain, given by several English merchants and others, who had the curiosity to climb to the top of it, is extracted from the Philosophical Transactions.

The travellers set out from Oratava, a sea-port on the west side of the island, and passed over several bare mountains and sandy places, till they came to the foot of the Peak, where lie a vast number of huge stones, that seem to have fallen down from above. After they had ascended about a mile on horseback, they were obliged to alight, and climb the hill on foot; and, having traversed a steep black rock about a mile higher, they found the top of it as flat as a pavement. Here the air was very cold after sun-set, and they were forced to keep great fires all night. Next morning they proceeded to that part of the mountain called the Sugar-loaf, which being steep, and the soil a deep white sand, it was very difficult travelling, though they were provided with shoes that had soles a finger broader than the upper-leather, to facilitate the passage. When they came near the summit, they found a strong wind, and a continual breathing of a hot sulphureous vapour issued from the hill, which scorched their faces, and made them sore. On the top there was a large basin or pit, shaped like an inverted cone, which is of considerable depth, and about a musket-shot over. The inside of this cavity is covered with small loose stones, mixed with sand and sulphur, from whence issued a hot suffocating steam; and the footing being so bad, they did not descend into the pit above four or five yards, though some have ventured to the bottom. The brim of this pit, on which they stood, was not above a yard broad; and from hence they could clearly see Grand Canaria, Palma, Gomera, and even Ferro, which is twenty leagues distant. As soon as the sun appears, the shadow of the Peak seems to cover not only this and the Great Canary Island, but even the sea to the very horizon, where it looks as if, being limited, it turned up into the air.

The same gentlemen relate, that there was a great deal of snow and ice about two-thirds of the way up, but at the top there was none at all; which, doubtless, is owing to the hot steam proceeding from the caldron and the upper parts of the mountain. They mention a remarkable cave, ten yards deep, and fifteen broad, in shape like an oven or cupola, with a hole at the top, near eight yards over, through which their servants let them down by a rope, till they came to a bank of snow. At the bottom of the cave there is a round well of water, exactly underneath the opening above, the surface whereof is about a yard lower than the snow, and its depth about six fathoms. This is not supposed to be a spring, but only snow blown in and dissolved, or water that drops from the rocks, and is there collected. About the sides and roof of this grotto there were isicles hanging down to the snow. They met with no trees or shrubs in their passage but pines, and, among the white sands, a bushy plant like broom.

A physician, who lived upon the island of Teneriffe twenty years, gives it as his opinion, that the whole island, being impregnated with brimstone, formerly took fire, by the violence of which great part of it was blown up, there appearing about the island several mountains of large calcined stones, that must have had their origin from such subterraneous commotions. He further supposes, that the greatest quantity of sulphur lying about the centre of the island, the shock was there the most violent, and occasioned the rising of the Peak to its present prodigious height; and this appears from the vast number of calcined rocks that lie at the bottom of it for three or four miles round. From the Peak to the south-west, as far almost as the shore, are still to be seen the tracks of the rivers of brimstone and melted ore which ran that way, and have so ruined the soil where they flowed, that broom is now its only production. The doctor adds, that in the south-west part of the island there are high mountains of a bluish earth, and stones with a rust on them like that of copper and vitriol, and that there are several springs of vitriolic water.

In the year 1704, there happened a most dreadful earthquake in the island of Teneriffe, which began the 24th of December, and increased till the 31st, when the earth opened, and two volcanos were formed, which cast up so many burning stones as made two considerable mountains; and the combustible matter thrown up by these new volcanos kindled above fifty fires in the neighbouring places. On the 5th of January, the air was darkened with ashes and smoke, the terror increased, and, towards the evening, the country was all in a flame for above a league in extent. This was the effect of another volcano, which had broke out towards Oratava, with at least thirty mouths within the circumference of a quarter of a league. In a word, whole towns were swallowed up or overturned, many thousands of people lost their lives, and the torrents of sulphur and metallic matter thrown out by these volcanoes converted a great part of a fruitful country into a barren desert.

In addition to the above particulars, we shall transcribe an account of the crater of this extinguished volcano, and of some experiments made on its brink by M. Mongey, on the 24th of August, 1785, which may not prove unacceptable to the reader.

"The crater of the Peak of Teneriffe," says this gentleman, "is a true sulphur-pit, similar to those of Italy. It is about fifty fathoms long, and forty broad, rising abruptly from east to west. At the edges of the crater, particularly on the under side, are many spiracles, or natural chimneys, from which there exhale aqueous vapours and sulphureous acids, which are so hot as to make the thermometer rise from nine to thirty degrees of Reaumur. The inside of the crater is covered with yellow, red, and white, argillaceous earth, and blocks of lava partly decomposed. Under these blocks are found eight-sided rhomboidal crystals of sulphur, which are, probably, the finest that have ever been found. The water that exhales from the spiracles is perfectly pure, and not in the least acid, as appeared from several experiments.

"The great elevation of the Peak above the level of the sea induced me to make several chemical experiments, in order to compare the phænomena with those that occur in our laboratories. I shall here confine myself merely to the results.

"The volatilization and cooling of liquors were here very considerable; for half a minute was sufficient for the dissipation of a pretty strong dose of ether. The action of acids on metals, earths, and alkalis, was slow; and the bubbles which escaped during the effervescence were much larger than ordinary. The production of vitriols was attended with very singular phænomena: that of iron assumed, all at once, a beautiful violet colour; and that of copper was suddenly precipitated of a very bright blue colour. I examined the moisture of the air by means of the hygrometer of pure alkali and of vitriolic acid; and I thence concluded, as well as from the direction of the aqueous vapours, that the air was very dry; for, at the end of three hours, the vitriolic acid had suffered hardly any change either in colour or weight; the fixed alkali remained dry, except at the edge of the vessel that contained it, where it was a little moist; and Saussure's hygrometer pointed to sixty-four degrees, as nearly as the impetuous wind which then blew would enable us to judge.

"Liquors appeared to have lost nothing of their smell or strength at this height; a circumstance which contradicts all the tales that have been hitherto related on this head: volatile alkali, ether, and spirit of wine, retained all their strength; the smoking spirit of Boyle was the only one that seemed to have lost any sensible portion of its energy. Its evaporation, however, was not the less quick; for in thirty seconds a quantity which I had poured into a cup was entirely volatilized, and nothing remained but the sulphur, which tinged the rim and the bottom. When I poured the vitriolic acid on this liquor, there happened a violent detonation, and the vapours that arose had a very sensible degree of heat. I tried to form volatile alkali, by decomposing sal-ammoniac with the fixed alkali; but the production was slow and hardly sensible, while at the level of the sea, this process, made with the same substances, succeeded very readily and in abundance.

"As I was curious to investigate the nature of the vapours that exhale from the crater, and to ascertain whether they contained inflammable air, fixed air, and marine acid, I made the following experiments: I exposed on the edge of one of the spiracles a nitrous solution of silver in a cup: it remained upwards of an hour in the midst of the vapours which were continually exhaling, but without any sensible alteration; which sufficiently proved that no vapours of marine acid exhaled from the crater. I then poured into it some drops of marine acid, when a precipitation of lunea cornea immediately ensued; but, instead of being white, as it generally is, it was of a dark violet colour, which soon became grey, and assumed the form of small scaly crystals. I think myself justifiable in attributing this alteration of colour to the vapours of inflammable air, according to some experiments that I have made on the precipitation of lunea cornea in such air. Lime-water, exposed for three hours on the margin of the crater, and near a spiracle, was not covered with any calcareous pellicle, nor even hardly with any filmy appearance; which seems to prove, not only that no vapours of fixed air exhale from the crater, but that the atmospheric air which rests upon it contains very little of that air; and that the inflammable vapours and sulphureous acids alone are sensible and considerable. The electricity of the atmosphere was pretty considerable; for Saussure's electrometer, when held in the hand at the distance of about five feet, indicated three degrees; while, on the ground, it pointed only to one and a half."

The ship appointed, in 1792, to convey Earl Macartney and his suite on the embassy to the emperor of China, touched at Teneriffe, in the month of October, and a party of them attempted the ascent, the result of which was as follows:

The party set off, accompanied by two muleteers as guides. They passed through a pleasant vale, covered with vines, and ascending an eminence, the sloping sides of which were entirely covered with a grove of chesnut-trees, they arrived at the summit of the first, called the Green Mountain. They had now to attain the top of a second mountain, whose sides were craggy and sterile, and its ascending path on the brink of precipices. A few pines were thinly scattered on its sides. By means of a barometer, they found they had ascended nearly six thousand feet above the town. The mountain upon which they

mood was now overcast with clouds; and various and impetuous gusts of wind, combating each other, seemed to threaten any farther approach.

Excavations, resembling distinct craters of volcanic matter, were discovered in every part of this mountain; and night setting in, and the path being difficult, the guides not only proposed to halt, but, in contempt of threats, were unwilling to proceed. The travellers wanted much to reach that part known by the name of La Estancia dos Ingleses, the resting-place of the English. It then began to rain, and blow with violence, and the guides, anticipating, from experience, an approaching tempest, declared the unsheltered traveller must inevitably perish, and insisted on stopping under the brow of a projecting rock.

They had furnished themselves with provisions at Oratava: they kindled a fire with the branches of the cytisus; and the leafy boughs of the Spanish broom served them as a couch to sleep upon. The thermometer was now at forty-five degrees; the air keen, the wind tempestuous, and they had no shelter against the rain.

At day-break they arose; but the weather was exceedingly boisterous, driving, with violence, heavy drops of rain. They saw the point of the upper cone, but the conical frustum, by which it was supported, was concealed by thick clouds; these rolled in succession along its sides, and, being thence rapidly hurled into the valleys, between the hills, against which they were forcibly driven, quickly condensed into rain. Some of the party then gave up the project, and, by the assistance of one of the guides, returned to Oratava.

Those who pursued the ascent were attended by another guide, one of the few remaining of the descendants of the Guanches. They had attained the summit of the mountain, whence arises the great cone, which, being frequently covered with snow, occasioned the ancients to give the whole island the name of Nivaria. The plain on the top of the mountain presented a dreary waste, loaded with black lava, without verdure or vegetation, except a solitary cytisus, which, peeping through the fissures of a rock, discovered its feeble withering branches.

The cold was piercing and intolerable; the fall of sleet torpified the hands, and incapacitated them from holding the reins. At length the tempest raged with increased violence, and the drops of rain fell half congealed; the difficulties they had to encounter were insurmountable, and the only choice left was that of returning.

Excursions to the Peak, at proper seasons of the year, are attended with less difficulties. Mr. Johnstone, a native of Great Britain, and at that time a merchant in Madeira, visited this place in the summer-time. He and his party provided themselves with tents, and slept, the night before they got to the Peak, nearly upon the same spot which finished the labours of those just mentioned.

There they encamped on ground covered with pumice-stone; a stream of lava on each side; in front, a barren plain; the island of Grand Canaria bearing south-east, as if rising out of an immense field of ice, formed by the clouds below them. About four o'clock next morning, the first of August, the moon shining bright and the weather clear, they began to ascend a kind of path, along the first great frustum, leading to the smaller and higher Sugar-loaf. The passage was steep and disagreeable, being covered with pumice-stone, which gave way at every step. In about an hour they got to the Alta Vista, where it was necessary to climb over the lava, leaping from one large stone to another, till their arrival at the foot of the Sugar-loaf. Here they rested about five minutes. They then began to ascend the Sugar-loaf. This was by much the most fatiguing part; it being exceedingly steep, and wholly consisting of small pumice-stones; so that the foot, at every step, sinks and slides back. They were obliged to take breath repeatedly. It was little more than six o'clock when they got upon the summit of the Sugar-loaf. At this time the clouds had gathered about a mile and a half perpendicular below. They were thick, and had a very striking effect, appearing like an immense extent of frozen sea, covered with innumerable hillocks of snow, above which the islands of Grand Canaria, Palma, Gomera, and Ferro, raised their heads. On the sun's getting a little higher, the clouds disappeared, and opened to the view the coast around. The colours, hoisted on the Peak, were distinctly seen in Oratava, through a telescope.

The prospect from the Peak is romantic and extensive, no other hill being of a height to intercept the view. The coast is perceived all round, and a distinct idea of the island may be formed. The north-west coast appears to be well cultivated; but the south-east seems dreary and barren. Within the summit of the Peak is an excavation, not less than eighty feet in depth, into which the travellers descended, and gathered some sulphur, with which the surface is mostly covered. In many parts the foot cannot rest upon the same spot above a minute, the heat penetrating quickly through the shoe. Smoke issues frequently from the earth. Just under the surface is a soft reddish clay, so hot, that the hand introduced into it must instantly be withdrawn. In the caldron, the sulphureous odour is very offensive; but on the ridge it may be easily endured.

From this place they saw the town of Santa Cruz, and the shipping in the road, which is a distance, in a direct line, of about twenty-five miles. They continued two hours and a half upon the summit of the Peak, without feeling any inconvenience from heat or cold. Soon after sun-rise the thermometer, in the shade, was at fifty-one degrees. They descended the Sugar-loaf in a few minutes, running the whole way, which was found to be the best

mode. At the foot of the Peak there were several caverns in the midst of lava, some filled with fine water, extremely cold, and frozen at the edges of the caverns. Others, in the winter, are filled with snow, over which the sun never shines; and thus a portion of snow continues in them throughout the year.

On the north-east part of the island of Palma is a lofty and spacious mountain, called the Caldron, from having a hollow in it. The descent within the caldron, which proceeds gradually from the summit, contains a space of about thirty acres, and on the declivity of the inside are several springs, which form a stream that issues out from the extremity of the mountain near the sea-shore. On the south side of the island is a medicinal well of hot water; and at a village called Uguar is a cave, at the extremity of which is a curious grotto, with the roof stuck with large flakes of slate-stones, from between which constantly issues a flow of clear and wholesome water.

Sepulchral Caves.] The ancient inhabitants of these islands were called, by the Spaniards, Guanches; and their sepulchral caves are particularly worthy of notice:—They had an uncommon veneration for the bodies of their ancestors, which were deposited in caves formed by nature in the rocks. They were preserved in goats' skins, bound round by belts of the same, so exactly and uniformly enclosing the body, as to excite admiration, each round being exactly proportioned to the part; and this method preserved the bodies. The eyes, which are closed, the hair, ears, nose, teeth, lips, and beard, are found entire. They are placed on wooden couches, which the natives had the art of rendering so hard, that they are impenetrable to iron. Some of the caves contained two or three hundred bodies. We shall conclude the account of these sepulchres in the words of a learned European, who resided several years on the island. "Being one day hunting, a ferret, having a bell about his neck, ran after a rabbit into a hole, where the sound of the bell was lost. The owner being afraid he should lose his ferret, in seeking about the rocks and shrubs, found the mouth of a cave, and entering in, was so affrighted, that he cried out. His fright arose from one of these corpses, very tall and large, lying with the head on a great stone, the feet supported by a little wall of stone, and the body itself resting on a bed of wood. The man, being now a little recovered from his fright, went nearer, and cut off a piece of the skin that lay on the breast of the body, which was more flexible and pliant than any kid-leather glove, yet not in the least rotten. These bodies are very light, as if made of straw; and in some that were broken might be observed the nerves and tendons, as also the veins and arteries, like strings, very distinctly. By the relation of the oldest inhabitants, there was a particular tribe who had this art only among themselves, which they kept as a thing sacred, and not to be communicated to the vulgar. The people of this class were likewise priests, and did not marry out of their own tribe. But when the Spaniards conquered the place, most of them were destroyed, and the art perished with them. Their ancient people say that they have above twenty caves of their kings and great personages, with their whole families, yet unknown to any but themselves, and which they will never discover."

Population.] The population of Grand Canaria is estimated at forty thousand inhabitants; Palma, thirty thousand; Fuerteventura, ten thousand; Lancerota, eight thousand; Gomera, seven thousand; and Ferro, one thousand five hundred.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The principal manufactures of these islands are silk-hose and garters, which are knit; quilts, taffeties, blankets, coarse cloths, &c. In the large towns the men are weavers and taylors; but, in the villages, women only perform these operations; and the exportation of raw silk is prohibited, in order to encourage the manufactories.

The commerce of the Canaries may be considered under five heads, viz. the domestic trade with each other, and from island to island, the trade to Europe, the Spanish West-Indies, America, and the coast of Barbary. The centre of trade is Teneriffe. The principal commerce is carried on in foreign bottoms. The various imports are woollen goods, hardware, hats, red-herrings, pilchards, wheat, &c. from Great Britain; butter, candles, pickled pork, pickled herrings, &c. from Ireland; gun-powder, cordage, coarse flax, &c. from Holland and Hamburgh; bar-iron, from Biscay; dried cod, rice, beef, pork, hams, bees-wax, deal boards, staves, wheat, flour, maize, &c. from the American colonies; and silks, velvets, oils, cordage, &c. from Barcelona, Seville, Majorca, Italy, and Cadiz.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of these islands are, in general, small of stature, but well made, and have good features. Their complexions are very swarthy, their eyes full of fire, and their countenance expressive. They are fond of calling themselves Spaniards, and speak the Castilian language; the better sort of people with a good grace, but the vulgar very unintelligibly.

The higher classes wear, in common, a camblet cloak, of a dark red or black colour; a linen night-cap, bordered with lace, and a broad slouched hat. When they pay visits, a coat, sword, and white peruke, are added; which latter forms a striking contrast with their dark countenances; and, what is still more singular, they keep their heavy slouched hats upon their heads always in the house, but when they are out of doors they carry them under their arm. The common people wear their own black bushy hair, and tuck some of it behind the right-ear. Their principal garment is a white loose coat, made in the

manner of a French loose coat, with a friar's cape, and girded about the middle with a sash.

The women wear on their heads a piece of gauze, which falls down the shoulders, and covers the neck and breasts. One part of their dress is a broad-brimmed hat: but they use this with more propriety than the men; for they wear it in the open air, to shield their faces from the scorching beams of the sun. Over the shoulders a mantle is thrown, its quality being in proportion to the condition of the wearer. Jackets are worn instead of stays; but all are very fond of a great number of petticoats. The principal ladies of Canaria and Teneriffe dress after the fashions of France and England, and pay visits in chariots: but none walk the streets without being veiled; though some are so careless in the use of their veils, that they take care to let their faces and necks be seen. Some ladies have their hair curiously plaited, and fastened to the crown of the head with a gold comb. Their mantles are very rich, and they wear a profusion of jewels; but clumsiness of dress, and awkwardness of gait, are almost general.

Both sexes go every morning to hear mass, and generally before they take any refreshment. Their breakfast is usually chocolate. They dine at noon, and shut up the doors till three o'clock. People in good circumstances have four courses brought to table: the first is soup, the second roast meat, the third an olio, and the fourth the dessert. They cease drinking as soon as the cloth is removed, and after dinner all the company wash their hands in one large utensil, and then go to sleep for about an hour. In winter evenings, they regale themselves with chocolate and sweetmeats; but, in summer, spring-water is substituted instead of chocolate.

The people in general sleep on mattresses, spread on mats, and placed on the floor. The sheets, pillows, quilt, &c. are fringed or pinked; but no curtains are used, as they are considered harbours for fleas and bugs. The women sit upon cushions, on a raised part of the floor, either when they receive or when they pay visits. The children are instructed in convents, and usually make a rapid progress, as they have a quick genius, particularly for poetry. The common amusements are singing, dancing, playing on the guitar, cards, wrestling, quoits, throwing a ball through a ring at a distance, &c.

Each of the Canary Islands, as well as each town and family, has its peculiar titular saint; and the festivals of these saints are kept with great solemnity.

The employment of a butcher, taylor, miller, or porter, is held in the utmost contempt by the generality of the people; as they consider that a butcher is barbarous, a taylor is effeminate, a miller is a thief, and a porter is a human beast of burthen.

The gentry, in general, though proud, are polite; the lower class, though poor, are decorous; and even beggars ask charity with a good grace, and, if refused, never behave with impertinence. Private pilfering is very common here, but highway or street robberies seldom occur. The only consequence of robbery is a severe beating, or a short imprisonment. Duels are never heard of, but private murders are very common.

The inhabitants of the Canary Islands are, in general, temperate; for nothing can be a greater disgrace than to be seen intoxicated; and a man who can be proved a drunkard is not admitted to take his oath in any court of judicature. Hence those who are fond of liquor inebriate themselves in their chambers, and then lie down, in order to sleep themselves sober. If a man fall in love with a young woman, and her parents refuse to consent to the union, she has liberty to complain to the curate of the parish, who takes her away, and places her in a convent, where she must remain till they consent to her marriage.

Religion here, as in every part of the Spanish dominions, engrosses much of the leisure time of the inhabitants. Even ladies of rank seldom go out but to mass, matins, or vespers. The unmarried live in convents, and are often enticed to take the veil. The residence of the bishop of the isles, whose revenue is ten thousand pounds a year, is at Canaria. The revenue accruing to the crown from all the Canaries, after deducting the ordinary expences of administration, does not exceed sixty thousand pounds a year. The duty on tobacco and snuff is so enormous, that the temptation to smuggle is irresistible.

According to the account of the first discoverers, the original inhabitants of Grand Canaria amounted to upwards of fourteen thousand men capable of bearing arms, exclusive of women, children, aged persons, &c., which must have rendered the island extremely populous. The natives, in general, were tall of stature, active, cheerful, and of dark complexions. They were humane and warlike, faithful to their promises, and fearless of danger. They frequently climbed up very steep precipices, and, by means of long heavy poles, leaped from rock to rock. Their dress was a close short coat, reaching only to the knees, and girded round the middle with a leather belt. The coat itself was made of rush, which they beat till it became soft, like flax, and then spun and wove into a garment. Their outward covering was a goat-skin cloak; the hairy side of which they wore inward in the winter, and outward in the summer. Their caps were made of the skins of goats' heads, so contrived, that part of the beard hung down by each ear, and was sometimes tied under the chin.

The external distinction of the noble or superior rank of Canarians from those of the vulgar or lower class, was by the cut of their hair or beards.

The Canarians originally used only stones, clubs, and sharp-pointed poles; but, after having been invaded by

the Europeans, they learnt of their invaders the art of making shields and swords. In all their wars, however, they preserved humanity and decency; for they never molested women or children, nor did the least damage to the temples or sacred places belonging to their enemies. They had, in times of peace, amphitheatres for public combats; when a challenge being given in form, the challenger and challenged both repaired to the grand council of the island, which consisted of twelve principal nobles: here they petitioned for permission to fight; which being granted, they went to the fayeag, or principal officer, to confirm that permission. This being done, and all things prepared, they went to the amphitheatre, where the exhibition was begun by the two combatants mounting on two large stones at some distance, and pelting each other with smaller stones, which were supplied them for that purpose: the principal skill consisting in avoiding being struck by these, by mere dexterity of body. This lapidation being performed, they engaged with a cudgel in the right hand, and a flint-stone in the left, with which they gave each other a severe beating; then retiring for some refreshments, they afterwards returned, and fought again, till the grand council ordered them to desist. These combats were generally fought on public festivals; and the cure, if either of the combatants were wounded, was of a singular nature; for a skilful person, who acted as surgeon, pounded a rush, till it became of the consistency of tow, and then, dipping it in goat's tallow, he applied it warm to the place affected.

The houses of the native Canarians were built of stone, but not cemented together: they were, however, fastened with such exactness, that their appearance was not uncouth. The floors were sunk beneath the level of the ground, and the walls were very low. The roofs were formed of wooden beams, covered with earth. Beds made of goat-skins, mats of rushes, and baskets formed of palm-leaves, were the whole of their furniture.

The women, in the proper season, gathered flowers, herbs, and shrubs, from which they extracted a variety of colours; and, when that season was over, they employed themselves in dying, staining, and painting, their houses, furniture, and dresses. Their thread was made of nerves or tendons, their needles of bone, their fish-hooks of horn, and their domestic utensils of clay dried in the sun. The common food of the Canarians was barley-meal, milk, butter, &c. They ground their barley with a hand-mill, and ploughed their ground with a wooden machine, which in some measure resembled a hoe, with a spur at the end of it. When the land was too dry, they had a method of sluicing it, by the means of channels cut in parallel lines, with others intersecting them at right angles. The corn, when ripe, was always reaped, threshed, and winnowed, by the women.

The richer sort of the people resided chiefly in the interior parts of the island, and the poorer class inhabited the sea-coast, where they subsisted principally by fishing. They had a peculiar method of catching a small but exquisite fish, of the pilchard kind, which was this: when they perceived a shoal near the shore, a number of persons swam off, surrounded the fish, and drove them into nets, which were purposely laid for their reception. The prize was then divided between all present with great equity; but pregnant women had always the allowance of two persons; and those who had children, besides their own share, received a share for each child.

Among the original Canarians was an order of nuns, who were distinguished from the other women by a peculiar sort of long white garments. They had many superstitious traditional notions among them; and the places where they resided were deemed places of refuge for criminals, and had privileges very nearly resembling European sanctuaries. In all crimes, but those punishable by death, the laws of retaliation were used, and justice, in general, impartially administered.

In times of public danger, or when they looked upon themselves to be afflicted by any general calamity, the Canarians went in processions to the rocks and mountains, preceded by the religious women, and carrying with them branches of palm, and vessels filled with milk, which latter they poured upon the rocks, as religious oblations, and then danced in mournful measure, and sung melancholy songs, to deprecate the wrath of their supposed deities. When any of the Canarians died, if capital people, they were buried in sepulchral caves; if of the vulgar class, in holes in the ground, which were afterwards covered with stones.

SECTION XII.

THE MADEIRA ISLANDS.

The Madeira Islands are three in number; namely, Madeira, properly so called; the Island of Puerto Santa, or Porto Santo; and Isla Deserta, or the Desolate Isle. The whole are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, between thirty-two and thirty-three degrees of north latitude, and between seventeen and eighteen degrees of west longitude.

The largest of these islands, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeira, is about seventy-five miles in length, and upwards of thirty-six, in some places, in breadth. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards. The seasons here may be said to be only two, spring and summer; as no degree of heat or cold has been found unpleasant.

A distant view of the Island of Madeira represents it as

a rocky, barren, and uncultivated spot; but, on a nearer approach, its beauties open to view, and form a scene picturesque and enchanting. From Funchal, to the eastward of the island, the road is steep and craggy up hills: at the top is a narrow path, on one side of which is a perpendicular rock; on the other a dreadful precipice, passable only to pedestrians, or to some well-trained mules.

Many parts of Madeira, being mountainous and rugged, and others nearly destitute of soil, are incapable of culture. Small patches, indeed, of cultivated ground appear in the narrow valleys, in which, also, there are some villages. But, though the cultivators are lazy, they have shown instances of industry, by breaking, on the sides of hills thinly covered with soil, such pieces of scattered rock as contain vegetable matter into smaller parts; and the rills from the heights being made to flow over, the fragments comminute, and become a fertile mould.

The highest mountains of Madeira have hardly any volcanic appearance. The clouds frequently envelope their tops, and from them descend all the streams and rivulets of the island. Their antiquity is marked by the deep chasms they have formed in their descent between the ridges of the rocks, during the long lapse of time they have continued to flow. In the beds of these rivulets are found pebbles of various sizes, and large round masses of silex, such as are usually found in the beds of many similar torrents in the Alps. The soil also of the fields and pasturage-grounds appears exactly the same as those of the Continent, where no volcanic fire has ever been supposed to have existed.

No lava of a glassy nature has been discovered in Madeira, nor any perfect pumice-stone; circumstances which both indicate, that not the highest degree of heat had been suffered here; but it is probable, that the bay or beach of Funchal is a segment of a large crater, the exterior part of which has sunk into the sea; for the shining blue stones upon the beach are all of compact lava; and tempestuous weather throws always upon the shore larger masses of the same blue stone, and also a quantity of cellular lava, approaching to pumice-stone in texture, but much heavier, and not fibrous. It may also be observed, that the Loo-Rock, and the landing-place opposite to it, to the westward of Funchal Bay, as well as that upon which Fort St. Jago is constructed, are evidently perpendicular fragments of the edges of the crater, which have hitherto resisted the action of the sea, by having been better supported, or having more closely adhered together, though much worn by the violence of the surge.

The inhabitants are well supplied with delicious fruits and vegetable esculents, of various kinds. But the grape, chiefly white, is the staple production of the island. Twenty-five thousand pipes, each of a hundred and twenty gallons, are said to be made annually: of this quantity one half is exported to England, North America, and the West-Indies, and the residue is consumed by the inhabitants.

Other kinds of grapes are native in Madeira; one whose juice has a deeper colour than the former, the wine of which is called Tinto; another, called Bastardo, has a red skin, but produces a white juice; and, lastly, on some few soils, a third species is raised, whose juice is remarkably sweet and rich, from which is made that celebrated wine called Malmsey. The wine is made by pressing the juice out in a square wooden vessel. The persons employed, having taken off their shoes and jackets, get into it, and, with their elbows and feet, press out as much of the juice as they can. In like manner the stalks, being tied together, are pressed under a square piece of wood, by a lever, with a stone fastened to the end of it.

The inhabitants of this island make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is excellent, and smells naturally of violets.

The food most relished at Madeira is pork. The hogs, when young, are marked by their owners, and suffered to range wild among the mountains, and, at last, are hunted and caught by dogs.

No serpents, nor any noxious animals, have been known to exist at Madeira; neither are there hares or foxes. Fish of several kinds are caught on the coast, but herrings and oysters are never found. Salted cod, in abundance, is imported from America; and, being the principal diet of the poor, occasions frequent scorbutic eruptions.

Mr. Spilsbury, surgeon of his majesty's sloop Favourite, who was there in 1805, has furnished us with the following account of Funchal:

"The town is large, but the streets are narrow; the lower floors are all warehouses, and are far from being in a clean condition. We got excellent fruit here, at very reasonable prices. Most of the shops are filled with articles of English growth and manufacture. The better sort of people dress like the English, but the costume of the country people is rather grotesque, especially of the women. This consists of a blue conical cloth cap, with a small bit of red rag on each side; under this, a white linen handkerchief, which flows over the shoulders; a straight cloth cloak, blue or brown, edged with red; a close-bodied jacket, and a striped petticoat: they go bare-legged. The men likewise wear a cap, and their coat thrown over their shoulders; their waistcoats and drawers fit close, the latter reaching below the knee.

"The countrymen, in general, carry a long pole on their shoulders, over which is oftentimes thrown their coat. The women, according to the Moorish custom, squat on their hams. On Sunday, they bring various productions from

the country for sale. They are very hospitable and inoffensive. A draughtsman, whom we met with here, informed us, he had travelled over the island, and was always well treated: he described the views as the most grand and romantic imaginable.

"The cathedral is well worth seeing; it is very richly decorated with gold and silver ornaments. In the body of this edifice, while I was viewing it, the corpse of a female child was brought, without a coffin, dressed with flowers, and its hands clasped together: a hole was dug, into which they laid it; the earth was then thrown over it, and trampled down before its mother, who appeared very little concerned. We afterwards learned, that parents rejoice at their children dying so young; as, having no sin, they are sure to go to heaven."

The merchants of the British factory attach themselves to the cultivators of the vine, and supply them, in advance, with whatever can contribute to their necessities. They are remarkable for their hospitality to strangers, as their houses are open, on the slightest recommendation, for the reception of passengers, who stop there for refreshments on their way to Asia or America.

The clergy are very numerous, and generally rich; but none who are descended from Moors or Jews are admitted to take orders. In marriages, affection is seldom thought of; the principal enquiries are into family, descent, and circumstances. The women are prohibited from marrying Englishmen, unless they consent to change their religion, and turn Roman Catholics.

Murders are very frequent, on account of the great number of places deemed sanctuaries, and the ease with which an assassin can screen himself from justice. But, if the criminal be taken before he reach a sanctuary, the punishment is only banishment or confinement, either of which may be evaded by a pecuniary compensation.

The military establishment of the island consists of three hundred regular troops, half infantry, the rest artillery, and two thousand militia, who are embodied occasionally; the latter, making two battalions, are obliged to provide themselves with an uniform. There are also ten thousand irregular militia, who are not so clothed, nor called out to exercise; and, being at no expence on that account, are compelled to perform garrison-duty, to take charge of signals, and repair the highways.

The churches are made repositories for the dead. The corpse is curiously dressed and adorned; yet, in the interment, a quantity of lime is used, in order to consume the body with all imaginable despatch, which usually happens in a fortnight, so that there is then room for another corpse. The bodies of protestants are not allowed to be buried, but must be thrown into the sea, unless a large sum of money be paid to the clergy.

SECTION XIII.

THE AZORES.

These islands are situated in the latitude of between thirty-seven and forty degrees north, about five hundred and forty geographical miles to the north-west of Madeira. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges, in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish Islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese immediately hastened to take possession of them. They were called, in general, the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but they have frequently suffered by violent earthquakes, and also by inundations of the surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, also cattle, fowl, and fish.

Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but it is exposed to the south-east winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor and the bishop.

St. Michael, which is near one hundred miles in circumference, and contains fifty thousand inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

Pico contains a mountain of remarkable height, by some reported to equal that of Teneriffe, and which might with propriety be assumed as the first meridian of longitude, instead of the various and confused distinctions which have been adopted.

The rest of these islands do not contain any thing remarkable, nor do they vary from those described in any of their productions.

END OF PART THE SECOND.

PART III.

AMERICA

CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY, &c.

NOTHING can be more appropriate than the division of this vast continent into two parts, called North and South America; for Nature herself seems to have pointed out such a distinction by the narrow isthmus with which she has separated that extensive region.

It is clearly ascertained, that the southern limits of America are from the Straits of Magellan; but the precise northern boundary will probably long remain unknown. This limit may extend to eighty degrees; but, at present, we are only justified in estimating the length of the American continent from the seventy-second degree of north latitude to the fifty-fourth degree of south latitude, or the Straits of Magellan: and thus it is known to contain a space of one hundred and twenty-six degrees, or seven thousand five hundred and sixty geographical miles. The greatest breadth of South America is two thousand two hundred and eighty geographical miles, or forty-eight degrees, and runs from Cape St. Roque, in the east, to Cape Blanco, in the west. In North America, however, the extreme breadth is upwards of a third greater: it may be taken from the most eastern point of Labrador, or even of Greenland, to the promontory of Alaska, which gives about three thousand eight hundred and forty geographical, or four thousand four hundred British, miles. The total length of America may be computed at eight thousand eight hundred British miles.

As it is now admitted that Greenland forms a part of America, the credit of the first discovery of that continent has of late been taken from Columbus, and given to the Norwegians, who visited Greenland in the year 982; and this discovery was succeeded, in 1003, by that of Finland, which was probably a part of Newfoundland, or Labrador. The former colony flourished for a length of time, and was, at last, impeded only by the increase of the shoals of ice, which put a stop to its maritime intercourse; but that of Finland was soon destroyed by the commotions which took place among its settlers. But the Danes afterwards settled on the western coast, and called their establishment New Greenland, in opposition to the original colony on the eastern shores. Greenland, however, was long well known, and was probably visited by many of the numerous English ships which sailed to Iceland in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

The Welch imagine that, in 1170, their country contributed to people the New World, by the adventure of Madoc, son of Owen Gwynedd, who, on the death of his father, sailed there, and colonized part of the country.

The glory of discovering the important parts of America, however, is due to Christopher Columbus; for Behaim, who was the most complete geographer of his time, has proved that no previous discovery was made in the route adopted by that celebrated navigator.

It seems that the Canary Islands were faintly known to the Spaniards about the middle of the fourteenth century; and the Normans had made piratical excursions as far as these isles, which were, at length, completely conquered in the year 1402, by a Norman gentleman, named Jean de Bethencourt, who obtained the consent of the Spanish court to assume the title of King of the Canaries. Madeira is said to have been discovered by the English in 1344; but the Cape de Verd Islands appear not to have been known till 1446, nor the Azores till 1449. The

King of Portugal, in 1466, gave these last isles to his sister, the Duchess of Burgundy; and, a famine then prevailing in Flanders, many people emigrated to them, among whom was Job de Huerter, lord of Moirkirchen in Flanders, who afterwards resided in Fayal, and appears to have had a grant of the Azores from the Duchess of Burgundy. Behaim, the celebrated geographer already mentioned, married the daughter of Huerter; and, by his account, as inscribed on his globe, the Azores were discovered in 1431, and received their name from the numerous goshawks found upon them. The discovery of these isles, so far to the west, proved a strong incentive to Columbus to extend his researches.

Towards the close of the fifteenth century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests occasioned a mutual rivalship; but Venice was much superior in traffic, as she engrossed the whole commerce of India. In this state of affairs, Columbus, who was a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies by a new and unknown route. But his proposal was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were considered absurd. Irritated by disappointment, Columbus retired from his country, and laid his scheme before the court of France; but there his reception was still more mortifying. He next applied to Henry VII. of England; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to so important a speculation.

In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with proceeding along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another; without attempting to venture into the open sea. Notwithstanding his disappointments, however, Columbus still remained firm: he became the more intent on his design, the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and was inspired with that enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after an attendance of eight years, he succeeded, chiefly through the interest of Queen Isabella; for such was the prejudice of Ferdinand, her husband, against Columbus, that he refused to take any part in the enterprise as king of Arragon. As the whole expence of the expedition was, therefore, to be defrayed by the crown of Castile, Isabella reserved for her subjects of that kingdom an exclusive right to all the benefits which might result from its success. The chief articles of the capitulation entered into with Columbus were as follow:—

First, Ferdinand and Isabella, as sovereigns of the ocean, constituted him their high-admiral in all the seas, islands, and continents, which should be discovered by his industry; and stipulated, that he and his heirs for ever should enjoy this office, with the same powers and prerogatives as belonged to the high-admiral of Castile, within the limits of his jurisdiction. Secondly, They appointed Columbus their viceroy in all the islands and continents which he should discover; but if, for the better administration of affairs, it should hereafter be necessary to establish a separate governor in any of those countries, they authorised him to name three persons, of whom they would choose one for that office; and the dignity of viceroy, with all its immunities, was likewise to be hereditary in the family of Columbus. Thirdly, They granted to him and his heirs for ever the tenth of the free profits accruing from the productions and commerce of the countries which he should discover. Fourthly, They declared that, if any controversy or law-suit should arise, with respect to any mercantile transaction in the countries which should be discovered, it should be determined by the sole authority of Columbus, or of the judges to be appointed by him. Fifthly, They permitted him to advance one-eighth part of what should be expended in preparing for the expedition, and in carrying on commerce with the countries which he should discover, and entitled him, in return, to an eighth part of the profit.

Accordingly, on the 3d of August, 1492, Columbus sailed from Spain in quest of a new world. But the armament was not suitable, either to the dignity of the nation by which it was equipped, or to the importance of the service for which it was destined. It consisted only of three vessels. The largest, a ship of no considerable burthen, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of Santa Maria, in honor of the Blessed Virgin. The second, called the Pinta, was commanded by Martin Pinçon, a man of much wealth and experience, and his brother Francis was pilot. The third, named the Nigna, was under the command of Vincent Vanez Pinçon. These two were light vessels, hardly superior in burthen or force to large boats; and the squadron, if it merit that name, was victualled for twelve months. It had on board ninety men, mostly sailors, together with a few adventurers, who followed the fortune of Columbus, and some gentlemen of Isabella's court, whom she appointed to accompany him. Though the expence of the undertaking was one of the circumstances which chiefly alarmed the court of Spain, and retarded so long the negociation with Columbus, the sum employed in fitting out this squadron did not exceed four thousand pounds.

As the art of ship-building in the fifteenth century was extremely rude, and the bulk of vessels was accommodated to the short and easy voyages along the coast, which they were accustomed to perform, it is a proof of the courage and enterprising genius of Columbus, that he ventured, with a fleet so ill adapted for a distant naviga-

tion, to explore unknown seas, where he had no chart to guide him, no knowledge of the tides and currents, and no experience of the dangers to which he might be exposed. His eagerness to accomplish the great design which had so long engrossed his thoughts, made him disregard every circumstance that would have intimidated a less adventurous mind. He facilitated the preparations with such ardour, and was seconded so effectually by the persons to whom Isabella committed the superintendance of the business, that every thing was soon in readiness for the voyage.

On the 1st of October, Columbus found himself seven hundred and seventy leagues west of the Canaries. At this period his crew, despairing of the success of their enterprise, began to mutiny; and he was obliged to promise them, that, if land did not appear in three days, he would return. They, however, soon observed some fortunate presages, such as land-birds, a cane newly cut, a carved piece of wood, and the branch of a tree, with fresh red berries. At the same time, a brisk gale arose, and carried them forward: several birds were seen hovering about the ship, and directing their flight towards the west, so that the desponding crew resumed some degree of spirit.

About ten o'clock at night, Columbus, standing on the forecastle, observed a light at a distance, and privately pointed it out to Pedro Guttierez, a page of the queen's wardrobe. Guttierez perceived it, and, calling to Salcedo, comptroller of the fleet, all three saw it in motion, as if it were carried from place to place; and, a little after midnight, the joyful sound of *land, land*, was heard from the Pinta, which kept always a-head of the other ships. As soon as morning dawned, on Friday, October 12, all doubts were dispelled:—from every ship an island was seen about two leagues to the north, whose flat and verdant fields, well stored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, presented the aspect of a delightful country. The crew of the Pinta instantly began singing the Te Deum, and were joined by those of the other ships, with tears of joy. This office of gratitude to Heaven was followed by an act of justice to their commander. They threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, with feelings of self-condemnation, mingled with reverence. They implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and insolence; and passing, in the warmth of their admiration, from one extreme to another, they now pronounced the man, whom they had lately reviled and threatened, to be a person inspired by Heaven with sagacity and fortitude more than human.

At sun-rise, all their boats were manned and armed. They rowed towards the island, with their colours displayed, with warlike music, and other martial pomp. The coast was covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, whose attitudes and gestures expressed astonishment at the strange objects which presented themselves. Columbus was the first European who set foot in the New World which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a drawn sword in his hand: his men followed, and, kneeling down, they all kissed the ground. They next erected a crucifix, and, prostrating themselves before it, returned thanks to God for conducting their voyage to such a happy issue. They then took solemn possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon, with the usual formalities.

The natives, in the mean time, gazed in silent admiration upon actions which they could not comprehend. The dress of the Spaniards, the whiteness of their skins, their beards, and their arms, appeared surprising. The vast machines in which they had traversed the ocean, that seemed to move upon the waters with wings, and uttered a dreadful sound resembling thunder, accompanied with lightning and smoke, struck them with such terror, that they began to consider their new guests as a superior order of beings, and concluded that they were children of the sun, who had descended to visit the earth.

The Europeans were hardly less amazed at the scene now before them. Every herb, shrub, and tree, was different from those which flourished in Europe. The soil seemed to be naturally fertile, but bore few marks of cultivation. The climate, though warm, appeared extremely delightful, and the inhabitants were entirely naked. Their black hair, long and uncurled, floated upon their shoulders, or was bound in tresses around their heads. They had no beards, and every part of their bodies was perfectly smooth. Their complexion was of a dusky copper-colour, their features singular, rather than disagreeable, their aspect gentle and timid. Though not tall, they were well-shaped and active. Their faces, and several parts of their bodies, were fantastically painted with glaring colours. For some time they appeared timid; but, at length, they became familiar with the Spaniards, and joyfully received from them hawks'-bells, glass-beads, or other baubles; in return for which they gave such provisions as they had, and some cotton-yarn, the only commodity of value that they could produce. Towards evening, Columbus returned to his ships, accompanied by many of the islanders in their canoes, which, though rudely formed out of the trunk of a single tree, they rowed with surprising dexterity. Thus, in the first interview between the inhabitants of the old and new worlds, every thing was conducted amicably. The former, enlightened and ambitious, formed already vast ideas of the advantages which they might derive from the regions that began to open to their view. The latter, simple and undiscerning, had no conception of their impending calamities

Columbus, who now assumed the title and authority of admiral and viceroy, called the island which he had discovered San Salvador. It is one of that large cluster called the Bahama Isles, situated above three thousand miles to the west of Gomera, from which the squadron took its departure, and only four degrees to the south of it; so little had Columbus deviated from the westerly course which he had chosen as the most proper. He employed the next day in visiting the coasts of the island; and, from the apparent poverty of the inhabitants, he perceived that this was not the rich country for which he sought. But, conformably to his theory concerning the discovery of those regions of Asia which stretched towards the east, he concluded that San Salvador was one of the isles which geographers had described as situated in the great ocean adjacent to India. Having observed that most of the people whom he had seen wore small plates of gold, by way of ornament, in their nostrils, he eagerly enquired where they obtained that precious metal. They pointed towards the south, and made him comprehend, by signs, that gold abounded in countries situated in that quarter. Thither he immediately determined to direct his course. He took along with him seven of the natives of San Salvador, that, by acquiring the Spanish language, they might serve as guides and interpreters; and those innocent people considered themselves highly honoured by being selected to accompany him.

He saw several islands, and touched at three of the largest, on which he bestowed the names of St. Mary of the Conception, Fernandina, and Isabella. But, as their soil, productions, and inhabitants, nearly resembled those of San Salvador, he made no stay in any of them. He enquired every where for gold, and the signs that were uniformly made by way of answer, confirmed him in the opinion that it was brought from the south. He followed that course, and soon discovered a country which appeared very extensive, not perfectly level, like those he had already visited, but so diversified with rising grounds, hills, rivers, woods, and plains, that he was uncertain whether it might prove an island, or part of the continent. The natives of San Salvador, whom he had on board, called it Cuba, but he gave it the name of Juanna. He entered the mouth of a large river with his squadron, and all the inhabitants fled to the mountains as he approached the shore. But as he resolved to careen his ships in that place, he sent some Spaniards, together with one of the natives of San Salvador, to view the interior of the country; and they, having advanced above sixty miles from the shore, reported that the soil was richer and more cultivated than any they had hitherto discovered; that, besides many scattered cottages, they had found one village, containing above a thousand inhabitants; that the people, though naked, seemed to be more intelligent than those of San Salvador, but had treated them with the same respectful attention, kissing their feet, and honouring them as sacred beings; that they had given them to eat a root, the taste of which resembled roasted chesnuts, and likewise a singular species of corn, called maize, which, either when roasted whole or ground into meal, was very palatable; that there seemed to be no quadrupeds in the country, but a species of dogs, which could not bark, and a creature resembling a rabbit, but of a much smaller size; and they added, that they had observed some ornaments of gold among the people.

Some of the natives, who had been persuaded to accompany the messengers, informed Columbus, that the gold of which they made their ornaments was found in Cubanacan. By this word they meant the middle or inland part of Cuba; but Columbus, being ignorant of their language, as well as unaccustomed to their pronunciation, and his thoughts running continually upon his own theory concerning the discovery of the East-Indies, he was led, by the resemblance of the sound, to suppose that they spoke of the Great Khan, and imagined that the opulent kingdom of Cathay, described by Marco Polo, was not very remote. This induced him to employ some time in viewing the country. He visited almost every harbour, from Porto del Principe, on the north coast of Cuba, to the eastern extremity of the island; but, though amazed at the fertility of the soil, which, from its novelty, made a most lively impression upon his imagination, he did not find gold in any quantity. The people of the country, as much astonished at his eagerness in quest of gold, as the Europeans were at their ignorance and simplicity, pointed towards the east, where an island, which they called Hayti, since known by the name of St. Domingo, was situated, in which that metal was more abundant than among them. Columbus ordered his squadron to bend its course thither; but Martin Alonso Pinçon, impatient to be the first who should take possession of the treasures which this country was supposed to contain, quitted his companions, regardless of all the admiral's signals to slacken sail until they should come up with him. Columbus did not reach Hayti till the sixth of December. He called the port where he first touched St. Nicholas, and the island itself, Hispaniola, in honour of the kingdom by which he was employed. As he could neither meet with the Pinta, nor have any intercourse with the inhabitants, who fled in great consternation to the woods, he soon quitted St. Nicholas, and, sailing along the northern coast of the island, he entered another harbour, which he called the Conception. Here his people overtook a woman, who was running from them, and, after treating her with great gentleness, dismissed her with a present of toys. The description which she gave to her countrymen of the humanity and wonderful qualities of the strangers, their admiration

of the trinkets, which she exultingly displayed, and their eagerness to participate of the same favours, induced many of them to repair to the harbour. The strange objects which they beheld, and the baubles which Columbus bestowed upon them, amply gratified their curiosity and their wishes. They nearly resembled the people of Cuba. They were naked, like them, ignorant, and simple; and seemed to be equally unacquainted with all the arts which appear most necessary in polished societies; but they were gentle, credulous, and timid, to a degree, which rendered it easy to acquire an ascendancy over them, especially as their excessive admiration led them into the same error with the people of the other islands, in supposing the Spaniards to be spirits descended immediately from heaven. They possessed gold in some abundance, and readily exchanged it for bells, beads, or pins; and in this traffic both parties considered themselves gainers. Here Columbus was visited by a prince or *cazique* of the country. He appeared with all the pomp known among a simple people, being carried in a sort of palanquin, upon the shoulders of four men, and attended by many of his subjects, who served him with great respect. His deportment was grave and stately very reserved towards his own people, but with Columbus and the Spaniards extremely courteous. He gave the admiral some thin plates of gold, and a girdle of curious workmanship, receiving, in return, presents of small value.

Still anxious to discover the mines which yielded gold, Columbus continued to interrogate all the natives, with whom he had any intercourse, concerning their situation. They concurred in pointing out a mountainous country, which they called Cibao, at some distance from the sea, and farther towards the east. Struck with this sound, which appeared to him the same with *Cipango*, the name by which Marco Polo, and other travellers to the east, distinguished the islands of Japan, he no longer doubted with respect to the vicinity of the countries which he had discovered, to the remote parts of Asia; and, in full expectation of soon reaching those regions which had been the object of his voyage, he directed his course towards the east. He put into a commodious harbour, which he called St. Thomas, and found that district to be under the government of a powerful cazique, named Guacanahari, who, as he afterwards learned, was one of the five sovereigns among whom the whole island was divided. He immediately sent messengers to Columbus, who, in his name, delivered to him a present of a mask, curiously fashioned, with the ears, nose, and mouth, of beaten gold, and invited him to the place of his residence, near the harbour now called Cape François, some leagues towards the east. Columbus despatched some of his officers to visit this prince, and they returned with such favourable accounts, both of the country and of the people, as made Columbus impatient for that interview with Guacanahari to which he had been invited.

With this view he sailed from St. Thomas, on the 24th of December, with a fair wind; and, as he had had no rest for two days, he retired at midnight to repose, having committed the helm to the pilot, with strict injunctions not to quit it for a moment. The pilot, however, carelessly left it to a cabin-boy, and the ship, carried away by a current, was dashed against a rock. The violence of the shock awakened Columbus; who ran up to the deck, and was the only person who retained presence of mind. He ordered some of the sailors to take a boat, and carry out an anchor astern; but, instead of obeying, they made off towards the Nigna, which was about half a league distant: the vessel soon afterwards opened near the keel, and filled so fast with water, that its loss was inevitable. The smoothness of the sea, and the assistance of the boats from the Nigna, enabled the crew to save their lives, and as soon as the islanders heard of this disaster, they crowded to the shore, with their prince at their head; lamenting the misfortune with tears of condolence, putting to sea a number of canoes, and, under the direction of the Spaniards, assisting in saving whatever could be got out of the wreck. As fast as the goods were landed, Guacanahari in person took charge of them; by his orders they were deposited in one place, and armed sentinels kept the multitude at a distance. Next morning this prince visited Columbus, who was now on board the Nigna, and endeavoured to console him for his loss, by offering all that he possessed to repair it.

Of the humanity and orderly behaviour of the natives on this occasion, Columbus gave the following account, in a letter to Ferdinand and Isabella. "The king, having been informed of our misfortune, expressed great grief for our loss, and immediately sent aboard all the people in the place in many large canoes: we soon unloaded the ship of every thing that was upon deck, as the king gave us great assistance: he himself, with his brothers and relations, took all possible care that every thing should be properly done both aboard and on shore. And, from time to time, he sent some of his relations, weeping, to beg of me not to be dejected, for he would give me all that he had. I can assure your highnesses, that so much care would not have been taken in securing our effects in any port of Spain, as all our property was put together in one place near his palace, until the houses which he wanted to prepare for the custody of it were emptied. He immediately placed a guard of armed men, who watched during the whole night, and those on shore lamented as if they had been much interested in our loss. The people are so affectionate, so tractable, and so peaceable, that I swear to your highnesses, that there is not a better race of men, nor a better country, in the world. They love their neigh-

bour as themselves; their conversation is the sweetest and mildest in the world, cheerful, and always accompanied with a smile. And although it is true that they go naked, yet your highnesses may be assured that they have many very commendable customs: the king is served with great state, and his behaviour is so decent, that it is pleasant to see him, as it is likewise to observe the wonderful memory which these people have, and their desire of knowing every thing, which leads them to enquire into its causes and effects."

Columbus had hitherto procured no intelligence of the Pinta, and no longer doubted that his treacherous associate had sailed for Europe, in order to have the merit of carrying the first tidings of the extraordinary discoveries which had been made, and to pre-occupy so far the ear of their sovereign, as to rob him of the glory and reward to which he was justly entitled. There remained but one vessel, and that the smallest and most crazy of the squadron, to traverse such a vast ocean, and carry so many men back to Europe. Each of those circumstances was alarming, and filled the mind of our adventurer with the utmost solicitude. The desire of overtaking Pinçon, and of effacing the unfavourable impressions which his misrepresentations might make in Spain, made it necessary to return thither without delay. The difficulty of taking such a number of persons aboard the Nigna, confirmed him in an opinion, which the fertility of the country, and the gentle temper of the people, had already induced him to form. He resolved to leave part of his crew in the island, that, by residing there, they might learn the language of the natives, study their disposition, examine the nature of the country, and search for mines. When he mentioned this to his men, all approved of the design, and many offered voluntarily to remain.

Nothing was now wanting towards the execution of this scheme, but to obtain the consent of Guacanahari; and his unsuspicious simplicity soon presented to the admiral a favourable opportunity of proposing it. Columbus having expressed some curiosity to know the cause which had induced the islanders to fly with such precipitation upon the approach of his ships, the cazique informed him that the country was much infested by the incursions of certain people, whom he called Carribeans, who inhabited several islands to the south-east. These he described as a fierce and warlike race, who delighted in blood, and devoured the flesh of the prisoners who fell into their hands; and as the Spaniards, at their first appearance, were supposed to be Carribeans, whom the natives, however numerous, durst not face in battle, they had recourse to their usual method of securing their safety, by retiring into the thickest and most impenetrable woods. Guacanahari, while speaking of those dreadful invaders, discovered such symptoms of terror, as well as such consciousness of the inability of his own people to resist them, as led Columbus to conclude that he would not be alarmed at the proposition of any scheme which afforded him the prospect of an additional security against their attacks. He instantly offered him the assistance of the Spaniards to repel his enemies: he engaged to take him and his people under the protection of the powerful monarch whom he served, and offered to leave in the island such a number of his men as should be sufficient, not only to defend the inhabitants from future incursions, but to avenge their past wrongs.

The credulous prince was charmed with this proposal, and thought himself already safe under the patronage of beings superior to mortals. The ground was marked out for a small fort; the ramparts were fortified with palisades, and the great guns, saved out of the admiral's ship, were planted upon them. In ten days the work was finished; that simple race of men labouring with inconsiderate assiduity in erecting this first monument of their own servitude. During this time, Columbus, by his caresses and liberality, laboured to increase the high opinion which the natives entertained of the Spaniards; but, while he endeavoured to inspire them with confidence in their disposition to do good, he wished likewise to give them some idea of their power to punish and destroy such as were the objects of their indignation. With this view, in presence of a vast assembly, he drew up his men in order of battle, and made an ostentatious display of the sharpness of the Spanish swords, of the force of their spears, and the operation of their cross-bows. These people, strangers to the use of iron, and unacquainted with any hostile weapons, but arrows of reeds, pointed with the bones of fishes, wooden swords, and javelins, hardened in the fire, wondered and trembled. Before their surprise or fears had time to abate, he ordered the great guns to be fired. The sudden explosion struck them with such terror, that they fell flat to the ground, covering their faces with their hands; and, when they beheld the astonishing effects of the bullets among the trees, towards which the cannon had been pointed, they concluded that it was impossible to resist men who had the command of such destructive instruments, and who came armed with thunder and lightning against their enemies.

After giving such impressions both of the beneficence and power of the Spaniards, as might have rendered it easy to preserve an ascendancy over the minds of the natives, Columbus appointed thirty-eight of his people to remain in the island. He entrusted the command of these to Diego de Arada, a gentleman of Cordova, investing him with the same powers which he himself had received from Ferdinand and Isabella; furnished him with every thing requisite for the subsistence or defence of this infant colony; and having thus taken every precaution for

the security of his people, he sailed on the 4th of January, 1493, and, steering towards the east, discovered, and gave names to, most of the harbours on the northern coast of the island. On the 6th, he descried the Pinta, and soon came up with her, after a separation of more than six weeks. From the condition of his ships, and the temper of his men, Columbus now found it necessary to hasten his return to Europe. The former, having suffered much during a voyage of such an unusual length, were extremely leaky; and the latter expressed the utmost impatience to revisit their native country. Accordingly, on the 16th of January, he directed his course towards the north-east, and soon lost sight of land. He had on board some of the natives, whom he had taken from the different islands which he discovered; and, besides the gold, which was the chief object of research, he had collected specimens of all the productions which were likely to become subjects of commerce in the several countries, as well as many unknown birds, and other natural curiosities, which might attract the attention of the learned, or excite the wonder of the populace. The voyage was prosperous till the 14th of February, and he had advanced near five hundred leagues across the Atlantic Ocean, when the wind began to rise, and continued to blow with an increasing rage, which terminated in a furious hurricane; but, after sustaining the greatest dangers, Providence at length interposed, to save a life reserved for other services. The wind abated, and, on the evening of the 15th, Columbus and his companions discovered land; and, though uncertain what it was, they made towards it. They soon knew it to be St. Mary, one of the Azores, subject to the crown of Portugal. One circumstance, however, greatly disquieted Columbus: the Pinta, of which he had lost sight on the first day of the hurricane, did not appear; he dreaded for some time that she had foundered at sea, and that all her crew had perished; afterwards, his former suspicions recurred, and he became apprehensive that Pinçon had bore away for Spain, that he might reach it before him, and, by giving the first account of his discoveries, might rob him of some share of his well-earned fame.

To prevent this, he left the Azores on the 24th of February; but, when near the end of his voyage, and seemingly beyond the reach of disaster, another storm arose, and, after driving before it during two days and two nights, he was forced to take shelter in the River Tagus. Upon application to the king of Portugal, he was allowed to come up to Lisbon; and, notwithstanding the envy which it was natural for the Portuguese to feel, when they beheld another nation entering upon that province of discovery which they had hitherto deemed peculiarly their own, Columbus was received with all the respect due to a man who had performed things so extraordinary and unexpected.

Columbus remained only five days in Lisbon; and, on the 15th of March, he arrived in the port of Palos, seven months and eleven days from the time when he set out thence upon his voyage. As soon as his ship approached the port, all the inhabitants ran to the shore, to welcome their relations, and to hear tidings of their voyage. When the prosperous issue of it was known, when they beheld the strange people, the unknown animals, and singular productions brought from the countries which had been discovered, the effusion of joy was general and unbounded. The bells were rung, and the cannon fired; Columbus was received, at landing, with royal honours, and all the people, in solemn procession, accompanied him and his crew to the church, where they returned thanks to the Divine Being, who had so wonderfully conducted and crowned with success this important voyage. On the evening of the same day, he had the satisfaction of seeing the Pinta, which the violence of the tempest had driven far to the north, enter the harbour.

Ferdinand and Isabella, on being apprised of the success and safe return of Columbus, desired him, in terms the most respectful and flattering, to repair immediately to Barcelona, where they then held their court; that from his own mouth they might receive a full detail of his services and discoveries. During his journey, the people crowded from the adjacent country, following him every where with admiration and applause. His entrance into the city was conducted, by order of their majesties, with pomp suitable to the great event. The people whom he brought along with him from the countries which he had discovered, marched first, and, by their singular complexion, the wild peculiarity of their features, and uncouth finery, appeared like men of another species. Next to them were carried the ornaments of gold, fashioned by the rude art of the natives, the grains of gold found in the mountains, and dust of the same metal gathered in the rivers. After these, appeared the various commodities of the newly-discovered countries, together with their curious productions. Columbus himself closed the procession, and attracted the eyes of all the spectators. Ferdinand and Isabella received him, arrayed in their royal robes, and seated upon a throne, under a magnificent canopy. When he approached, they stood up, and, raising him as he kneeled to kiss their hands, commanded him to be seated upon a chair prepared for him, and to give a circumstantial account of his voyage; and, when he had finished his narrative, the king and queen, kneeling down, offered up solemn thanks to God for the discovery of those new regions, from which they expected so many advantages. Every mark of honour that gratitude or ambition could suggest was conferred upon Columbus. Letters patent were issued, confirming to him and to his heirs all the privileges contained in the capitulation concluded at Santa

Fé: his family was ennobled; and the king and queen, and, after their example, the courtiers, treated him, on every occasion, with all the ceremonious respect paid to persons of the highest rank. But what pleased him most, as it gratified his active mind, bent continually upon great objects, was an order to equip, without delay, an armament of such force as might enable him not only to take possession of the countries which he had already discovered, but to go in search of those more opulent regions, which he still confidently believed to exist.

While preparations were making for this expedition, the fame of Columbus's successful voyage spread over Europe, and excited general attention. Men of science, capable of comprehending the nature, and of discerning the effects, of this great discovery, received the account of it with admiration and joy. They spoke of the voyage with rapture, and congratulated one another upon their felicity, in having lived in the period when, by this extraordinary event, the boundaries of human knowledge were so much extended, and such a new field of enquiry and observation opened, as would lead mankind to a perfect acquaintance with the structure and productions of the habitable globe; and not only the Spaniards, but the other nations of Europe, seem to have adopted the opinion of Columbus:—the countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. In consequence of this notion, the name of Indies was given to them by Ferdinand and Isabella, in a ratification of their former agreement, which was granted to Columbus upon his return. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the New World was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of *West-Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants.

In consequence of this success, preparations for a second expedition were carried on with a rapidity unusual in Spain, and to an extent that would be deemed not inconsiderable in the present age. The fleet consisted of seventeen ships, some of which were of good burthen. It had on board fifteen hundred persons, among whom were many of noble families, who had served in honourable stations. The greater part of these being destined to remain in the country, were furnished with every thing requisite for conquest or settlement, with all kinds of European domestic animals, with such seeds and plants as were most likely to thrive in the climate of the West-Indies, with utensils and instruments of every sort, and with such artificers as might be most useful in an infant colony.

But, formidable and well provided as this fleet was, Ferdinand and Isabella did not rest their title to the possession of the newly-discovered countries upon its operations alone. The example of the Portuguese, as well as the superstition of the age, made it necessary to obtain from the Roman pontiff a grant of those territories which they wished to occupy; because the Pope, as the vicar and representative of Jesus Christ, was supposed to have a right of dominion over all the kingdoms of the earth. Alexander VI., a pontiff infamous for every crime which disgraces humanity, filled the papal throne at that period. As he was Ferdinand's subject by birth, and very solicitous to secure the protection of Spain, in order to facilitate the execution of his ambitious schemes in favour of his own family, he was extremely willing to gratify the Spanish monarchs. By an act of liberality, which cost him nothing, and that served to establish the jurisdiction and pretensions of the papal see, he granted in full right to Ferdinand and Isabella all the countries inhabited by infidels, which they had discovered, or should discover; and, by virtue of that power which he pretended to derive from Christ, he conferred on the crown of Castile vast regions, to the possession of which he himself was so far from having any title, that he was unacquainted with their situation, and ignorant even of their existence. As it was necessary to prevent this grant from interfering with that formerly made to the crown of Portugal, he appointed that a line, supposed to be drawn from pole to pole, a hundred leagues to the westward of the Azores, should serve as the limit between them; and, in the plenitude of his power, bestowed all to the east of this imaginary line upon the Portuguese, and all to the west of it upon the Spaniards.

A zealous desire of propagating the Christian faith was the consideration employed by Ferdinand in soliciting this bull, and was mentioned by Alexander as his chief motive for issuing it. In order to manifest some concern for this laudable object, several friars, under the direction of Father Boyl, a Catalonian monk of great reputation, as apostolical vicar, were appointed to accompany Columbus, and to devote themselves to the instruction of the natives. The Indians, whom Columbus had brought along with him, having received some tincture of Christian knowledge, were baptized with much solemnity, the king, the prince his son, and the chief persons of his court, standing as their godfathers.

Ferdinand and Isabella having thus acquired a title, which was then deemed completely valid, to extend their discoveries, and to establish their dominion over such a considerable portion of the globe, Columbus was impatient to revisit the colony which he had left, and to pursue that career of glory upon which he had entered. He set sail from Cadiz on the 25th of September, 1493, and, touching again at the island of Gomera, he steered farther towards the south than in his former voyage. By holding this course, he enjoyed more steadily the benefit of the regular winds, which blow within the tropics, and

was carried towards a large cluster of islands, situated considerably to the east of those which he had already discovered. On November 2, the twenty-sixth day after his departure from Gomera, he made land. It was one of the Carribee Islands, to which he gave the name of Deseada, on account of the impatience of his crew to discover some part of the New World. He then visited successively Dominica, Marigalante, Antigua, San Juan de Puerto Rico, and several other islands, as he advanced towards the north-west. All these he found to be inhabited by that fierce race of people whom Guacanahari had painted in such frightful colours. His descriptions appeared not to have been exaggerated; for the Spaniards never attempted to land without meeting with such a reception, as discovered the daring spirit of the natives; while in their habitations were found relics of those horrid feasts which they had made upon the bodies of their enemies taken in war.

Columbus afterwards paid a visit to his new colony at Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, and did not return from this second voyage till the year 1496. It is impossible to determine, whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan, most deserves our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn on either side without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view, when he made for Hispaniola, he examined the colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous spots, for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured to benefit the colony, with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it were an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, he got among a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned one hundred and sixty in one day. In the same voyage, Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprise.

By the first success of Columbus the public diffidence was converted into admiration; but, by a continuance of the same success, admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer of equivocal character was despatched from Spain, to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, in order to render abortive the machinations of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward of the Canaries, until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that course might afford to India, or what new islands or continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long enveloped in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, he was, at length, favoured with a brisk gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was the island now called Trinidad.

Having passed this island and two others, the admiral was surprised with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oroonoko, which, though a river only of the third or fourth magnitude in the New World, far surpasses any of the streams in our hemisphere. It rolls towards the ocean such a vast body of water, and rushes into it with such impetuous force, that, when it meets the tide, which on that coast rises to an uncommon height, their collision occasions a swell and agitation of the waves truly formidable. In this conflict, the irresistible torrent of the river so far prevails, that it freshens the ocean many leagues with its flood. Columbus, before he could perceive the danger, was entangled among those adverse currents and tempestuous waves, and it was with difficulty that he escaped through a narrow strait, which appeared so tremendous, that he called it La Boca del Drago. As soon as the consternation which this occasioned permitted him to reflect upon the nature of an appearance so extraordinary, he discerned in it a source of comfort and hope. He concluded, that such a vast body of water as this river contained could not be supplied by any island, but must flow through a country of immense extent, and, consequently, that he was now arrived at that continent which had long been the object of his anxious research. Charmed with this idea, he

stood to the west, along the coast of those provinces which are now known by the names of Paria and Cumana. He landed in several places, and had some intercourse with the people, who resembled those of Hispaniola in their appearance and manner of life. They wore, as ornaments, small plates of gold, and pearls of considerable value, which they willingly exchanged for European toys; and they seemed to possess a better understanding, and greater courage, than the inhabitants of the islands. The country produced quadrupeds of several kinds, as well as great variety of fowls and fruits. The admiral was so much delighted with its beauty and fertility, that, with the enthusiasm of a discoverer, he compared it to the garden of Paradise. Thus Columbus had the glory not only of discovering the existence of a New World, but he made considerable progress towards a perfect knowledge of it, and was the first man who conducted the Spaniards to that vast continent, which has been the chief seat of their empire, and the source of their treasures in this quarter of the globe. The shattered condition of his ships, the scarcity of his provisions, and his personal infirmities, together with the impatience of his crew, prevented him from pursuing his discoveries any farther, and made it necessary to bear again for Hispaniola. In his way thither, he discovered the islands of Cubagua and Margarita, which afterwards became remarkable for their pearl-fishery. When he arrived at Hispaniola, on the 30th of August, he was greatly indisposed; but the affairs of the colony afforded him no prospect of enjoying even a temporary repose. Many revolutions had happened during his absence, in consequence of the cabals of those whom he had left in power; and their ringleader was Francis Roldan, whom Columbus had appointed to a principal situation. This ingrate accused his patron and his two brothers of injustice, and pretended that they aimed at independent dominion; in consequence of which, and unfortunately for the honour of Spain, that great man was disgraced; for, in October, 1500, he was sent back to Spain *in chains!!*

In the year 1499, Ojeda, an officer who had accompanied Columbus in his second voyage, sailed to America with four vessels, but met with little more than Columbus had previously found. One of the adventurers was Amerigo Vespucci, an inhabitant of Florence, eminently skilled in navigation. On his return, he published the first description that had then appeared of any part of the new continent; and fame has assigned to him the honour of impressing his name upon this vast portion of the earth.

Though deprived of the honour of giving name to the New World, Columbus enjoyed the glory of rendering the one hemisphere known to the other; a glory much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him. He fully vindicated himself at court, and was restored to favour, and undertook a fourth voyage, in 1502, in which he discovered a considerable part of the American continent. He then returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

The succeeding governor of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contain mines of gold: the Indians only knew where they were situated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter now began, they set no bounds to their fury; and, in a few years, they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about six hundred thousand. Bartholomew de las Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer into the forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprised and burnt in their habitations.

In 1515, the continent was explored as far as Rio de la Plata; but, even in 1518, little was known concerning its western parts; and twenty-six years had elapsed since the first voyage of Columbus, before the existence of Mexico and Peru was even guessed at. Hispaniola and Cuba continued to be the chief seats of the Spanish power; but, in 1519, Cortez proceeded to the conquest of Mexico, which was accomplished in 1531. Magellan, at the same time, having explored the Pacific Ocean, the discovery of the western coast of Africa became the consequence of his exertions. After many reports concerning the riches of Peru, that country was, at length, visited, in 1526, by Pizarro, in a vessel from Panama. In 1530, he began the conquest of Peru; in ten years that empire was divided among his followers; and, in 1543, Peru became the seat of a Spanish viceroy.

Having stated the different periods of the discovery of America and its dependent islands, it may now be proper to revert to the manner in which the Spaniards effected the conquest of Mexico and Peru. From what they saw or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest than had yet been achieved. Fernando Cortez was despatched from Cuba with six hundred men, eighteen horses, and a small number of field-pieces; and, with this inconsiderable force, he proposed to subdue the rich and powerful empire of Mexico, inhabited by millions of Indians,

passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations. This empire had subsisted for ages; and its inhabitants were in all respects a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the ancient Egyptians, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of three hundred and sixty-five days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the American continent; and their government, founded on the basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry. It communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was much admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market-places, the shops, which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some of which were erected on columns of jasper, and contained whatever was most rare, curious, or useful.

Not all the grandeur of this empire, however, could defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with a feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at the first appearance of their invaders. The warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, and the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared neither age nor sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states upon the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined arms with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible, conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onwards to Mexico, and, in his progress, discovered a mine of sulphur and saltpetre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress without venturing to oppose it. This sovereign is reported, by the Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of a hundred thousand combatants, armed with bows and arrows; and yet he dared not resist a small body of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans, whose allegiance would have been shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always preceded them.

Montezuma, by sending a rich present of gold, which only excited the Spanish avarice, hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition was made to their entry into his capital, and a palace was set apart for Cortez and his companions, who were already treated as the masters of the new world. Soon, however, he had reason to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence: Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded; and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most terrible of all engines to the Americans. At last a circumstance took place, which afforded Cortez a pretext for commencing hostilities: In order to secure a communication by sea, to receive the necessary reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him, at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action: he also learned that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to convince his subjects that the Europeans were not immortal.

On receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded ignorance, and Cortez seemed ready to believe him, though, at the same time, he alleged that the Spaniards, in general, would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview demonstrated the superiority of European artifice. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few strangers, who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather the most superstitious veneration, for their emperor, and hence Cortez, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico by governing its prince. If the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, began to abate their respect, Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. If a tumult were excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards, Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into submission. This farce continued a long time; but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character, by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone from an unknown hand struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from

this emperor, who co operated so strongly with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, had discovered an implacable animosity against the Spaniards. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men whom a little before they had offered to worship: the Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established in Mexico to be driven from that situation.

The tribute which the grandees of this empire had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain amounted to six hundred thousand marks of pure gold, besides an immense quantity of precious stones; a fifth part of which, distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than abandon so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners, and it is recorded as a fact, that this prince, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover in what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to the high-priest, condemned to the same punishment, who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you imagine that I lie on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

Whilst Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they obtained intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold, silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length nearly thirty degrees; and, singular as it may appear, this country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours and at the expence of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. The first two were natives of Pahama, of doubtful birth. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprise, could neither read nor write. Having sailed over into Spain, and obtained a grant of what they should conquer, Pizarro set out for the conquest of Peru, with two hundred and fifty foot, sixty horse, and twelve small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices as the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were, besides, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances, likewise, which conspired to assist him, and which deserve to be narrated, as they discover something of the history, religion, and state of the human mind, on this continent.

The Peruvian empire was founded by Mango Copac. He was one of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He perceived that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun: he pretended, therefore, to have descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this romantic story, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction. He united and civilized these dispersed barbarous people: he subjected them to laws, and trained them to arms; and he softened them by the institution of religious duties. In short, there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the manners of the people were so mild and ingenuous. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants from the sun. The twelfth of these, named Atabalipa, was now on the throne. His father, Guiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, and, to secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, from which marriage sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, by a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connexion. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, terminated in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire.

In this feeble and disunited state was Peru when Pizarro advanced to attack it. The ominous predictions of superstition, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, and dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded with the appearance of the Spaniards; and, under these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, sought to conciliate their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those whom he considered as barbarians. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked

the guards of that prince, and, having butchered five thousand of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor as were the Mexicans; and Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat for his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most sumptuous temples, were brought out to save him who was the support of the kingdom and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negociation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be supposed that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing: and, at length, lest the common cause should suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay: it proved a sum exceeding their conception, but not capable of gratifying their avarice. It amounted to one million five hundred thousand pounds sterling, which, considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and other officers, each private soldier had above two thousand pounds, English money. With such fortunes, it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour. Pizarro complied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a number in his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These wise reflections were abundantly verified: it was impossible to send out better recruiting officers than those who had themselves met with such brilliant success: new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

But this immense ransom was only a further reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had any other treasure to gratify their avarice. But, whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince from whom they expected no further advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain that, by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a pretended charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of a similar nature. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother, Huescar, had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huescar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the brother of Huescar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which, in another empire, would have been extremely hurtful, were, at present, rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another: their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood; and, in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and the interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But, as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained two hundred leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted; and Almagro, two hundred leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district; but the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru: he even offered him his assistance in the expedition.

Ambitious of subduing a kingdom for himself, Almagro listened to this advice; and, joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, he penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro at a distance, they were very nearly successful. The latter, however, no sooner obtained intelligence of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all idea of distant conquests, he returned to secure the grand objects of their former labours. He raised the siege, with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but, having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and sanguinary struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, at an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of the Europeans, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Spaniards, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. "Let us retire," said they, "from among them; let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations." This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success; but the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, though now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still instigated by his boundless ambition to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before despatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the mere shell of which only remains at present. He, therefore, followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the River Amazon, an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but, as it is mostly flat, and, therefore, not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to control, nor any rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, in the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans of Almagro now declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy; but the greater part of the nation, though satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V., then King of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably calculated to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother-country. By his prudent management, the mines of la Plata and Potosi, which were formerly private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and tranquillity was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice, a council was sent over to control him, and the colony was again unsettled. The party-spirit, but just extinguished, again broke out, and Gonzalo, the brother of Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened himself daily, and even went so far as to behead a governor who was sent over to curb him. He also gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to prevent the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America men whose character and virtue pleaded in their behalf, despatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing from Castro only by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same

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love of justice, greatness of soul, and disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt flocked to his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections; the admiral was gained over, by insinuation, to return to his duty; and to Pizarro himself a full indemnity was offered, provided he would return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than submit to any officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered, and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of the man who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain fell a sacrifice for the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

CHAPTER II.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF NORTH AMERICA.

NORTH AMERICA is bounded, on the east, by the Atlantic, and, on the west, by the Pacific, Ocean. On the south, it is said to extend to the vicinity of Panama, the province of Veragua being considered as part of North America; while the northern limits have not been clearly ascertained; but seventy-two degrees may be assumed as their extent. From this latitude to the southern boundary, about seven degrees thirty minutes of north latitude, there will be sixty-four degrees and a half, or rather more than four thousand five hundred British miles. The breadth, from the promontory of Alaska to the extreme point of Labrador, will rather exceed the length, which last is, however, considered as forming part of the length of the general continent.

The following tables will exhibit the continental divisions of this part of the globe, and its principal islands belonging to Europeans.

CONTINENTAL DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
New Britain	850	750	318,750		Great Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec	Ditto
New Scotland New Brunswick	350	250	57,000	Halifax Shelburne	Ditto
New England	550	200	87,400	Boston	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York	Ditto
New Jersey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy	Ditto
Pennsylvania	300	240	15,000	Washington and Philadelphia	Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis	Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamsburg	Ditto
North Carolina South Carolina Georgia	700	380	110,000	Edenton Charles-town Savannah	Ditto Ditto Ditto
East Florida West Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Augustine Pensacola	Spain Ditto
Louisiana	1200	645	516,000	New Orleans	Ditto
New Mexico and California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fée St. Juan	Ditto Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	Ditto

Contents of the Thirteen United States ..... 238,000 Square Miles.

British Possessions in North America. } Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick } 150,000

PRINCIPAL ISLANDS OF NORTH AMERICA, BELONGING TO EUROPEANS.

	Islands.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
In the Gulf of St. Lau.	Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	4,000	Louisburg	Ditto
	St. John's	60	30	500	Charlestown	Ditto
In the Atlan.	The Bermuda Isles	20,000 acres.		40	St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama Isles	numerous.		....	Nassau	Ditto
West-India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.	Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Christopher	20	7	80	Basse-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montserrat	each of these is 18 circum.		....	Charlestown	Ditto
				....	Plymouth	Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12	60	.....	Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10	60	.....	Ditto
	Dominica	28	13	150	Rousseau	Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingston	Ditto
	Granada	30	15	150	St. George's	Ditto
	Tobago	32	9	108	.....	Ditto
	Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain
	Hispaniola, or St. Domingo	450	150	36,000	St. Domingo	
	Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Ditto
	Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joseph	Great Britain
	Margarita	40	24	624	.....	Spain
	Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	France
	Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Basse-terre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	23	12	90	.....	Ditto
	St. Bartholomew, Deseada, and Marigalante	all of them inconsiderable.		....	.....	Ditto
				....	.....	Ditto
				....	.....	Ditto
	St. Eustatia	29 circum.		....	The Bay	Dutch
	Carassou, or Curacoa	30	10	342	.....	Captured by the British in 1806.
	St. Thomas	15 circum.		....	.....	Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10	....	Basse End	Ditto

Climate.] The climate of North America is various; but, generally speaking, the heat of summer, and the cold of winter, are more intense than in most parts of the ancient continent. In the vicinity of Hudson's Bay, Fahrenheit's thermometer has risen in July to eighty-five degrees, and sunk in January to forty-five degrees below the freezing point; but the mercury begins to congeal at forty degrees, while spirits of wine will shew forty-six. The predominant winds blow from the west; and the severest cold is from the north-west. In the middle provinces the weather is remarkable for its transitions from heat to cold. In Virginia snow falls plentifully, but seldom remains above a day or two on the ground; yet, after a mild, or even warm, day, James River, where it is two or three miles in breadth, has in one night been covered with ice, so as to be passed by travellers. These alterations apparently proceed from the sudden change of the wind to the north-west. The provinces of South Carolina and Florida are subject to violent heats, furious hurricanes, and tremendous storms of thunder and lightning; and the sudden changes of the weather are highly injurious to the human constitution.

There have yet occurred but few opportunities for obtaining accurate accounts of the climate, in the western parts of North America. That of California seems to be, in general, moderate and pleasant, though somewhat incommoded by the heat of summer. According to Perouse, in latitude fifty-nine degrees, the land has a barren and wintery appearance, even in June: the gloom is increased by frequent fogs, and the glaciers seem perpetual.

Inland Seas.] Among the inland seas, or great bays of North America, may be mentioned the gulfs of Mexico, California, and St. Laurence; with Hudson's Bay, and what is called Davis's Straits, which is probably a sea of communication between the Atlantic and the Arctic Oceans. There are several lakes in this part of America, of so great a size, that they ought to be distinguished by the name of seas, particularly Lake Superior, Michigan,

and Huron, which constitute one piece of water, about three hundred and fifty miles in length; and the great Slave Lake in the north is supposed to be about two hundred and twenty British miles in length. Lake Superior is upwards of one hundred miles in breadth.

The Gulf of Mexico is the most celebrated of those above mentioned, as lying in a favourable climate, and presenting at its entrance that grand archipelago of North American islands called the West-Indies. From this gulf a singular current sets towards the north-east, which is called the Gulf Stream: it passes to the banks of Newfoundland, and is supposed to proceed from the accumulation of waters by the trade-winds. It is often distinguished from other parts of the ocean by the gulf-weed, is eight or ten degrees warmer, of an indigo blue, never sparkles in the night; and, when it arrives in cool latitudes, produces thick fogs. To the south of the Gulf of Mexico is the Bay of Honduras, well known in the annals of English commerce.

The Gulf of St. Laurence is the well-known estuary of a river of the same name, generally frozen from December to April. This gulf is closed by the island of Newfoundland, and by numerous sand-banks, particularly one called the Great Bank. This celebrated fishing station is more than four hundred miles in length, by about one hundred and forty in breadth; the water being from twenty-two to fifty fathoms deep, with a great swell. The chief fishery begins on the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September. The greatest number of cod-fish, taken by a single fisherman, has been twelve thousand; but the average is seven thousand: the largest fish, according to Mr. Pennant, was four feet three inches in length, and weighed forty-six pounds.

Hudson's Bay may be considered as extending from the entrance of Hudson's Strait to its western extremity, a distance of about one thousand and fifty British miles. The shores are generally steep and rocky, and the climate is almost perpetually cold.

The extensive tract of territory on the south of this sea is the property of the Hudson's Bay Company, whose principal profits are derived from furs. This sea has been repeatedly explored for a north-west passage; but, hitherto, without success. Chesterfield Inlet is a singular strait, stretching to the west, but terminating in a magnificent lake of fresh water, communicating with this sea by what may be called a broad river; the adjacent land being level, rich in pasture, and abounding with deer.

The lakes Superior, Huron, and Michigan, form one large inland sea, which may be called the Sea of Canada. The French charts state that part of this sea, which is called Lake Superior, to be not less than one thousand five hundred miles in circumference; and the greater part of the coast seems to consist of rocks and uneven ground, like those of the sea of Baikal. The water is pure and transparent; and the bottom generally consists of large rocks. More than thirty rivers fall into this lake, some of them of a considerable size. The banks of a river on the north-west abound with native copper. The chief fish are sturgeon and trout; the latter being caught at all seasons, and said to weigh from twelve to fifty pounds. This part of the Sea of Canada opens into the Lake Huron, by the Straits of St. Mary, about forty miles in length, and, in some places, only one or two miles in breadth; with a rapid current, towards the north-west extremity, which may, however, be descended by canoes. The circumference of that part called Lake Huron is said to be about one thousand miles; and on the northern side are some islands, called Manatulan, a name implying the residence of spirits. Another short strait leads into the third lake, called Michigan, which is also navigable for vessels of any burthen.

With respect to the smaller lakes, there are about two hundred of a considerable size in North America; a singularity which distinguishes it from every other portion of the globe.

Rivers.] The Mississippi is the most distinguished among the rivers of North America; and is thus described in a recent system of American geography, the author of which appears to have possessed the most accurate information.

"The Mississippi receives the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches, from the east; and of the Missouri, and other rivers, from the west. These mighty streams, united, are borne down with increasing majesty, through vast forests and meadows, and discharged into the Gulf of Mexico. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, and the excessive muddiness and salubrious quality of its waters, after its junction with the Missouri, are very singular. The direction of the channel is so crooked, that, from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, the distance, which does not exceed four hundred and sixty miles in a straight line, is above eight hundred and fifty-six by water. It may be shortened at least two hundred and fifty miles, by cutting across eight or ten necks of land, some of which are not thirty yards wide. Charlevoix relates that, in the year 1722, at Point Coupée, the river made a great turn; and some Canadians, by deepening the channel of a small brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuosity of the stream was so violent, and the soil of so rich and loose a quality, that, in a short time, the point was entirely cut through, and travellers saved fourteen leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflowings only excepted. The new channel has been since sounded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom. Several other points of great extent have, in

like manner, been cut off, and the river diverted into new channels.

"In the spring-floods the Mississippi is very high, and the current so strong, that it is with difficulty it can be ascended; but this disadvantage is remedied in some measure by eddies, or counter currents, which are generally found in the bends close to the banks of the river, and assist the ascending boats. The current at this season descends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faster than two miles; but it is rapid in such parts of the river as have clusters of islands, shoals, and sand-banks. The circumference of many of these shoals being several miles, the voyage is longer, and in some parts more dangerous, than in the spring. The merchandise necessary for the commerce of the upper settlements, on or near the Mississippi, is conveyed, in the spring and autumn, in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of islands, some of which are of great extent, intersperse that mighty river. Its water, after overflowing its banks below the river Ibberville on the east, and the river Rouge on the west, never return within them again, there being many outlets or streams by which they are conducted into the Bay of Mexico, more especially on the west side of the Mississippi, dividing the country into numerous islands. These singularities distinguish it from every other known river in the world. Below the Ibberville the land begins to be very low on both sides of the river, across the country; and gradually declines as it approaches nearer to the sea. The island of New Orleans, and the lands opposite, are to all appearance of modern date, for in digging ever so little below the surface you find water, and great quantities of trees. The many beaches and breakers, as well as inlets, which have arisen out of the channel, within the last half century, at the several mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninsula was wholly formed in the same manner. And it is certain that, when La Salle sailed down the Mississippi to the sea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at present.

"The nearer you approach the sea, this truth becomes more striking. The bars that cross most of these small channels, opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the streams; one of which, stopped by its roots or branches in a shallow part, is sufficient to obstruct the passage of thousands more, and to fix them at the same place. Astonishing collections of trees are daily seen in passing through the Balize and the Missouri. No human force is sufficient to remove them, and the mud carried down by the river serves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In less than ten years' time, canes, shrubs, and aquatic timber, grow on them, and form points and islands which forcibly shift the bed of the river."

Nothing can be asserted with accuracy respecting the length of this river; nor has its source been explored, but it is supposed to be upwards of three thousand miles from the sea. We only know that, from St. Anthony's falls, in latitude forty-five degrees, it glides with a pleasant clear current, and receives many extensive tributary streams, before its junction with the Missouri, without greatly increasing the breadth of the Mississippi. The muddy waters of the Missouri discolour the lower part of the river, till it disembogues into the Bay of Mexico. The Missouri is longer, broader, and deeper, than the Mississippi, and affords a more extensive navigation: it is, in fact, the principal river, contributing more to the common stream than the Mississippi. It has been ascended by French traders, about twelve or thirteen hundred miles; and, from the depth of the water and breadth of the river, at that distance, it appeared to be navigable many miles farther.

From the Missouri River to nearly opposite the Ohio, the western bank of the Mississippi is, some few places excepted, higher than the eastern. From Mine au Fer, to the Ibberville, the eastern bank is higher than the western, on which there is not a single eminence for the distance of seven hundred and fifty miles. From the Ibberville to the sea there are no acclivities on either side, though the eastern bank appears rather the highest of the two, as far as the English turn. Thence the banks gradually diminish in height to the mouths of the river, where they are but a few feet higher than the common surface of the water.

The slime which the annual floods of the Mississippi leave on the surface of the adjacent shores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which for many centuries past has ensured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks shall have been cultivated, as the excellency of its soil and temperature of the climate deserve, its population will probably equal that of any other part of the world. This river also resembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all issuing into a sea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounded on the north and south by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican bay is by North and South America. The smaller mouths of this river might be easily stopped up by means of those floating trees, with which the river is always covered during the floods. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep, and the bar be removed.

The falls of St. Anthony, in about latitude forty-five degrees, received their name from Lewis Hennepin, a

French missionary, who travelled in these parts about the year 1680, and was the first European ever seen by the natives. The whole river, which is more than two hundred and fifty yards wide, falls perpendicularly about thirty feet, and forms a most pleasing cataract. The rapids below, in the space of nine hundred feet, render the descent considerably greater, so that, when viewed at a distance, they appear to be much higher than they really are. In the middle of the falls is a small island, about forty feet broad, and somewhat longer, on which grow a few hemlock and spruce trees; and about half-way between this island and the eastern shore is a rock, lying at the very edge of the fall, in an oblique position, five or six feet broad, and thirty or forty feet long. These falls are peculiarly situated, as they are approachable without the least obstruction from any intervening hill or precipice, which cannot be said of any other considerable fall, perhaps, in the world. The circumjacent country, composed of many gentle ascents, which in the spring and summer are covered with verdure, and interspersed with little groves, is extremely beautiful.

A little distance below the falls is a small island, of about an acre and a half, on which grow a great number of oak-trees, the principal branches of which are, in the proper season of the year, loaded with eagles' nests. The instinctive wisdom of these birds has taught them to choose this place, as it is perfectly secure, on account of the rapids above, from the attack of either man or beast.

From the best accounts that can be obtained from the Indians, we learn that the four most capital rivers on the continent of North America, viz. the St. Laurence, the Mississippi, the River Bourbon, and the Oregon, or the River of the West, have their sources in the same neighbourhood. The waters of the three former are said to be within thirty miles of each other; the latter is rather farther west.

This shews that these parts are the highest lands in North America; and it is an instance not to be paralleled in the other quarters of the globe, that four rivers of such magnitude should take their rise together, and each, after running separate courses, discharge their waters into different oceans, at the distance of more than two thousand miles from their sources. For, in their passage from this spot to the Bay of St. Laurence, east; to the Bay of Mexico, south; to Hudson's Bay, north; and to the bay at the Straits of Annian, west, where the River Oregon is supposed to disembogue, each of them traverses upwards of two thousand miles.

The Ohio is a most beautiful river, presenting a gentle current, and a surface smooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a single instance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at Fort Pitt; five hundred yards at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway; one thousand two hundred yards at Louisville; and the rapids half a mile in some few places below Louisville; but its general breadth does not exceed six hundred yards. In some places its width is not four hundred; and in one place, far below the rapids, it is less than three hundred. Its breadth in no one place exceeds twelve hundred yards; and, at its junction with the Mississippi, neither river is more than nine hundred yards wide.

Dr. Morse states the precise measurement of the length of the Ohio, with all its windings, from Fort Pitt to its junction with the Mississippi, to amount to one thousand one hundred and eighty-eight miles. A vessel, drawing twelve feet water, might safely navigate from Pittsburgh to the sea. Two great rivers unite to form the Ohio, namely, the Monongahela and the Allegany, both of which are navigable.

From the preceding description, it appears that the Missouri must be regarded as the chief river which forms what is called the Mississippi. If measured on the same comparative scale which has been adopted to give a general idea of the length of the rivers in Europe and Asia, the Missouri or Mississippi will be about two thousand miles in length. The great river of St. Laurence is far inferior, being chiefly remarkable for its breadth.

The noble river of St. Laurence is allowed to be the second in North America; it being about ninety miles wide at its mouth, and navigable for ships of the line as far as Quebec, a distance of four hundred miles. Near that place it is five miles in breadth; and at Montreal, from two to four. Though there are some rapids, yet this river may be considered as navigable to Kingston and the Lake Ontario, which is seven hundred and forty-three miles from the sea. It is difficult to define the precise source of the St. Laurence, though that name be generally confined to the river issuing from Lake Ontario; while the Niagara, which flows from the Lake Erie, is regarded as a distinct stream. The length of the St. Laurence may, therefore, be about seven hundred British miles, the breadth being the grand characteristic.

The other chief rivers in North America are the Saskashawin, the Athabasca, the Unjiga, or Mackenzie's River; the Rio Bravo, which flows into the Gulf of Mexico; and the Albany, which joins Hudson's Bay; Nelson River, and Churchill River, are also considerable streams, which flow into that sea; but their geography is but imperfectly known. The same may be said of the Oregon, or great western river, which, confined by a chain of mountains, runs southerly, till, by a western course, it joins the Pacific.

Mountains.] The mountains of North America are far from equalling the Andes, in the south. The isthmus contains many irregular ranges; but it is only theoretical to consider them as connected with the Andes, as they

have neither the same character nor direction. In the isthmus there are also several volcanos.

The centre of North America may be described as a vast fertile plain, watered by the Missouri and its auxiliary streams. On the west, as far as discovered, a range of mountains proceeds from New Mexico in a northern direction, and joins the ridge called the Stony Mountains, which extends to the vicinity of the Arctic Ocean. From most of the accounts of navigators who have visited this coast, it seems to resemble that of Norway, being a wide hilly country, of considerable extent; while the shore, like that of Norway, presents innumerable crecks and islands. This tract, from the Stony Mountains and Mackenzie's River westward, to the source of the Oregon and Beering's Strait, probably contains the highest mountains in North America. On the north-east, Greenland, Labrador, and the countries around Hudson's Sea, present irregular masses, continually covered with snow, and having black naked peaks, resembling in form the spires of the Alps, but of very inferior height.

The most celebrated mountains in North America are those called the Apalachian, which pass through the territory of the United States from south-west to north-east. They commence to the north of Georgia, where they give rise to many rivers, running south to the Gulf of Mexico; and running north to the Tenassee, and others. There are several collateral ridges, as the Iron or Bald Mountains, the White Oak Mountains, &c.; the exterior skirt on the north-west being the Cumberland Mountains. The Apalachian chain thence extends through the western territory of Virginia, accompanied with its collateral ridges, the breadth of the whole being often seventy miles; it proceeds through Pennsylvania, then passes Hudson's River; and afterwards rises to a greater height, but seems to terminate in the country of New Brunswick. The chief summits appear to be in the province of New Hampshire, where the White Mountains are reported to be nine thousand feet above the sea; though some writers are of opinion that their altitude does not exceed six thousand feet.

The extent of the Apalachian chain appears to be about nine hundred geographical miles, a length greater than that of any chain of European mountains, except the Norwegian alps. The collateral ridges are very distinct; the central is granitic, the next schistous, and the exterior strata calcareous. The granite seems to consist of white feltspar, bluish pellucid quartz, and black mica. The schistous band, generally metalliferous in other regions, here presents copper-ore; and, in Canada, lead and silver are said to have been discovered in them. The lime-stone contains, as usual, many petrifactions, particularly a small scallop-shell, and several sorts of corals. The height of the chief summits has not been precisely ascertained, but probably does not exceed three thousand feet above the sea; and they are often covered with forests. Mr. Weld conjectures that the peaks of Otter, the highest of what are called the Blue Mountains, are little more than two thousand feet in height.

The Count de la Rochefoucault has communicated some valuable information concerning the ores of this part of the world. The primitive calcareous rock is mingled, in veins or banks, with the granitic, and is evidently contemporary. Near Philadelphia, large pieces of talc appear, instead of mica. There are also veins of quartz and marble, in the position of metallic veins. A remarkable circumstance in the mineralogy is, that the granitic mountains approach nearest to the sea, while at a greater distance the rocks are calcareous; and the real primitive lime-stone is sometimes covered with breccia and argillaceous schistus. The lakes of Upper Canada are surrounded with calcareous rocks; while in Lower Canada, from Montreal to the sea, the granite is predominant. The rock of Quebec is said to consist of grey granite, mingled with schorl, and was formerly called the Rock of Diamonds, because quartz crystals were found. The sand-bank of Newfoundland is supposed to be a mass of granite, covered with sand.

On the coast of New York and Boston, the rocks are of a soft granite, interspersed with lime-stone and schistus; but, towards, Carolina and Florida, the granitic mountains are at a considerable distance from the sea, which seems gradually to have retired.

Mineral and Vegetable Productions.] America produces most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and timber, which are found in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become much more common than formerly. And to these may be added diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other precious stones, which have been brought into Europe in considerable quantities. Other commodities, though of less price, are of much greater utility, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, fustic, lignum-vitæ, rice, ginger, pimento, cocoa, or the chocolate-nut, sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili; the Jesuits' bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparella, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, &c.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild in great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, cherries, pears, apples, figs, and grapes; with great quantities of culinary and medicinal herbs, roots, and plants

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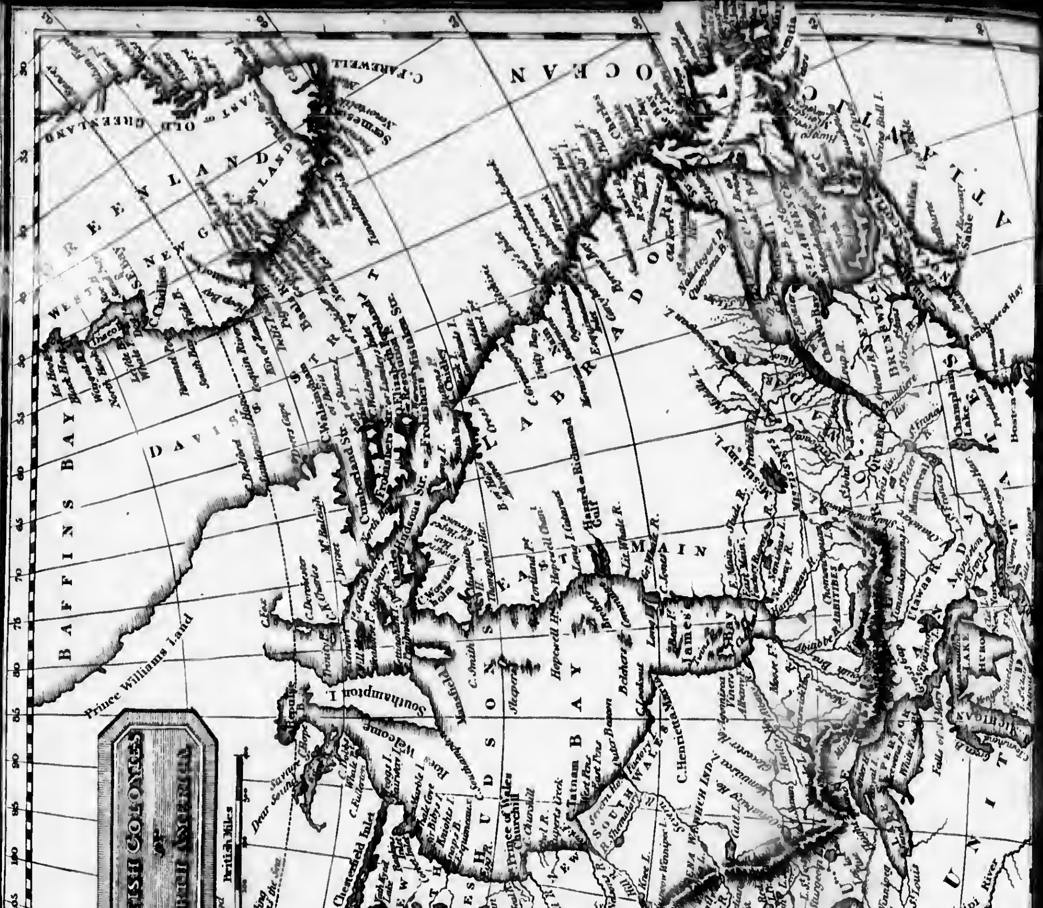

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CHAPTER III.

BRITISH AMERICA.

UNDER the general name of British America is comprised the vast extent of country situate between forty-two and seventy degrees of north latitude, and between fifty and ninety-six degrees of west longitude. It is bounded, on the south, by the United States of America and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east, by the same ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; on the north, by the northern limits of the Hudson's Bay charter; and, on the west, by unknown parts.

British America is divided into New Britain, Canada, and Nova Scotia; to which are to be added the islands of Cape Breton and Newfoundland.

SECTION I.

NEW BRITAIN.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] New Britain is situate between fifty and seventy degrees of north latitude, and between fifty and one hundred degrees of west longitude; extending eight hundred and fifty miles in length, and seven hundred and fifty miles in breadth, and is said to contain three hundred and eighteen thousand seven hundred and fifty square miles. It is bounded by unknown lands and frozen seas, about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by the Bay of Canada and River St. Laurence, on the south; and by unknown lands, on the west.

Climate, Soil, &c.] The climate of New Britain is intensely cold, and the air is seldom, if ever, clear. In the spring and fall, they have heavy wet fogs; and, in the winter, the air is full of an infinite number of icy spiculæ, that are visible to the naked eye; for as there arises, at this time of the year, a very thick vapour, called frost-smoke, this vapour, freezing, is driven by the wind in the form of spiculæ.

Mock suns, and red circles about the moon and sun, very luminous, and beautifully tinged with all the various colours of the rainbow, are common in these regions. Captain Ellis saw six of these mock suns at one time. The true sun rises and sets with a large cone of yellow light perpendicular to it; and no sooner does it disappear, than the Aurora Borealis spreads a thousand different colours over the whole concave of the sky, with so resplendent a beauty, that even the full moon does not efface their lustre; but, if the moon does not shine, these lights are much more apparent. The stars seem to burn with a fiery redness, especially those near the horizon, which strongly resemble a fire, or a ship's light, at a distance. Thunder and lightning are not very frequent in summer, though that season, for about six weeks or two months, is extremely warm. The soil is universally barren; and, to the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer. Every kind of European seed hitherto committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate has perished.

Animals.] In this country there are moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, hares, and beavers. The singular animal called the musk-ox is thus described by Mr. Hearne:—"The musk-ox, when full grown, is about the ordinary size of English black cattle; but the legs are shorter and thicker. The tail is short, and always bent inwards, so that it is entirely hid in the long hair of the rump and hind quarters. The hunch on the shoulders is not very prominent; the hair, on some parts, is very long, particularly under the throat, where it appears like a horse's mane inverted, and gives the animal a very formidable appearance

"The flesh of the musk-ox resembles that of the moose, or elk; the fat is a clear white, slightly tinged with azure. The calves and young heifers are good eating; but the flesh of the bulls smells and tastes so strong of musk, that it is almost intolerable. Even the knife that cuts the flesh of an old bull will smell so strong, that nothing but scowering it can remove the scent. The Indians killed several of them; but, as the flesh was very lean, they only stripped the bulls for the sake of their hides.

"In the high latitudes, many herds of these animals may be seen in the course of a day's walk. The number of bulls is very small, in proportion to that of cows; so that there is every reason to believe they kill each other in contending for the females. They delight in the most mountainous parts of the barren ground. Though of considerable magnitude, and apparently little adapted for agility, they climb the rocks with the facility of goats."

As the skins of the beavers form the principal article of commerce in New Britain, it may be proper to give a particular description of these curious animals.

A large beaver is about twenty-eight inches in length, from the hind part of the head to the root of the tail, and

weighs sixty or seventy pounds; but the colour varies: in some places, they are black, in some white, and, in others, almost of the colour of the deer. They are amphibious animals; and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. Their jaws are furnished with two cutters and eight grinders: the upper cutter is two inches and a half in length, and the lower something longer. The upper jaw projects over the lower one. The head is shaped like that of a rat, and the tail like the blade of a paddle. It is about fourteen inches in length, and about an inch thick. It is covered with a scaly skin; the scales being a quarter of an inch long, and folding over each other, like those of a fish.

The industry, foresight, and good management, of these animals, are extremely surprising, and scarcely credible to those who never saw them. When they want to form a settlement, three or four of them assemble together, and first pitch upon a place where they may have provisions, such as the bark of trees, roots, or grass, with every thing necessary for erecting their edifices, which must be surrounded by water: and, if there be neither a convenient lake or pond, they make one, by stopping the course of some brook or river. For this purpose, they cut down trees, above the place where they are resolved to build, and take their measures so well, as always to make the tree fall towards the water, that they may have the less distance to roll it, when they have cut off the branches. This done, they float it to the appointed place, and these pieces they cut bigger or less, to suit their convenience. Sometimes, they use the trunks of large trees, which they lay flat in the water. At others, they fasten stakes in the bottom of the channel, and then, interweaving small branches, fill up the vacancies with clay, mud, and moss, in such a manner as renders the dam very tight and secure. In these works, their tails serve them for carts and trowels, and their teeth for saws and axes. Their paws supply the place of hands, and their feet serve instead of oars.

The construction of their houses is no less admirable: they are generally built upon piles, at some distance from the shore, but sometimes close to the banks of the rivers. They first make holes at the bottom of the water for planting six posts, upon which each of their edifices is built, in a most curious manner. Their form is circular, with a flat roof. The walls are two feet thick, and sometimes more: they are formed of the same materials as the dams just mentioned: and every part is so well finished, that no air can possibly enter. About two-thirds of the edifice is raised above the water: in this they lodge, and are careful to keep it clean. They have generally three or four different avenues to each house, which they enter under water. To provide provisions against the winter, they draw the sticks they cut from the trees, and, thrusting one end into the mud, let them lie under the water, to preserve the bark green and tender for their winter provision.

The Indians sometimes roast these animals, in the same manner as we do pigs, first burning off their fur. Besides the fur, the beaver produces the true castor, the value of which is well known.

"It is worthy of observation," says a respectable geographer, "that all the quadrupeds of this new world are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to the height of fifteen feet, while the tapurette, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti, are despicable, in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther, of Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tiger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals, therefore, in America are different from those of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the cold of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. The bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well in New Britain and Canada as in Russia. But, if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the Author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious: had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would soon prove unavailing, and we should soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation."

Among the birds of New Britain there are geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all kinds of wild-fowl. There are such quantities of partridges in this country, that ninety thousand have been taken, in one season, at Port Nelson. The seas abound with whales, seals, cod, and a white fish, preferable to herrings; and the rivers and fresh waters with pike, perch, carp, and tench.

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Minerals.] New Britain contains an abundance of minerals of different sorts; iron, lead, and copper: there are, likewise, a great variety of marble, talcs, spars, and rock-crystals, of different colours. In the northern parts there is a substance that burns, and resembles coal. The asbestos, or stone-flax, is common here, and a stone, of a black, smooth, and shining surface, that separates easily into thin transparent leaves, resembling the Muscovy talc, which the natives use as looking glasses.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives of this country are of a middle size, and copper-colour, with black eyes, and long black hair. In their shapes and faces, they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward. In general, the women here are far from being objects of attraction, according to European ideas of beauty; though there are a few, when young, that are not quite destitute of personal charms. Hard labour, however, hard fare, and a rigorous climate, soon render them wrinkled; and they have all the marks of decrepitude before they are thirty. These Indians, in general, are of a cheerful and friendly disposition, good-natured, and honest in their dealings.

The clothing of the men, in summer, is a loose coat, made of a blanket, which they buy either of the French or English colonists; a pair of leather stockings, which come so high as to serve them for breeches, and shoes of the same materials. The ordinary apparel of the women is made of the skin of deer, otters, or beavers, with the hair or fur on; the sleeves of their upper habit are frequently separate from the body of it, and taken off at pleasure, being only tied with strings at the shoulders; so that the armpits, even in the depth of winter, are exposed to the cold, which they conceive contributes to health. Their diseases, indeed, are but few, and these chiefly arise from colds taken after drinking spirituous liquors, which they buy from the English.

They reside in tents, covered with moose and deer-skins sewed together. These are all circular, and are formed of poles, which are extended at the bottom, and at the top incline to the centre, where an opening is left to admit the light, and let out the smoke. They strew the floor with the tops of pine-trees, and lie with their feet to the fire, and their heads to the sides of the tent. The entrance is generally on the south-west side, and they go in by lifting up one of the skins.

They have no dependence for subsistence on the fruits of the earth, but live entirely on the animals which they take in hunting, or catch in traps. They every season make a prodigious slaughter among the deer, from an absurd notion, that the more they destroy the greater plenty will succeed; hence they sometimes leave three or four hundred dead on the plains, taking out only their tongues, and leaving their carcases either to rot, or to be devoured by wild beasts. At other times, they attack them in the water, and bring great numbers on floats to the factories. They also live upon birds, and even feed on eagles, hawks, crows, and owls, as well as on partridges, wild geese, and ducks. They generally boil their flesh, and drink the water in which it is boiled, which they esteem very wholesome.

The chiefs in every family or tribe (who are generally chosen from among the most ancient of the people, for their skill in hunting, and experience in trade, or valour in war,) direct those who reside with them in their different employments of hunting, fishing, fowling, &c.; yet their advice is followed rather through deference than obligation; for, in point of exemption from power, they may be truly called a free people.

Their method of kindling fire is very singular. To do this, they prepare two small pieces of flat dry wood, and make a small hole in each, and, having fitted into these holes a little cylindrical piece of wood, to which a thong is fastened, they whirl it about with such velocity, that the motion soon sets them on fire; and then, by applying the lighted piece of wood to some dry moss, as we use tinder, they make as great a fire as they please.

Polygamy is practised among these people; and Mr. Hearne relates, that a chief, named Matonabbee, who, with others, accompanied him in his travels, purchased a wife at a tent of Indians, where they stopped for refreshment, though he had six before, and most of them of the size of grenadiers. Indeed, the chief pride of an Indian is to have a wife of strength rather than beauty; for, as they have neither beast of burden nor water-carriage, every good hunter is under the necessity of having persons to carry his furs to market; and none are so well adapted for this work as the women, who are inured to carry heavy goods from their very childhood; so that he who is capable of providing for three, four, or more, women, is, comparatively speaking, a great man. Jealousies will sometimes appear among them, notwithstanding habit has familiarized them to their situation; but, as the husband is always arbitrator, the disputes are soon settled, and submission must be paid to his commands.

As some of the Indians of Mr. Hearne's travelling party were engaged in hunting, they discovered the track of a strange snow-shoe; and, tracing it, they came to a little hut, where they found a young woman alone. She proved to be one of the western Dog-ribbed Indians, who had been taken prisoner by those of Athapusco, and had eloped from them when they were in the vicinity, with an intention of returning to her own country; but the distance being so great, she had forgot the track, and had, therefore, built a hut for her protection, in which she had lived about seven moons, without seeing a human face.

"During this time," says our author, "she had sup-

ported herself by snaring partidges, rabbits, and squirrels. That she had not been in want was evident from her appearance, and the stock of provisions she had still by her. Of a real Indian, she was one of the finest women of any I ever saw. She had shewn infinite ingenuity in procuring a livelihood. When the few deer-sinews she had carried off with her were all expended in making snares, and sewing her clothes, she had used those of the legs of rabbits, with much dexterity and success. Of the skins of those animals she had likewise made herself a complete and neat suit of winter-clothes; and it was evident she had extended her care beyond mere comfort, as her dress exhibited no little variety of ornament.

"Her leisure-hours had been employed in twisting the inner rind of willows into small lines, of which she intended to make a fishing-net. Five or six inches of an iron-hoop served her for a knife, and this, together with an awl of the same metal, were all the implements in her possession. She lighted a fire by rubbing two hard sulphureous stones against each other; and, when a few sparks were produced, she had touch-wood ready to receive them.

"The comeliness of her person, and her approved accomplishments, occasioned a strong contest among the party, who should have her to wife; and she was actually won and lost by almost ten men the same evening. Matonabbe, though he had no less than seven women grown, and a young girl about twelve years old, wished to put in his claim for her; but one of his wives shamed him from this, by observing that he had women enough already. This piece of satire, however true it might be, irritated the chief so much, that he fell upon the poor creature, and bruised her so excessively, that, after lingering some time, she escaped from his tyranny by death.

"It appeared that, when the Athapusco Indians surprised the friends of the young woman, they had butchered them all, except herself and three other women. Among the victims of their barbarity were her father, mother, and husband. She had a child, about four months old, which she concealed in a bundle of clothing, and carried with her; but, when they joined the Athapusco women, one of them snatched it from her, and killed it on the spot. Her new husband, she said, was remarkably fond of her; but this piece of barbarity she could never forget, and took the first opportunity of eloping from the murderers of her infant."

During the progress of Mr. Hearne's journey, one of the women who belonged to the party was taken in labour; a circumstance that detained them two days. The instant, however, that the poor woman was delivered, the tents were struck, and, with her child on her back, and a small burden besides, she was forced to keep pace with them, and frequently had to wade knee-deep in water and melted snow. Her looks, exclusive of her piteous moans, were a sufficient proof of the anguish she endured; and Mr. Hearne says, he never felt more than he did for this miserable woman, whom it was not in his power to relieve.

One night, when the travelling party halted, one of Matonabbee's wives, and another woman, eloped, and it was supposed they had gone to rejoin their former husbands, from whom they had been forcibly taken. The chief was almost inconsolable for the loss of his wife, though he had still six remaining. Indeed, it seems she was by far the handsomest of his seraglio, and possessed every valuable quality to be found in an Indian. She appeared, however, unhappy with Matonabbee, and, probably, preferred being the sole wife of a young man of less note, to sharing the divided affection of the greatest man of the country.

Among these people it is customary to wrestle for the woman to whom they are attached; and, of course, the strongest carries off the prize. Indeed, without a considerable share of bodily strength, or some acquired consequence, it is seldom permitted to keep a wife, whom a stronger man thinks worth his notice, or whom he wants to assist in carrying his goods. This savage and unnatural custom prevails throughout all their tribes, and excites a spirit of emulation among the youth to distinguish themselves in gymnastic exercises, to enable them to protect their wives and property.

The manner in which they tear the women, and other property, from each other, is not so much by fighting as by dragging each other by the head. Seldom any hurt, however, is done in those rencounters. Before the contest begins, it is not unusual for one or both of the combatants to cut off his hair, and to grease his ears, in private. If one only is shorn, though he be the weakest man, he generally obtains the victory.

The by-standers never interfere on these occasions; not even the nearest relations, except by advice to continue or abandon the contest. Scarcely a day passes without some overtures being made for contests of this kind; and Mr. Hearne says, it often affected him much to see the object of the dispute sitting in pensive silence, and awaiting the termination of the combat, which was to decide her fate. Sometimes a woman happens to be won by a man whom she mortally hates; but even in this case she must be passive.

Unprincipled and savage as these tribes appear, in robbing each other, not only of their property, but their wives, they seldom carry their enmity further than wrestling. A murder is seldom heard of among them; and the perpetrator of such a horrid crime is sure to be forsaken, even by his own relations and former friends.

Their affection for their children is singularly great, as will appear from the following anecdote:—Two small

canoes, passing a river at Fort York, when they had got to the middle of it, one of them, which was made of the bark of a birch-tree, sunk, in which was an Indian, his wife, and their child. The other canoe being small, and incapable of receiving more than one of the parents and the child, produced a contest between the man and his wife; not that both of them were willing to devote themselves to save the other, but the difficulty lay, which would be the greatest loss to the child. The man used many arguments to prove it more reasonable that he should be drowned than the woman; but she alleged, on the contrary, it was more for the advantage of the child that she should perish, because he, as a man, was better able to hunt, and, consequently, to provide for it. The little time still remaining was spent in mutual expressions of tenderness; the woman strongly recommending, as for the last time, to her husband, the care of her child. This being done, they took leave in the water; the woman, quitting the canoe, was drowned; and the man, with the child, got safely ashore.

The natives of New Britain have a horrid custom of waging perpetual war, and exercising the most brutal cruelties on their neighbours, the Esquimaux. Impelled by this savage disposition, the party who accompanied Mr. Hearne were joined by a number of Indians, who, for that purpose, had equipped themselves in military array.

As soon as our traveller was apprised of their intention of murdering a people who had done them no injury, he zealously strove to dissuade them from such a design; but so far were his entreaties from being regarded, that they apprehended he was actuated by cowardice; and, with many marks of derision, told him, he was afraid of the Esquimaux. Knowing that his personal safety depended on the ideas his attendants formed of his courage, he was obliged to change his tone, and affect the language of a hero.

When they arrived in the vicinity of the country of the Esquimaux, three Indians were despatched to look for any of those people who might be on the banks of the Copper-mine River; and every precaution was taken to prevent an alarm, that the destined victims might fall into their hands without apprehension. The three spies returned, and reported that they had discovered five tents, in the most favourable situation for a surprise. The whole thoughts of the Indians were now absorbed in planning the best mode of attack, and of stealing on the poor savages, when asleep, and killing them all.

Having crossed the river in canoes, and got all the weapons in order, each painted a part of his shield with some figure, generally the sun, moon, or some bird or beast of prey, on which they placed their reliance for success in the intended engagement. From the hurry in which this business was executed, and the deficiency both of skill and colours, most of the paintings had little resemblance to any thing in heaven or earth; but they satisfied the artists, and that was sufficient.

This piece of superstition being completed, they advanced towards the Esquimaux tents, with the utmost caution and silence; and, though an undisciplined rabble, and by no means accustomed to war, no sooner had they entered on the horrid scheme, than they acted with the utmost uniformity. All were united in the general cause, and as ready to follow as Matonabbee to lead. Never was a reciprocity of interest more generally regarded; and, if ever the spirit of disinterested friendship animated the breast of a northern Indian, it was here displayed in glowing colours. Property of every kind ceased to be private: each was proud of an opportunity of supplying the wants of his neighbour. The attacking party was judged to be quite as numerous as the Esquimaux could possibly be, and, besides, being so much better equipped, nothing less than a miracle was likely to save the poor savages from a general massacre.

The land was so situated, that they walked under cover of the rocks and hills till within two hundred yards of the tents. Here they halted, to watch the motions of the enemy, and would have persuaded Mr. Hearne to remain till the engagement was over. But, though he disclaimed any interference in the deed of death, he thought it more prudent to accompany them; and the Indians were not a little gratified with his promptness to be of the party.

The last ceremonies were now performed, which consisted in painting their faces; some black, some red, and others a mixture of the two. They next made themselves as light as possible for running, by stripping themselves almost naked; and our traveller, fearing he might have occasion to run with the rest, pulled off his stockings and cap, and tied up his hair as closely as possible.

"It was now," says Mr. Hearne, "near one in the morning, when, finding the Esquimaux all still, they rushed from their ambuscade, and fell on the unsuspecting savages, who did not perceive their danger till it was too late to avoid it. The scene was shocking beyond description. The unhappy victims were surprised in the middle of their sleep; men, women, and children, to the number of twenty, ran out of their tents, stark naked, and endeavoured to fly; but the Indians had possession of the land-side; and, as they did not attempt to throw themselves into the river, the whole fell a sacrifice to unprovoked barbarity.

"Their shrieks were most dreadful; but no part of this affair filled me with deeper horror, than the fate of a young girl, apparently about eighteen: she was stabbed so near me, that she fell down at my feet, and twisted round my legs; so that I could scarcely extricate myself from her dying grasp. I solicited hard for her life; but the murderers made no reply till they had transfixed her with two spears. They then looked sternly at me, and, in ridicule, asked if I

wanted an Esquimaux wife. Though the poor wretch was twining round their spears, they continued their taunts, when I begged they would, at least, release her from her misery. On this, one of them pierced her through the breast. The love of life, however, prompted her to attempt to ward off the blow, which, in her situation, was the extreme of mercy to inflict.

"My situation, and the terror of my mind, at the sight of this butchery, can neither be conceived nor described. Though I summoned up all my resolution, it was with difficulty I could refrain from tears; even at this hour I cannot reflect on the transactions of that horrid day, without the most painful emotions."

When these people were all massacred, seven other tents, on the other side of the river, attracted their notice; but, providentially for the Esquimaux, the baggage and canoes had been left some way up the river, and there was no other way of crossing it. The river here was about eighty yards over, and, to alarm them, if they could not kill them, they began firing. The poor Esquimaux, though on the watch, were so much unacquainted with the nature of fire-arms, that they did not attempt to fly. When the bullets struck the ground, they ran, with a vacant curiosity, to see what they were. At length one of them was wounded in the leg, which immediately threw them into confusion. They ran to their canoes, and were soon out of the reach of the northern Indians.

Having plundered the tents of the deceased of all the copper utensils they could find, they assembled on the top of an adjacent hill, and, forming a circle with their spears erect, clashed them together, and gave many shouts of victory, frequently calling out, "tima? tima?" or what cheer? by way of derision, to the poor surviving Esquimaux, who were standing almost knee-deep in the water.

After parading for some time, they set out for their canoes, and, sailing under cover of the bank, they approached the other tents, where the Esquimaux, thinking probably they were gone, had returned, and were busy in tying up bundles. These were seized, but the owners fortunately escaped again in their canoes, except one old man, who was too intent on his business, and who fell a sacrifice to their fury, for not fewer than twenty had a hand in his death. As they were retreating from the first scene of blood, they found an old woman, sitting by the side of the river, killing salmon, which lay very thick at her feet. Whether from the noise of the fall, or a great defect in sight, she had not been apprized of the murder of her companions, though not more than two hundred yards distant from the scene of blood; nor did she discover her enemies till they were just within reach of her. She was pierced through with numerous spears, with the most marked and studied cruelty.

After having plundered the second encampment, the northern Indians threw the tents into the river, and destroyed a large stock of provisions, merely from the wish of doing all the mischief in their power to the unhappy Esquimaux, who were standing on a distant shoal, the woeful spectators of their loss.

The following custom must appear shocking to every humane mind. When parents grow so old as to be unable to support themselves by their own labour, they require their children to strangle them, and their performing it is esteemed an act of duty. This is done in the following manner: The old person's grave being dug, he goes into it, and, after having conversed and smoked his pipe, or, perhaps, drank a dram or two with his children, he informs them that he is ready; upon which two of them put a thong about his neck, one standing on one side, and the other opposite to him, which they pull violently till he expires: they then cover him with earth, and over that erect a kind of rough monument of stones. Such old people as have no children require this office of their friends; but in this case it is not always complied with.

Like all rude nations, these Indians are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii, spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all their happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that their diseases are supposed to proceed, and to the good genii that they deem themselves indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired, by the good genii, with the knowledge of future events: they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed whether their patients will recover, and in what manner they must be treated.

Respecting these jugglers, the following particulars are related by M. Hearne. "Several of the Indians being indisposed, the conjurers, who are always the doctors, began to try their skill to effect their recovery. No medicine, except charms, is used for any complaint, whether external or internal. In ordinary cases, sucking the diseased part, blowing and singing to it, spitting, and uttering much unintelligible jargon, compose the process of the cure.

"When a friend, for whom they have a particular regard, is supposed to be dangerously ill, they occasionally have recourse to a very extraordinary piece of superstition, namely, swallowing hatchets, knives, or the like. On these occasions a conjuring-house is erected, by driving the ends of four small poles into the ground, the tops of which are tied together, and then covered with a tent-cloth, with a little aperture at the top, to admit the light. In the middle of this tent the patient is laid; and sometimes five or six conjurers, quite naked, enter; and, securing the door, kneel round the patient, and begin to suck and blow

the part affected. After a short process of this kind, they sing and talk as if conversing with familiar spirits, which they pretend actually appear to them in the form of beasts or birds of prey.

"Having finished this ideal conference, they call for the hatchet, bayonet, or the like, which is always prepared by another person, and has a string fastened to one end, to assist in drawing it up again, after they have swallowed it; for they do not pretend to be able to digest or pass it.

"I once saw an experiment of this kind. A man being dangerously ill, and some extraordinary experiments being judged necessary, one of the conjurers consented to swallow a broad bayonet. The house was erected, as before mentioned, the invocations took place, and the bayonet being called for, it disappeared in the twinkling of an eye. I am not credulous enough to suppose that the juggler actually swallowed it; but I confess I could see nothing but the small piece of wood at the end of the string, or one similar to it, between his teeth.

"The juggler then paraded backward and forward for a short time, when he feigned to be greatly disordered in his stomach and bowels; and, after many wry faces and hideous groans, by the help of the string and some tugging, he at length produced the bayonet, apparently from his mouth, to the no small surprise of the spectators. He then looked round with an air of exultation, and, retiring into the conjuring-house, renewed his incantations, which he continued, without intermission, for the space of twenty-four hours."

Mr. Hearne admits he was not able to detect the deception, more particularly as it was performed by a naked man, and the natives themselves seemed to exult at this triumph, as they supposed it, over his former incredulity. The sick man soon recovered, and in a few days prosecuted his ordinary business.

During the stay of the party at Indian Lake, a man being entirely palsied on one side, the conjurers set about curing him; and the person who had swallowed a bayonet in the summer, now offered to swallow a piece of board, as large as a barrel-stave, for his recovery. After the usual preparatory ceremonies, the board was delivered to the conjurer, who apparently shoved one-third of it down his throat, and then walked round the company, continuing to swallow it, till no part was visible, except a small piece of the end.

As our traveller had doubted the former trial of his skill, the Indians, to cure his unbelief, gave him the most favourable station for seeing the exploit performed; but still, though he could not be convinced of what was in itself impossible, he was unable to detect the imposition. Soon after, being questioned as to his opinion of the performance, as he was unwilling to offend by owning his sentiments that it was a juggle, he only hinted at the impossibility of swallowing a piece of wood, longer than the man's whole back, and twice as wide as his mouth. On this some of them laughed at him for his ignorance, and said, that the spirits in waiting swallowed, or otherwise conveyed away, the stick, and only left the forked end apparently sticking out of the conjuror's mouth. Matonabbee, though a man of sense and observation, was so bigotted to the reality of those feats, that he assured Mr. Hearne he had seen a man swallow a child's cradle, with as much ease as he could fold up a piece of paper and put it in his mouth.

As soon as the conjuror had finished the swallowing remedy, five other men and an old woman, all proficients in the art, stripped naked, and entered with him into the conjuring-house, where they began to suck, blow, sing, and dance, round the poor paralytic; and continued this farce for three days and as many nights, without intermission, or taking the least refreshment. At last, when they came out, their mouths were quite parched and black, and they were not able to articulate a single syllable. They laid themselves on their backs, with their eyes fixed, as if in the agonies of death, and, for the first day, were treated like young children, by being fed by hand.

The paralytic, however, had not only recovered his appetite, but was able to move all the fingers and toes of the side that had been so long dead. In three weeks he could walk, and at the end of six went a hunting for his family. After that he accompanied Mr. Hearne to the fort, and frequently visited the factory during the following years. But his nature seemed quite changed; for, from being lively, benevolent, and good-natured, he became pensive, quarrelsome, and discontented, and never recovered the look of health.

Though the deception performed by the Indian conjurors must be unquestionable, the apparent good effects of their charms on the diseased, can only be accounted for on the principal of faith in the patient, which sets the mind at ease, and inspires hope, so essential to the well-being of man. As a proof of the implicit confidence which is placed in the supernatural powers of these jugglers, even the threat of revenge on any person that has offended them is often fatal. The very idea that the conjuror possesses the means of destruction, preys on the spirits of the unhappy victims of his ill-will, and soon brings on a disorder that terminates his existence.

Mr. Hearne says, the natives always thought him possessed of this art; and, accordingly, he was once solicited to kill a man, who had offended a chief, and who was then several hundred miles off. To please his friend, he drew some rude figures on a bit of paper, and gave it to the Indian, who wished for the destruction of his enemy. But what was his surprise, on being told, the next year,

that the man, who was then in perfect health, being acquainted with his design against him, almost immediately sickened and died. He was frequently afterwards importuned to execute revenge on others; but, having once established his character by this fatal instance of Indian credulity, he never complied, in future, with such requests.

The *Copper Indians* are so called from their proximity to the Copper River. Mr. Hearne relates that, when he arrived at their spot, and they were made acquainted with the object of his journey, they highly approved of it, and even offered their assistance, particularly in lending their canoes, which they said would be very useful during the remainder of the journey. Our traveller, according to his instructions, smoked the calumet of peace with the principal of the Copper Indians, and was delighted with the prospect of a settlement in their country; and seemed to think there could be nothing to prevent it; for, though he acknowledged that he had never seen the sea clear of ice at the mouth of the Copper River, it did not occur to him, that this must prevent ships from approaching their territories.

The whole party of the Copper Indians, notwithstanding they had never seen an Englishman before, were extremely civil and obliging; and our traveller made them a present of some articles, to conciliate their affection. They pronounced him to be a perfect human being, except in the colour of his hair and eyes; the former, they said, was like the stained hair of a buffalo's tail; and the latter like the eyes of a gull.

The *Esquimaux Indians*, who reside on the eastern coast of Hudson's Bay, derive their name from an Indian word, that signifies eaters of raw flesh; for, after thoroughly drying the flesh of the beasts they kill, they eat it without any other preparation. They are rather low in stature, and, though thick set, are neither well made nor strong. Their complexion is a dirty copper colour, though some of the women are something fairer. One singular part of their dress is their snow-eyes, as they properly call them. These are bits of wood or ivory, formed to cover the organs of sight, and tied at the back of the head. In each piece are two slits, of the same length with the eyes, but narrower, through which they see distinctly. This invention prevents a very painful disorder, occasioned by the brightness of the light reflected from the snow.

Their tents are made of deer-skins, and are pitched in a circular form. In winter, they have huts half underground, rising and pointed like a cone: these are always erected in the most sheltered situations. Their domestic utensils consist of stone-kettles, wooden troughs, dishes, scoops, and spoons made of the horns of the musk-ox. Some of the kettles are capable of containing five or six gallons, and are hollowed out in the form of an oblong square.

Mr. Hearne did not see any bird peculiar to those parts, except what the Copper Indians call the Alarm Bird. It appears to be of the owl genus; and its name is said to be well adapted to its qualities. When it discovers either man or beast, it directs its flight towards them, and, hovering over them, flies round their heads. Should two objects at once arrest its attention, it flies from one to the other alternately, making a loud screaming, like the crying of a child. In this manner it will follow travellers for a whole day. The Copper Indians have a great value for these birds, as they frequently indicate the approach of strangers, or conduct them to herds of deer and musk-oxen, which, without such assistance, they might possibly miss.

Having walked about thirty miles south-eastward of the river, the travelling party came to one of the copper-mines, if it deserves that appellation. It is no more than a jumble of rocks and gravel, which have been rent by an earthquake, and through which rolls a small stream.

The Indians, whose partial accounts gave rise to this expedition, represented the mine as so immensely rich, that a ship might be ballasted with the ore instead of stone, with perfect facility, and that the hills were entirely composed of that metal, all in portable lumps. After a search of four hours, Mr. Hearne and his attendants could find only one piece of copper of any size, and that did not weigh more than four pounds. Yet it seems probable, that this metal has formerly been in much greater plenty, as the rocks and stones are every where tinged with verdigrease.

Before Churchill River was settled by the Hudson's Bay Company, the northern Indians had very little ironwork among them: almost every implement was made of copper; and to this spot they annually resorted, till this metal began to fail, and they found other resources, of a superior kind. Yet, to this day, the Copper Indians prefer their native ore for almost every use, except that of the hatchet, the knife, and the awl.

The Copper and Dog-ribbed Indians, lying so remote from the factory, generally use the intermediate tribes as brokers; and, in consequence, pay very dearly for every European article they stand in need of. Several attempts have been made to induce those distant nations to traffic immediately with the Hudson's Bay Company at the fort; but, though liberal presents have been given to those who had the resolution to venture so far, both for themselves and their chiefs, the northern Indians have constantly plundered them of every thing, before they could reach their homes.

Mr. Mackenzie, who visited this country for the purpose of establishing a north-west company in the fur-trade, undertook several excursions into these northern regions, some time after Mr. Hearne, which began in 1789, and

closed in the year 1793. The Slave Lake, which he explored, and called by that name, appeared to be the same with that named Athapusco. From the Slave Lake he entered a river, now called by his own name, and proceeded till he reached the Arctic Ocean. The Slave River he describes as very considerable, and says it received its name from an Indian tribe, called Slaves, merely from their extreme ferocity. The Slave Lake he found covered with ice in the month of June: the fish it contains are chiefly carp, white fish, trout, and pike. The river called after his name, he relates, is sometimes fifty fathoms in depth, though not more than three hundred yards in breadth, and has a wide estuary, with many islands. Mr. Mackenzie, at length, finished his course, which had occupied an hundred and two days, and tended, with former experiments, to prove, that there is not any communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean, e. cept at so high a latitude, that it must be impeded by perpetual ice.

This enterprising traveller proceeded to Fort Chapivian on the 10th of October, 1792, up the River Unjiga, in a south-west direction, till he reached a high land, beyond what are called the Stony Mountains, the height of which he computes at eight hundred and seventeen yards. He describes the west side of the River Unjiga as exhibiting a beautiful scene, interspersed with hills and lawns, with groves of poplars, and enlivened with vast herds of elks on the uplands, and of buffaloes on the plains. Among the birds were observed blue jays, yellow birds, and beautiful humming-birds. Beavers are common, and tracks of moose-deer were remarked. Towards the Pacific, Mr. Mackenzie observed, that the natives were fairer than in the other parts of North America. Their eyes were not dark, like those of the other Indians, but grey, with a tinge of red. The dress of the men is only a robe, made of the bark of the cedar-tree, rendered as fine as hemp, sometimes with borders of red and yellow threads, and the women add a short apron. Some of their canoes are forty-five feet in length, the gunwale being inlaid with the teeth of the sea-otter.

We shall conclude this section with a general account of those Indians who inhabit the most northern parts of America.

The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and mode of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. The Indians, therefore, are, in general, grave even to sadness; and they despise that giddy vivacity which is peculiar to some nations in Europe. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they remove wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in the greatest abundance. The different tribes are extremely small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another; and these small tribes live at an immense distance from each other.

A certain species of government is established in every tribe, and is nearly similar over the whole continent of America. Destitute of arts, riches, or luxury, an American chief has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But, as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are nearly equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty is the prevailing passion of the Americans, yet they are far from despising all sorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged; and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders, and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the necessity of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and the exigencies of the state continue to support it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has neither guards, prisons, nor officers of justice; and one act of ill-judged violence would occasion his deposition. The elders in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power.

The management of business among the Indians is extremely simple, and such as may recal, to those who are acquainted with antiquity, a picture of the most early ages. The heads of the families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided with food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. Their dances, like those of the Greeks and Romans, are chiefly of the military kind; and these, with the addition of their music, accompany every feast.

The only employments of the men are war and hunting:

every other concern, even the little agriculture they use, is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into a war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge the death of some friend, or to acquire prisoners who may assist them in the toils of the chace. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men who are disposed to go out to battle give a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally renders favourable. Among a variety of superstitious ceremonies used on this occasion, one of the most horrid is that of setting the war-kettle on the fire; after which they send a large shell to their allies, inviting them to come and drink the blood of their enemies.

Having finished all their ceremonies, they issue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermillion, which give them a most horrid appearance. They then exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance.

The great qualities of an Indian warrior are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; and, indeed, in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in their forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness, which, at first, appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can distinguish and count with the utmost facility. These circumstances, however, give them no superiority, because their enemies are equally skilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might incur the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and, marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner, they enter the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men; or make prisoners of as many as have strength enough to be useful. But, when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested; when, all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry: every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second volley. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of further resistance. But, if the force on each side continue nearly equal, the fierce spirit of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, and rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues: death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample exultingly over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in the blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring the flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling, to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy gloom to their own village: a messenger is sent to announce their arrival; and the women, with hideous shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates, in a low voice, to the elders, every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people; and, as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men also join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory: each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation: all tears are wiped from their eyes, and, by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy.

For the enemies of their nation they have no sense of pity; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him

have had their family weakened by war, or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But, if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too great to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and each prisoner is tied to the stake, where he begins the death-song, and prepares for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. His enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the mangled finger into the bowl of a pipe, made red-hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh with their teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching, them alternately: they then pull off his flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood, in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that can increase the torment. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty: they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily take fire, but burn slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and, lastly, after having burnt his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is one complete wound; after having mutilated the face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals, or boiling water, on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted on every side with clubs and stones, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, either out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then thrown into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded, in some of the tribes, by a feast on the mangled remains.

The women, forgetting not only the female character but humanity itself, outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking, and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about in different matters. Indeed, during the whole time of the execution, there seems a contest which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost above human: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance, escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to madness, he continues his insults, even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for an European to suffer as an Indian. "I am brave and intrepid," exclaims the savage in the faces of his tormentors. "I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women: life is nothing to those that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! O! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop!"

Nothing forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards their enemies, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, and those who are in alliance with them. Among these, all things are common; and this, though it may partly arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because, in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting—has his harvest failed—or is his house burned,—he feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his countrymen; but to the enemies of his nation, or to those who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments; he appears reconciled, until, by some treachery or surprise, he has an opportunity of executing a horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object: he crosses the steepest

mountains, pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts, for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities.

The loss of their friends is lamented among the Indians with a variety of mournful ceremonies. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order; and the neighbouring tribes are invited to be present, and to join in the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn occasion (which is renewed every eight or ten years) are taken out of their graves: those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

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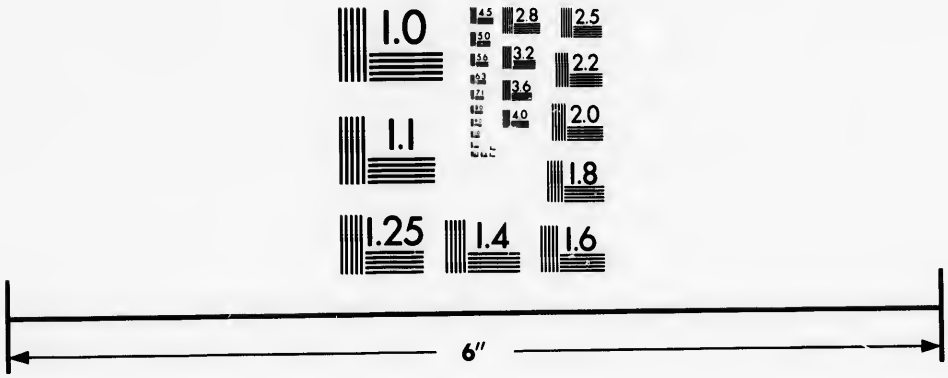

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into the water, in a perpendicular direction, many miles together, affording no shelter from storms.

About six leagues from the fort of Niagara, in Canada, is the greatest cataract in the world, known by the name of the *Waterfall of Niagara*. The river at this fall runs from the south-south-east to the north-north-west; and the rock of the fall forms a kind of figure like a hollow semicircle, or horse-shoe. Above the fall, in the middle of the river, is an island about eight hundred feet long; the lower end of which is just at the perpendicular edge of the fall. Before the water comes to this island, it runs but slowly, compared with its motion afterwards, when it grows extremely rapid, running with a surprising swiftness before it comes to the fall. It is perfectly white, and, in several places, is thrown high up into the air. The water that runs down on the west side is in greater abundance, and whiter, than that on the opposite side; and seems almost to outfly an arrow in swiftness. When a person is at the fall, and looks up the river, he may perceive that the water is every where exceedingly steep, almost like the side of a hill; but, on looking at the fall itself, it is impossible to describe the astonishment it occasions.

The height of the cataract, as measured by mathematical instruments, is found to be exactly a hundred and thirty-seven feet; and, when the water is come to the bottom, it flies back to a great height in the air. The noise may sometimes be heard at the distance of forty miles, but seldom farther. At some times, the fall makes a much greater noise than at others; and this is regarded as an infallible prognostic of rain or other bad weather.

From the place where the water falls there arises a prodigious vapour, like a thick smoke, insomuch that, when viewed at a distance, a stranger might suppose that the Indians had set their forests on fire. These vapours rise very high in the air, when it is calm, but are dispersed by the wind, when it blows hard. If any person go into this vapour, or if the wind blow it on him, it is so penetrating, that in a few moments he will be as wet as if immersed in water.

Some persons are of opinion, that when birds happen to fly into the smoke of the fall, they immediately drop down, and perish in the water; either because their wings are become wet, or that the tremendous noise of the fall astonishes and confounds them: but others think, that this idea is merely chimerical; because, among the great numbers of birds found dead below the fall, there are no other sorts than such as live and swim frequently in the water, as swans, geese, ducks, teal, &c. Great flocks of these animals are often seen going to destruction in the following manner:—They swim in the river above the fall, and so are carried down lower and lower by the water; and, as water-fowl are commonly pleased with being carried by the stream, they indulge themselves in this pleasure, till the rapidity of the water renders it impossible for them to rise, and they are consequently hurried down the precipice.

In the months of September and October, such prodigious quantities of dead water-fowl are found every morning below the fall, that they afford ample subsistence for the garrison at the fort. Here also are frequently found the bodies of deer, bears, and other animals, which have attempted to cross the water above the fall. Some melancholy instances of human beings having lost their lives in a similar manner are related by travellers; and the following one is too affecting to be passed over in silence:—

"An unfortunate Indian was reposing, in a state of inebriety, in his canoe, which was properly secured, at the distance of some miles above the cataracts, while his wife sat on the shore to watch his slumbers. After some time, a sailor, from one of the vessels on the lake, happened to arrive at the spot, and began to take some indecent liberties with the Indian female. The woman naturally attempted to rouse her husband; but, before she could effect her design, the brutal mariner cut the cord of the canoe, and set it adrift. The little vessel glided swiftly down the stream, and in the space of a few minutes it was seen to enter the Rapids. The Indian, awakened by the violent motion of the waves, started up, and, on perceiving his perilous situation, he grasped his paddle with a look of inexpressible horror; but, finding it absolutely impossible to stem the force of the current, he calmly wrapped himself up in his blanket, and resumed his former position at the bottom of the canoe. In the space of a few moments, he was hurried down the precipice, and was never discovered more."

There is an island in the middle of the fall, which was formerly supposed inaccessible; but an accident that happened about sixty years ago made it appear otherwise. Two Indians went out from Fort Niagara to hunt upon an island that is situated in the middle of the river, above the great fall, which was then stocked with abundance of deer; but, having indulged too freely in the use of some French brandy, they fell asleep, and their canoe drove back with the stream, till it approached that island which is in the middle of the fall. Here they were awakened by the noise of the cataract, and began to give themselves over as lost; but, after some vigorous exertions, they effected a landing upon the island. At first, they exulted in the idea of their escape; but, upon cool reflection, they found themselves hardly in a better state than if they had gone down the fall, since they had no other alternative than either to throw themselves down the same, or perish with hunger. After some time, however, hard necessity put them on invention; and, as they found plenty of wood on the island, they made a ladder of the bark of

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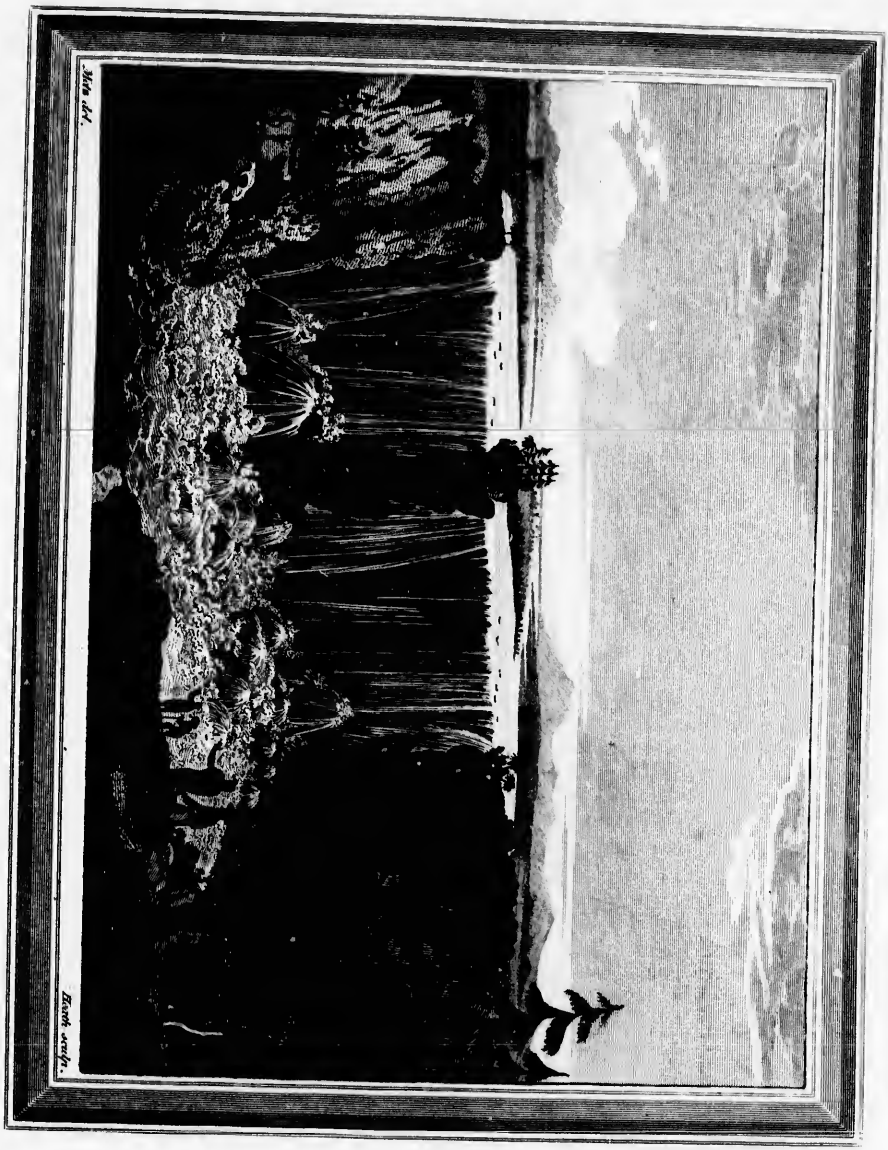

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the lind-tree, in order to reach the water below: one end of this ladder they fastened to a large tree, that grew on the side of a rock above the fall, and let the other end down to the water. By this contrivance, they descended to the bottom in the middle of the fall; and then threw themselves out into the water, thinking to swim on shore. Scarcely, however, had they begun to swim, before they were thrown back with violence against the rock from which they came; and, after several fruitless attempts, they were compelled to re-ascend to the island. After some time, they discovered Indians on the shore, who appeared to pity their misfortune, but gave them little hope of assistance. These, however, ran to inform the commandant of the fort of the situation of their friends; and he soon projected the means of their deliverance, in the following manner:

The water that runs on the east side of this island is shallow, especially toward the eastern shore. The commandant, therefore, caused some poles to be made and pointed with iron; and, by the help of these, two Indians offered to walk to the island, to save their unfortunate brethren, or to perish in the attempt. Each had two such poles in his hands, to set at the bottom of the stream, in order to keep him steady, and in this manner they safely reached the island, and brought away the poor creatures, who were almost perishing for want of food.

On the west side of this island are some small rocks; and in former times a part of the rock at this side of the fall hung over in such a manner, that the water which fell perpendicularly from it left a vacancy below, so that people could go under, between the rock and the water; but, some years ago, the prominent part broke off and fell down. The breadth of the fall, as it runs in a semicircle, is reckoned to be about three hundred feet.

Every day, when the sun shines, from ten o'clock in the morning till two in the afternoon, may be seen, below the fall, the similitude of a beautiful rainbow, and sometimes two, one within another. The brightness and clearness of this phenomenon depends on the quantity of vapour that results from the spray of the cataract; for, when the wind drives the vapours away, the rainbow disappears; but, as soon as new vapours come, it resumes its former appearance. The rock of the fall consists of a grey limestone.

What are called the great cohoes falls of the Mohawk River have also a surprising appearance. The river is near a quarter of a mile broad, and the water, precipitating itself from several rocks which project from the rest, falls down on every side them in torrents, and, being broken near the bottom by many separate crags, rises in a white froth. The descent is here said to be about seventy feet, in which height are probably included the steep descents just below the above disjointed precipice; from whence also rises a misty cloud, that descends like small rain, and exhibits, when the sun shines, a beautiful rainbow, which moves as the spectator moves, according to the angle of vision.

Vegetable Productions.] The forests which occupy the uncultivated parts of North America are the most extensive in the world, and exhibit a scene of unequalled magnificence. The trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that, even among those persons who have taken most pains to describe them, there is not one, perhaps, that knows half the number. That part of the country which we are now describing produces two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and the female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech-trees and white wood; and white and red elms and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with a bituminous substance, resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November, the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning before the dew falls off, produce a sort of honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey-corn, French-beans, gourds, melons, the hop and tobacco-plants, &c.

Animals.] Among the quadrupeds of Canada we may enumerate stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of different kinds, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts contain wild bulls, roebucks, and goats; and the marshes, lakes, and pools, swarm with beavers.

The animal called a musk-rat, from its yielding a strong musk, is exactly shaped like our water-rat, only somewhat larger. These creatures build houses, as the beavers do, in marshes by the water-side, with two or three ways to them: and the inside of them is neatly plastered. They consist of three stories, so that the rats ascend from one into the other as the water rises. In short, they are in all respects beavers in miniature.

The elk of Canada is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal exhausts his fury on these, proper measures are taken to despatch him.

The buffalo is a kind of wild ox, of much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo-hides are as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make of them are hardly penetrable by a musket-ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but differs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but their furs are accounted excellent. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common, and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand curious tricks, and then spring up and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of the tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is intolerably offensive: this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail: the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure, and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying squirrel will leap upwards of forty paces, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling-sized dog; and, when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those of Europe, only they turn grey in winter.

The feathered tribes here are eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, and partridges with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. Here are no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here, together with larks and blackbirds; but the chief bird of melody is the white bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring.

The sea on the coast of Canada, and the lakes, contain a variety of fish, among which are salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, sturgeon, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soles, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards.

The chaourason is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike: its colour is a silver grey; and under its mouth is a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, taken on the coast of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. The achigau and the gilthead are fish peculiar to the River St. Laurence.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake chiefly merits attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly, like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows, every year, one ring or row of scales; so that its age may be known by its tail, as we know that of a horse by its teeth. In moving it makes a rattling noise, from which it takes its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy be not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded, or chewed, and applied like a plaster to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers; nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good: it also possesses medicinal qualities.

Divisions and Population.] Canada is divided into two parts; Upper and Lower Canada: the former being the western division on the north of the great lakes, or sea of Canada; while the lower division is on the River St. Laurence, towards the east.

In 1784, the population of the two Canadas, according to an actual enumeration, amounted to one hundred and thirteen thousand and twelve, French and English, exclusive of ten thousand loyalists in the upper parts. The Indians were calculated at thirty thousand. But the population has increased greatly since that period.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The principal exports are furs and skins, with some fish, pot-ash, and ginseng. In 1798, the beaver-skins exported were one hundred and six thousand, and other furs in proportion. The imports are spirits, wines, tobacco, sugar, salt, and provisions for the troops. Except some linen and coarse woollen cloths, manufactured articles are chiefly imported from England.

Language.] The general language of this country is

the French; English being confined to the British settlers, who are much fewer in number than the inhabitants of French descent.

Religion.] About nine-tenths of the inhabitants of these provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy, under the present government, the same rights and privileges as were granted them in 1772, by the act of parliament then passed. The rest of the people are Protestants, of various sects.

Government.] By the Quebec Act, passed by the parliament of Great Britain, in the year 1791, it is enacted that there shall be, within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a legislative council and an assembly, who, with the consent of the governor appointed by the king, shall have power to make laws; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council is to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower, Canada; to be summoned by the governor, who must be authorised by the king. They hold their seats for life, unless they forfeit them by an absence of four years, or by transferring their allegiance to some foreign power. The house of assembly is to consist of not less than sixteen members from Upper, and fifty from Lower, Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly are to be convened at least once in every year, and every assembly is to continue four years, unless sooner dissolved by the governor.

Cities, Towns, &c.] Quebec, the capital of Canada, is situated on an elevated point of land, on the north-west shore of the River St. Laurence. This city is divided into two parts, distinguished by the appellation of the Upper and the Lower Town. The former is erected on a limestone rock, at the summit of the point, and the other is built round the base of the eminence, on the border of the river.

That part denominated the Upper Town possesses a surprising strength, being equally fortified by nature and art. The basin is commanded by a battery, mounting two large mortars, two thirty-six pounders, and thirty-two twenty-four pounders. The passes from the Lower Town are commanded by another battery of six guns, and there are several other batteries and redoubts, besides the peculiar strength of the rock, which, in some parts, is so perfectly inaccessible, as to obviate the necessity of walls. The Lower Town is chiefly inhabited by persons who have some concern in the shipping. It forms a striking contrast to the upper division, as the streets are narrow and irregular, the houses unsightly and incommodious, and the air confined and unwholesome.

The governor's house is a plain stone edifice, consisting of two parts, separated by a spacious court. The old division is built on an inaccessible part of the rock, and contains most of the public offices, though the apartments are small and incommodious. The other is appropriated to the residence of the governor, and, though not strictly elegant, is tolerably finished. In the adjoining garden is a parapet-wall, on which a few guns are planted.

The other public buildings are, a monastery of Franciscan friars, three nunneries, and an old edifice, plainly fitted up, for the accommodation of the legislative council and assembly of representatives. There are, likewise, artillery-barracks, capable of containing five hundred men; an armoury, where ten thousand stand of arms are arrayed with the most exquisite neatness; and an engineer's drawing-room, containing plans of the fortifications of different fortresses, and a variety of models.

The market affords a cheap and plentiful supply for the tables of the inhabitants. The population may be estimated at twelve thousand individuals, two-thirds of whom are of French extraction A large garrison, constantly kept at Quebec, renders it very lively, and the society is described as being very extensive and agreeable.

The surrounding scenery, as beheld from several parts of the Upper Town, is, perhaps, equal in grandeur and diversity to that of any part of the world. An assemblage of trackless forests, magnificent rivers, stupendous rocks, enamelled meads, lakes, villages and towns, successively open on the view of the spectator.

Trois Rivieres is a town containing about three hundred houses, near the mouth of a river called St. Maurice. Its trade is inconsiderable, and the adjacent country is a sandy sterile tract. The streets in the town are ill-built, and extremely narrow. The public edifices are, two churches, one for English Episcopalians, and the other for Roman Catholics; an old Franciscan monastery, and a prison.

Mr. Weld here visited the convent of St. Ursule, the only religious order now existing in the town. It is a large building, adjoining to that of the Franciscans, which is now deserted; and beneath the same roof is an hospital, attended by the sisterhood. The chapel is lofty, but its area is small: the doors open towards the street, under a portico; and nearly opposite is a grand altar, enriched with a profusion of decorations, and having on each side a lattice, one of which communicates with an apartment, furnished with an altar, and surrounded with pews, for the accommodation of such nuns as are precluded from attending the chapel by indisposition.

"A lovely female," says our author, "who came to the lattice to withdraw a curtain, for the gratification of the visitors, was apparently one of those unfortunate beings who repent, when too late, of a rash vow, which has deprived them of every earthly blessing, and doomed them to a state of perpetual wretchedness, in direct opposition

to the gracious intentions of the Almighty. While drawing aside the curtain, she cast an expressive glance at the spectators, and then retired silently to a bench at a little distance. The traces of sorrow and fixed melancholy, visible on the countenance of this amiable creature, were sufficient to interest the most volatile, or to soften the most obdurate heart: and, at the same time, to deprecate the cruelty, ignorance, and superstition, of a sect, who, under the specious cloak of holy zeal, either persuade or compel a young and inexperienced girl to renounce the world, and all its pleasures, for a life of solitude, and the mockery of repentance for crimes never committed. A seclusion so unprofitable to mankind, and indisputably offensive to Him whose tender mercies are over all his works, requires no comment."

The hospital contains two spacious airy apartments, and about fourteen neat and comfortable beds. The only invalid, at the time of Mr. Weld's visit, was an old priest, who appeared to be hastening to his grave: he was seated by his bedside, in an easy chair, and attended, with the utmost assiduity, by one of the Ursuline nuns, whose dress consisted of a black gown, a white linen handkerchief, a silver cross, suspended from the breast, a linen head-piece, which entirely concealed the hair, and a veil of black gauze, which flowed loosely over the shoulders, and covered one half of the face.

A long passage leads from the hospital to a tolerably pleasant parlour, where the travellers were treated with the utmost politeness, by the superior and some lay-sisters, who produced a number of fancy works for their inspection, which, in compliance with a regular custom, were purchased, as a genteel mode of bestowing a small donation on the order.

MONTREAL is situated on the opposite bank of the river, nine miles distant from La Prarie, and contains five hundred houses within the walls, exclusive of seven hundred in the suburbs. In the lower part of the town, where is the greatest assemblage of shops, the houses are extremely gloomy, and, in consequence of being secured with doors and windows of sheet-iron, each habitation may be said to bear a strict resemblance to a prison. The buildings are chiefly of stone, except in the suburbs, where many of them are constructed of timber. The streets are all narrow, three of which, running parallel to the river, are intersected by others at right angles. On that side of the town next the water, is a small square, appropriated to the purposes of a market; and, on the opposite side, is La Place d'Armes, apparently designed for the soldiers to perform their exercise in; but they have given the preference to a long walk, in the vicinity of the barracks.

On one side of La Place d'Armes is a Romish cathedral, containing five altars, richly decorated. The doors of the edifice are left open during the greatest part of the day, for the admission of such persons as may wish to perform either public or private devotions. The crowds that resort hither on a Sunday, in fine weather, are so numerous, that the steps on the outside are frequently covered with the zealots, who, being unable to obtain admission, remain kneeling on the stones during the time of service. As the bells are always rung in the most discordant manner, before and during the celebration of masses, christenings, marriages, and burials, such of the inhabitants as are not attached to such unmusical sounds are greatly annoyed.

Scarcely a morning ever dawned, but our traveller beheld a funeral-procession, which here, as in most other Roman Catholic countries, is conducted with much pomp and ceremony. Formerly the vaults beneath the cathedral were appropriated to the reception of the dead; but, as some fears have been entertained of a contagion arising from too great an assemblage of bodies, the present cemeteries are without the walls. There are, likewise, in Montreal four convents, four Romish churches, and one church respectively for English Episcopalians and Presbyterians.

The walls of Montreal are evidently mouldering away, and in some parts they are already sunk into ruins. The gates, however, are in tolerable preservation.

The inhabitants are remarkable for their urbanity and attention to strangers, and are partial to convivial amusements among themselves. The majority of them are of French extraction, who have a strong aversion to the English language, and who retain many of the customs of their ancestors. There are, however, many English, Scotch, and Irish, inhabitants, who are either eminent merchants or people of great respectability.

"The Island of Montreal," says Mr. Weld, "is one of the largest in the River St. Laurence, possessing a fertile soil, and a tolerable share of cultivation. The scenery is prettily diversified with hill and dale, and towards the centre are some large mountains, the most considerable of which is embellished with trees and gardens, occasionally dotted with rural habitations. On the side next the river is an ancient monastery, with some spacious fenced enclosures, pleasantly embosomed in the woods, where the contemplative ambulator may roam for miles together, and listen to the warbling of the feathered inhabitants, while a thick and verdant umbrage effectually secures him from the rays of the sun. The view from the mountain is strikingly grand and picturesque, comprising a vast extent of country, fertilized by the St. Laurence, which comes from the right, over the tremendous Rapids, with a noise like thunder; and then, as the blustering gale that has spent its fury, and howled itself to rest, it glides smoothly and silently along, till it is lost in the horizon. To the left are seen the churches, monasteries, and other build-

ings, of Montreal, with the shipping at anchor beneath its dilapidated walls; the river itself presenting a succession of islands, alternately clothed with trees, or decked with the fruits of the earth; La Prarie, on the distant side, with its magnificent church; and the mountainous chain that terminates the lovely prospect. So great is the variety, and so noble the objects combined in the exquisite assemblage, that even those persons who are constantly habituated to them, still find something worthy of remark and admiration, every time they ascend the eminence."

KINGSTON is situated at the entrance of a deep bay, near Lake Ontario. It is a place of considerable trade, and contains, besides a fort and barracks, a church for the use of English Episcopalians, and about one hundred private houses, the generality of which are constructed of timber, and inhabited by emigrants from the United States. The fort is a stone building, consisting of a square and four bulwarks. The barracks are usually occupied by near a hundred men. The bay affords excellent anchorage, and is accounted the most commodious harbour in the vicinity of Lake Ontario. On its borders are two dock-yards, where most of the British vessels of burden, on the lake, have been built. These vessels ply chiefly between Kingston and Niagara, and are seldom known to touch at any other place.

As there is no regular market at Kingston, the inhabitants are obliged to provide themselves with fresh provisions in the best manner they are able. Fire-wood is brought in sledges, during the winter, from the banks of the river and the adjacent islands, and is sold at only one dollar a cord. Some schools are established in the district, but their number is very inconsiderable. The children are instructed in reading and writing for one dollar a month. The district contains no paupers, and poors' rates are consequently unknown to the inhabitants.

NIAGARA contains a court-house, an edifice designed for the accommodation of the legislative bodies, a prison, and about seventy houses, the latter of which are chiefly built of wood. In the upper part of the town, however, there are some well built and commodious habitations.

Most of the English, in Canada, who have any office under government, are persons of a liberal education, which renders the society of the place extremely pleasant. Most of the houses have been erected within the short space of a few years, and in that time there has been such an influx of people into the town and its environs, that provisions, horses, town lots, &c. have risen in value nearly fifty per cent. within that small space; and the place is still increasing, with surprising rapidity, on account of the constant emigration of people, who prefer Canada to the United States, and of the back country trade, that is regularly carried on through Niagara.

The situation of the town is about one hundred and fifty feet from the water's edge, on the top of the western bank, which, together with that on the opposite shore, is very lofty, and forms an extensive plain. It consequently commands an interesting view of the lake and surrounding scenery, but, unfortunately, the air is very insalubrious.

The fort is erected at the entrance of the river, on a point of land that is laved on one side by the river, and, on the other, by the waters of the lake. This edifice, together with the outworks, occupies a space of about five acres. Several batteries, redoubts, and parallel lines of fascines, secure it on the land-side, and towards the river it is stockaded. Opposite the lake is a spacious and well-fortified store-house. This building, however, with every part of the fort, is shamefully neglected; and the men in garrison, amounting to five hundred persons, exhibit but a very indifferent picture of cleanliness; as, at the time of our traveller's visit, which happened on a Sunday, when they might reasonably have been expected to make at least a creditable appearance, they were as dirty as though they had wrought in the trenches for a week without intermission.

About three quarters of a mile from Niagara, on the brink of the river, is an edifice, designed for the accommodation of such naval officers, on the lake, as are detained in town during the winter-season; and directly opposite is a wharf, for the purpose of landing cargoes that are brought up the lake.

DETROIT is situate on the elevated bank of the river, and contains a large Romish church, and about three hundred private houses. The streets all run parallel to the river, and are intersected at right angles; but they are unpaved, narrow, and extremely dirty. The town is encircled with a strong stockade, through which two gates open to some extensive wharfs, on the brink of the river, for the accommodation of shipping, and two others open to different sides of the town.

This town is celebrated for its commerce; and the stores and shops are so well supplied with fine cloth, linen, and every article of wearing-apparel, that they may be purchased, of as good a quality, and nearly as reasonable, as at New York or Philadelphia. About two-thirds of the inhabitants are traders, of French extraction. Provisions, of every kind, are plentiful, particularly fish, which are caught in the river and adjacent lakes; yet the inhabitants feel an inconvenience from the want of salt, as it is but lately that salt-springs have been discovered in this country, and even these are in the hands of government.

The town of Detroit is usually crowded with Indians, but, at the approach of night, the majority of them are obliged to remove beyond the gates. The circumjacent country is remarkably flat, and none of the rivers

have a fall sufficiently strong to turn a mill; the inhabitants are, therefore, obliged to grind their corn by windmills. The soil of the country is very light, but remarkably rich, and yields an abundant supply of wheat and Indian corn. The climate is much more healthy than in the vicinage of Niagara; yet the summers are extremely hot, and intermittent fevers frequently occur.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The manners of the settlers in Canada resemble those of the French, in point of gaiety, urbanity, and vanity. The women can generally read and write, and are thus superior to the men; but both are sunk in ignorance and superstition, and blindly devoted to their priests.

It is observed that, the taste for political intelligence is less prevalent in Upper Canada than in the United States. One weekly newspaper only is printed, and, were it not for the support afforded by government, the sale of the papers would not refund the proprietor for one-fourth of his expence. The newspaper-press is occasionally employed in printing the orders and notices issued by the governor, and the several acts of the legislature.

For the following remarks on the Indians of this country we are indebted to the pen of Mr. Weld:—

"The most striking distinction between the Indians and Europeans is their complexion; which is commonly of a copper colour, but which varies in the most surprising manner; some of them having no darker skins than the French or Spaniards, while others are nearly black. The contemplation of this fact, has induced many French missionaries, and other persons, who have resided for a considerable time among the Indians, to suppose that their colour does not naturally differ from that of the nations of Europe, but that the darkness prevalent among them is to be solely attributed to their use of unguents, and their constant exposure to the ardent rays of the sun, and the smoke of wood-fires. It is indeed a well-known fact, that their complexion at their birth is much lighter than in their advanced years: and it is equally true, that they endeavour, by every means in their power, to render their skins dark, imagining it will contribute greatly to the improvement of their personal appearance; yet I am inclined to ascribe the diversity of their colour to nature, from the consideration that the children almost invariably bear the complexion of their parent. With respect to their whiteness, when first issued into the scenes of human life, it affords no foundation to the opinion of the missionaries; as the infant negroes only acquire their glossy sable hue on being exposed to the sun and air, in the same manner as the tender blade, when first emerging from the bosom of the earth, gradually relinquishes its delicate whiteness, and assumes, first a light, and then a deeper, green.

"The general distinguishing marks of the Indians near Lake Ontario are, long black hair, straight, and extremely coarse; dark small eyes; prominent cheek-bones; and sharp noses, rather of an aquiline shape. The generality of the men are remarkably straight and well-proportioned, have a firm erect walk, and, not unfrequently, a dignified deportment. Their breath is exceedingly sweet, their teeth good, and their limbs well turned.

"The females, on the contrary, are low of stature, ungraceful in their carriage, and extremely coarse and corpulent. Their faces are rounder, and their cheek-bones much higher, than those of the men; and, at the age of thirty, their foreheads are invariably covered with wrinkles, their skin becomes loose and shrivelled, and their whole appearance is calculated to inspire disgust. There are, however, some individuals, who, in their youth, possess an agreeable assemblage of features. The sudden change which they undergo may, probably, be attributed to the hard labour imposed on them by the men, and to their constant exposure to the sun.

"The long lock of hair, observable on the head of the men, is usually decorated with silver trinkets, beads, &c.; the other part of their hair, and the whole of their beard, are painfully eradicated by a brass instrument appropriated to that purpose. The women, however, do not deprive themselves of this natural covering, but wear it plaited up behind, and divided in the middle of the forehead. When they wish to appear to peculiar advantage, they paint the skin, between the separation, with a streak of vermillion.

"Such of the Indians as occupy the vicinity of the great north-westerly lakes, and have any dealings with European traders, have relinquished the furs and skins, which formerly composed their dress, as finding it more conducive to their comfort and advantage to barter these articles for woollen-cloths, blankets, &c. Their shoes, or moccasins, however, are still made of the skin of the buffalo, deer, or elk, which is commonly deprived of the hair, and exposed to the smoke of a wood-fire, till it attains a deep brown hue. The moccasin is formed of a single piece of leather, with one seam behind, and another from the instep to the toe. A flap, about two inches deep, is left round the place where the foot is put in, and this flap, together with the seam, is fancifully decorated with beads and porcupine-quills. If worn by a man, it is edged with tags of copper, filled with scarlet hair; or, if intended for a woman, it is ornamented with ribands. These, however, are only worn on particular occasions, as they are very costly, and soon wear out. A moccasin of plain leather is worn in common.

"Above the moccasins are worn the Indian leggings, fabricated of blue or scarlet cloth, and something similar in appearance to pantaloons, but the seams are on the outside; and, when intended for dress, they are covered with

a profusion of ribands and beads. These leggings, with their moccasins, two little aprons suspended from their waist, a girdle, a tobbacco-pouch, and scalping-knife, compose the whole of their ordinary and military dress; but, when they visit their friends, or the weather is cool, they array themselves in a shirt of gaudy figured calico, or cotton, and either a large piece of broad cloth, a loose coat, or a blanket, which is fastened round their waist with a girdle, and held together on their breasts with the left hand: their ears and noses are also decorated with large pieces of metal, and their faces are painted in the most fantastic manner. The dress of the women is nearly similar.

"Yet, notwithstanding their attention to personal decoration, the habitations of the Indians are wretched in the extreme, the greater part of them being constructed of slender poles, covered with the bark of the birch or elm tree. The formation of these hovels is as various as the fancies of the owners. Their utensils are but few, seldom exceeding a couple of iron or brass pots, obtained from the Europeans, a few wooden spoons and dishes of their own fabrication; and some vessels of stone.

"On the first view, a traveller is led to pronounce the Indians a cold and phlegmatic people; and, indeed, the appellation seems justly applied, when we contemplate their simple remarks on any curious production of art, or the coolness with which they behold any new and striking spectacle.

"In the presence of strangers they are usually reserved, but never embarrassed; and such is the astonishing firmness of their disposition, that they would sit down to dinner at the table of the most illustrious monarch, with as much unconcern as in one of their own rustic hovels. They deem it indispensibly requisite that a warrior should accommodate his behaviour to that of the persons with whom he is in company; and, as they are extremely observant, a stranger is seldom able to accuse them of awkwardness or vulgarity.

"One of these Indians, being invited to dine with me and some other gentlemen at Detroit, came, with his son, a child of nine years old, to partake of the repast. When the dessert was brought to table, a dish of peaches was handed to the little Indian, who, with becoming propriety, helped himself to one; but, happening to put it immediately to his lips, his father surveyed him, with an angry look, and reprimanded him, in a low voice, for not peeling his peach, as he might have observed the opposite gentleman had done. The boy was evidently covered with confusion, but immediately drew a plate towards him, and retrieved his fault in the most graceful manner. He was afterwards helped to some port wine, which, proving ungrateful to his palate, occasioned him to distort his face. This was a greater offence than the other, and his father sharply observed, that he must never expect to be either a renowned warrior, or a good man, if he now expressed any dislike to what his host had kindly given him. The little fellow's heart swelled with the pride of true courage, and he emptied his glass with a look of apparent pleasure.

"It is but seldom that the Indians inflict corporal punishment upon their offspring, but, if they prove refractory, a little water is thrown in their faces, which is dreaded as the severest disgrace, and produces an instantaneous change in their behaviour. The children themselves, while under the immediate care of their parents, are extremely attentive to their commands and advice; but, when they are able to provide for themselves, they lose that species of respect, and will no longer submit to any sort of control. The aged, however, never experience any disrespect, but are always treated in the kindest manner, and held in the most profound veneration.

"These people have the most unconquerable contempt and aversion for any persons who have tamely submitted to bondage, and even such as have lost their liberty, after a hard struggle with their oppressors, are accounted, by the Indians, as no better than old women. Hence it is impossible to offer a greater insult to an Indian than to tell him that he resembles a negro, or that you suppose some of his ancestors were negroes. They look upon those sons of bondage as mere animals, and would at any time kill them without the least concern."

On the evening of his arrival at Maldan, our traveller's attention was attracted, previously to his retiring for the night, towards the island of Bois Blanc, by the sound of Indian music. He accordingly crossed the river with his companions, in a boat, in order to witness their merriment. The principal musicians were three aged men, who sat beneath the shade of a tree, diffusing pleasure and hilarity around them, by their singing and instruments; while the dancers, consisting of about twenty women, moved sideways round a small fire, having their faces inwards, and their arms folded round each other's neck.

After these female performers had amused themselves for some time, a larger fire was made up, and the men approached, to the number of fifty, to dance in their turn. They first proceeded, in a large circle, round the fire, following the steps of their leader, who seemed strictly observant of the music. At the termination of their round they altered their step, and began to stamp upon the earth with great vehemence, occasionally leaping and bowing their heads towards the fire. At length, after several circumvolutions, the principal dancer began to stamp with incredible fury, when he was imitated by all his followers, and their amusement concluded. In the space of a few minutes a new set of performers took their places, and thus they continued to dance, by turns, till near three o'clock in the morning.

Mr. Weld closes his remarks upon this people by observing that, "notwithstanding their dispositions are naturally charitable, friendly, and hospitable, yet so extremely wretched and filthy are their dwellings, so nauseous their common food, and so disgusting their general uncleanliness, that few persons, who have ever experienced the blessings attendant on civilization, would feel the least inclination to pass much of their time in such a society."

History.] Canada was discovered by the English as early as 1597; but the first settlement in it was made by the French, in 1608, who retained possession of it till 1760, when it was conquered by the British arms, and, by the treaty of Paris in 1763, ceded by France to the crown of England, under the government of which it has ever since continued.

SECTION III.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Situation, Extent, and Division.] This country is situated between forty-three and forty-nine degrees of north latitude, and between sixty and sixty-seven degrees of west longitude, and is in length three hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth two hundred and fifty. It is bounded by the River St. Laurence on the north, by the Gulf of St. Laurence and the Atlantic Ocean on the east, by the same ocean on the south, and by Canada and New England on the west. In 1784, it was divided into two provinces, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

Seas, Bays, and Capes.] The seas adjoining to Nova Scotia are the Atlantic Ocean, Fundy Bay, and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The lesser bays are Chenigto and Green Bay, upon the isthmus which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the south, and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibucto on the south-east; the bay of the Islands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, Port Maltois, Port Rossignol, Port Vert, and Port Joly, on the south; Port La Tour, on the south-east; Port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the south side of Fundy Bay; and Port Roseway, now more populous than any of the other.

The chief capes are Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port, and Epis, on the east; Cape Forgeri, and Cape Canceau, on the south-east; Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the south; Cape Sable and Cape Fourche, on the south-west.

Rivers.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Risgouche and Nipisiguit run from west to east, and fall into the Bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north to south, fall into Fundy Bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

Lakes.] There are many lakes; among which the Grand Lake is thirty miles long, and about nine broad.

Climate.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found unfavourable to European constitutions. The atmosphere is loaded with heavy fogs during great part of the year; and for four or five months it is intensely cold: but, though the cold in winter and the heat in summer are very great, they come on so gradually, as to prepare the body for enduring both.

Soil and Vegetable Productions.] Nova Scotia was formerly almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren; the corn it produces is of a shrivelled kind, like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, there are some tracts in the peninsula, to the southward, which are not inferior to the best land in New England; and, by the industry and exertions of the royalists from the other provinces, are now cultivated, and likely to be fertile and flourishing. In general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar: and flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements.

Animals.] Among the animals of this country are great numbers of deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coast, along which is a continued range of cod-fishing banks, navigable rivers, basins, &c.

Chief Towns, &c.] FREDERIC TOWN, the capital of the province of New Brunswick, is situated on the River St. John, about ninety miles from its estuary. St. Ann's is almost opposite, and there are some other settlements near the Bay of Fundy.

HALIFAX, in the province of Nova Scotia, is commodiously situated for the fishery, and stands on a fine harbour. It has a good timber entrenchment, strengthened with forts, sufficient to guard it against an Indian enemy. Halifax has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land-carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, and in the harbour lies a small squadron of ships, which puts to sea in summer, under a commodore, to protect the Newfoundland fishery. Were it not for this fishery, the inhabitants must often starve, as all their provision comes from New England. Though the town has a tolerable appearance, the adjacent country is not proportionably improved. The ground is very hard to be cleared

and, when cleared, it is worth little. But it has suffered most from the incursions of the Indians, which were formerly so frequent, and attended with such cruelties, that the people could hardly extend themselves beyond the cannon of their fort.

Since the conclusion of the war, which separated a considerable part of America from the British crown, the emigration of loyalists to this province from the United States has been very great; and by them new towns have been raised; as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-side, and is said to contain upwards of nine thousand inhabitants. Of the old settlements, the most flourishing and populous are Halifax, and the townships of Windsor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new settlements, the most important are Shelburne, Barr-town, Digby, and New Edinburgh.

Trade.] The amount of imports from Great Britain to this country, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about twenty-six thousand five hundred pounds. The articles exported in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a large average, amount to thirty-eight thousand pounds.

History.] Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently been transferred from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation, backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English till the peace of Utrecht; and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, three thousand families were transported, in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country, where they erected the town of Halifax, so called from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement.

SECTION IV.

ISLANDS IN THE GULF OF ST. LAURENCE.

The principal islands in the Gulf of St. Laurence are Cape Breton, St. John's, Newfoundland, and Bermuda.

CAPE BRETON lies between forty-five and forty-seven degrees of north latitude, and between fifty-nine and sixty degrees of west longitude. It is about one hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth, and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the Gut of Canso, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The soil is barren; but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

This island is said to have been discovered at a very early period, (about A.D. 1500,) by the Normans and Bretons, who navigated these seas; and, being supposed a part of the continent, was called Cape Breton. They did not, however, take possession of it till 1713, when they erected Fort Dauphin: the harbour being found difficult, Louisburg was built in 1720, the settlers being chiefly from Europe, as the French in Nova Scotia did not choose to leave that country. In 1745, Cape Breton was taken by some troops from New England; and has since remained subject to the British crown. The climate is cold and foggy, not only from the proximity of Newfoundland, but from numerous lakes and forests. The soil is mere moss, and has been found unfit for agriculture. The chief towns are Sidney and Louisburg: the whole inhabitants of the isle do not exceed one thousand. The fur-trade is inconsiderable, but the fishery very important, this island being esteemed the chief seat; and the value of this trade, while in the French possession, was computed at a million sterling. There is a very extensive bed of coal in this island, in a horizontal direction, not more than six or eight feet below the surface; but it has been chiefly used as ballast.

ST. JOHN'S, situated in the Gulf of St. Laurence, is about sixty miles in length, and thirty or forty in breadth, and has many fine rivers; and, though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages, this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada. It has several fine rivers, and a rich soil. Charlotte-town is its capital, and is the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the island. The inhabitants are estimated at about five thousand.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situate on the east side of the Gulf of St. Laurence, between forty-six and fifty-two degrees of north latitude, and between fifty-eight and fifty-nine degrees of west longitude. It is separated from New Britain by the Straits of Belle-Isle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Laurence; being three hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. The cold of winter is tedious and severe, and the summer-

heat, though sometimes violent, is not sufficient to produce any thing valuable, the soil being rocky and barren: it is, however, watered by several rivers, and has many large and excellent harbours. This island seems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, small pine, and fir; but on the south-west side are lofty headlands. It is chiefly valuable for the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals which are called the banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and the United States, at the lowest computation, annually employ three thousand sail of small craft in this fishery, on board of which, and on shore, are upwards of one hundred thousand hands, to cure and pack the fish. This fishery is computed to yield three hundred thousand pounds a year from the cod sold in Catholic countries. The numbers of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser, are inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance, all of which are nearly in equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the island of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

The principal towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John; but not above one thousand families remain here in winter. A small squadron is sent in the spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the island; besides whom there is a lieutenant-governor, who resides at Placentia.

When this island was first discovered, the English saw some people on shore, painted with ochre, and clothed with stag-skins, formed into a sort of gowns, that reached about half-way down the leg, the sleeves coming half-way down the arm, and beaver-skins about their neck. They were bare-legged, and most of them bare-footed. Their heads were uncovered. They wore their hair pretty long, a great lock behind, with a feather, standing erect, on the crown of the head, and a small lock plaited before. Their hair was of different colours; and their clothes, as well as their bodies, were painted red.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496, and both the French and English had made settlements there in the beginning of the seventeenth century. After various contests and disputes, however, the island was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and, by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the Gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England.

By the treaty of 1783, they were to enjoy their fisheries on the northern and western coasts, the inhabitants of the United States having the same privileges as before their independence; and the preliminaries of October, 1801, confirmed the privileges granted to the French.

CHAPTER IV.

THE UNITED STATES.

Extent and Boundaries.

THE greatest extent of the United territory, as commonly computed, is from east to west in the northern part, where it exceeds one thousand three hundred British miles, though, according to some writers, it is only one thousand two hundred and fifty; and the line along the shores with the Atlantic nearly corresponds; but the breadth from the Canadian lakes to the southern frontiers of Florida is about one thousand British miles. The square acres, exclusive of Louisiana, have been computed at six hundred and forty millions, and those covered with water being supposed fifty-one millions, there will remain five hundred and eighty-nine millions of acres.

The eastern boundary of the United States is the Atlantic Ocean, and the western, in part, the Mississippi, which has been considered as a limit of Spanish America; but the recent acquisition of Louisiana extends this boundary in the southern part to the mountains of Nanhi and the Rio Bravo; for geographers are inclined to regard the ancient limits of Louisiana in preference to the encroachments which the Spaniards have made upon the original French territory, these settlements having been formed by the permission of the French, in consequence of the family compact. Towards the north, also, the western limit may be extended by actual possession as far as the Pacific Ocean.

On the north, an imaginary line, pervading the great lakes of Canada, is continued along the River St. Laurence to latitude forty-five degrees, not far to the south of Montreal, when it passes due west, follows a chain of moun-

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tains north-east, and afterwards diverges south-east to the River St. Croix, which falls into the Bay of Fundi. On the south a similar line, about latitude thirty-one degrees, divides the United States from the Spanish dominions of West and East Florida. The southern boundary of Louisiana is the Gulf of Mexico; and the west longitude of the whole of the United States is between sixty-four and ninety-six degrees.

Divisions.] The United States have, by some writers, been regarded under two divisions, the northern and the southern; but this classification is reprobated by the Americans. Others have divided them into northern, middle, and southern; while others denominate all those that border on the ocean, Atlantic States, and the rest, Inland States. But we shall give a general table, with the number of inhabitants belonging to each, taken from the census of 1801, which contains the last enumeration that has been made, and includes the slaves.

1	District of Maine	151,719
2	Vermont	154,465
3	New Hampshire	183,858
4	Massachusetts	422,845
5	Rhode Island	69,122
6	Connecticut	251,002
7	New York	586,203
8	New Jersey	211,149
9	Pennsylvania	602,365
10	Delaware	64,273
11	Maryland	349,692
12	Virginia	886,149
13	Kentucky	220,960
14	North Carolina	478,103
15	South Carolina	345,491
16	Georgia	162,684
17	Tennassee	105,602
18	Ohio	45,365
19	Louisiana	42,375
		5,333,422

The population was also thus estimated, under another form, in 1801, and has probably increased since that period.

Climate, Seasons, and Face of the Country.] The climate of the United States, like that of England, is chiefly remarkable for sudden transitions from heat to cold, or the reverse. The north-west wind is extremely bleak, as it passes across the extent of the frozen continent. In the plains, on the east of the Apalachian mountains, the summer-heats are excessive; and, in some places, even ice will not preserve animal food from putrefaction. Near the mountains, the climate is salubrious, even in the southern states. In the northern states, the winter is longer than in England; but the summer-heats are more intense. Rain is commonly attended with a north-east wind, while on the west side of the Apalachian mountains a south-west wind accompanies it. In Georgia the winter is very mild, and the east wind is there the warmest.

The excessive heat experienced in the plains is considered as one cause of the yellow fever, which so frequently proves fatal in this country, and the return of which is annually apprehended.

In Volney's work, entitled "*Tableau du Climat et du Sol des Etats Unis,*" there are some curious remarks on the change of climate produced in North-America, by the clearing of the forests and the cultivation of the soil, which, contrary to the general opinion, he conceives to be for the worst. He says, the consequence has been, from demonstration, that the winters are shorter, the summers longer, and the autumns more backward, without any abatement of the intenseness of the cold; and he confirms the idea of the deterioration of the climate by the experiments of a Mr. Williams and Dr. Rush; the result of which is, that bilious fevers always follow the destruction of the woods, the clearing of the lands, and the draining of swamps; it requires many years of cultivation to make them disappear entirely, or take a milder form; and that pleurisies and other diseases, purely inflammatory, which were formerly the only ones known, are at present much less common, which proves an evident alteration in the purity of the air, when more impregnated with oxygen.

In New England, the extremes of heat and cold can neither be conceived by an European, nor accounted for by an American; though the latter attributes the intense cold to the high lands and back lakes. New England is situated between forty-one and forty-six degrees of north latitude; yet, in the months of July and August, the heat is often as intense as in the West-Indies. An American geographer, in describing the climate of this region, says, "The heat in summer is intense, and the cold in winter equally severe. All fresh-water lakes, ponds, and rivers, are usually passable on ice, from Christmas till the middle of March. The longest day is fifteen hours and sixteen minutes; and the shortest eight hours and forty minutes."

"For several days together," says Mr. Janson, "in the hottest weather, there is not a breath of air; and the nights, with the additional annoyance of swarms of that aggravating and poisonous insect the mosquetto, are nearly insupportable to an European; who will undergo a complete perforation of the skin, and every wound will poison, to the diameter of half an inch, till his blood is reduced to the state of that of the natives, or the temper of the climate, when he may find respite from their nocturnal attacks: they make a buzzing noise nearly equal to that of

the bee; and yet, with this notice, it is impossible to guard against their assaults. The croaking of the toad, of which there are infinite varieties, the noise of the locust, and the no less offensive chirping of the grasshopper, together with the sounds of many other restless reptiles, join in dismal discord, to deprive the way-worn traveller of his rest; with these his disturbed fancy may associate the birds and beasts of prey under his window. Custom, however, will reconcile man to all things. In addition to all these inconveniences, he will be sure to find his bed overstocked with bugs and fleas, which will attack him in one quarter, while mosquettos seize him in another: curtains of thin gauze are some defence against the latter; but, from the harbour the former find in the coarse woollen bed-chamber furniture, they rove at large and uncontrolled.

"To many days intense heat, a violent storm of wind and rain will, perhaps, succeed, attended with tremendous lightning; which often sweeps away whole fields of corn, and deluges the earth; then again will the heat break out with redoubled violence, causing fevers, dysenteries, and agues, which of late years have proved a dreadful scourge in America."

The seasons in the United States, in some degree, correspond with those in Europe, but not with the equality to be expected on a continent; as, even during the summer-heats, single days will occur, which require the warmth of a fire. Even the estuary of the Delaware is generally frozen for six weeks every winter; nor does the western coast of North-America seem warmer than the eastern. Belknap says, that, in New Hampshire, they reckon upon eight months of cold weather in the year; a proportion not common in England.

The face of this extensive country is not so minutely diversified as might have been expected, the features of nature being here on a larger and more uniform scale than in Europe. The abundance of timber, giving the idea of one immense forest, and the diversity of the foliage, contribute greatly to enrich the landscape; but it is here reputed a weed; and the planter seldom spares trees near his habitation, as, the roots having no great room to spread or penetrate, they would be dangerous during a violent wind. The landscape is less ennobled by lofty mountains than by rivers of great magnitude; and is frequently injured by the barren aspect of large fields, which have been exhausted by the culture of tobacco, and which scarcely produce a solitary weed or a blade of grass.

The northern provinces, called New England, are generally hilly, as they approach the skirts of the Apalachian chain, which has been appropriately called the spine of the United territory. The vales in these northern regions are thickly clothed with wood, and often pervaded by considerable rivers; many romantic cascades are formed by rivulets falling from the rocks, while towards the shore the land is level and sandy. In Virginia, a central state, the Blue Mountains, and other ridges of the Apalachian, add great charms and variety to the prospect, which is farther enlivened by many beautiful plants and birds, particularly the humming-bird, sucking the honey of various flowers, and rapidly glancing in the sun its indescribable hues of green, purple, and gold. Here, a plain from one hundred and fifty to two hundred miles in breadth, reaching from the mountains to the sea, is studded with the villas of land-owners of the higher class. Similar levels appear in the Carolinas and Georgia. Beyond the Apalachian ridges extends another rich plain of amazing size, pervaded by the muddy waves of the Mississippi. In Kentucky, the surface is agreeably waved with gentle swells, reposing on a vast bed of lime-stone; and a track of about twenty miles along the Ohio is broken into small hills and narrow valleys.

Soil, Agriculture, &c.] The soil of the United States is generally fertile, often, on the east of the Blue Mountains, a rich loamy earth, sometimes a yellowish clay, which gradually becomes more sandy towards the sea. Belknap, in his Account of New Hampshire, says, the summits of the mountains are frequently marshy, and haunted by aquatic birds, while the valleys below are dry. This circumstance is owing to the hard rock, two or three feet under the surface of the mountain, which is impenetrable by water. Sometimes there are considerable marshes, and what are called salt-meadows, and spots called *Barrens*, which, even in the original forests, are found to be bare of trees for a considerable space.

"The soil," says Mr. Parkinson, "is, in general, very thin; in many places, not more than from one inch to an inch and a half thick. The under stratum is of a loose sandy nature, and so light, that, after the frosts are over, the pavement in the streets will not bear even the weight of a man; and the fields are so like a quagmire, that a man on horseback would be endangered in attempting to pass over them. From such lightness, the soil is apt, when rain comes, to form into small channels, that afterwards constitute what are termed gulleys, which are holes like quarries or marl-pits, and which, in the course of six or eight weeks, become from eight to ten feet deep, and the same in width. The loose earth, thus detached from its primary bed, covers the contiguous surface, for an acre or two together, where the best soil is, and even spoils that. This may account for their not having ditches cut, for division-fences or drains. I apprehend that, if ditches were cut and quick-set, as is done in England, the fences would fall down, by the water washing away the soil that composes the bank. The land is materially injured, in many parts, for want of drains; but I think the expence would exceed the profit: they would soon lodge up, and,

consequently, want jettying on the sides. I do not remember that I ever saw five yards of earth, in any space thus excavated, with the sides standing as they do in England; since no grass will grow on the banks of the canals or rivers, the soil being too poor to produce vegetation, and of so light a nature, as to keep continually crumbling down.

"Those swamps, or bottoms, which the Americans term rich, are light and crumbly. Lands of this kind are said to be so fertile, as not to bear wheat, when first cleared: this, however, is not owing to their richness, but to a sort of vegetable manure, composed of leaves of trees, small sticks, rotten wood, &c., with which they are covered, and which is too light and loose for wheat. This land is very fine for Indian corn, which thrives best in a soil that freely admits the sun to its roots. The manner of raising it shews that it is impossible to plough too much, or keep the soil too light. I am of opinion, that, if the earth were moved every day, the crop would be the better for it. Instead of this sort of land being firm, as in England, it is here like chaff, and light under foot. The heat is frequently so great, that, if sand get into your shoes, it will compel you to take them off, otherwise your toes will become excoriated. I suppose the sun's intense heat is the reason why English grasses will not thrive in America; and I have planted some Indian corn, since I landed in England, but none of it has prospered. Then the winter in America is very severe, and sets in so suddenly, as to find those plants in a very porous state; consequently, the cold penetrates so quickly into them that they are killed. Indeed, the effect of extremes is as great as it would be to any plant reared in a hot-house being taken, in its warm state, and exposed to the most severe frost."

The following remarks on the Barrens in Kentucky are extracted from the work of M. Michaux.

"The Barrens, or meadows, of Kentucky, comprise an extent of sixty or seventy miles in length, by fifty to sixty in width; and, from the signification of this word, I expected to cross a barren space, producing only some occasional plants. I was confirmed in my opinion by what the inhabitants said of these meadows, before I reached them; as they told me, I should probably perish with heat and thirst, and that I should not find a single shady spot throughout the whole distance; for most of the Americans, who live amongst the woods, cannot conceive that there are districts entirely open, and still less that any person can reside on them. Instead, however, of finding such a country as had been described to me, I was agreeably surprised to meet with a beautiful meadow, the abundant grass of which was from two to three feet high, and afforded excellent food for cattle.

"In some parts of these meadows, I observed several species of wild climbing vines, but particularly that called by the inhabitants summer-grapes. The bunches were tolerably large, and the grapes of as good a quality as those that grow in the environs of Paris, with the exception that they are not quite so compact.

"It appears to me, that the attempts made at Kentucky for cultivating the vine would have been more successful on the Barrens; the soil of which seems more fit for this kind of cultivation than that of the banks of the Kentucky, which, though richer, is rendered too moist by the nature of the country, and the vicinity of the forests.

"The Barrens are circumscribed by a skirting of wood, from two to three miles in breadth; the trees of which it is composed are clear-planted, that is, thinly, and at a farther distance from each other, the nearer they are to the meadow. On the side of Tennassee, this skirting is exclusively formed by post-oaks, the wood of which, being very hard and permanent, is preferable to any other kind for making enclosures. I also perceived, here and there in the meadow, some black oaks and walnut-trees, about twelve or fifteen feet high, which composed some small bowers of wood, but which were always so distant from each other, as not in any degree to circumscribe the view. The surface of these meadows is in general very even; towards Dripping-spring only, I observed a high and long hillock, containing a few trees, and interspersed with enormous pieces of rock.

"It appears that the Barrens contain a great number of subterraneous caverns, some of which are very near the surface. A short time before I arrived, an ebullition had taken place on the road, near Bears Wallow, beneath the feet of a traveller, who only escaped by mere chance. One may easily conceive the danger of such accidents, in a country where the houses are so distant from each other, and where perhaps a traveller is not seen once in a fortnight.

"There may also be seen, in these meadows, a number of wide holes, in the shape of a funnel, and the breadth of which varies in proportion to their depth, from fifteen to thirty feet. In some of these holes, above five or six feet from the bottom, runs a small thread of water, which loses itself in a crevice at the base. These kind of springs are never dry, a circumstance which induces emigrants to reside wherever they are found; for, except the River Big-Barren, I did not observe, in these plains, the smallest rivulet or creek. I have heard, that some attempts have been made to dig wells, but I cannot pretend to say what success attended them. From the above observations, however, it will be evident, that the want of water, and of wood for enclosures, will for a long time prove an obstacle to the increase of the establishments in this part of Kentucky. The latter of these inconveniences might, however, be avoided, by changing the present manner of

enclosing lands, for that of live hedges. The Barrens are, at present, but thinly peopled, in proportion to their extent; for, on the road, where the houses are nearest together, there were but eighteen in the space of seventy miles.

"Some inhabitants divide the land of the Barrens into three classes, according to their quality; and, in their opinion, the middling class is the largest. In that which I crossed, the soil was yellowish, and rather gravelly, and appeared very fit for the cultivation of wheat: maize, however, is almost the ouly kind of grain that is raised. Most of the emigrants, who come to settle in the country, travel along the skirts of the wood already mentioned, or by the rivers Little and Big Barren, on account of the advantage of the meadows in that quarter, for the pasturage of cattle, and of which the inhabitants, who reside in the most fertile of the wooded cantons, are, in a great degree, deprived, by reason of the paucity of grasses.

"Every year, in March or April, the inhabitants set fire to the grass, which, at this period, is dry; because its extreme length would, for a fortnight or three weeks, prevent the cattle from obtaining the new crop that begins to shoot. This custom is, however, generally condemned; for, the firing being made too early, the new grass is deprived of its protection against the spring-frosts, by which its vegetation is retarded. This custom of burning the meadows was formerly practised by the natives, who came to hunt in these districts, and is still adopted by them in the other parts of North-America. Their object in setting fire to the grass was, to attract the stags, bisons, &c. to the burnt parts, by which they could perceive them at a distance. It is only by actual observation that the smallest idea can be formed of these conflagrations. The flames, which generally fill a line several miles in extent, are sometimes propelled by the wind with such rapidity, that men on horseback have not unfrequently been overtaken and destroyed by their violence. The American hunters and the savages preserve themselves from this danger by a method as simple as it is ingenious. They quickly set fire to the part of the meadow in which they stand, and afterwards retire to the burnt spot, where the flames which threatened them have ceased for want of aliment."

It is computed that three-fourths of the inhabitants of the United States are employed in agriculture; and, notwithstanding the practice of land-jobbing, and other tendencies to monopoly, they are enabled, in times of peace, almost annually to increase the exportation of grain and flour. In 1786, Pennsylvania exported one hundred and fifty thousand barrels of flour; in 1789, no less than three hundred and sixty-nine thousand six hundred and eighteen barrels. Among the products of the field are wheat, rye, barley, buck-wheat, oats, beans, peas, and maize. In Virginia, rice is cultivated, and is found to succeed well on the banks of the Ohio. The German spelt is also sown in Pennsylvania; and, in several provinces, hemp and flax succeed to some extent. The culture of turnips, and some other vegetables, common on English farms, seem, as yet, to excite little attention; but many cultivated grasses are sown, and in Virginia there are lucern, cinquefoil, burnet, red, white, and yellow, clover, &c.; particularly the red clover, which, Dr. Barton observes, is not only sown for the purpose of a pasture-grass, and for hay, but also as a manure for land. With this latter view it is much attended to in Pennsylvania. In the maritime parts of Virginia, they sow, with the same intention, a native species of cassia, called the maggotty bay-bean, partridge-pea, &c. The potatoe is a native of the country; and there is a sort, called ground-nuts, which are much liked. There are several kinds of melons and cucumbers; hops are also cultivated; and tobacco, a well-known product of Virginia. Orchards are very common; and cyder is a common beverage in the northern and middle states. Peaches are greatly cultivated in Virginia, where the peach-brandy is noted; and there are also excellent apricots and nectarines.

In a country where farmers form such a great proportion of the community, it is necessary to descend from the general outlines to the particular cirsumstances of their agriculture. Mr. Parkinson seems to have had more experience as a farmer, in America, than any other English emigrant. We, therefore, cannot do better than to extract a few passages from his volumes, relative to agricultural pursuits in America, which will afford much entertainment to the reader.

Mr. P. engaged a farm at Baltimore, which consisted of three hundred acres, for three hundred pounds per year currency. It contained only two hundred acres of cleared land; and, he adds that, he does not think such poor land would let in England for half the sum, if at all.

"On the 1st of May, 1799," says our author, "I entered upon my farm at Orange Hill, three miles from Baltimore. I will explain why I gave so great a rent for this, after having had all the offers which I have previously mentioned.

"I thought nothing in the farming line likely to be profitable, except the selling of milk, and what, in that country, is called truck, which is garden-produce, fruit, &c.; finding labour so very dear, and scarcely to be had at all, except by the keeping of slaves, which I did not like. The price of milk being from sixpence to eight-pence per quart, seemed to me sure of paying well; and as linseed-cake was not in general use, and was to be bought cheap, this, too, was of great advantage. I could buy one hundred and four cakes for fifteen shillings, the cakes weigh-

ing two pounds each: this was cheap, compared with other food; and the cakes are very good in quality, not being so much pressed as they are in England; but they do not keep so well. My expectations, so far, were fully answered. But I found great trouble in this business: for, in the two years that I followed it, I could never meet with any servant that would milk properly; therefore we were obliged to milk the cows and sell the milk ourselves, as well as feed the cows, and do greatest part of the farming work.

"The custom in the towns is, to rise very early; the weather being so hot in summer, that the morning is the only time when one can draw breath with pleasure. We were thus compelled, in summer, to rise at two o'clock, to milk, and to be in town before the sun was up; otherwise we should find the breakfast over, and the milk would frequently turn sour by twelve o'clock in the day. There were also a number of Frenchmen in Baltimore, who generally boil the milk before they use it; but it would boil to whey and curds if it were not delivered betimes in the morning. In winter we rose at four o'clock, and were in town by break of day; and by such care and assiduity, and milking our cows regularly, we got the best of custom, and our milk became esteemed more than any other. This was a very good business, compared with any other thing to be done in farming in America. During the whole two years I seldom met with a man or woman who would lend any assistance to us so early in the morning; nor do I think it possible to hire people to do what we did ourselves.

"My first work on the farm was to dress the meadows, which were called fine; though the greater part of them in England would not have been thought worthy of being called meadow at all, being overrun with briers and weeds of different descriptions. Their state, indeed, was such, that, when I mowed them, I sometimes, in making the hay, did not know whether it was worth putting together or not, expecting that it would not be sold; but, contrary to my supposition, it was readily bought by the stable-keepers at nine pounds per ton. It was, however, a dry summer; and this is not the usual price: five pounds being about the average, one year with another, at Baltimore; at Philadelphia and New York not so much: The twenty-six acres produced fourteen tons of hay, which brought me one hundred and twenty-six pounds, while the cakes for the cows (a much better feed) cost me only seventy-eight pounds fifteen shillings. They milked very well on that sort of food, with the addition of Indian corn, blades, stalks, and corn, all chopped up together; but very little of this mixture served with the cakes. The milk was much liked; and the greater part of the cows got fat, and were sold to the butchers. This was the first thing of [illegible]nd done in America, and very much surprised many gentlemen of my acquaintance; and the linseed-cakes began to be much sought after before I left the country. I have been told that there have been many tons of those cakes thrown away as good for nothing; and so little was their use known there, that, when we had them in the waggon, the people asked if we ate them ourselves.

"The next business in the farm, after cleaning and dressing the meadows, was to plant Indian corn. This is usually done in the first week of May, but mine was so late as the last week; for I was near two months getting a plough made, therefore I hired for the listing, as they call it. I put in my corn in drills, and harrowed the seed in, and it did very well; which so much amazed all who saw me, that you would imagine there was some charm in their old method of setting it by the hoe. I found drilling to be the best and cleanest way, and my corn prospered and grew very well; beyond the expectation of any farmers there, and much contrary to their wishes; for, as I had published a Treatise on Agriculture, the lower class of people seemed to have a desire that nothing I did should succeed; and, from my opinion of the land, I was much afraid their wishes would be gratified. And having never cultivated such poor land before, nor raised Indian corn, I had little idea what the soil would do. I had thus only one encouragement; which was, that other people's land was as bad as mine, and some a great deal worse.

"We still remained, during all this time, without any one to assist us, except the hiring for the ploughing. We had the corn to plant, and the cows to mind, and every thing to do: and, to put us in spirits, now and then an Englishman would come, and tell us a most lamentable story of what sufferings he had undergone, that he had been cheated out of his money, and how poor the land was, with all sorts of murmurings; constantly ending by asking my wife and family how they liked America? to which the answer, 'Not at all,' was returned very quickly. It is impossible to express what a man feels in such a situation. I remember one Englishman, after repeating all the things that could fill a stranger's mind with trouble and horror, said, with a very heavy sigh, as he was going out of the house, 'It is the devil's own country, to be sure!' Among other things, he had told us of the thunder and lightning, &c.; and, some few days after, we had a specimen of this, for such a dreadful scene I had never beheld—it thundered and lightened, blew and rained, in such a manner, as to swim a great part of our corn out of the drills, and to seem as if there was going to be an end of the world. Such behaviour is meant as friendship by these Englishmen; though it is very uncomfortable to hear: and this I had to suffer every day of my life, and sometimes two or three times a day. Besides all this, the lower sort of Americans (who dislike an Englishman as much as it is possible for one man to dislike another) con-

tinually contrive to insult him, by any unpleasant expression they can make use of; and their conduct in this respect may in some measure be accounted for, from the better sort of people, in common conversation, always saying, if any thing is done better than usual in the management of land, as ploughing in a proper manner, or a fine horse or cow is seen—"It is like the English:" and that such preference is constantly given to the English, disgusts them much.

"After my sons, and myself, had hoed the corn, I began to look out for a piece of land for sowing turnips, which appeared to me likely to be very profitable; for I was told that they were to be sold at one dollar per bushel, and, though I did not myself know how many bushels an acre would produce, it was generally stated in conversation at one thousand bushels. I thought this must be a ready way to get rich: but, like all other American calculations, I have found it to be erroneous; for the last year I had a very good crop, yet it only produced three hundred and sixty bushels, and, the average price being then three shillings a bushel, it was one of the most profitable crops I experienced in that country. I believe, however, it would not be possible for a man to sell the produce of more than three acres in one season, and in one city or town; but even this is a very handsome profit (one hundred and sixty-two pounds) for so small a spot of ground. In that case, he must have two men and two horses employed every day, for about two months, at an expence of about thirteen pounds ten shillings, for selling them.

"How to get my land prepared for my turnips I did not know, as I could not meet with any man, as a servant or labourer, to do any thing, especially to plough; but, with some difficulty, I hired a man to come to plough, with his own horses, at three dollars a day, which was at the rate of a dollar for a quarter of an acre; and I was obliged to consider it as a very great favour that I got it done at all. Myself and my two sons had previously scraped up all the dung we could, and mixed it with earth for a compost, for these turnips: this we had done immediately after the gusts of rain, which always prevented us from hoeing the corn, for they made the land so soft that we could not walk across it, for a day or two, without sinking as deep as the plough had gone, or deeper. Though I had not myself ploughed for some years, I was compelled now to begin again to land the corn; I holding the plough, while one of my sons led the horse betwixt the rows, and my other son harrowed after us, with a small harrow made for that purpose. By this process, though contrary to the general custom of the country, we raised a very fine crop of corn. When the man had ploughed three acres of the turnip-land, I had got harrows made; therefore we harrowed it ourselves, with our own horses. I then wanted a roller, which I was lucky enough to borrow, from a gentleman of the name of Bowley, who lived within one mile and a half of us, and with whom I had the honour of an acquaintance, and found him very neighbourly on every occasion; so we got our land in such fine order as was not usual in America. We then employed ourselves in picking up the refuse stuff, by raking the land over with rakes, and burnt it; as it was not yet a proper time to sow turnips; the 10th of August being the time in that country.

"Buck-wheat being a crop very much spoken of, I set off to plough three acres and a half for that purpose. The weather was very hot, and the land dry; so that I found it stiff work. I completed the ploughing, however, and my sons harrowed it, and by these means we got the buck-wheat sown. As soon as this was done, it was time to sow turnips. I then began, with my sons, to drill the land, lead manure, and put in the seed. We could, with very hard work, sow only twenty drills a day; which took five cart-loads of manure, besides having the drills to make, the seed to sow and harrow in, and even all the water to draw out of a well, for our cows and horses, twice a day; for there was no water on the farm but in the well close to the house; so that we had at all times between twenty and thirty head of cattle to fetch out of different pastures, and water there. These employments brought us to the time for mowing our hay.

"I had forgot to mention that we had cocked ten acres of clover and leaded it, among other things, before; and had the good luck to meet with a man to mow it, who gave me a promise to mow the meadow, and bring a partner along with him. His wages were a dollar a day, with his meat and a pint of whisky. He mowed nearly an acre, on some days; on the average about three roods. He having asked for this second job as a favour, and that I would not engage any one else, and the time being appointed, I made myself easy as to getting the meadow mowed; but I never saw him again. When the time came, I began to enquire for mowers. First one set came and took it to do, and then another; and I found there were a set of people who had made it their business to persuade the men who undertook it to disappoint me. Not one came to begin to mow: and I began to think that I must mow it myself, or else lose the hay, which was the only thing of any real value on the farm. At last, with a great deal of trouble and vexation, I got it mowed, with many fresh men, and my sons and myself cocked the hay, and stacked it, and hard work we had! The turnips were ready to hoe at the same time, so that we were pretty full-handed; and it was the general talk that we should kill ourselves; and I really think never three people worked so hard in the world, for the length of time, in such a climate.

"The turnips grew beyond any thing I could expect,

and particularly four rows which I did with some plaster of Paris. Having, at the time when I entered, sown a part of the clover also with plaster of Paris, according to Judge Peter's direction, and, by way of experiment, left some lands without any, the plaster answered no good purpose, nor made any other difference than that this part of the clover was of a much finer green, so that one might perceive to an inch how far it went, but I do not think I had a pound of hay more where it was sown than where it was not sown. On the turnips, however, it amazed me. Seeing this, I got a bushel of plaster for some other part of the turnips, and sowed it on a square near to the road; when in twenty-four hours I could discern the crop to be of a much deeper green, and in forty-eight hours so much so that any spectator would have supposed the land on which these turnips growed to be of superior quality. I then sowed another bushel of it on two rows, and missed two rows: the turnips grew to a much greater size where the plaster of Paris was put, than in the rest of the field, in the increased proportion of about two to one in weight where the first two bushels were applied, and about three to two where the last bushel, besides being much juicier, and a better kind.

"Having got our hay stacked, turnips hoed, &c. the peaches began to be ripe, and we wanted a purchaser for them. My sons and myself set to work to pull them, and we were fortunate enough to find a black fellow, who had been one of my mowers, to sell them; this being an employment which they like, viz. riding to market in a cart, drinking whisky, and cheating you out of part of the money they get for the truck. He sold as many peaches for us as came to seventeen pounds, at an average of fourpence per peck: there would have been little profit upon them, however, if we had hired men to pull them.

"As soon as this business was over, the corn began to be ready to be topped and pulled, and the turnips for taking to market; so we kept our black fellow to be our market-man. We had turnips to get ready for market, and the corn to cut, the remaining part of the day. I ventured to cut it up by the roots, and set it up in shocks. This process, the inhabitants told me, would spoil all the corn, both blades and tops; but, as I wanted it chiefly for the cows, I was of a different opinion, which proved to be right. For, having invented a machine for cutting up the stalks, blades, husks, and corn, altogether, it thus made most excellent feed for cows, and not bad for horses: but it did not answer with the pigs, as they will not eat mouldy corn at all, but cows like it better. Had I remained in that country, I should have continued to cut corn for cattle in the same manner, the cows preferring soft corn to the hard; and there was besides less waste in that method than any other. The machine for cutting is the best I ever saw: with the assistance of a person to fill the box, I could cut enough of that sort of food in two hours to serve twenty-seven head of horses and cows for twenty-four hours.

"About this time, which was in September, four of my family were seized with the yellow fever; so that myself and one of my sons, for about fourteen days, had all the work to do; and to churn, cook our own victuals, and the family to nurse besides—a very distressing situation! The sick part of the family were light-headed; I discovered my wife to have a great desire to come to England again; and I thought that (should God spare them) I would return as soon as I possibly could: but at that time I had not the least notion that it was the yellow fever, or I should have been more alarmed. I was myself their doctor; and the remedy I chiefly used was red port, of which I gave them plenty. The way in which they caught the infection was by suffering a gentleman to put a trunk in the passage of our house: for, the fever then raging very bad at Philadelphia, the mayor of Baltimore ordered all communication to be stopped at the distance of three miles from the city, which was just at the spot where we lived: and the gentleman opening his trunk in the passage, while the children stood looking at him, the next day one of them was taken with the disorder. It is a sleepy complaint, so much so, that the persons afflicted can scarcely be kept awake; therefore my wife desired the child, a girl about nine years of age, to walk in the air: she walked towards a patch of turnips, where she lay down, and fell asleep among them; and, had not her elder brother perceived which way she went, in all probability she would have lost her life; for, it being then in the evening, and the turnip-tops very high, we should never have found her, which is often the case in this disorder. By God's mercy, however, they all recovered in about fourteen days; but it reduced my wife so much, that she never got her strength again while she continued in the country.

"Luckily an Irishman came to ask for work, who had a wife, and we got her into the house; and, though the most drunken woman I ever saw, she proved useful to us. She would rise in the morning, to help to milk, and wash the clothes, and wash dishes, at times, when sober; but she would be drunk for a day or two together. Before that time, we had done every thing ourselves, and afterwards tried several others, but never could find one of any use at all, except this woman, therefore we kept her about twelve months. The man soon brought another Irishman, a very bad fellow; but, having our Indian corn and the buckwheat to get in, the turnips to send to market, and the fruit of a large apple-orchard to pick, we were glad to keep them, bad as they were. I hired a man and his son, and their team of horses, and, with my own waggon and horses, we got our Indian corn harvested, buck-wheat in,

and apples picked. We manured the buck-wheat land, and sowed it with rye; and tried plaster of Paris to dust it with, as lime, when wet, before sowing, but to no effect.

"About this time I bought sixteen cows; thinking our black fellow would do very well for selling the milk, as we could measure it, and he then could not cheat us. But in this I was very much disappointed; for he had so many tricks, in mixing water with the milk, &c. that I was obliged to discharge him from that employment. I then put the Irishman to sell the milk; and he did this very well for fourteen days; for, having been a watchman in the city, he knew every street and house in it, and proved a very useful fellow. At the end of fourteen days, however, he informed me that it was necessary for him to receive his money from the customers weekly: for, his trade increasing, it prevented him from selling so much milk as he might do; saying, once a week he could return round, during the day, and collect the money. I readily agreed to this: but, when we came to settle, in fourteen days afterwards, he was nine pounds in my debt, and unable to give me any account of this deficiency. Having seen him continually intoxicated, I easily guessed what had become of the money; which, however, he honestly worked out. By this time the black fellow and the Irishman nearly killed one of my horses, which had almost frustrated this project of selling milk; but, knowing that nothing else would answer, I put my youngest son to this employment, and he performed it wonderfully well. The cows now increased so much in their milk, by eating cakes, that we had more than he could easily sell; therefore my other son joined his brother. I bought two sulkies, and fixed the milk-churns behind; and then we did famously; had plenty of money from our milk business, and increased our number of cows to twenty.

"I bought nineteen ewes and a tup, to try how sheep would answer. They were very expensive in wintering; for they wanted food, in the same way as horses or cows, for nearly four months, and a house to run into at night. They cost me thirteen shillings and sixpence each: and I sold twelve of the ewes at twenty-one shillings each, after they had reared their lambs; the lambs sold at nineteen shillings each; and the remainder of the ewes at nineteen shillings each. Their wool I sold at three shillings per pound, to more than twenty customers. They paid, on the whole, very well. I discovered among these sheep some of the small-tailed kind, and found them to be more inclined to fatten than many of the others; but, at that time, I had not the least idea of what they descended from, not having seen in England any thing like them, except the Dishley sheep. These came from Holland."

Concerning the other articles of culture, Mr. P. observes, in another part of his work, "I set half an acre of early potatoes, in drills eighteen inches asunder, with some compost made from the last year's manure; and a very good crop they proved, at the rate of three hundred and sixty bushels per acre, when full-grown.

"Having ploughed the land that was in corn the year before, I next sowed seventeen acres of oats and six acres of barley. It is usual to sow one bushel of barley, oats, &c. per acre; and I was told by an Irishman, my neighbour, that if I sowed more I should reap neither straw nor corn, for he had tried it repeatedly. It, therefore, required no experiment on that head; nor was I inclined to make one, knowing that poor land requires little seed; but, as I am fond of experiments, and I must be doing something new, I got five bushels of barley, and sowed it with one bushel per acre on five acres of the field which had borne the year before as fine Indian corn as I ever saw in the country, though I expected not to be repaid for my trouble; but I had never experienced one bushel of barley per acre, nor had I the least thought how land could be regularly covered to bear so small a produce. The land appeared in as fine order as could be for barley; and I chose, in different parts of the field, the very best of it. It proved, too, a very fine time for sowing the oats and barley, with rains proper for its coming out of the ground; nor did I ever see barley look better, when it came up; and the land being sown with timothy, it altogether made a most beautiful appearance.

"One acre also of the land, which I had manured, and had turnips on the year before, I now sowed with barley and timothy, to see the difference, and to try what the manure would do. This looked as well as the other. Mr. Bowley, my neighbour, came to view the process; and acknowledged he never saw such good farming in the country. 'But that,' he said, 'availed nothing; the land was so poor, that without dung its produce was not worth the cultivation, and dung and labour it would not pay for.' This proved very true. I asked him how many oats I might expect an acre: he said, he never had more than six bushels, and often not so many; but, probably, I might have more. As I cut them for the cows, the straw and corn together, I cannot tell what was the produce: I estimate it at four bushels per acre, which is nearly the average crop of the oats grown about Baltimore.

"My barley I thrashed out; and, on the five acres where no manure had been put, I found that I had one bushel per acre, and of a much worse quality than the seed had been; so that, when all expences were paid, I lost about six dollars per acre; and the rent being also about six dollars per acre, the total loss upon these five acres would be sixty dollars, or twenty-two pounds ten shillings currency. Now by this crop it may be seen, how, when the English farmer strikes largely into farming in America, he may lose his money. The other acre of

barley, which had been manured with compost, produced fourteen bushels, and of a much superior quality; being rather better than what I sowed. The land where the oats and bad barley grew was by much the best field in the farm, and was accounted excellent land in that country.

"The timothy, though it came up very fine, did not prosper equally with that sown in the fall of the year; but, whether this was the nature of the climate or of the plant, I cannot say. The rye we harvested; and, when thrashed out, the produce was four bushels per acre, and, in appearance, as good a crop as any in the country.

"After we had sown the oats, I prepared four acres and a half for winter-potatoes, in as correct a manner as was possible, and dunged with twelve thousand bushels of good dung of the cows and horses, made from linseed-cake, and Indian corn-stalks, blades and tops all chopped up together. This, however, I found to be of too hot a nature for that soil; so much so, as to cause some of the potatoe-tops to burn up and die. Had three loads of mould been put to each load of dung, I am of opinion forty-eight thousand bushels of compost might have been made, which would have produced a much better crop of potatoes, or any thing else, bushel for bushel, than the dung in the raw state. This quantity of compost would have covered eighteen acres of land; and I am certain that there, or in any other country, manure prepared in a proper manner, by adding mould in the above proportion, viz. three loads of good earth to one load of dung, thus bringing the whole to a sort of rich garden-earth, would always produce better crops of any kind. This will be the case especially with turnips, which will thus pay more for labour than any thing I know of, and be of very great utility to the community at large; and, if so, it is desirable that it should be made generally known.

"The produce of the potatoe-crops was one hundred bushels to the acre, which sold at about three shillings and sixpence per bushel. They were good in quality for America; but there are no potatoes equal in flavour in that country to the English, nor so mealy; and, though some potatoes are sold there at seven shillings and sixpence per bushel, I do not think a crop of potatoes, in any market I saw in America, will average more than three shillings and sixpence per bushel, nor even so much in Philadelphia or New York. I heard a Scotchman, who was selling potatoes in Philadelphia market, say, that they did not sell for so much as they cost getting out of the ground. No money, therefore, will be got by that crop. I know a gentleman, who, from correct accounts, lost two hundred and sixty dollars, (which is seventy-seven pounds ten shillings currency,) by eleven acres, short of paying for the planting and taking out of the ground: they were sold in Philadelphia market, and the produce had been great.

"Having got the corn planted, and the potatoes set, I took a tour, of about three hundred miles, into what is termed the Eastern Shore, which lies by the bay-side, called the Peninsula of Chesapeak, to view the crops of wheat, as that is a great wheat-country. I had been told, this is the best farming country in America; and I think it the best large tract of land I ever saw there, it being not so broken or gullied as all other parts are, though not quite free from that condition.

"I went by way of Annapolis, where I saw some very beautiful Indian corn, intended for roasting ears; and, under it, cucumbers, melons, &c., which made a most beautiful and luxurious appearance: this was in the month of June. In my way I visited Colonel Mercer, with whom I spent some very pleasant days. He was cradling and reaping his wheat, which he thought very fine, and, in the best parts, calculated to have fifteen bushels on an acre. It being the time at which the wheat is all nearly ripe, I had a proper view of those crops, so as to form a very good idea of the produce; and I think there might be from four to five bushels per acre on an average. I rode out every day about the fields.

"The manner of reaping is cradling by the scythe: I have heard a great deal said of the dexterity of that process; and the accounts are really astonishing. But the cause is, that the crops are so thin and short, that many could not be reaped at all by any other means, except at more expence than they are worth. But where there is any thing like our crops in England, they cannot cradle at all, but are compelled to reap in the same manner as we do. There are always reapers, as well as cradlers, at the same time: and where there is a little stronger wheat, it is cut with the sickle; and some whole fields are thus reaped: the men are, in general, as good reapers as in most parts of England, and mowers too. It is said that a man will cradle five acres per day; but the cause is not the dexterity of the man, but the scanty crop he has to cradle. I mowed my oats and barley, having no cradles: they would not make a swath; therefore, in the straggled manner they fell, they cost as much time and labour in gathering as they were worth. I am of opinion, that many of the English waggons and waggoners would carry the produce of ten acres upon one waggon: and the reader may easily conceive this to be true; for where there is but one bushel per acre, it is only ten bushels of wheat on the waggon.

"Now, from this sort of cropping, according to my calculation of making manure, it will take ten acres or more to make two loads of it; therefore, one hundred acres give only twenty loads, which will only manure two acres of the hundred: so that, from such produce, it will be fifty years before the whole field could be got dunged.'

From these facts and observations, the English reader will be able to form an accurate idea of *American farming!*

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] The chief rivers of the United States have already been described in our general description of North-America; but we shall here mention a few of a more confined course, and more particularly belonging to the United territory. That great western boundary the Mississippi, besides the celebrated Ohio, pervading the centre of the United States from east to west, receives many other considerable streams, among which is the Illinois, which waters many extensive and fertile meadows. Some more northern streams, flowing into the Mississippi, are the Uisconsin, the Chipaway, and the St. Croix. The noble stream of the Ohio receives, from the north, the Great and Little Miami, and the Wabash; from the south, the Great Kenhaway, the Kentucky, the Green River, the Cumberland, and the Tennasse; while the country on the west of Georgia is watered by several streams, which run into the Gulf of Mexico.

Of the numerous rivers which flow, on the east, into the Atlantic, may be mentioned the Penobscot, the Kennebec, the Saco, the Merimac, and the Connecticut, a long and distinguished stream, which gives its name to the province; but which yields in length and grandeur to the Hudson River, which, rising from several lakes in the northern parts of New York, flows into the ocean near the city of that name. The River Delaware, which washes Philadelphia, being joined by numerous streams, is more remarkable for its width than for the length of its course. The Susquehanna is distinguished by both these attributes, and, after a long and circuitous course, forms the chief stream that contributes to the Bay of Chesapeak; which also receives the Patowmak and the Fluvanna, or James River. The Patowmak is not only distinguished as the seat of the capital, but also on account of its irruption through the Blue Ridge of the Apalachian Mountains, being first joined by the Shenandoa, a considerable river from the south. The range, however, consists of broken rocks, and the scene yields greatly in sublimity to the passage of the Lauricocha, through the Andes, worn into perpendicular walls, of a stupendous height and length. More to the south the chief rivers flow westward into the Ohio. But the Black Water and Staunton join the Roanok Inlet; and Pamlico Sound receives a river of the same name. The Pedee, the Santee, the Savannah, and the Altamaha of Georgia, are the other principal rivers of the United States.

Besides the great lakes which form the northern boundary, and which have been already mentioned, there are some considerable ones in the northern parts of the United territory. Those on the west have been little explored. The small lakes called Cedar, Little Winnipeg, and Leech, supply the sources of the Mississippi: on the east, the most important lake is that of Champlain, rather resembling a wide river, which flows into that of St. Laurence, and supplies an easy communication with Canada. The Champlain is the boundary between the states of New York and Vermont, being in length about seventy-five geographical miles, while the breadth seldom exceeds four or five; and it terminates in a broad river, called Chambly or Richlieu, which falls within the limits of Canada. Lake George, at the southern extremity of Champlain, approaches within a few miles of the Hudson River. Besides many small lakes south-west of the Champlain, there are several other lakes in the same direction, and also in the province of New York, as the Oneida, the Cayuga, the Sennaka, &c.

Forests, Swamps, &c.] The primeval forests are so numerous throughout the United territory, that none seem to be particularly distinguished. There does not appear to exist, on the whole continent of America, any of those sandy deserts which are so remarkable in Asia and Africa. On the contrary, there is an abundance of water, even in the most torrid regions.

The large tract in the eastern part of Virginia and North Carolina, called the Dismal Swamp, occupies about one hundred and fifty thousand acres; but it is entirely covered with trees, juniper and cypress, on the more moist parts, and, on the drier, with white and red oaks, and a variety of pines. These trees attain a prodigious size; and among them there is often thick brushwood, so as to render the swamp impervious, while other forests in North-America are commonly free from underwood. Cattle soon fatten on cane-reeds, and tall rich grass of the vicinity, and are taught to return to the farms of their own accord. In this swampy forest, bears, wolves, deer, and other wild animals, abound. Many parts are so dry as to bear the weight of a horse, while some are overflowed, and others so soft, that a man would sink in them up to his neck. A canal has been led through it; and even in the dry parts water of the colour of brandy, as is supposed from the roots of the junipers, gushed in at the depth of three feet. In the northern part, the timber is an article of trade, while in the southern, rice prospers to some extent; and in the neighbourhood none of those diseases are known, which are so common in other marshy situations.

The appearance of this swamp is that of a vast plain, slightly inclined, the greater elevation being about thirty feet. About the middle is Lake Drummond, which is formed from the drainings of this vast tract of useless land, for centuries undisturbed by man: the lake is crowded with fish, of great size and variety, surrounded by lofty trees: it is unruffled by the wind, and so transparent, that its numberless inhabitants are seen in shoals by those who have resolution and perseverance sufficient to visit them.

During the summer of 1806, a tremendous fire raged for several days in the Dismal Swamp, consuming the timber, and destroying large quantities of staves and shingles, collected for sale. For many miles, the navigation of the new canal was stopped by monstrous half-burnt branches of trees falling against it. In clearing land, the planter often sets fire to the wood; sometimes the conflagration passes the intended limit, and is productive of much damage, threatening, from the extent and thickness of the woods, destruction to the adjacent country.

On the north-east of the Chesapeak is another of great extent, called Cedar Swamp; and some other large swamps occur in the southern states.

Natural Curiosities.] Besides the irruption of the River Patowmak through the Blue Mountains, the principal uncommon features of nature in the United States are as follow:—

In Vermont there is a remarkable impendent ledge of rocks, about two hundred feet high, on the west bank of the River Connecticut; and in the same province is a curious stalactitic cave, in which, after a descent of one hundred and four feet, there opens a spacious room, about twenty feet in breadth and one hundred in length, with a circular hall at the farther end, at the bottom of which boils up a deep spring of clear water. In Rattle-snake Hill, New Hampshire, is also a stalactitic cave; and near Durham is a rock, so poised on another as to be easily moved with one finger. The rivulet in Massachusetts, called Hudson's Brook, has excavated in a singular manner a large rock of white marble. Morse says, that the small sandy desert, about five miles in length, near Race Point, has overwhelmed a forest of trees.

In Connecticut is a cave, which was for some time the retreat of Whaley and Goffe, two of the judges of Charles I.; and in the town of Pomfret is another, rendered remarkable by a humourous adventure of General Putnam. This cave has been described, and the story narrated, by Colonel Humphreys, to whom we are indebted for the following particulars.

"Some time after Mr. Putnam had removed to Connecticut, the wolves, which were then very numerous, broke into his sheep-fold, and killed seventy fine sheep and goats, besides worrying several lambs and kids. This dreadful havoc was committed by a she-wolf, which, with her annual whelps, had for several years infested the neighbourhood. The whelps were commonly destroyed by the vigilance of the hunters; but the old one was too sagacious to come within reach of gun-shot; and, upon being closely pursued, she would generally fly to the western woods, and return the next winter with another litter of whelps.

"This animal, at length, became such an intolerable nuisance, that Mr. Putnam and five of his neighbours agreed to hunt alternately, until they could destroy her; and two of them, in rotation, were to be constantly in pursuit. It was known that, having lost the toes from one foot by a steel-trap, she made one track shorter than the other. By this vestige, the pursuers recognised, in a light snow, the route of the wolf. Having followed her to Connecticut River, and found she had turned back toward Pomfret, they immediately returned, and by ten o'clock next morning the blood-hounds had driven her into a cave about three miles distant from Mr. Putnam's house. The people soon assembled with dogs, guns, straw, fire, and sulphur, to attack their common enemy, and several attempts were made to dislodge her from the den; but the hounds came back wounded and intimidated; and neither the smoke of blazing straw, nor the fumes of burnt brimstone could compel her to quit her retirement.

"Wearied with these fruitless attempts, which had continued nearly twelve hours, Mr. Putnam proposed to his negro-servant to go down into the cavern, and shoot the wolf; and, on his declining the hazardous service, the general resolved himself to destroy the ferocious animal, lest she should escape through some unknown fissure of the rock. Accordingly, having provided himself with several strips of birch-bark, to light him in this darksome cave, he pulled off his coat and waistcoat, and, having a long rope fastened round his legs, by which he might be drawn back at a concerted signal, he entered head-foremost, with a blazing torch in his hand.

"The aperture of the cave, on the east side of a high ledge of rocks, is about two feet square: from thence it descends obliquely fifteen feet, and then running horizontally about ten more, it ascends gradually sixteen feet towards its termination. The sides of this cavity consist of smooth solid rocks, which seem to have been divided from each other by an earthquake. The top and bottom are also composed of stone, and the entrance, in winter, being covered with ice, is extremely slippery. It is in no place high enough for a man to raise himself upright, nor in any part more than three feet broad.

"Mr. Putnam having groped his passage to the horizontal part of the cavern, the most terrifying darkness appeared in front of the dim circle of light afforded by his torch; and all was silent, as the house of death. Cautiously proceeding onward, Mr. Putnam came to the ascent, which he slowly mounted on his hands and knees, till he discovered the glaring eye-balls of the wolf, who was sitting at the extremity of the den. Startled at the sight of fire, she gnashed her teeth, and gave a sudden growl; upon which the general kicked the rope, as a signal for pulling him out. The people at the mouth of the cave, hearing the growling of the wolf, and imagining their friend to be in the most imminent danger, drew him out with such celerity, that his shirt was stripped over his

head, and his skin severely lacerated. However, he boldly persisted in his resolution, and, having adjusted his clothes, and loaded his gun with buck-shot, he descended a second time. On his second approach, the wolf assumed a very fierce and terrible countenance, howling, rolling her eyes, snapping her teeth, and dropping her head between her legs; but, when she was on the very point of springing on him, Mr. Putnam fired at her head, and was immediately drawn out of the cave. After refreshing himself, and permitting the smoke to dissipate, he went down again, and, on applying his torch to the animal's nose, found her dead; then, taking hold of her ears, and kicking the rope, he drew her forth, to the astonishment of the admiring spectators."

The greatest curiosities in the territory of Virginia are two natural bridges, which may be ranked among the most sublime works of nature in America. Rock-bridge has been described, some years ago, by Mr. Weld, in the account of his travels through the United States. The natural bridge, over a stream running from Stork Creek, which rises in Cliech Mountain, in the western part of this state, is far more stupendous. It is three hundred and thirty-nine feet in height, while Rock-bridge, according to Mr. Weld, is only two hundred and thirteen; but, from recent observations, the other exceeds it by one hundred and thirty-four feet. Its summit is described to project eighty-seven feet over its base, fronting the south-west, and to be arched as regularly as if formed by the hand of art.

The arch in front is about two hundred feet high, and slopes off to sixty feet, at the distance of one hundred and six feet from the entrance. From its mouth, in a straight direction, it measures four hundred and six feet; thence, at right angles, three hundred feet. The roof is regularly arched, and gradually descends to eighteen feet, which is the lowest part at the intersection of the second angle: it then rises to twenty, thirty, forty, and seventy-five feet, which is the height of the north-east entrance. The stream of water is from forty to fifty yards wide, at its common height; but it is sometimes suddenly swelled by rains to ten or twelve feet perpendicular. The approach to the south-west front is of a solid rock of lime-stone; the surface very smooth and regular, formed in a semi-circle; the rock of a bright yellow colour. The arch is partly obscured by a spur of the ridge which runs down the edge of the creek. Across the creek are several lofty trees, which add to the beauty of the scene. The view from the verge fills the mind with horror. From the level of the summit of the ridge, where the road passes, to the verge of the fissure, the mountain descends about forty-five degrees of an angle, and is from forty-five to fifty feet in perpendicular height. The rock is covered with a rich stratum of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. To the west of the arch, about four hundred yards, the ascent to the verge is much more level.

In the province of New York, a rivulet runs under a hill, about seventy yards in diameter, forming a beautiful arch in the rock; and there is a stalactitic cave, in which was found the petrified skeleton of a large snake. In Pennsylvania, there are also some remarkable caves, one of which resembles a church, with pillars and monuments. In the territory on the north-west of the Ohio, the savannas, or rich plains, extend for thirty or forty miles without any tree; they are crowded with deer, wild cattle, and turkeys, and often visited by bears and wolves; but this district is chiefly remarkable for a number of old forts, of an oblong form, with an adjoining tumulus, or tomb. As the Mexicans have a tradition that they passed from the north, these forts may probably be remains of their first residence, or of some nation which they subdued.

In the western part of Maryland there are said to be some remarkable caves; and others occur in Virginia, particularly that called Maddison's Cave, on the north-west side of the Blue Ridge. It is in a hill of about two hundred feet high, the ascent of which, on one side, is so steep, that a biscuit may be pitched from its summit into the river which washes its base; and the entrance is in this side, about two-thirds of the way up. "It extends," says Mr. Jefferson, "about three hundred feet into the earth, branching into subordinate caverns, sometimes ascending a little, but more generally descending, and, at length, terminates, in two different places, at basins of water, of unknown extent, and which I should judge to be nearly on a level with the water of the river: however, I do not think they were formed by refluent water from that, because they are never turbid; because they do not rise and fall in correspondence with that in times of flood or of drought; and because the water is always cool. It is, probably, one of the numerous reservoirs with which the interior parts of the earth are supposed to abound, and which yield supplies to the fountains of waters, distinguished only by its being accessible. The vault of this cave is of solid lime-stone, from twenty to fifty feet high, through which water is continually percolating. This, trickling down the sides of the cave, has incrusted them over in the form of elegant drapery; and, dripping from the top of the vault, generates on that, and on the base below, stalactites of a conical form, some of which have united, and formed massive columns."

At a place called the Panther-gap in Virginia, is what is called the Blowing Cave, which is of about a hundred feet in diameter, and constantly emits a current of air, with such force as to keep the weeds prostrate to the distance of twenty yards before it: this current is strongest in dry frosty weather; and in long storms of rain weakest. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland Mountain; but

all that is known of this is, that it is inconstant, and that a fountain of water issues from it.

A curiosity near the town of Winchester, highly worthy of attention, is a natural bridge of rock, that extends across a cleft in a mountain, which has been completely torn asunder by some great convulsion of nature. The length of this chasm is about two miles, and its depth, in several places, is upwards of three hundred feet. The arch is composed of several stones, so firmly united together, that they resemble an entire mass. It is supposed that this curious bridge was drawn across at the time of the mountain's disruption, by being loosened from its bed of earth on one side, and adhering obstinately to the other. Nor is it, indeed, more wonderful, that the arch should have been thus forcibly drawn over the fissure, than that the eminence should have remained disunited, from top to bottom, at this one spot, and that a passage should have been subsequently forced through it by water.

Proceeding through a deep wood, and ascending a hill, the traveller, who finds himself near the summit, and observes a sudden discontinuance of the trees on one side, is induced to make a pause; but when, in the space of a few moments, he finds himself on the edge of a terrific precipice, he is perfectly astonished, and is scarcely able to believe that the surrounding scenery is not the illusion of a disordered imagination. He now discovers himself to be on the top of the bridge, whence he may look down, on one side, over a protecting parapet of rock, into the tremendous abyss. The opposite side, however, has no such natural defence; but a gradual slope descends from the road that traverses the bridge to the very edge of the cleft, which is described as a perilous station. This declivity is covered with pines and cedars, as was formerly the case with the other side; but the trees, which grew within reach, have been successively cut down by visitors to the rock, who were desirous of seeing them fall to the bottom. The road already mentioned runs across the bridge, nearly in the centre, and is constantly frequented by waggons. A few yards distant is a narrow serpentine path, that leads through a varied scene of trees and rocks, to the bottom of the bridge, from which the stupendous arch is seen to advantage, and actually seems to touch the skies. The height of the bridge is two hundred and nineteen feet, the thickness of the arch forty, the width at the top ninety, and the space between the abutments at the bottom fifty feet. The abutments on either side consist of a solid mass of lime-stone, and appear, together with the arch, to have been formed by the labours of art. A rivulet, murmuring over a rocky bed, at the base of the fissure, is no small embellishment to the scene; and, indeed, it is impossible for any person of taste or sentiment to survey the whole without the enthusiasm of admiration.

Another advantageous prospect of the rock-bridge may be had from an eminence about fifty feet lower than the top of the chasm; as from this station the spectator at once beholds the arch in all its majesty, and forms a proper idea of its grandeur, from casting his eyes occasionally downwards to the profound abyss that lies beneath.

Minerals and Mineral Waters.] Gold has been found in considerable quantities in the county of Cabarrus, in the state of North Carolina, insomuch that, of the gold coinage of 1804, about eleven thousand dollars in value were the produce of virgin metal from that country.

The ore found in North Carolina was on the estate of Mr. John Read, a native of Hesse Cassel, in Germany. It appears that the children of this gentleman, having been fishing in the creek, were attracted by the shining metal, and brought home several pieces, as a curiosity, totally ignorant of their real value. On being tried, the ore was found to contain gold of a very pure quality. Since this discovery they have picked up daily from one hundred to one hundred and twenty pennyweights; but Mr. Read himself found a lump of the ore weighing twenty-eight pounds, which, it was supposed, when fluxed, would be worth one thousand four hundred pounds sterling. At the mint it was regretted that the gold had been melted into very small ingots, for the convenience of carriage, it being many hundred miles from Cabarrus to Philadelphia. Thus a considerable portion of it was wasted. The finest particles yet remained, the large lumps alone being sought after.

In consequence of these promising appearances, a company has been formed for the purpose of exploring the lands, supposed to possess the largest portion of these natural treasures. It is entitled the North Carolina Gold Company, and has purchased thirty-five thousand acres for one hundred and ten thousand dollars. An agent, Mr. W. Thornton, was sent, in the summer of 1806, by the company to visit these lands, and, from the success of his experiments, he reports very favourably of the probable productiveness of the speculation. From his account the following particulars are extracted:

"The season of 1806 was one of the most unfavourable that could have been selected for examining the runs of gold, as they were all dry, so that it was necessary to carry the sand and gravel sometimes above a mile before water could be found. Some fine specimens were thus obtained, one of about two pennyweights, and some smaller; but, after obtaining about twenty dollars worth, the want of water to wash for more obliged us to desist. While thus engaged in the lands adjoining to the mine of Mr. Read, one of the proprietors of that concern observed, that he thought the prospect of the company as good as their own. Mr. Read and his partners possess about four hundred acres, and they are said to have ob-

tained already, from this small place, between thirty and forty thousand dollars worth of gold. That found on the company's land requires no purification."

Mr. Thornton visited Mr. Read's mine, and found that, by amalgamation with quicksilver, a great quantity of gold is obtained from the sand, after picking out all the lump-gold. He was informed, that they obtained about six or seven ounces at a distillation, several times a week, from a very small still. He afterwards visited the mines of Mrs. Parker and Mr. Harris. They lie in a hill that intersects the company's land. Mr. Harris, in ploughing across a small branch in his land, turned up a good-sized piece of gold. Having no regular weights, he tried it in a pair of scales against a pewter plate and spoon, which it outweighed. He then searched the run, and was successful in finding gold. This little branch runs immediately into the company's land, lying between it and Mrs. Parker's. But, as it was dry, Mr. Thornton made no search in it, nor in any of the branches on that side, though he was informed that gold had been found in several.

Mrs. Parker's mine was discovered in a very unexpected manner. Hearing of several discoveries, she said, in a joking manner, to some company, while drinking tea with her, "I wish, gentlemen, any of you could find a gold-mine in my land;" on which one of the company replied, "I will go, madam, and search for you." He went, and in a little time returned with a very good specimen. After this, they found six hundred dollars worth, and, in the season of 1806, three hundred more, though they had not yet prepared any apparatus for even washing the gravel and sand.

At Philipsburgh, in New York, there is said to be a silver-mine, producing that metal in a virgin state; but, as no specimens are known to be extant, it is possible that this is only a vague report. It is also said that a lump of gold-ore was found near the falls of the river Rapahanoc, in Virginia, probably rolled down from its source, or that of some tributary rivulet.

Copper-ore is said to appear in Massachusetts; and in New Jersey a rich copper-mine was long wrought, pretended to have been discovered by a flame visible in the night, like one of the gold-mines in Hungary. Native copper is found on the River Tounagan, which runs into Lake Superior.

Lead has been met with on the banks of the River Connecticut, two miles from Middleton, and is even said to have been worked, but abandoned on account of the expence. Some say it may be found in the province of New York. There is a considerable vein of lead-ore in the Shawangunk Mountains, in New Hampshire, which appears to be accompanied with manganese.

The lead-mines in Upper Louisiana have, according to the president's message in 1804, continued profitable for several years. That called Burton's Mine is thirty-eight miles to the west-north-west of St. Genevieve, where the mineral is supposed to extend over two thousand acres of land, and is of two kinds, gravel and fossil. "The gravel-mineral is found immediately under the soil, intermixed with gravel, in pieces from one to fifty pounds weight of solid mineral. After passing through the gravel, which is commonly from three to four feet, is found a sand-rock, which is easily broken up with a pick, and, when exposed to the air, crumbles to a fine sand. This rock also continues five or six feet, and contains mineral nearly of the same quality as the gravel: but mineral of the first quality is found in a bed of red clay, under the sand-rock, in pieces from ten to five hundred pounds weight, on the outside of which is a white, gold, or silver-coloured fossil, of a bright glittering appearance, as solid as the mineral itself, and in weight as three to two; this being taken off, the mineral is solid, unconnected with any other substance, of a broad grain, and what mineralogists call potter's-ore. When it is smelted in a common smelting-furnace it produces sixty per cent., and when again smelted in a slag-furnace, produces fifteen per cent. more; making, cleanly smelted, seventy-five per cent. The gravel-mineral is incrustated with a dead grey substance, the eighth of an inch in thickness, has small veins of sulphur through it, and will not produce more than sixty per cent, when cleanly smelted."

There are other mines, about thirty miles to the south-west of St. Genevieve, where the lead is found in regular veins, from two to four feet in thickness, containing about fifty ounces of silver in the ton; but at the depth of twenty-five feet the operations are impeded by water. The mineral tract is here very rich and extensive, and the present produce is computed at more than forty thousand dollars annually. Before the cession of Louisiana, in 1803, they were wrought by the French, but in an inefficient manner. In Virginia there are said to be lead-mines, which yield from fifty to eighty pounds from one hundred of ore. This metal is also said to occur in South Carolina. Iron and coal are found in some quantity. In the district of Main the founderies are supplied with bog-ore; and another kind is got in great abundance in Massachusetts, where there are considerable manufactures. There is one mine near Boston, of which the ore has a vitreous appearance, and is slightly magnetic; there are also mines of iron in Rhode Island, the Middle States, South Carolina, and Pennsylvania.

Dr. Morse observes, that iron-ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of Massachusetts, particularly in the old colony of Plymouth, in the towns of Middleborough, Bridgewater, Taunton, Attleborough, Stoughton, and the towns in that neighbourhood, which have, in

consequence, become the seat of the iron manufactures. The slitting-mills in this district, it is said, annually slit six hundred tons of irons; and one company has been formed, which will annually manufacture into nails, of a quality equal to those imported, five hundred tons of iron. The number of spikes and nails made in this state is supposed now to be twice as large as that made in 1788, and will probably soon preclude all foreign importations.

The iron-works on the river Pataxent, twelve miles from Providence, in Rhode Island, are supplied with ore from a bed four miles and a half distant, in a valley pervaded by a rivulet. A new channel has been formed for the water, and the pits are cleared by a steam-engine. There are also many iron-works in Maryland.

Coal has been discovered in great abundance on both sides of James River, and is said to have been first observed by a boy in quest of cray-fish. This mineral also abounds towards the Mississippi and Ohio; that of Pittsburgh being of a superior quality, but it is chiefly worked in Virginia, where the beds seem very extensive. In 1804, a coal-mine was discovered on the river Juniata, twenty-five miles to the west of Huntingdon, in Pennsylvania, and of course near the Apalachian mountains, which is now worked with considerable advantage. The bed of coal is horizontal, and upwards of ten feet thick. The price at the mine is seven or eight cents per bushel, and there is an easy water-carriage to Columbia. In Virginia a bed of coal, about twenty-four feet thick, has been found to rest on granite.

Black-lead, aluminous slate, and asbestos, are said to be found in Massachusetts. Zinc appears in Connecticut and New York; gypsum is met with in New York, and lime-stone and marble are found near James River, while a long bed of the former passes through North Carolina.

Talc is found in Pennsylvania and New York, and appears in New Hampshire, adhering to rocks of white or yellow quartz. The largest layers are met with in a mountain some miles to the east of Dartmouth College. Amethysts, or violet-coloured crystals, are found in Virginia; emeralds are also said to exist near Philadelphia. The diamonds of South Carolina are mere crystals of quartz. In Georgia there has been no mineralogical discovery worthy of mention, and, since the acquisition of Louisiana, there has been no opportunity of exploring that portion of territory, though it is understood to contain some mines of lead and iron, and even some appearances of silver, towards the Rio Colorado, or Red River.

Mineral Waters.] There are several mineral waters in different provinces of the United States, but none equal to those of Bath or Aix-la-Chapelle. In the province of Vermont, or the Green Mountain, there is a remarkable sulphureous spring, which dries up in two or three years, and bursts out in another place.

At Stafford, in Connecticut, is a medicinal spring, which is said to be a sovereign remedy for scorbutic and cutaneous disorders: and at Guildford, in the same state, there is another spring, whose water is of so curious a nature, that, upon being taken from the fountain, it will evaporate, even though put into a bottle, and tightly corked.

The most noted springs in the country of New York are those of Saratoga. They are eight or nine in number, and situated in the margin of a marsh, about twelve miles from the confluence of Fish Creek and Hudson's River. They are surrounded by rocks of a peculiar nature, formed by the petrifaction of the water. One of them, however, more particularly attracts the attention, as it rises above the surface of the earth five or six feet, in the form of a pyramid. The aperture in the top, which discovers the water, is perfectly cylindrical, and about nine inches in diameter. In this the water is about twelve inches below the top, except at the time of its annual discharge, which is commonly in the beginning of summer. At all times it appears to be in as great agitation as if boiling in a pot, although it is extremely cold. The same appearances are observable in the other springs, except that the surrounding rocks are of different figures, and the water flows regularly from them.

From repeated observations and experiments, the principal impregnation of these waters has been found to be a fossile acid, which is predominant in the taste. They are also strongly impregnated with a saline substance, which is very discernible in the taste and smell of the petrified matter about them. From the corrosive and dissolving nature of the acid, the water acquires a chalybeate property, and receives into its composition a portion of calcareous earth, which, when separated, resembles an impure magnesia. As the different springs have no essential variety in the nature of their waters, but the proportions of the chalybeate impregnation, it is highly probable that they originate in one common source, but flow in separate channels, where they have a connection with metallic bodies, in greater or less proportions.

The prodigious quantity of air contained in this water produces the fermentation and violent action already noticed; for, after standing a small time in an open vessel, the air escapes, becomes vapid, and loses all that life and pungency which distinguish it when first taken from the fountain. The particles of dissolved earth are deposited as the water flows off, which, with the combination of the salts and fixed air, concrete, and form the rocks about the springs.

The effects produced by this water upon the human body are various; the natural operation of it, however, is cathartic, and in some instances it acts as an emetic. As it is drank, it produces a very agreeable sensation in the mouth, but it is no sooner swallowed than it is succeeded by an

unpleasant taste, and some pungent eructations, similar to those produced by a draught of cider, in a state of fermentation.

Several curious experiments having been made on these waters, we shall take the liberty to present our readers with the following, extracted from Dr. Mitchell's Journal:—

"A young turkey, held a few inches above the water, in the crater of the lower spring, was thrown into convulsions in less than half a minute, and exhibited evident signs of approaching death; but, on removal and exposure to the fresh air, it revived and became lively. On immersion again for a minute in the gas, the bird was taken out languid and motionless.

"A small dog, put into the same cavity, and compelled to breathe the contained air, was, in less than a minute, thrown into convulsive motions, and soon after lost the power to cry or move; but, when taken out and exposed to the fresh air, he began to revive, and soon acquired strength enough to stagger from the place.

"A trout, recently caught, and briskly swimming in a pail of brook-water, was carefully put into a vessel just filled from the spring: the fish was immediately agitated with strong convulsions, gradually lost the power to move or poise itself, and in a few minutes expired.

"A candle, repeatedly lighted, and let down near the surface of the water, was instantaneously extinguished, and not a vestige of fire remained about the wick.

"In addition to these experiments, it is said that a bottle, filled with the water, and shaken, emits a considerable quantity of aërial matter, that either forces out the cork, or bursts the vessel. Wheaten flour, also, when moistened with this water, and made into dough, will rise, with a proper application of heat, into light spongy bread, without the aid of yeast or leaven; from which circumstances it appears, that the air extricated from the water is precisely similar to that produced by ordinary fermentation.

"We are likewise informed, that some lime-water, made of abalactiles brought from a subterranean cave at Rhinebec, became immediately turbid on mixture with the spring-water; but when the water had been recently drawn, the precipitate was speedily re-dissolved. Some of the rock surrounding the spring, on being thrown into a fire, calcined to quick-lime, and slacked very well; and it has been frequently observed, that, on the evaporation of the aërial, the water has lost its transparency, and deposited a calcareous sediment: whence it appears that the gas is aërial acid, that the rock is lime-stone, and that by means of the former the water becomes capable of dissolving and conveying the latter."

In the county of Morris, in New Jersey, is a cold mineral-spring, much frequented by valetudinarians, and used with considerable success: and in the township of Hanover, in this county, on a ridge of hills, are a number of wells, which regularly ebb and flow about six feet, twice in every twenty-four hours. These wells are nearly forty miles from the sea, in a straight line.

In the county of Cape May, in the same state, is a spring of fresh-water, which boils up from the bottom of a salt-water creek, which runs nearly dry at low tide; but at flood tide is covered with water directly from the ocean to the depth of three or four feet: yet in this situation, by letting down a bottle well corked, through the salt-water into the spring, and immediately drawing the cork with a string prepared for that purpose, it may be drawn up full of pure fresh-water.

In the county of Hunterdon, near the summit of the Muskonetkony mountain, is a noted medicinal spring, to which invalids resort from every quarter. It issues from the side of the mountain in a very romantic manner, and is conveyed into an artificial reservoir for the accommodation of those who wish to bathe. This water is a strong chalybeate, and has been sometimes used with great success.

There are several medicinal springs in Virginia, some of which are indubitably efficacious, while others may probably owe their reputation as much to fancy and change of air, as to their real virtues. However, as none of them have undergone a chemical analysis in skilful hands, nor been so far the subject of observations as to have produced a classification of the disorders they relieve, we can give little more than an enumeration of them.

The most efficacious of these, according to Mr. Jefferson, are two springs in Augusta, near the sources of James River, where it is called Jackson's River. The one is distinguished by the name of the Warm Spring, and the other of the Hot Spring. The Warm Spring issues with a very bold stream, sufficient to turn a great mill, and to keep the waters of its basin, which is thirty feet in diameter, at the vital warmth, or ninety-six degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The matter with which these waters is allied appears to be very volatile; and, from its smell, and the circumstance of its turning silver black, it is evidently sulphureous.

The Hot Spring, situated about six miles from the former, is much smaller, and raises the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer to one hundred and twelve degrees, which is fever-heat. A fountain of common water, issuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a very singular appearance. These springs are much resorted to, notwithstanding a total want of accommodations for invalids. Their waters are strongest in the hottest months, which occasions their being visited principally in July and August.

The sweet springs are situated in the county of Botetourt, at the eastern foot of the Allegany mountains.

Having been found to relieve cases in which the above-mentioned springs have been ineffectually tried, their composition is supposed to be different. They differ also in their temperature, being as cold as common water.

On the Patowmac River, in Berkely county, are some medicinal springs, much more frequented than those of Augusta; but their waters are weakly mineralized, and scarcely warm. It is probable that many invalids prefer these springs to those of Augusta, as being situated in a fertile and populous country, perfectly secure from the Indians, and well provided with accommodations.

In the low grounds of the great Kanhaway, seven miles above the efflux of Elk River, is a large hole in the earth, from which incessantly issues a bituminous vapour, in so strong a current as to give to the sand about its orifice the motion which it has in a boiling spring. On presenting a lighted torch or candle within eighteen inches of the aperture, the vapour flames up in a column of eighteen inches diameter and four feet in height, which sometimes burns out within twenty minutes, and, at other times, has been known to continue for upwards of three days. The flame is unsteady, and of the same density with that of burning spirits, and smells like burning pit-coal. Water sometimes collects in the basin, which is remarkably cold, and is kept in ebullition by the vapour issuing through it; and it is a singular fact, that, if the vapour be fired in this state, the water becomes hot, and evaporates in a very short time.

"The mention of uncommon springs," says Mr. Jefferson, "leads to that of Syphon fountains. There is one of these near the intersection of Lord Fairfax's boundary with the north mountain, not far from Brook's Gap, on the stream of which is a grist-mill, that grinds two bushels of grain at every flood of the spring. There is another near the Cow-pasture River, and about sixteen miles from the Hot Springs, which intermits once in every twelve hours.

"After these may be mentioned the Natural Well in Frederick county. It is somewhat larger than a common well: the water rises in it as near the surface of the earth as in the neighbouring artificial wells; and its depth is unknown. It is said, there is a current in it, tending sensibly downwards. If this be true, it probably feeds some fountain of which it is the natural reservoir, distinguished from others, like that of Madison's Cave, by being accessible. It is used with a bucket and windlass, as an ordinary well."

There are five noted licks or salt-springs in Kentucky, viz. the higher and lower Blue Springs on Licking River, from which issue streams of brinish water; the Big Bone Lick, Drenon's Lick, and Bullet's Lick, at Saltsburgh. The last of these springs has supplied Kentucky and Cumberland with salt, at twenty shillings per bushel, Virginia currency; and some is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from these licks is by sinking wells from thirty to forty feet deep; and the water thus drawn is more strongly impregnated with salt than the water from the sea.

Springs that emit sulphureous matter have been found in several parts of Kentucky. One is near a salt-spring in the vicinity of Boonsborough; and there are three springs of bitumen near Green River, which empty themselves into a common reservoir, and, when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the best oil. It is said, that a man, near Lexington, having dug about six feet below the surface of the earth, came to a large flat stone, under which was a well of common depth, regularly and artificially formed.

In the county of Wilkes, in Georgia, is a medicinal spring, which rises from a hollow tree, about five feet in length. The inside of the tree is covered with a coat of nitre, an inch thick; and the leaves round the spring are encrusted with a substance as white as snow. The water is said to be a sovereign remedy for the scurvy, gout, consumption, and every other disease arising from humours in the blood. A person, who had a severe rheumatism in his arm, having, in the space of ten minutes, drank two quarts of the water, experienced a momentary chill, and was then thrown into a perspiration, which, in a few hours, left him entirely free from pain, and in perfect health.

This spring, being situated in a fine healthy part of the state, where there are excellent accommodations, proves a pleasant and salutary place of resort for invalids from the maritime and unhealthy parts of this and the neighbouring states.

Vegetable Productions.] In a country that experiences, on one frontier, all the severity of winter, and, on the other, enjoys the full radiance of the West-Indian summers, we may naturally expect no small variety of native plants. So numerous and important, indeed, are they, as to render it impossible, in a work not wholly devoted to the subject, to give them particular notice; we shall, therefore, select such as, from their utility and beauty, have the strongest claims to attention.

The maple-tree, which grows in low and rich lands, furnishes a quantity of sweet juice, from which is extracted sugar, although, in some measure, inferior to that obtained from the cane. In the months of February and March, the inhabitants of Louisiana, and the western states of America, reap this profitable harvest. As soon as the rays of the sun have acquired sufficient force to penetrate the earth, the sap circulates in the maple in such abundance, that it would force an outlet, if one was neglected to be made. From this flows a liquor, which, being collected by travellers, gave rise to the opinion that

it contained something more than the common sap of plants. Experiments soon discovered its utility: the following is the mode of preparing the sugar, as described by Du Lac:

"As soon as the winter has given place to a milder season, the inhabitants, that wish to obtain sugar, transport their families to the woods, and there erect cottages. Their first care is to provide themselves with troughs, afterwards they pierce each tree with an auger of about half an inch in diameter. Some require to be pierced in six places, others only in two. When the season is favourable, that is to say, when cold nights succeed fine days, the maples fill the holes so pierced three times in twenty-four hours with a juice very strongly impregnated with sugar; but when, on the contrary, the weather is rainy, it loses in quality and quantity. When enough is collected, it is placed in a pot over a fire, and evaporated. The residue forms a pleasant syrup, which has been employed with success at Paris, for colds, &c."

Michaux states, that the sugar extracted from the maple is of as dark a colour as that of clayed sugar after the first baking; it is sold in loaves of six, eight, and ten pounds, at the rate of about seven-pence per pound. The inhabitants manufacture it only for their own consumption: most of them take tea and coffee every day, but they only use that sugar which is obtained by the first evaporation of the sap, as, on account of the great expence which would attend the process, no person is employed in refining it.

Of the common herbaceous plants and shrubs, which are known to the generality of readers, from their introduction into the gardens of Great Britain, are the collinsonia, used by the Indians against the bite of the rattlesnake, the lobelia cardinalis, the thorn-apple, the Pennsylvanian lily and golden martagon, the biennial oenothera, with many species of aster, monarda, and rudbeckia.

The mountainous ridges are not sufficiently high to be rich in alpine plants; their climate, however, is sensibly cooler than that of the plains, on which account those of the south are inhabited by the vegetables of Pennsylvania and the northern states; while the highlands of these abound in the plants of Canada. But the most beautiful flower-plants are principally confined to Virginia and the southern states; where the unfading verdure of the wide savannas, the magnificence of the primeval forests, and the wild exuberance of the swamps, offer to the botanist every thing that, by colour, by fragrance, and by form, can fix his attention.

Of the vegetables that inhabit the low shores of the Floridas, Georgia, and South Carolina, the mangrove-tree, the only shrubby plant that can flourish in salt-water, and the fragrant and snowy-flowered pancratium of Carolina, are alone worthy of notice.

Those low ridges of calcareous soil running parallel with the rivers, and rising from the level savannas into extensive lawns and high hills, are generally covered with woods, except where they have been converted into tillage. In these rich tracts grow the lofty palmetto, the evergreen oak, the sweet bay, the common laurel, the broom-pine, and the red cedar. The straight silvery columns of the papaw-fig, rising to the height of twenty feet, and crowned by a canopy of broad sinuated leaves, form a striking feature in this scenery; while the fruit and fragrant blossoms of the orange, first introduced by the Spanish settlers, and now completely naturalized here, remind one of the ancient traditions of the groves of the Hesperides. The magnificence of the great magnolia is, however, superior to all the rest: in this rich soil it rises above one hundred feet, with a perfectly erect trunk, supporting a shady conical head of dark green foliage: from the centre of the coronets of leaves that terminate the branches expands a large rose-shaped blossom of pure white, which is succeeded by a crimson cone, containing the seeds of a beautiful coral-red colour, and these, falling from their cells, remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel by a silky thread, about six inches in length.

The trees that grow upon the savannas are of the aquatic kind, such as magnolia glauca, or beaver-tree, American olive, and Gordonia lasianthus, covered with silvery fragrant blossoms: these are generally either single, or groped into small open groves, while the larger part of the meadow is overgrown with long succulent herbage, intermixed with shrubs and plants; the candleberry myrtle, with numerous species of kalmias, andromedas, and rhododendrons, in thickets and shrubberies, over-arched by the crimson granadilla, or the clitoria, also display their beauties and luxuriance. The sides of the pools are adorned by the bright cerulean flowers of the ixir, the golden blossoms of the canna-lutea, and the rosy bunches of the hydrangia; while the edges of the groves, and the boundaries of the savannas, rising imperceptibly towards the forests, are fringed by innumerable varieties of the sensitive plant, irritable dionæa, the amaryllis atamasco, and thick rows of the royal palmetto.

The swamps are at all times, even in the height of summer, mostly under water, and are distinguished from the rest of the country by the crowded stems of the cane, the light foliage of the tupelo-tree, the fringe-tree, and the white cedar: this last is, perhaps, the most picturesque tree in all America: four or five rude pillars rise from the ground, and unite in a kind of arch at the height of about seven feet, and from this centre there springs a straight column, eighty or ninety feet high, without a branch: it then divides into a flat umbrella-shaped top, covered with finely divided leaves of the most delicate green. This

tree forms, at its top, a secure abode for the eagle and the crane; and the oily seeds contained in its cones are the favourite repast of the parroquets.

Animals.] The domestic animals of the United States are nearly similar to those of England, with some difference in size and colour. Among the wild animals may be mentioned the bison, large herds of which used to be seen near the Mississippi, and they were once very numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania. Moose-deer are now extremely rare, and will probably soon be extirpated. The black moose-deer are said to have been sometimes twelve feet in height; but the grey species seldom exceed the height of a horse. They have large palmated horns, weighing thirty or forty pounds; and Mr. Pennant mentions one pair that weighed fifty-six pounds, and were thirty-two inches in length. The American stag rather exceeds the European in size, and feeds in great herds in the rich savannas of the Missouri and Mississippi, where there are also herds of that kind called the Virginian deer.

In the northern states are two kinds of bears, both black; but the animal called the ranging bear is found in all the states, as well as the wolf. Several kinds of foxes are also to be met with; and the wolverine seems a kind of bear. The catamount, or cat of the mountains, found in the northern and middle states, is probably the same with the puma of Pennant, which he says is sometimes in North America called the panther. One killed in New Hampshire was six feet in length, and the tail three; but the length of the leg did not exceed twelve inches.

The racoon, or ursus lotor, is about the size of a fox, though not quite so high, and rather thicker. If taken young, it is easily tamed, and stays in the houses, where it catches mice in the night. The name of lotor, or washer, is very appropriate for this animal, as it prefers hollow trees that grow on the banks of creeks, or rivulets that run through the swamps; and in these places it is generally found. This animal is very common in the southern and western states, as well as in the more distant parts of Pennsylvania and Virginia: it commits great devastation in the fields of maize, by climbing on the stalks, laying them by its weight, and nibbling the ears: the inhabitants hunt it with dogs during the night, as it seldom makes its appearance in the day-time. Its skin is used in the United States for making hats.

The smaller beasts of prey are the lynx, the ocelot, and the margay, of the cat kind: these and many other animals supply furs. Some kinds of monkeys are said to be found in the southern states. The morse, or sea-cow, and the seal, used to frequent the northern shores, and the manati, common in South America, is said sometimes to appear on the southern coasts. There are also six kinds of squirrels, which do great injury to the plantations of maize.

One of the favourite diversions of the Americans is that of hunting wild animals; and the following particulars relative to this subject will probably afford much amusement to our readers:—

Bear-hunting is the sport most frequently adopted; and the inhabitants of the Alleghany Mountains have the reputation of being very expert at it. Towards the middle of autumn almost all of them hunt the bears; they sell their skins, and their flesh serves them, in a great degree, for food at this season. They give it the preference to every other kind of meat, and consider it as the only one of which a large quantity can be eaten without inconvenience. They make hams of the hind-legs, which are highly esteemed. In the autumn and winter the bears become exceedingly fat, and some of them will weigh as much as four hundred weight. The fat is consumed in the country, where it is used instead of oil. These animals are hunted with strong dogs, which, without coming into their reach, teaze and aggravate them, and, at length, force them to climb up a tree, where they are shot by the hunters.

Mr. Lawson, of Philadelphia, has related the following account of a contest between a man and a bear.

"A farmer, named Wayborne, in Ovid township, went out one afternoon through the woods in search of his horses, taking with him his rifle-gun, with the only load of ammunition he had in the house. On his return home, about an hour before dusk, he perceived a very large bear crossing the path, on which he instantly fired, and the beast fell; but, immediately recovering his legs, made for a deep ravine a short way a-head. Here he tracked him awhile by the blood; but night coming on, and expecting to find him dead in the morning, he returned home. A little after day-break the next morning, taking a pitchfork and hatchet, and his son, a boy about ten or eleven years of age, with him, he proceeded to the place in quest of the animal. The glen in which the bear had disappeared the evening before, is eighty or ninety feet from the top of the banks to the bottom of the brook below: down this precipice a stream three or four yards in breadth is precipitated in one unbroken sheet, and, forming a circular pool, winds away among thick underwood below. After reconnoitering every probable place of retreat, he at length discovered the bear, which had made his way up the other side of the ravine as far as the rocks would admit him, and sat under a projecting cliff, stedfastly surveying the motions of his enemy. Wayborne, desiring his boy to remain where he was, took the pitchfork, and, descending to the bottom, determined to attack him from below. The bear kept his position until the farmer got within six or seven feet; when, on the instant of making a stab with the pitchfork, he found himself grappled by Bruin, and both together rolled down towards the pond, at least twenty or twenty-five feet, the

bear biting his left arm and breast, and hugging him almost to suffocation. By great exertion, he forced his right arm partly down the animal's throat, and in that manner endeavoured to strangle him, but was once more hurled down through the bushes, a greater distance than before, into the water. Here, finding the bear gaining on him, Wayborne made one desperate effort, and forced his head partly under water; and, repeating his exertions, at length weakened the animal so much, that, calling to his boy, who stood on the other side, in a state little short of distraction for the fate of his father, he sunk the edge of the hatchet, by repeated blows, into his brain. Wayborne, though a robust muscular man, was with great difficulty able to crawl home, where he lay upwards of three weeks with his wounds, his arm being mashed from the shoulder to the elbow into the bone, and his breast severely mangled."

Another interesting anecdote, of the same kind, is thus related: "A planter, who frequented the Edenton market, resided on the other side of the Great Dismal Swamp, where it is only eight or ten miles broad. He had spent an evening freely, that is, in these parts, not without copious draughts of grog or toddy; and, inspired by these with fool-hardy temerity, he determined to cross the Great Dismal, instead of going the usual, but longest, road. Few were bold enough to proceed, even in the day-time, by the route he had rashly adopted; but this man was of uncommon strength, and of a daring mind. Resistiug the entreaties of his friends, he sallied forth about midnight from Edenton, on foot, and with a trusty stick in his hand. About the middle of the forest, the moon shining bright, he perceived the cub of a bear before him, at which he threw his stick, with an effect which caused the young inhabitant of the woods to roar; and this brought the enraged mother to its relief. The man had recovered his stick, and was proceeding to secure the cub, (delicious eating as a young pig,) when Mrs. Bruin advanced. A battle immediately commenced between the savage matron and the incautious man. The latter had, however, recovered from the stupidity occasioned by drinking, yet, though he abandoned the possession of the cub, he could neither pacify the mother, nor avoid her embraces. The man survived the bloody conflict, and the account he gave of the battle is yet current in the district of Chowan. He related that, having delivered up the cub, he wished to evade a contest with the dam, but she pressed so closely upon him, that he was obliged to prepare for battle. For some time he defended himself with his stick, in which interval the bear merely tore his jacket. She fought upon her hind legs, and thus the combatants were nearly of the same height. While the stick served him, he evaded the bite, as well as the hug, of the bear; but on making a desperate blow, the weapon was shivered, and then they came to closer quarters. He now substituted his fists, and with lusty sinews dealt his blows upon the hard head and tough hide of the bear. They closed, and in the struggle which ensued, the man suffered most dreadfully from the hug of his enraged opponent."

Mr. Janson, while hunting in a swamp in Alligator county, called the Little Dismal, met with an adventure which had nearly cost him his life.

"I was on horseback," says he, "and had for my guide a negro-man on foot, belonging to a planter of my acquaintance, who went before me, guided by notches cut in the trees. My horse had frequently gone the road, and appeared conscious of the difficulty, recognising the marshy places; and, trusting to his judgement, he avoided many pieces of broken ground, with a sagacity inherent in that well-trained animal. I carried my gun in my hand, loaded with slugs, and more ammunition slung across my shoulders. About midway, and about two hundred yards before me, I saw a large quadruped nimbly climb a tree. The negro, looking in a contrary direction, did not perceive the motion, and, eager to fire, I did not inform him. We went a foot's pace, and when within gun-shot, I discovered the beast through the foliage of the wood, and immediately fired. The shot took effect, and my astonishment was great to see a monster, of the species of the tiger, suspended by his fore-feet from the branch of a tree, growling in tones of dreadful discord. The negro was greatly terrified; and my horse, unused to the report of a gun fired from his back, plunged, and was entangled in mire. Losing the reins, I was precipitated into the morass, while the negro vociferated, "Massa, Massa, we are lost!" Recovering, I beheld the ferocious brute on the ground, feebly advancing towards us. By an involuntary act I presented my empty gun, at the sight of which, conscious, no doubt, that the same motion had inflicted the smart he felt, the creature made a stand, gave a hideous roar, and turned into the thickest part of the swamp, while, in haste, and great agitation, I reloaded my piece. The poor slave, whose life to him was as dear as mine could be to me, held up his hands, and thanked the God whom he worshipped for his deliverance. I was unconscious of the danger I had courted, till he told me the beast I encountered was a panther, larger than any he had ever seen dispoiling his master's flocks and herds, and that, when pursued by man, those animals rally with great ferocity. Had I been apprised of this, I should have sought my safety in flight, rather than have begun an attack; but I conjectured the creature to be of no larger dimensions than a wild cat, when I fired."

Deer-hunting also is not unattended with danger; as this sport frequently induces people to go amongst the swamps till they lose their way, and perish with hunger. An accident of this kind had nearly happened to Mr. Janson. He was induced to accompany a Mr. Carter,

of Edenton, into the Dismal Swamp, as this gentleman derived much pleasure from toiling the whole day in pursuit of game. He had with him a couple of dogs, which started and ran the deer till they came within shot. The sportsmen are placed at certain breaks in the underwood, through one of which the deer will pass at full speed. They sometimes bound past so suddenly, that a young sportsman is either startled, or cannot seize the moment to fire with effect. "I was not," says our author, "put to the test, for we had started no game when the morning lowered, and presently the wind and rain rendered farther pursuit impracticable. We had, however, penetrated far enough to alarm me greatly, and to puzzle my guide as to the direction to be taken for the purpose of reaching the open country. My fears were greatly heighteued by the knowledge of the following circumstance:—my companion loved his joke, but, like many other jesters, often carried it too far; having designedly led some of his acquaintance into the swamp, and, under pretence of following game in another direction, left them in the labyrinth, they were actually obliged to pass just such a night as that now approaching threatened to be. His doubts were so evident, that, with some agitation, I mentioned the trick he had once played his friends, and threatened him with vengeance, if he dared to repeat it upon me. He assured me I was perfectly safe, but for some time appeared at a loss in which direction to proceed; and such was the effect produced on my mind, that I fancied every five minutes we had come to the spot we had just left, and even challenged trees by certain marks my eye had caught, charging Mr. Carter with having lost the way. I observed him walk round several large trees, surveying them with great attention. He would then climb one of them, and as the seaman from the main-top looks out for land, so he appeared to be looking for some known mark to guide his course My fears were increasing, and the tales I had heard of men perishing in the swamp, and of others being many days in extricating themselves, in which time they were nearly famished, drove me almost to a state of desperation. All this time my companion in silence was apparently employed in fixing upon our course; at length he called out that he had discovered it. He then pointed to a large tree, the bark of which, in the direction in which we stood, was incrusted with green moss. 'This,' said he, 'is the north side of the tree; I now know our course; I was in doubt only till I ascertained this point, and the trees we have lately passed did not fully convince me.' On going round the tree, I found the other sides free from the mossy appearance. He observed, that but few of them clearly shewed it in the swamp, but I have since observed the effect on all trees less exposed to the air, as well as upon old houses and walls. He said that he was rarely obliged to recur to this guide, as he never ventured into the swamp but when the day promised to be fair, as he could work his way by the sun.

"I found in many parts of the swamp good walking ground, the lofty trees being at some distance from each other, and the underwood by no means so thick as to impede our road; but after thus proceeding a few miles, the pursuit of game is impracticable. Sometimes we had to cross where it was knee-deep, but my companion had in this case generally marked a place where we could pass over on a fallen tree. I had mounted one of these, of a monstrous size, and was proceeding heedlessly along, when I suddenly found myself sink up to the middle in dust; the tree having become rotten, though it retained its shape. This was a good joke for my friend, but a sad disaster for me; for I had great difficulty in getting out of the hole into which I had fallen; the tree, like ice, being more rotten in some parts than others, I was compelled to break my way till I came to a part sound enough to bear me, and, having fallen between two knots, I could not conveniently get out of the trunk into the swampy ground beneath, had I been so inclined. With fearful steps I advanced to the end, but was very wary how, in future, I trusted to a bridge formed by a fallen tree."

The squirrels of Carolina are so numerous, that the inhabitants are obliged, three or four times a day, to send their children round the corn-fields to scare them. At the slightest noise they issue out by dozens, and take refuge in the trees, whence they descend the instant the enemy has passed. Like the bears of North-America, they emigrate on the approach of winter: at which time they appear in Kentucky in such great numbers, that the inhabitants are obliged to unite in order to expel them. This kind of hunting is sometimes considered an excursion of pleasure; persons generally go two together, and in one morning often kill from thirty to forty. A single individual, on the contrary, can with difficulty kill any; for the squirrel, fixing himself on the trunk of the tree, turns successively in opposition to the hunter, so that the latter cannot hit him.

Among the birds of the United States there any many kinds of eagles, vultures, owls, and numerous sorts called by European names, though they generally appear different to the naturalist. Wild turkeys are rather scarce in the southern states, but numerous in those of the west. In the parts least inhabited, they are so fearless, that they may be shot by a pistol: they are not alarmed at a noise; but they have a very penetrating sight; and, the moment they perceive a hunter, they flee with such rapidity, that, for some minutes, a dog cannot come up with them; and when on the point of being seized they take to the wing. They generally harbour in the swamps, and along the rivers and creeks, whence they come out only in the morning and evening: they roost on the tops of the highest trees, where, notwithstanding their size, it is not easy to

discover them. In autumn they feed principally on chesnuts and acorns, and, when killed, often weigh from thirty-five to forty pounds. The wakon of Virginia has some resemblance to the bird of Paradise: and vast varieties of aquatic birds crowd the immerous lakes and rivers; the largest being the wild swan, which sometimes weighs thirty-six pounds. The Virginia nightingale, which takes its distinguishing epithet from this province, is adorned with a plumage of bright crimson and blue, and sings most delightfully. The natural note of the mocking-bird is very melodious, as it imitates the song of every other bird, but with superior strength and sweetness. In plumage, a bird of the species of the woodpecker, misnamed, in the southern states, the woodcock, is the most beautiful. It has the golden hue of the English goldfinch, variegated with crimson, black, and white. On its head it has a beautiful tuft, but its notes are harsh and discordant. It is of the size of the dove, and is generally seen on decaying trees, in quest of insects. The woodpecker is smaller, of a greenish teint; and the noise occasioned by its bill against a tree is like the quick strokes of a blacksmith's hammer on his bare anvil, beginning loud and gradually dying away. The flesh of both these birds is black, tough, and ill-flavoured. If the name of nightingale were to be given to any of the feathered race in the southern states, that called *Whip-poor Will* is best entitled to it. This bird sings a plaintive note, almost the whole night long, resembling the pronunciation of the words by which it is named. It has been said to be so very wary, that it is seldom seen, much less taken; and that many have imagined the noise does not proceed from a bird, but from a frog. This is a wild conjecture. The bird is no otherwise shy, than because nature has assigned to it the task of watching in the night, when certainly it can seldom be seen; but its existence is as well known as that of the mocking, or other rare birds.

The humming-bird is the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, being arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is its chief nourishment, and is too delicate to be brought alive to England.

Mr. Janson was much disconcerted by the bull-frogs, the first evening which he passed in America. "These animals," says he, "are four times the size of the English frog, and raise their heads above the water, for the space of two minutes, at intervals, (for I have since particularly noticed them,) when they continue this most discordant noise. I could seldom find them out of water, and, when I came upon them by surprise, on the margin of a pond, they fled to it by prodigious jumps. I had made many efforts to catch one of them, though in vain; but, returning one evening from a shooting-party, being about to draw my charge, and observing one in a marsh near me, rising to make his roar, I discharged the contents of my piece, and immediately saw it floating on the water. A dog, which had accompanied us, brought it to me. It measured six inches in length, and its hind-legs were nearly as long as the body. In colour, and somewhat in shape, it more resembled the toad than our green-speckled frog. I severed its body, and brought home the hind-quarters, more delicate, in appearance, than those of a chicken. In France I had conquered my repugnance to the flesh of a frog; and, having heard that some people in America extolled such food, I resolved to have a little fricassee made of this part of the bull-frog. In accomplishing my purpose I had many difficulties to combat. Not a domestic of the house would touch it; and, determined to carry my point, I seized the stew-pan, procured the necessary ingredients, and cooked a dish greatly to my satisfaction."

Dr. Morse enumerates near forty kinds of serpents, found in the United territories; Virginia, in particular, producing great numbers. The rattle-snake is the largest, being from four to six feet in length, and is one of the most dreaded. Near Bedford, M. Michaux met with a man who had been bitten by a rattle-snake the night before. He was lying on the ground, wrapped up in a blanket. The first symptoms which appeared, an hour after the accident, were violent vomitings, almost immediately succeeded by a high fever. "At the time when I saw him," says our author, "his leg and thigh were prodigiously swelled, his respiration was extremely difficult, and his face was bloated, resembling those, whom I have had occasion to see at the hospital, afflicted with the hydrophobia. I asked him some questions, but his senses were so entirely absorbed, that it was impossible to obtain any answer: I however learned from the people of the house, that, immediately after the bite, they had applied the juice of some plants to the wound, until the arrival of the doctor, who lived at the distance of fifteen or twenty miles. In America, I have known several persons to whom the same accident has happened: those who did not die in consequence of it, have ever since remained valetudinarians, and are remarkably susceptible of affections arising from the changes of the atmosphere. In the mountainous part of Pennsylvania, there are great numbers of rattle-snakes; many of which we found killed on the road. In hot and dry weather, they come from beneath the rocks, and conceal themselves in places which contain water."

Among the fish are most of those which are esteemed in Europe; and of those that are peculiar may be mentioned that large kind of white trout found in the lakes The oysters produced in the beds, near New York and Boston, are five times as large as those consumed in London. All the rivers and coasts swarm with the various

eatable kinds, and the testaceous species are particularly numerous.

In North-America may be found most of the insects which are known in Europe. The Hessian fly is so injurious to the farmer, that, in many parts of the country, all ideas of growing wheat have been given up. They are to be seen on the wheat when young, then in embryo in the stubble, betwixt the lowest joint and the second joint, in great numbers, exactly like flax-seed. They remain in that state during the winter, and, as the corn-stalks lie hid in the fields when the wheat is growing, there is no doubt that these insects deposit their eggs in them. The flies come out in the spring, in the same manner as the butterflies in England, and continue among the wheat all the summer.

"In white or garden-peas," says Mr. Parkinson, "there is a worm that eats a large hole through every pea, or nearly: and this is in embryo when the pea is green, as I bottled some, and corked them up; but in the spring there was a great number of the flies in the bottle, and the peas were all eaten through: therefore they are not to be avoided. These peas are, in consequence, not pleasant to use for the table."

The tumble-bug is a sort of beetle, which in the summer forms a cave in the earth: and, when an animal drops his dung, two of these go to the place, and roll up into a round ball a piece as big as a small walnut, which they push forwards with their fore-feet or legs to their cave. It is said, that there is an egg in the inside of every one of those balls. There are such quantities of these beetles, that they greatly impoverish the land.

Locusts appear once in eleven, or, as some say, fourteen, years. They come, like an army, in one day apparently; making a continual humming; and, being so many thousands, they cause a very great alarm. They remain about one month, and do much damage to all kinds of trees, by eating in a circular manner round the bark of young shoots, on every part of the tree, about three or four inches from the end, and sometimes at a greater distance. This causes great injury to the fruit the ensuing season.

Small black flies are so numerous in the United States, that it is usual to have some kind of poison to destroy them: for which purpose a substance called fly-stone, mixed with sugar and water, is spread on a plate.

Another destructive insect, said to be peculiar to America, is the cock-roach, or blatta Americana of Linnæus. They are said to be so flat, that they creep into every chest or drawer where there is the least crevice. They gnaw woollen-cloths of every kind, but especially such as have had hair-powder on them. They frequently throw off their exterior skin; and, after every change of this kind, they appear fresh and young. The Americans know this species by the name of kakkerlac. In the houses of many parts of America they often commit great depredations by gnawing and devouring both clothes and provisions, and it is extremely difficult to guard against their ravages. With respect to provisions, every thing they run over contracts from them so nauseous a smell, as to be scarcely eatable.

According to Reaumur, these cock-roaches h ve a formidable enemy in a large species of sphex. He says, that when one of the latter encounters a cock roach, he seizes it by the head, pierces its body with his poisonous sting, and afterwards carries it off into his hole. Here the female has deposited her eggs; and the bodies of the cock-roaches serve the larvæ for food, till they attain their winged state.

"In North Carolina," says Mr. Janson, "I observed a curious species of the ant, very diminutive, and in prodigious numbers. If undisturbed, they will completely cover a piece of meat, bread, or sugar, and in a short time carry it to their nests, to which they are constantly going and returning by different tracks. They are chiefly to be found in houses, from which it is impossible to exclude them. It is said that, when tasted, which often happens, from their being concealed in victuals, they are an agreeable acid; and I have seen people eat them, rather than brush them away. These very small insects are of different colours, red and black: so far from associating with each other, a severe battle is fought, whenever they meet; and thus one house will be pestered with the black, and another with the red ant."

"In the Carolinas," says Mr. Janson, "there are innumerable commonwealths of bees, subject to no control from man. They build their hives in the hollow parts of large trees, and as near the summit as they can find a convenient cavity. The hunting of these industrious societies is an object of both profit and pleasure to the inhabitants. When their retreat has accidentally been discovered, it is marked by cutting notches in the trees to the nearest habitation, and a day is appointed for a bee-hunt. Half a dozen men, or more, assemble, each provided with a gun, for the double purpose of killing game in their expedition, and for defence against the beasts of the forest. They also carry axes to cut down the tree.

"On an occasion of this nature, as the party cautiously approached the marked spot, they were surprised to find the proprietors of the hive in great wrath flying over their property; and, on a nearer view, they witnessed the cause of the tumult. A bear, of enormous bulk, attracted by the smell of the ripe honey, of which those animals are extremely fond, had scented the tree some minutes before the arrival of the two-legged plunderers Bruin was in the act of lapping the honey, which he obtained by thrusting his paw through a hole in the centre of a knot, which the bees used as the entrance to their

cell. The insects, in their defence, attacked him by swarms, and darted their stings into the most vulnerable parts of his face; to guard which, he applied one paw full of honey over the annoyed parts, and ate the next, in swallowing which he would give a few strokes amongst his antagonists, and then proceed to another scoop of honey. A ball from a rifle-gun brought Bruin, in the midst of his repast, to the ground. The hunters quickly felled the tree, and, being prepared to resist the darts of the owners, soon secured the remainder of the honey, the comb of which had been dreadfully mangled by the paw of the bear; but his carcase made them ample amends.

"Mr. Andrew Nilson, of Philadelphia, a native of Ireland, who served under General Washington in the American army during the whole of the war, informed me, that at the time Lord Cornwallis was pursuing the Americans through the Carolinas, at which time he was a quarter-master-serjeant, he had, during a day's rapid retreat, marked a hive of bees. At night, whilst both the pursuers and the pursued were obliged to halt and rest, he privately singled out a file of soldiers, with whom, carrying a barrel for the purpose, he retrograded some miles to attack the bee-hive, which was then at an equal distance between the two armies. He arrived with his party at the tree, which they felled without creating alarm; and the moon afforded them light to secure the honey, which was slung upon a pole. After proceeding with it two or three miles, they were surprised by an armed reconnoitering party. To escape was impossible; and resistance, having no arms, was in vain. Convinced that his rashness had thrown him into the hands of his enemy, he prepared to surrender himself and party as prisoners of war. He was hailed—the parole and countersign were demanded, and Nilson repeated those given out for the night by the American commander, which, to his great joy, proved satisfactory. It was a party from the American army, watching the early approach of their pursuers; and the commanding officer proved to be the major of the regiment to which the offending serjeant belonged. Being interrogated as to the motive of the honey-men being from their quarters, Nilson told the truth, with an humour peculiar to his country; which so pleased the major, that he ordered the delicious banquet to be brought forward, and both parties sat down, and regaled themselves on the fruits of the industrious bees. The canteens of the armed men contained spirituous liquors; which, operating on the honey, produced a pretty mellow effect. The major, however, got his party off; but Nilson continued so long upon the spot, that his men could not reach their friends with their booty, and were obliged to leave what remained in the barrel a prey to the pursuing British."

Religions Sects.] "The constitution of the United States," says Dr. Morse, "provides against the making of any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise of it. And in the constitutions of the respective states religious liberty is a fundamental principle. All being thus left at liberty to choose their own religion, the people, as might easily be supposed, have varied in their choice. The bulk of the people would denominate themselves Christians; a small proportion of them are Jews; some plead the sufficiency of natural religion, and reject revelation as unnecessary and fabulous; and many, we have reason to believe, have yet their religion to choose."

The following denominations of Christians are more or less numerous in the United States, viz. Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Dutch Reformed Church, Episcopalians, Baptists, Quakers, or Friends, Methodists, Roman Catholics, German Lutherans, German Calvinists, or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, Mennonists, Universalists, and Shakers.

Of these various sects, the most numerous are the *Congregationalists*, who seem generally agreed in this opinion, that "Every church, or particular congregation of visible saints, in gospel order, being furnished with a pastor, and walking together in truth and peace, has received from the Lord Jesus full power and authority, ecclesiastical within itself, regularly to administer all the ordinances of Christ, and is not under any other ecclesiastical jurisdiction whatsoever." Their churches, with some exceptions, disclaim the word *Independent*, as applicable to them, and claim a sisterly relation to each other.

Congregationalists are divided in opinion respecting the doctrines of the gospel, and the proper subjects of its ordinances. The body of them are Calvinists; a respectable proportion are what may be denominated Hopkensian Calvinists; besides these, some are Arminians, some Arians, a few Socinians, and a number who have adopted Dr. Chauncy's scheme of the final salvation of all men.

Next to the Congregationalists, the *Presbyterians* are the most numerous denomination of Christians in the United States. They have a constitution by which they regulate all their ecclesiastical proceedings, and a confession of faith, to which all church-officers and members are required to subscribe. Hence they have preserved a singular uniformity in their religious sentiments, and have conducted their ecclesiastical affairs with a considerable degree of order and harmony.

The body of the Presbyterians inhabit the middle and southern states, and are united under the same constitution. By this constitution, the Presbyterians who are governed by it are divided into four synods and seventeen presbyteries, viz. Synod of New York, five presbyteries, ninety-four congregations, sixty-one settled ministers. 2. Synod of Philadelphia, five presbyteries, ninety-two congregations, sixty settled ministers, besides the mini-

sters and congregations belonging to Baltimore presbytery. 3. Synod of Virginia, four presbyteries, seventy congregations, forty settled ministers, exclusive of the congregations and ministers of Transylvania presbytery. 4. Synod of the Carolinas, three presbyteries, eighty-two congregations, forty-two settled ministers, the ministers and congregations of Abington presbytery not included. If we suppose the number of congregations in the presbyteries which make no returns to their synods to be one hundred, the number of settled ministers in the same to be forty, the whole number of Presbyterian congregations in this connection will be four hundred and thirty-eight, which are supplied by two hundred and twenty-three settled ministers, and between seventy and eighty candidates, besides a number of ordained ministers, who have no particular charges. Each of the four synods meet annually; besides which they have a joint meeting, by their commissioners, once a year, in General Assembly at Philadelphia.

The Presbyterian churches are governed by congregational, presbyterial, and synodical, assemblies: these assemblies possess no civil jurisdiction; their power is wholly moral or spiritual, and that only ministerial or declarative. They possess the right of requiring obedience to the laws of Christ, and of excluding the disobedient from the privileges of the church; and the powers requisite for obtaining evidence, and inflicting censure; but the highest punishment to which their authority extends, is that of excluding the contumacious and impenitent from the congregation.

The *Church Session*, which is the congregational assembly of judicatory, consists of the minister or ministers and elders of a particular congregation. This body is invested with the spiritual government of the congregation, and has power to enquire into the knowledge and Christian conduct of all its members; to call before it offenders and witnesses of its own denomination; to admonish, suspend, or exclude from the sacraments, such as deserve these censures; to concert measures for promoting the spiritual interests of the congregation, and to appoint delegates to the higher judicatories of the church.

A *Presbytery* consists of all the ministers, and one ruling elder from each congregation, within a certain district. Three ministers and three elders, constitutionally convened, are competent to transact business. This body has cognizance of all things that regard the welfare of the particular churches within its bounds, which are not cognizable by the session: also a power of receiving and issuing appeals from the sessions; of examining and licensing candidates for the ministry; of ordaining, settling, removing, or judging, ministers; of resolving questions of doctrine or discipline; of condemning erroneous opinions, that injure the purity or peace of the church; of visiting particular churches, to enquire into their state, and redress the evils that may have arisen in them: of uniting or dividing congregations, at the request of the people, and whatever else pertains to the spiritual concerns of the churches under their superintendance.

A *Synod* is a convention of several presbyteries. The synod has power to admit and judge of appeals, regularly brought up from the presbyteries; to give its judgment on all references of an ecclesiastical kind; to collect and regulate the proceedings of presbyteries; to take effectual care that presbyteries observe the constitution of the church, &c.

The highest judicatory of the Presbyterian church is styled *The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, in the United States of America.* This assembly is to consist of an equal delegation of bishops and elders from each presbytery within their jurisdiction, by the title of *Commissioners to the General Assembly.* Fourteen commissioners make a quorum. The General Assembly constitutes the bond of union, correspondence, and mutual confidence, among all churches, and has power to receive and issue all appeals and references which may regularly be brought before them from inferior judicatories; to regulate and correct the proceedings of the synods, &c. To the General Assembly also belongs the power of consulting, reasoning, and judging, in controversies respecting doctrine and discipline; of reproving, warning, or bearing testimony against error in doctrine, or immorality in practice in any church, presbytery, or synod; of corresponding with foreign churches; of putting a stop to schismatical contentions and disputations; and, in general, of recommending and attempting reformation of manners, and of promoting charity, truth, and holiness, in all the churches; also of erecting new synods, when judged necessary.

The confession of faith adopted by the Presbyterian church embraces what are called the Calvinistic doctrines; and none who disbelieve these doctrines are admitted into fellowship with their churches. The General Assembly of the Presbyterian church holds a friendly correspondence with the General Association in Connecticut by letter, and by admitting delegates from their respective bodies to sit in each other's general meetings.

Unconnected with the churches of which we have been speaking, there are four small presbyteries in New England, who have a similar form of ecclesiastical government and discipline, and profess the same doctrines. Besides these, there is the "Associate Presbytery of Pennsylvania," having a separate ecclesiastical jurisdiction in America, and belonging to the Associate Synod of Edinburgh, which they declare is the only ecclesiastical body, either in Britain or America, with which they are agreed concerning the doctrine and order of the church of Christ,

and concerning the duty of confessing the truth, and bearing witness to it by a public testimony against the errors of the times. This connexion is not to be understood as indicating subjection to a foreign jurisdiction; but is preserved for the sake of maintaining unity with their brethren in the profession of the Christian faith, and such an intercourse as might be of service to the interests of religion. This sect of Presbyterians is commonly known by the name of *Seceders*, on account of their seceding from the national church of Scotland, in the year 1736.

The *Dutch Reformed Churches* in the United States, who maintain the doctrine of the Synod of Dort, held in 1618, are between seventy and eighty in number, constituting six classes, which form one synod, styled, "The *Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jersey.*" From the first planting of the Dutch churches in New York and New Jersey, they have, under the direction of the classes of Amsterdam, been formed exactly upon the plan of the established church of Holland, as far as that is ecclesiastical.

The *Protestant Episcopal Church* in the United States (the churches of that denomination in New England excepted) met in convention at Philadelphia, October, 1785, and revised the book of common prayer and administration of the sacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, with a view to render the liturgy consistent with the American Revolution. But this revised form was adopted by none of the churches, except one or two in Philadelphia. In October, 1789, at another meeting of their convention, a plan of Union among all the Protestant Episcopal churches in the United States of America was agreed upon and settled; and an adequate representation from the several states being present, they again revised the book of common prayer, which is now published, and generally adopted by their churches. They also agreed upon, and published, seventeen canons for the government of their church; the first of which declares, that, "there shall, in this church, be three orders in the ministry, viz. bishops, priests, and deacons."

At the same time they agreed upon a constitution, which provides that there shall be a general convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, on the second Tuesday of September, of every third year, from 1789. That each state is entitled to a representation of both the clergy and laity, or either of them, and may send deputies, not exceeding four of each order, chosen by the convention of the state. That the bishops of the church, when three or more are present, shall, in their general conventions, form a separate house, with a right to originate and propose acts for the concurrence of the house of deputies, composed of clergy and laity; and with a power to negative acts passed by the house of deputies, unless adhered to by four-fifths of the other house. That every bishop shall confine the exercise of his episcopal office to his proper diocese or district. That no person shall be admitted to holy orders, until examined by the bishop and two presbyters, having produced the requisite testimonials: and that no person shall be ordained, until he shall have subscribed the following declaration: "I do believe the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be the Word of God, and to contain all things necessary to salvation; and I do solemnly engage to conform to the doctrines and worship of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States."

They have not yet adopted any articles of religion other than those contained in the apostles' and Nicene creeds. The number of Episcopal churches in the United States is not ascertained: in New England there are between forty and fifty; but in the southern states they are much more numerous. Four bishops, viz. of Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, have been elected by the conventions of their respective states, and have been duly consecrated; the former by the bishops of the Scotch church, the three latter by the bishops of the English church. And these four, in September 1792, united in the consecration of a fifth, elected by the convention of the state of Maryland.

The *Baptists*, with some exceptions, adopt the doctrines of Calvin, and the independent form of church government. Except those who are styled "*Open Communion Baptists*," of whom there is but one association, they refuse to communicate in the ordinance of the Lord's Supper with other denominations; because they hold that immersion only is the true baptism, and that baptism is necessary to communion; it is, therefore, improper and inconsistent, in their opinion, to admit unbaptised persons to join with them in this ordinance, though they allow ministers of other denominations to preach to their congregations.

Some of the leading principles of the Particular Baptists are, The imputation of Adam's sin to his posterity; the inability of man to recover himself, effectual calling by sovereign grace, justification by the imputed righteousness of Christ, baptism by immersion, and that on profession of faith and repentance; congregational churches, and their independency, and reception into them upon evidence of sound conversion.

The people called *Quakers* came to America as early as 1656. The first settlers of Pennsylvania were all of this denomination; and the number of their meetings in the United States, at present, is about three hundred and twenty.

Their doctrinal tenets may be summarily expressed as follows: In common with other Christians, they believe in one eternal God, and in Jesus Christ, the Messiah and Mediator of the new covenant. To Christ alone, in whose divinity they believe, they give the title of the *Word* of

God, and not to the Scriptures; yet they profess a high esteem for these sacred writings, in subordination to the Spirit who indited them, and believe that they are able, through faith, to make men wise to salvation. They reverence the precepts of scripture, and believe them practicable and binding on every Christian; and that, in the life to come, every man will be rewarded according to his works. In order to enable mankind to put in practice these precepts, they believe that every man coming into the world is indued with a measure of the light, grace, or good spirit, of Christ, by which he is enabled to distinguish good from evil, and correct the disorderly passions and corrupt propensities of his nature, which mere reason is altogether insufficient to overcome: that this divine grace is, to those who sincerely seek it, an all-sufficient and present help in time of need; and that by it the snares of the enemy are detected, his allurements avoided, and deliverance experienced, through faith in its effectual operation, and the soul translated out of the kingdom of darkness into the marvellous light and kingdom of the Son of God. Thus persuaded, they think this divine influence especially necessary to the performance of the highest act of which the human mind is capable, the worship of God in spirit and in truth; and therefore consider as obstructions to pure worship, all forms which divert the mind from the secret influence of this unction of the Holy One. Though true worship is not confined to time or place, they believe it is incumbent on churches to meet often together, but dare not depend for acceptance on a formal repetition of the words and experiences of others. They think it is their duty to wait in silence, to have a true sight of their condition bestowed on them; and believe even a single sigh, arising from a sense of their infirmities and need of divine help, to be more acceptable to God, than any performances which originate in the will of man.

They believe the renewed assistance of the light and power of Christ, which is not at our command, nor attainable by study, but the free gift of God, to be indispensably necessary to all true ministry. Hence arises their testimony against preaching for hire, and conscientious refusal to support such ministry by tithes or other means. As they will not encourage any ministry, but such as they believe to spring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, so neither do they attempt to restrain this influence to persons of any condition in life, or to the male sex, but allow such of the female sex as appear to be qualified, to exercise their gifts for the general edification of the church.

They hold that, as there is one Lord and one faith, so his baptism is one in nature and operation, and that nothing short of it can make us living members of his mystical body; and that baptism with water belonged to an inferior and decreasing dispensation. With respect to the Lord's Supper, they believe that communication between Christ and his church is not maintained by that nor any other external ordinance, but only by a real participation of his divine nature, through faith: that this is the supper alluded to, Rev. iii. 20; and that where the substance is attained, it is unnecessary to attend to the shadow.

Believing that the grace of God is alone sufficient for salvation, they neither can admit that it is conferred on a few only, while others are left without it; nor, thus asserting its universality, can they limit its operation to a partial cleansing of the soul from sin, even in this life. On the contrary, they believe that God doth vouchsafe to assist the obedient to submit to the guidance of his pure Spirit, through whose assistance they are enabled to bring forth fruits into holiness, and to stand perfect in their present rank.

As to oaths, they abide literally by Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all." They believe that "wars and fightings" are, in their origin and effects, utterly repugnant to the gospel, which breathes peace and good-will to men. They also are firmly persuaded, that, if the benevolence of the gospel were generally prevalent in the minds of men, it would effectually prevent them from oppressing, much more from enslaving, their brethren, of whatever complexion; and would even influence their treatment of the brute creation, which would no longer groan the victims of their avarice, or of their false ideas of pleasure. They profess that their principles, which inculcate submission to the laws in all cases wherein consience is not violated, are a security to the salutary purposes of government. But they hold, that the civil magistrate has no right to interfere in matters of religion, and think persecution in any degree unwarrantable. They reject the use of those names of the months and days, which, having been given in honour of the heroes or gods of the heathen, originated in superstition; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen also from motives of adulation. Compliments, superfluity of apparel or furniture, outward shows of rejoicing or mourning, and the observation of days and times, they deem incompatible with the simplicity and sincerity of a christian life; and they condemn public diversions, gaming, and other vain amusements of the world. They require no formal subscription to any articles, either as the condition of membership, or to qualify for the service of the church.

The *Methodists* made their first appearance in America about thirty-four years since. Their general style is, "*The United Societies of the Methodist Episcopal Church.*" They profess themselves to be "a company of men, having the form, and seeking the power of godliness, united in order to pray together, to receive the word of exhort-

ation, and to watch over one another in love, that they may help each other to work out their own salvation." Each society is divided into classes of twelve persons, one of whom is styled the *leader*, whose business it is to see each person in his class once a week, to advise, reprove, comfort, or exhort, as occasion may require; and to receive contributions for the relief of the church and poor. In order to admission into their societies, they require only one condition, viz. "A desire to flee from the wrath to come;" *i.e.* a desire to be saved from their sins. It is expected of all who contiuue in their societies, that they should evidence their desire of salvation by doing no harm, by avoiding all manner of evil, by doing all manner of good, as they have ability and opportunity, especially to the household of faith; employing them preferably to others, buying of one another, and helping each other in business; and also by attending upon all the ordinances of God, such as public worship, the supper of the Lord, family and private prayer, searching the scriptures, and abstinence. The late Rev. John Wesley is considered as the father of this class of Methodists, who, as they deny some of the leading Calvinistic doctrines, and hold some of the peculiar tenets of Arminius, may be called *Arminian Methodists*. The Rev. George Whitfield was the leader of the *Calvinistic Methodists*, of whom, a few in different parts of the United States are patronized and supplied with ministers by the will of the late Countess of Huntingdon.

The number of *Roman Catholics* in the United States is estimated at about fifty thousand, one half of which are in the state of Maryland. Their peculiar and leading tenets are too generally known to need a recital here. They have a bishop, who resides in Baltimore, and many of their congregations are respectable and numerous.

The German inhabitants in these states, who principally belong to Pennsylvania and New York, are divided into a variety of sects; the principal of which are Lutherans, Calvinists or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, and Mennonists. Of these the German Lutherans are the most numerous. Of this denomination, and the German Presbyterians or Calvinists, who are next to them in numbers, there are upwards of sixty ministers in Pennsylvania; and the former have twelve, and the latter six, churches in the state of New York. Many of their churches are large and splendid, and in some instances furnished with organs. These two denominations live together in the greatest harmony, often preaching in each others churches, and sometimes uniting in the erection of a church, in which they worship alternately.

The *Moravians* are a respectable body of Christians in these states. Of this denomination there were, in 1788, about one thousand three hundred in Pennsylvania; viz. at Bethlehem, between five and six hundred, which number has since increased; at Nazareth, four hundred and fifty; at Litiz, upwards of three hundred. Their other settlements, in the United States, are at Hope, in New Jersey, and at Wachovia, on Yadkin River, in North Carolina. Besides these regular settlements, formed by such only as are members of the brethren's church, and live together, there are, in different parts of Pennsylvania, Maryland and New Jersey, and in the cities of Newport, New York, Philadelphia, Lancaster, York Town, &c. congregations of the brethren, who have their own church and minister, and hold the same doctrinal tenets, and church rites and ceremonies, as the former, though their local situation does not admit of such particular regulations as are peculiar to the regular settlements.

They are called Moravians, because the first settlers in the English dominions were chiefly emigrants from Moravia. These were the genuine descendants of the church of the ancient United Brethren, established in Bohemia and Moravia as early as the year 1456. About the middle of the last century they left their native country to avoid persecution, and to enjoy liberty of conscience, and the exercise of the religion of their forefathers. They were received in Saxony, and other protestant dominions, and were joined by many serious people. They adhere to the Augustan Confession of Faith, which was drawn up by protestant divines at the time of the Reformation in Germany, in the year 1530, and presented at the diet of the empire at Augsburg; and which, at that time, contained the doctrinal system of all the established protestant churches. They retain the discipline of their ancient church, and make use of episcopal ordination.

They profess to live in strict obedience to the ordinances of Christ: such as the observance of the sabbath, infant baptism, and the Lord's Supper; and, in addition to these, they practise the washing of feet, the kiss of love, and the use of the lot. They were introduced into America by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, which is their principal establishment in America, as early as 1741.

The *Tunkers* are so called in derision, from the word *tunken, to put a morsel in sauce*. The English word that conveys the proper meaning of Tunkers, is *sops*, or *dippers*. They are also called Tumblers, from the manner in which they perform baptism, which is by putting the person, while kneeling, head first, under water, so as to resemble the motion of the body in the action of tumbling.

The first appearance of these people in America was in the year 1719, when about twenty families landed in Philadelphia, and dispersed themselves in various parts of Pennsylvania. They are what are called General Baptists, and believe in general redemption. They use great plainness of dress and language, and will neither swear, nor fight, nor go to law, nor take interest for the use of their

money. They commonly wear their beards; keep the first day sabbath, except one congregation; and have the Lord's Supper, with its ancient attendants of love-feasts, washing of feet, kiss of charity, and right-hand of fellowship. They anoint the sick with oil for their recovery, and use the trine immersion, with laying on of hands and prayer, while the person baptized is in the water. Their church-government and discipline are the same with those of the English Baptists, except that every member is allowed to speak in the congregation, and the best speaker is usually ordained to be their minister. They have deacons, deaconesses, and exhorters, who are all licensed to use their gifts statedly.

The principal settlement of this sect is at Ephrata, sometimes called Tunkers' Town, in Lancaster county, sixty miles westward of Philadelphia. It consists of about forty buildings, of which three are places of worship: one is called Sharon, and adjoins the sisters' apartment, as a chapel; another, belonging to the brothers' apartment, is called Bethany. To these the brethren and sisters resort, separately, to worship, morning and evening, and sometimes in the night. The third is a common church, called Zion, where all in the settlement meet once a week for public worship. The brethren have adopted a dress similar to that of the White Friars, with some alterations; the sisters that of the nuns. All, however, do not live in celibacy. When they marry, they leave their cells, and go among the married people. They subsist by cultivating their lands, by attending a printing-office, a grist-mill, a paper-mill, an oil-mill, &c.; and the sisters by spinning, weaving, sewing, &c. They at first slept on board-couches, but now on beds, and have otherwise abated much of their former severity. This congregation keep the seventh day sabbath. Their singing is charming, owing to the pleasantness of their voices, the variety of parts, and the devout manner of performance.

The *Mennonists* derive their name from Simon Menno, a native of Witmars, in Germany, a man of learning, born in the year 1505. In the time of the reformation, by Luther and Calvin, he was a famous Roman Catholic preacher, till about the year 1531, when he became a Baptist. Some of his followers came into Pennsylvania from New York, and settled at German-town, as early as 1692. This is at present their principal congregation, and the mother of the rest.

The Mennonists do not, like the Tunkers, hold the doctrine of general salvation; yet, like them, they will neither swear nor fight, nor bear any civil office, nor go to law. Some of them wear their beards, wash each others feet, &c. and all are plain in their dress and mode of expression. Some have been expelled the society for wearing buckles in their shoes, and having pocket-holes in their coats. Their church-government is democratical. They call themselves the Harmless Christians, Revengeless Christians, and Weaponless Christians. They are Baptists rather in name than in fact; for they do not use immersion. Their common mode of baptism is this: The person to be baptized kneels; the minister holds his hands over him, into which the deacon pours water, which runs through upon the head of the person kneeling. After this follow imposition of hands, and prayer.

The denomination styled *Universalists*, though their schemes are various, may properly be divided into two classes, viz. those who embrace the scheme of Dr. Chauncey, exhibited in his book, entitled, "The Salvation of all Men," and the disciples of Mr. Winchester and Mr. John Murray.

A summary of Dr. Chauncey's sentiments has been given as follows:—

"That the scheme of revelation has the happiness of all mankind lying at bottom, as its great and ultimate end; that it gradually tends to this end, and will not fail of its accomplishment, when fully completed. Some, in consequence of its operation, as conducted by the Son of God, will be disposed and enabled, in this present state, to make such improvements in virtue, the only rational preparative for happiness, as that they may enter upon the enjoyment of it in the next state. Others, who have proved incurable under the means which have been used with them in this state, instead of being happy in the next, will be awfully miserable; not to continue so finally, but that they may be convinced of their folly, and recovered to a virtuous frame of mind; and this will be the effect of the future torments upon many; the consequence of which will be their salvation, they being thus fitted for it. And there may be yet other states, before the scheme of God may be perfected, and mankind universally cured of their moral disorders, and in this way qualified for, and finally instated in, eternal happiness. But, however many states some of the individuals of the human species may pass through, and of however long continuance they may be, the whole is intended to subserve the grand design of *universal happiness*, and will finally terminate in it; insomuch that the Son of God and Saviour of men will not deliver up his trust into the hands of the Father, who committed it to him, till he has discharged his obligations in virtue of it; having finally fixed all men in heaven, when God will be *all in all*."

The number of this denomination is not known. The open advocates of this scheme are few, though the number is larger who embrace the doctrine of the salvation of all men, upon principles somewhat similar, but variously differing from those on which the above-mentioned scheme is grounded.

The latter class of Universalists have a scheme differing essentially from that of the former, which they reject, as

inconsistent and absurd; and they cannot conceive how those who embrace it can, with any degree of propriety, be called Universalists, on apostolic principles, as it does not appear that they have any idea of being saved by or in the Lord with an everlasting or with any salvation. Hence they call them "Pharisaical Universalists, who are willing to justify themselves."

There are but a few of this denomination of Universalists in the United States. Of these few some are in Pennsylvania, some in different parts of New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire; but the body of them are in Boston and Gloucester, in Massachusetts. They have several constituted churches, which are governed by an ecclesiastical constitution, formed in 1789.

The small and singular sect of Christians called *Shakers* sprung up in America as lately as 1774, when a few of this sect came from England to New York, and there being joined by a few others, they fixed at Nisqueunia, above Albany, which is their principal settlement; a few others, however, are scattered in different parts of the country.

The head of this party, while she lived, was Anna Leese, styled the Elect Lady. Her followers asserted, that she was the woman spoken of in the twelfth chapter of the Revelations, and that she spoke seventy-two tongues; and, although these tongues were unintelligible to the living, she conversed with the dead, who understood her language. They alleged, also, that she was the mother of all the Elect; that she travailed for the whole world; that no blessing could descend to any person but only by and through her, and that in the way of her being possessed of their sins, by their confessing and repenting of them, one by one, according to her direction.

Their leading tenets, as given by one of their own denomination, are, "That the first resurrection is already come, and now is the time to judge themselves. That they have power to heal the sick, to raise the dead, and cast out devils. That they have a correspondence with angels, the spirits of the saints, and their departed friends. That they speak with divers kinds of tongues in their public assemblies. That it is lawful to practise vocal music, with dancing, in the Christian churches, if it be practised in praising the Lord. That their church is come, out of the order of natural generation, to be as Christ was; and those who have wives, as though they had none. That by these means heaven begins upon earth, and they thereby lose their earthly and sensual relation to Adam the first, and come to be transparent in their ideas, in the bright and heavenly visions of God. That some of their people are of the number of the one hundred and forty-four thousand who were redeemed from the earth, and were not defiled with women. That the word everlasting, when applied to the punishment of the wicked, means only a limited period, except in the case of those who fall from *their* church; and that for such there is no forgiveness, either in this world, or that which is to come. That it is unlawful to swear, game, or use compliments; and that water-baptism and the Lord's supper are abolished. That Adam's sin is not imputed to his posterity; and that the doctrines of election and reprobation are to be rejected."

The discipline of this denomination is founded on the supposed perfection of their leaders. The Mother, or the Elect Lady, it is said, obeys God through Christ. European elders obey her: American labourers and common people obey them; while confession is made of every secret thing, from the oldest to the youngest. The people are taught, that they are seen through and through, in the gospel glass of perfection, by their teachers, who behold the state of the dead, and innumerable worlds of good and evil spirits.

These people are generally instructed to be very industrious, and to bring in, according to their ability, to keep up the meeting. They vary in their exercises. Their heavy dancing, as it is called, is performed by a perpetual springing from the house-floor, about four inches up and down, both in the men's and women's apartment, moving about with extraordinary transport; singing, sometimes one at a time, sometimes more, making a perfect charm.

This elevation affects the nerves, so that they have intervals of shuddering, as if they were in a strong fit of the ague. They sometimes clap hands, and leap so as to strike the joists above their heads. They throw off their outside garments in these exercises, and exhaust their strength very cheerfully this way. Their chief speaker often calls for attention, when they all stop and listen to his harangue, and then fall to dancing again. They assert, that their dancing is the token of the great joy and happiness of the *New Jerusalem state*, and denotes their victory over sin. One of the postures which increases among them is turning round very swiftly for an hour or two. This, they say, is to show the great power of God. They sometimes fall on their knees, and make a sound like the roaring of water, in groans and cries, as they say, for the wicked world who persecute them.

Jews are not numerous in the United States. They have synagogues at Savannah, Charlestown in South Carolina, Philadelphia, New York, and Newport. Besides those who reside at these places, there are others scattered in different towns in the United States.

The Jews in Charlestown, among other peculiarities in burying their dead, have these:—After the funeral-dirge is sung, and just before the corpse is deposited in the grave, the coffin is opened, and a small bag of earth, taken from the grave, is carefully put under the head of the deceased; then some powder, said to be earth brought

from Jerusalem, and carefully kept for this purpose, is taken and put upon the eyes of the corpse, in token of their remembrance of the Holy Land, and of their expectations of returning thither in God's appointed time.

Superstitious Prejudices.] It will not appear surprising that the people of the United States should be, at least, as credulous as those of other countries. *Fortune-tellers*, of both sexes, abound in all the country parts, and practise their arts with impunity; while persons of every rank in society implicitly become their dupes. Mr. Parkinson mentions that a female fortune-teller, being brought before the judge for her manner of getting her living, and being asked how she dared to deceive the people, said she did not deceive them; that, to convince him, she would tell him what he had had for breakfast that morning, and the name of each person in company; which she did, to the astonishment of the judge and the whole court: this was not easy to guess; for it is usual to have fish, flesh of different kinds, cold and hot, &c. Being asked by one of the counsellors, how she had got her money, and how she had built so many houses, she said, by telling lies, as he did. This woman continues to live in the same manner, and laughs at the court. All these insults naturally arise from the want of a proper provision for the judges, sufficient to give them dignity and power to enforce the laws. The preceding story, says Mr. P., was told one day where I was, and the judge was in company: I laughed at what was said; and a gentleman laid me a bottle of wine, that she would tell me my name, if I went into her house. I did not think that a fair trial of her conjuring, as I frequently was in Baltimore; therefore, she might know me. But I went to the house where she resided, jumped off my horse, and entered her apartment without any one apprising her of my intention. She could not tell my name; said she was neither witch nor wizard, but often guessed very well; that, if she did not succeed in guessing, she sometimes desired the person who had lost a horse, a cow, or any other property, to come again at an appointed time, and she would play the deuce with the holder of the stolen goods, if they were not delivered. If that happened, she then wrote a charm, which was a strange bugbear or fright to the people, especially to the negroes. By some deception she has surprised very genteel people. The reason why this was proposed to me was, that, a short time before this, Mrs. Latimer, the lady of a merchant, (and, like myself, an unbeliever,) to try Betty Fisher's conjuring, applied to her to have her fortune told, passing herself on the woman as an unmarried young lady. The fortune-teller said she was married, told the number and names of her children, as well as her own, &c.

"The reason that these impositions and insults are borne from people of such low description is, in part, the judges' fault; not from any want of sense, but it is the equality which America first set out with,—that all men are alike, except they steal, murder, or commit an act of treason. There are no other things thought offensive to the subject's right, or worthy of punishment; and, even then, the courts are fearful to punish; or, at least, they seem to be so.

"I have every reason to think, that a conjuror or fortune-teller has more influence over the people given to vice in America, than either courts of justice or places of worship, and acts as a more powerful incentive to moral rectitude.

"Amidst a variety of reports, equally ridiculous, respecting Betty Fisher, of Baltimore, a belief prevails, that she possesses the extraordinary power of torturing the offender neglecting to restore stolen goods to the lawful owner; so that the thief cannot sleep by night, and that something comes into his room, and draws off the bedclothes, with many tales of a similar kind. I have to thank her, however, for her name and cunning. I had an Englishman who worked with me, formerly a convict: he frequently stole small things from me; but I dared not to mention it, because he would be offended, and, of consequence, leave me. Therefore, I put up with it: at that time I did not know of Betty Fisher, or I readily could have stopped this man from these thefts. As a proof:—Having hired several Englishmen, there was one of them who had some very good wearing-apparel: one evening he had left a coat in the barn, for they slept there. During the time he was at supper the coat was gone. Knowing the convict's pilfering disposition, I desired the owner of the coat to say, when the men were all together, and I present, that I had told him of a conjuror at Baltimore, and that he would go to her the next day, to know who had got his coat. He did as I had directed him; the coat was brought to the barn the next morning, and put into the same place it was taken from.

"Some time after, this man, in the night, stole a pig from me. I went to the barn where this man was thrashing, and said, 'John, they tell me there is a pig stolen.' 'Yes, sir,' said John; 'and as you are going from the place, you must take care; or there are such a set of rascals in this country, they will steal every thing you have.' 'O,' said I, 'I will go to Betty Fisher to-day, and she will tell me the thief.'

"But, behold! without my going to Betty, the pig was at my house before I returned. My family perceived the flail not to be going; and the man had slipped out of the barn, to fetch the pig: so that I have just cause to say, that a conjuror is before all the laws in America to give a man his right; for all their law would not have brought back my pig; but the conjuror effected it without trouble. It is evident, that such criminals as I have described stand in greater awe of the devil than of the Al-

mighty; and, if they pray to or worship either, it is, in effect, the former; since the woman, as I have already mentioned, assures them the devil will torment them: and I doubt not its being so; but it is their own devil.

"The credulity of many individuals in other occurrences appeared to me equally surprising. I had two joiners at work at Orange-hill, when there came a man into the place where they were working, who informed them the place was unhealthy, on account of the badness of the water there; for a horse had been drowned in the well from which he got the water that they drank the day following. These men went to the well to draw up water; when they found in the bucket some hair, the mane of a horse; and immediately supposing that it was the hair of the horse that was drowned, they were taken sick, and vomited to a very great degree: one of them was so ill, that he was carried home in a cart; the other walked thither with some difficulty, and remained indisposed for several days.

"The case was, there had been a horse drowned; but it was in a well that had been filled up, fifteen yards from the other: the hair which they discovered had been taken from a horse of mine, and accidentally blown into the well. Now, from this and other events of the same nature, I do not wonder at the conjurors having that persuasive power over thieves."

Government.] In order to afford a correct view of the system of government adopted in the United States, it will be necessary to observe, that the articles of the confederation, which were entered into and ratified by congress, in the year 1778, were soon found inadequate to the production of a permanent constitution, which required a firm and executive power. Accordingly, after various amendments had been submitted from the different states, a new form was adopted in the year 1789, by which the government was vested in a president and two councils. The president is chosen for the term of four years. The senate, or superior council, consist of two senators from each state, chosen every six years; the house of representatives is elected every second year, and is not to contain more than two hundred members, each representing, according to the amount of the population, from thirty-three to fifty thousand inhabitants. The legislative power is vested in the two councils; while the executive is lodged with the president; and a vice-president is elected to supply his place on any emergency. The president commands the army and navy, and may pardon offences, except in case of impeachment; he also concludes treaties, with the consent of two-thirds of the senators, who are also to advise in the appointments of ambassadors, &c. Regulations are likewise formed to prevent any distinct state from assuming offices which belong to the community, such as forming treaties, issuing letters of marque, and similar acts of independence, which might endanger the constitution. The judicial power is lodged in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may ordain, the judges holding their offices during their good behaviour. Each province has also its peculiar government, consisting commonly of a senate and house of representatives, who are chosen annually, which causes continually electioneering cabals.

It is worthy of remark, that this system of government has always been subjected to the caprices and abuse of political intriguers, particularly those who espoused the principles of the French revolution. The consequence has been, that in the senate and the house of representatives the most furious and disgraceful quarrels have frequently taken place. To such extent, indeed, have the political cabals within them been carried, that some of the members, who have differed on trifling subjects, have actually assaulted each other with the poker and tongs belonging to the fire-place of the assembly; as will appear from a reference to any file of the Courier, the Sun, or the True Briton, London newspapers, for the months of April and May, 1797.

At present, the chief parties are the Federalists and Anti-federalists. The former have been accused of wishing to establish a monarchy and an hereditary aristocracy; while the latter have been suspected of inclining too much towards a speculative democracy. Imlay says, that the Federalists introduced the present government, while the Anti-federalists do not, like the French, wish to abolish the detached government of each state, but are merely so termed as oppositionists, and thence more democratic than the former. The chief real division of sentiments seems to be between the commercial men and the farmers; the former being bound to England by the ties of interest, while the latter breathe a greater spirit of independence, though they have no substantial property to boast of.

Laws.] For the following observations on the laws of this country we are indebted to Dr. Barton:

"The law of the United States is of a complex character; relating, first, to objects of state jurisdiction; and, secondly, to objects of federal jurisdiction.

"The objects of *state jurisdiction* comprehend every case which is not exclusively of federal jurisdiction, or not expressly prohibited by the federal constitution. The law affecting these objects is either written or unwritten. The *written* law of every state is composed of the constitution of the United States, acts of congress, and treaties; and of the constitution of the state, and the acts of the state-legislature. The *unwritten* law of every state is composed of so much of the common law of England, in criminal and civil cases, as was applicable to the circumstances of the state when it was first settled; and of the customs and usages of the people, sanctioned by time, or recognised

by the courts of law. The statute-law of England, prior to the American revolution, has force in the respective states only under particular circumstances: First, Where the statute was enacted previously to the settlement of the colony, and was suitable to the colonial situation and pursuits of the settlers. Secondly, Where the provisions of the statute were extended, by its own words, to the colonies. Thirdly, Where the colonial legislature has adopted in general terms, or re-enacted in detail, the English statute. Fourthly, Where the courts of law have recognised and enforced a convenient practice, originating in the presumption that a statute had been extended, and was in operation in the colony. The evidence of the law, prior to the American revolution, was the same as in England; but, subsequent to that epoch, the reports and elementary works of English jurists are cited in the American courts; not by way of authority, but by way of analogy and illustration. It will readily occur to the reader, that, on the same principle which recognises the law of nations, the law of merchants, the civil law, and the canon law, as a part of the common law of England, those codes are also recognised, in the system of American jurisprudence, as affording the rules of decision upon the subjects to which they respectively apply.

"The law of the several states is administered, as in England, through the medium of judicial and ministerial officers, acting collectively as courts, or individually as magistrates. The judicial officers are judges, justices of the peace, registrars of wills, or other similar officers, exercising a jurisdiction of an ecclesiastical nature, for the probate of wills, and issuing letters of administration. The ministerial officers are sheriffs, coroners, &c. &c. In each state, generally speaking, there are a court of errors and appeals, a supreme court, county courts of common pleas, and quarter sessions, an orphan's court, and a register's court. And, in almost every state, the justices of the peace have individually a limited cognizance of civil suits, besides the authority common to all judicial officers in criminal matters.

"The objects of *federal jurisdiction* are confined to the cases expressly delegated or contemplated by the constitution of the United States; and all these objects, both as to civil and criminal matters, are of a national character. It follows, from this view of the subject, that the law of the United States consists entirely of *written law;* viz. of the constitution of the United States, the acts of congress, and treaties. It is true that, in criminal as well as in civil cases, congress, in order to effectuate the powers expressly delegated to the federal government, may adopt the unwritten law of any individual state of the union, of England, of France, or of any other nation; but still it is only by force of the written law of the United States that the adoption can be accomplished. In the specified *civil cases*, the constitution gives to the federal courts sometimes original, and sometimes appellatory, jurisdiction; sometimes concurrent with the state courts, and sometimes exclusive: and by an act of congress, made to effectuate the judicial powers of the union, it is expressly provided, that 'the laws of the several states shall be regarded as rules of decision, in trials at common law, in the courts of the United States.' As the laws of the several states consist of the unwritten law, as well as of the written law, this provision gives, of course, a common law jurisdiction, in civil cases, to the federal courts; but, in *criminal cases*, no such general provision exists. The penal code of the United States rests, therefore, upon the constitution, and the several acts of congress, for defining and punishing crimes and offences: and if the jurisdiction of the federal courts, in criminal matters, is confined to the penal code of the United States, it has been anxiously asked, How it can embrace crimes and offences at common law? The question has generated a diversity of opinion; and even the judges of the supreme court of the United States have pronounced contrary decisions upon it. The federal courts having jurisdiction of the subject, are governed, according to its nature, by the laws of the United States, or of the individual states, by the law of nations, the law of merchants, and by the civil and canon law.

"The law of the United States is administered, through the medium of federal courts and officers, similar to those of the individual states, admitting, in some instances, the auxiliary aid of the state-courts and magistrates. The supreme court of the United States consists of a chief justice and five associate judges, and sits at the seat of the national government. The United States are divided into five circuits, each circuit composed of a specified number of districts, or states; and a circuit court, held by a judge of the supreme court, and the district judge of the proper state, sits twice a year in each district. Each state is erected into a federal district, in which a court is held four times a year by the district judge. Besides an attorney-general for the union, the United States appoint an attorney and a marshal, who has all the powers of a sheriff, for each district."

Population.] The population of these extensive territories was estimated, by order of congress, in 1790, and found to be three millions nine hundred and thirty thousand, exclusive of the inhabitants north-west of the Ohio, supposed to be twenty thousand. By the return of the population of the United States, printed at Washington, in the year 1802, the total was five millions one hundred and seventy-two thousand three hundred and twelve, the slaves being included, whose number was eight hundred and seventy-five thousand six hundred and twenty-six.

Army.] A small military force is kept, in time of peace,

for the sake of supporting public order. But a standing army is deemed incompatible with the republican government; and the strength of the state is computed from the militia, which is reckoned by Morse at seven hundred thousand.

The navy of the United States was, till recently, very inconsiderable; but, during the last war, a number of vessels have been built; and, as Mr. Pinkerton observes, "it is probable that, in the course of a century or two, the American fleet will rival any in Europe."

Revenue.] The revenue of these provinces is principally derived from the duties on imports and tonnage; the taxation being comparatively small. Morse informs us that the revenue, in 1789, amounted to two millions sixty-nine thousand and seventy-five dollars, while the expence in the year was seven hundred and forty thousand two hundred and thirty-two dollars. From the same authority it appeared that, in 1792, the domestic debt of the United States amounted to more than thirty-one millions of dollars, and the foreign debt to about twelve millions of dollars. The common interest of the American funds is six per cent.

According to the report of Mr. Gallatin, secretary of the treasury, published in 1803, the revenue of 1802, arising from the duties, exceeded ten millions one hundred thousand dollars, and that from the sale of public lands, four hundred thousand. The annual expences were nine millions eight hundred thousand dollars, of which seven millions three hundred thousand were appropriated to the payment of principal and interest of the public debt, and two millions five hundred thousand to the expences of government, &c. About ten millions of the public debt had then been discharged. The price of land was about two dollars per acre: but he should, in justice to the emigrants, have added what was the expence of clearing it. The expences of government, and the interest of the national debt, require about seven millions four hundred thousand dollars; the remaining sum is to go towards the extinction of the national debt.

It appears that the revenue of the United States, in 1805, amounted to about twelve millions and a half of dollars.

Inland Navigation.] On this subject, Dr. Barton observes, "Considerable progress has already been made in opening canals for inland navigation, though the numerous great rivers have been found sufficient for the purposes of general and extensive intercourse. Indeed, no country in the world can boast of superior means of inland commerce by the great river Mississippi, and many other navigable streams, not to mention the lakes of prodigious extent. In Pennsylvania several canals have been projected, but most of them have been laid aside. A very useful one, however, has been completed in this state: this is the Connewaga Canal, by which the inconveniences of the falls of that name in the Susquehana are avoided. An important canal upon the Potowmac River has also been completed. The Santee Canal, in South Carolina, is thought to be equal to any work of this kind within the United States. It was begun in 1792, and completed in 1800, at the expence of not less than one hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. It is thirty-five feet wide at the top, sloping down to a width of twenty feet at the bottom, and is calculated to contain a depth of four feet water, capable of passing boats of twenty-two tons. Many other canals are contemplated in different parts of the union, particularly one between the great bays of Chesapeak and Delaware. Within a few years considerable improvements have been made in the roads, particularly in Pennsylvania, where excellent turnpikes, little inferior to many of those in Britain, have been completed. Many bridges have also been erected, some of them, particularly in the New England States, of great extent. A fine bridge was erected in 1804 over the River Schuylkill, near Philadelphia. In short, improvements of every kind are rapidly advancing in almost every part of the United States.

Manufactures.] The chief manufactures of the United States are tanned leather and dressed skins; various works in iron and in wood; with several articles of machinery and husbandry. Cables, sail-cloth, cordage, twine, packthread, bricks, tiles, and pottery; paper, hats, sugars, snuff, gunpowder, with utensils in copper, brass, and tin; clocks and mathematical machines, and carriages. The domestic manufactures, in coarse cloths, serges, flannels, cotton and linen goods of several sorts, not only suffice for the families, but are sometimes sold, and even exported; and in most districts a great part of the dress of the inhabitants is the product of domestic industry. The number of persons to whom patents have been issued for inventions and improvements, as appears from the report, February, 1805, exceed six hundred.

Mr. Janson, in his interesting work, called the "Stranger in America." makes the following observations on this subject:—

"*M*[illegible]factures, the great source of national wealth, are [illegible] a low ebb in the United States. The amazing tracts of uncultivated land draw the attention even of mechanics. At Boston, Newhaven, and other places, some Englishmen lost their capitals by endeavouring to establish cotton manufactories. The high price of labour absorbed every contemplated profit; and the fickleness of the people, and their partiality for European goods, would be great impediments to the sale of an article known to be of home-manufacture. Thus the country girls, who weave beautiful cottons, of various colours and patterns, and extremely durable, exchange the produce of their labour for flimsy Scotch calicoes; giving, to use their own terms,

'yard for yard.' Though this home-wove cotton will outwear three or four garments made of that which they eagerly take in exchange, yet the latter is British, consequently fashionable; and the American mountain girls, like the belles of St. James's, study the fashions of the day. Cordage and sail-cloth are brought to great perfection; but the manufacture which thrives best is that of nails, which they cut of all sizes, and to considerable profit: in this branch they will soon be able to supply every part of the union. They also excel in a certain branch, of which Americans are great consumers; I mean, playing cards, which they make in Boston in great quantities, counterfeiting the English devices and wrappers with great exactness. Some of these are sold for an English shilling per pack. In Boston there is another card manufactory, and for a very different use. Here are made wool-cards, the teeth of which are constructed with a new and ingenious piece of mechanism; but as gamblers are more numerous than manufacturers, the playing-card makers have the advantage.

"In Philadelphia and the adjacent towns, a considerable quantity of stockings are made, and other small manufactures carried on; but for want of a regular demand, the manufacturers are obliged to attend the markets twice a week. Thus they lose one-third of their time in endeavouring to sell what they make in the other two-thirds. This is not the greatest hardship under which they labour: the contempt shewn to domestic manufactures generally prevents the manufacturer from disposing of his commodities in the market, which obliges him to make great sacrifices. Thus this industrious part of the community too often comes to poverty and distress.

"Wines, of a tolerable quality, have been made by French settlers on the Ohio, from various wild grapes, particularly the black and fox kinds, which grow spontaneously in those districts. Maple-sugar is prepared in the northern and middle states, and is by many deemed equal to that from the cane."

Dr. Barton observes, "that some of the manufactures of the United States may be considered as having advanced to a mature state; and, in regard to these, the ancient monopoly of Great Britain is at an end. Nor does the rivalship of her fabrics, nor those of other foreign nations, prevent a constant and increasing supply from American industry and skill. Foreign manufacturers, settled in the United States, daily enlarge that supply. Passing by every species of meal, boards, staves, shingles, and other simple productions of labour and mechanism, it may be fairly stated, that the United States can supply themselves with all, or much, of the following manufactures and fabrics:--Every quality of refined sugar, pot and pearl ashes, malt-liquors, distilled spirits from fruit, grain, and molasses; starch, wafers, glue, soap, candles, shoes, boots, gloves; fine, common, and coarse hats; wrought silver and gold, including much plated ware; carriages for pleasure and for draught, ships and boats, coopers' wares of every kind, sadlery, harness, and trunks; every kind of cabinet-ware, lead, brass, pewter, and copper-wares, and those of tin and tin plated; many printed books, blank books, book-bindings, much paper-hanging and sheathing, printing and writing paper; cables, cordage, twine, and packthread; gunpowder, snuff, and manufactured tobacco; bricks, tiles, pottery, some slate, wrought marble and stones for buildings; coarse manufactures, for cotton, linen, and wool, and some middling, and a few of fine qualities; some hosiery; household furniture, of various qualities and descriptions; a considerable quantity and variety of engravings; carved and gilt works; bolts, spikes, and many nails; chemical and galenical preparations; cannon, muskets, rifles, pistols, bayonets, swords, clocks, and many watches, &c. &c. After repeated estimates, in various forms, and on different principles, it is held, by persons of information and experience, that the value of all the commodities manufactured in the United States, (those from meal and wood not included,) is considerably more than that of all the exported American products and manufactures. The progress of this important branch of the national industry is equal to every reasonable expectation. With respect to the finer manufactures, many of them are in their infancy, and many of them are not yet commenced. Not a few will probably be long delayed. Those branches, however, which depend on labour-saving machinery, have lately attracted the utmost regard, and will doubtless advance with rapidity within a few years. No country values more than America all the interesting branches of household manufactures; and as the females weave in several of the states, and not the men, few countries pursue family manufactures to so great an extent. The preparation of the manufactures of the dairy, which may be included under this head, has wonderfully increased within a few years. The butter, for example, exported in the year 1792, was only eleven thousand seven hundred and sixty-one firkins, weighing less than seven hundred thousand pounds; and the cheese, in the same year, one hundred and twenty-five thousand nine hundred and twenty-five pounds. In 1802, the butter was two millions three hundred and sixty-one thousand five hundred and seventy-six pounds; and the cheese was one million three hundred and thirty-two thousand two hundred and twenty-four pounds, although the consumption of the latter is annually increasing. It is, upon the whole, manifest, that the acquisition of foreign artists, the ingenuity of native Americans, the discovery of chemical secrets, the introduction of labour-saving machinery, and, above all, the vast abundance, and, perhaps, the redundancy of cotton-wool, must annually in-

crease the importance of American manufactures. The exportation, within seven years, has increased from a few hundred thousand pounds weight to thirty millions in a single year. Cotton-wool every where in America presents the strongest temptations to the thrifty housewife and to the regular manufacturer."

Commerce.] The chief commerce of the United States is directed to British ports, though France has had a considerable share; and some trade is still carried on with Spain, Portugal, Holland, and the Baltic: that with the East-Indies and Africa is inconsiderable.

On the subject of imports into the United States, Dr. Barton has made the following observations:

"The American importation of manufactures, from the British dominions in Europe and Asia, was little less than twenty-seven millions of dollars in the year 1802; and the imported manufactures from all other countries were probably about ten millions of dollars. The wines, teas, salt, distilled spirits, and other unmanufactured produce, from places not British, amounted probably to thirty millions of dollars; and the like unmanufactured articles from the British dominions were probably worth three millions of dollars."

The following summary of the value of the exports from each state during the year 1806, is extracted from the New-York Gazette, of the 13th of March, 1807:—

	Domestic.	*Foreign.*
New Hampshire	411,379	313,884
Vermont	91,739	102,036
Massachusetts	6,621,696	14,577,547
Rhode Island	949,336	1,142,499
Connecticut	1,522,750	193,078
New York	8,053,076	13,709,769
New Jersey	26,504	7,363
Pennsylvania	3,765,313	13,809,389
Delaware	125,787	374,319
Maryland	3,661,131	10,919,774
District of Columbia	1,091,760	154,386
Virginia	4,626,687	428,709
North Carolina	786,029	3,576
South Carolina	6,797,064	2,946,718
Georgia	82,764	.....
Ohio	62,318	.....
Territory of the United States	2,578,401	1,530,182
Total	41,253,734	60,213,229
George-Town	224,435	29,928
Alexandria	867,325	124,468
	1,091,760	154,396
Michigan	221,260	.....
New Orleans	2,357,141	1,530,182
	2,578,401	1,530,182

TOTALS.

New Hampshire	725,263
Vermont	193,775
Massachusetts	21,199,243
Rhode Island	2,091,835
Connecticut	1,715,828
New York	21,762,845
New Jersey	33,867
Pennsylvania	17,574,702
Delaware	500,106
Maryland	14,580,905
District of Columbia	1,246,146
Virginia	5,055,396
North Carolina	789,605
South Carolina	9,743,782
Georgia	82,764
Ohio	62,318
Territory of the United States	4,108,583
Total	101,466,963

No returns had been received from the district of Savannah, in Georgia, at the date of this account.

Coins, &c.] The coinage of the United States consists of eagles in gold, with a half and quarter, the eagle being valued at ten dollars, or two pounds five shillings sterling; thus exceeding by about one quarter the golden mohur of Hindoostan. In silver, besides the dollar, with the half and quarter, there are dismes, or tenths of a dollar, worth nearly sixpence English, and half dismes, or twentieths. The cent in copper is equal to the hundredth part of a dollar, or little more than the English halfpenny; while the half cent nearly corresponds with the farthing.

From the report of the director of the mint, presented in January, 1805, it appears that the silver coined greatly exceeded that of 1803, while the gold was equal. The coinage of copper had diminished, on account of the high price of that metal in Europe. The total amount of the coinage, in 1804, was as follows:—

Gold, forty-three thousand five hundred and ninety-seven eagles, half eagles, and quarters.

Silver, one hundred and ninety-one thousand and ninety-two pieces; namely, dollars, half and quarter, and dismes.

Copper, one million eight hundred and twelve thousand one hundred and fifty-nine cents and half cents. The total value being three hundred and seventy-one thousand eight hundred and twenty-seven dollars.

It may be necessary to add, that the dollar bears a different value in various parts of the United States. In Pennsylvania it is equal to seven shillings and sixpence; and the eighth part of it is, in consequence, called an elevenpenny bit. In New England and Virginia it is six shillings; and in South Carolina the currency is sterling.

Language and Literature.] The English language has remained in constant use in the United States, and is generally spoken with considerable purity, though some medical and political writers occasionally make use of peculiar phrases and idioms, so that some have supposed that the dialect may in time become as different as the Portuguese is from the Spanish. But the best writers follow the classical models of their British ancestors.

Within the last sixty years, many authors of considerable merit have arisen in the United States. Literary academies publish their transactions; and magazines and newspapers contribute to the diffusion of useful knowledge, though the latter are devoted almost entirely to the purposes of commerce and faction; the small portions of them which are not filled with advertisements, containing the most virulent abuse, scarcely a paragraph of which, if published in England, but would be deemed a libel. In the northern provinces, called New England, some schools are established, and the Catholics have a college in Maryland.

Universities, &c.] Harward University, in the province of Massachusetts, founded in 1638, is the most ancient as well as the chief, literary establishment in North-America. Yale College, in Connecticut, was founded in 1700, but the buildings only began to be erected at New Haven in 1717. It was rebuilt in 1750, and contains about one hundred and thirty students. The college of William and Mary, in Virginia, was built about the same time, and the students chiefly devote their attention to the law.

A college was founded in New York, by an act of the British parliament, in 1754, and is now called Columbia College. It is frequented by upwards of one hundred students. The college in Prince Town, in New Jersey, called Nassau Hall, was founded about the year 1738, and enlarged in 1747. The income is about nine hundred pounds a year, of which two hundred pounds are produced from land and public securities, while the remainder is paid by the students. The college is a large and handsome building, and stands in a pleasant and healthy situation.

Dartmouth College, in New Hampshire, was founded in 1769, for the instruction of the Indians, but has since become a place of education for the youth of the northern provinces.

There are several literary societies in Pennsylvania, particularly the American Philosophical Society, which originated in 1769, and published, in 1771 and 1786, two volumes of their transactions. The university of Pennsylvania was founded at Philadelphia during the war; and, having since been united with the college, has become a respectable seat of learning. There are also Dickenson College and Franklin College, in the same province.

In 1782, Washington College was founded at Chester Town, in Maryland. The university of Georgia, at Louisville, is a modern foundation, and possesses funds to the amount of fifty thousand acres of land. The foundation did not take place till 1801, though Dr. Morse says, the charter was granted in 1785. Some other states have colleges, or considerable academies.

Jefferson College, so named after the president, is a new foundation in the Mississippi territory.

In the winter of 1803, an academy of arts was founded at New York. The design is said to have originated with Mr. Livingston, formerly ambassador at Paris, and his brother was the first president. It has eight directors, elected by the subscribers, of whom there are about one hundred, each paying annually fifty dollars. The building, which contains the collection of statues and paintings, was formerly a circus, and now contains a valuable series of casts of admired ancient figures. The encouragement given to the students is similar to that of our own academy. In 1805, another academy of a similar nature was established at Philadelphia.

Cities.] The cities of the United States must be thus arranged, with respect to their size and importance:—1, Philadelphia; 2, New York; 3, Boston; 4, Baltimore; 5, Charlestown; but in respect to commerce, New York precedes Philadelphia, and Baltimore is considered to rank beneath Charlestown. There is, however, an embryo city, founded in honour of General Washington, and intended to rival all the rest; though it is evident it cannot equal, for a vast period of time, the commercial importance of New York and Philadelphia. The following account of it has appeared in the last edition of Morse's publication.

WASHINGTON, the metropolis of the United States, is situate at the junction of the rivers Patowmak and the eastern branches, in thirty-eight degrees fifty-three minutes of north latitude, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by none in America; for although the land in general appears level, yet, by gentle and gradual swellings, a variety of elegant prospects is produced, and a sufficient descent formed for conveying off the water occasioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent springs; and, by digging wells, water of the best quality is obtained. Besides, the never-failing streams that now run through that territory are also collected for the use of the city.

The eastern branch is one of the safest and most com

modious harbours in America, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies close along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patowmak, although only navigable for small craft, for a considerable distance from its banks next to the city, (excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers,) affords a capacious summer-harbour; as an immense number of ships may ride in the great channel opposite to, and below, the city.

The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post-road, equi-distant from the northern and southern extremities of the Union, and nearly so from the Atlantic and Pittsburgh, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the richest, and commanding the most extensive internal resources of any in America. It had, therefore, many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent seat of the general government.

The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon those of the best-planned cities in the world, combining, in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air. The positions for the different public edifices, and for the several squares, and areas of different shapes, as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects, and, from their situation, susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The capitol is situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The president's house stands on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water-prospect, together with a commanding view of the capitol, and of the most material parts of the city. Lines or avenues of direct communication have been devised, to connect the most distant and important objects. These transverse avenues, or diagonal streets, are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience; and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and south lines, intersected by others running due east and west, make the distribution of the city into streets, squares, &c.; and those lines have been so combined as to meet at certain given points with the divergent avenues, so as to form, on the spaces first determined, the different squares or areas. The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to public places, are from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and sixty feet wide, and conveniently divided into footways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages. The other streets are from ninety to one hundred and ten feet wide.

In order to execute this plan, Mr. Mellicott drew a meridional line, by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the capitol. This line he crossed by another, running due east and west, which passes through the same area. These lines were accurately measured, and made the bases on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.

PHILADELPHIA was originally designed, in 1683, by William Penn, the first proprietor and founder of the colony called Pennsylvania. Its form is an oblong square, extending about two miles east and west, on the western bank of the Delaware. The city is neatly built, the chief streets being one hundred feet in breadth, paved with pebbles, and the foot-paths with brick. They are mostly in a straight line, a form by no means picturesque; but the builders have only studied convenience, and the obtaining of a short access from one part to another. The charter of incorporation, granted by Penn, in 1701, was copied from that of Bristol in England; but the general assembly of the province, in 1789, formed a plan more congenial to their democratic sentiments; and the government of the city, the prisons, &c. may now be regarded as surpassing any in the world. There are many humane institutions, and a large public library in this city; but one street, called Water-street, always remains a source of filth and contagion, though it was in this street that the dreadful yellow fever first appeared in 1793. At present the Quakers do not exceed one-fourth part of the inhabitants, and their aversion to the elegancies and luxuries of life is diminishing daily. Handsome equipages are often seen in the streets of Philadelphia, and the theatre is much frequented. The population consists of about fifty thousand individuals.

NEW YORK, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on a promontory at the mouth of Hudson River, and extends about two miles in length, and four in circumference. It was greatly injured during the war, but has since been enlarged and improved. The chief edifice is the Federal Hall, a neat building of Grecian architecture, in which Washington was installed president of the United States. New York is considered, in commerce, as the chief city in North-America, the harbour being capable of admitting ships of any burden. It is also the gayest city, and is allowed to exceed Charlestown, in South Carolina, though the latter is considered a rival in hospitality; but, in public institutions for the promotion of education, the arts, sciences, &c. it is very deficient. The population is said to equal that of Philadelphia.

New York is one of the most ancient cities of North-America, and is certainly the finest, both for its situation and its buildings. It is to its superiority of situation that

this city owes the preference, which most strangers who visit the United States give it. Placed at the entrance of two rivers, in which the largest ships can navigate at all seasons of the year, it has a great advantage over the other American ports. The number of ships of all burthens, with which these rivers are filled, give to a traveller the most enlarged ideas of the activity and industry of the inhabitants. The houses, formerly built of wood, have been replaced by others of stone or brick; and the apartments are furnished with every thing that is agreeable and useful.

The streets are broad, and furnished with footways, which are regularly lighted at night. The markets are well provided, and remarkable both for their regulation and neatness. The fish-market is particularly so, for the quality and diversity both of sea and river fish, which are sold at a cheap rate.

The custom-house, the court of justice, the state-prison, and the poor-houses, are superb edifices. The guild-hall, which was small, and in a bad situation, has been rebuilt on a more magnificent plan, in a better quarter of the town.

New York has two public promenades, the one in the centre of the city, the other at the point of union of the two rivers. Both, however, are little frequented. The merchants seek recreation in the country on Sundays; and the American ladies prefer walking in the principal street, whose broad and commodious footways are ornamented with beautiful trees, and where they enjoy the pleasure of beholding the elegant shops which line it.

Most of the merchants or proprietors of vessels have docks, in which their ships are sheltered from the tide and the winds. These docks, which are of great advantage to commerce, are very prejudicial to the health of the city. They are in the greatest number on the river towards the east, which is the most mercantile, and, at the same time, the most insalubrious situation.

Boston, the capital of the province of Massachusetts, and of all those northern provinces called New England, was regarded by Mr. Burke as the chief city in North-America; and he says that, from Christmas 1747 to Christmas 1748, five hundred vessels cleared from this port only, for foreign trade, and four hundred and thirty were entered inwards; not to mention coasting and fishing vessels, supposed to equal the others in numbers. He considers the people of New England as the Dutch of America, being carriers for all the colonies of North-America and the West-Indies. The trade of Boston has, however, since declined. This city is supposed to contain about twenty thousand inhabitants. The harbour is excellent, and sufficiently capacious to receive five hundred ships at anchor; with a narrow entrance, commanded by a castle. There is a pier, about five hundred yards in length, and eighty feet wide; and the harbour is interspersed with about forty islands, which produce excellent grain and pasturage. This city suffered considerably by the war, but it has been improved, and the public buildings are tolerably elegant. It does not exceed two miles in length, being of a circular form; and on the west is the mall, planted with rows of trees.

Here are sixteen edifices for public worship; of which nine are for Congregationalists, three for Episcopalians, two for Baptists, one for Quakers, and one for Independents. The other public structures are the state-house, Faneuil-hall, an alms-house, a work-house, and a bridewell. That building which was formerly the governor's house, is now occupied, in its several apartments, by the council, the treasurer, and the secretary. The public granary is converted into a store, and the linen manufactory-house is now occupied by the bank.

The principal bridge in this, or in any of the United States, is that which was built over Charles River, between Boston and Charlestown, in the year 1786. This structure is fifteen hundred and three feet in length, being built on seventy-five piers, and having a draw of thirty feet in width. The abutment at Boston to the old landing is forty-five feet and a half, and that at Charlestown from the old landing is a hundred feet.

Each pier consists of seven piles of oak-timber, united by a cap-piece, strong braces, and girts; driven into the bed of the river, and secured by a single pile on each side, driven obliquely to a solid bottom. The piers are also connected to each other by large string-pieces, covered with four-inch plank. The bridge has a gradual rise from each end, so as to be two feet higher in the middle than at the extremities: it is about forty-three feet in width, and on each side is a passage six feet wide, railed in, for the safety of foot-passengers. Forty elegant lamps are erected at a suitable distance from each other, to illuminate it when necessary.

The draw is constructed on a capital plan: the machinery is very simple, and it requires the strength of two men only in raising it. The floor on the bridge, at the highest tides, is four feet above the water, which generally rises about twelve or fourteen feet.

"This bridge," says Dr. Morse, "was completed in thirteen months; and, while it exhibits the greatest effect of private enterprize within the United States, it is a pleasing proof how certainly objects of magnitude may be attained by spirited exertions."

Annapolis is the capital of Maryland, and the wealthiest town of its size in America. It is situated at the mouth of Severn River, thirty miles south of Baltimore, and the houses are, for the most part, very large and elegant. The design of those who planned the city was to have the whole in form of a circle, with the streets like

radii, beginning at the centre where the state-house stands, and thence diverging in every direction: the principal part of the buildings are arranged agreeably to this plan. The state-house is the noblest edifice of the kind in America.

RICHMOND, the seat of government in Virginia, stands on the north side of James River, and contains about three hundred houses; part of which are built upon the margin of the river, and the rest upon a hill, which commands an extensive prospect of the circumjacent country. Here a large and elegant state-house has been recently erected; and, in the lower part of the town, a handsome bridge, constructed on boats, has been thrown across James River.

Mount Vernon, the seat of the late General Washington, is situated on the Virginia bank of the Patowmak, where it is nearly two miles wide, and about two hundred and eighty miles distant from the sea. The area of the mount is two hundred feet above the surface of the river, and, after furnishing a lawn of five acres in front, and about the same in rear of the buildings, it falls off rather abruptly on those two quarters. On the north end it subsides gradually into extensive pasture-grounds; while, on the south, it slopes more steeply, and terminates with the stables, vineyard, and nurseries. On either wing is a thick grove of flowering forest-trees; and parallel with them, on the land-side, are two spacious gardens, into which one is led by the serpentine gravel-walks, planted with weeping-willows and shady shrubs.

The house itself, which is built of wood, but cut and painted to resemble stone, appears venerable and convenient, and the banquetting-room, in particular, is very superb. A lofty portico, ninety-six feet in length, and supported by eight pillars, has a charming effect, when viewed from the water; and the whole assemblage of the green-house, school-house, offices, and servants' halls, when seen from the land-side, has a striking resemblance to a rural village; especially as the lands on that side are laid out somewhat in the form of English gardens, in meadows and grass-grounds, ornamented with little copses, circular clumps, and single trees. A small park on the margin of the river, where the deer are seen through the thickets, alternately with the vessels as they are sailing along, add a romantic appearance to the whole scenery. On the opposite side of a small creek to the northward, a considerable extent of corn-fields and pasture-land affords a luxuriant landscape to the eye; while the blended verdure of woodlands and cultivated declivities on the Maryland shore, variegates the prospect in a most charming manner.

CHARLESTOWN, in South Carolina, is situated on the tongue of land which is formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cooper Rivers, which mingle their waters immediately below the town, and form a spacious and convenient harbour. The streets, from east to west, extend from river to river, and, running in a straight line, not only open beautiful prospects each way, but also afford excellent opportunities, by means of subterraneous drains, for removing all nuisances. These streets are intersected by others nearly at right angles, and throw the town into a number of squares, with dwelling-houses in front, and offices and little gardens behind. Some of the buildings are elegant, and most of them neat, airy, and well finished. The public edifices are an exchange, state-house, armoury, and poor-house; besides ten churches, one meeting-house, and two Jewish synagogues.

The streets of Charlestown are wide, but not paved, and the feet of the passenger sinks into the sand every time he is obliged to quit the brick foot-paths attached to the houses. The rapid course of the coaches and cabriolets, the number of which is proportionably much greater in this than in any other town in America, continually reduces this moving sand, and attenuates it to such a degree, that the slightest wind fills the shops with its dust, and renders the situation of pedestrians peculiarly disagreeable. At certain distances, the inhabitants are supplied, by pumps, with water; but it is so brackish, that it is astonishing how a stranger can accustom himself to drink it. About seven-tenths of the town consist of wooden buildings; the rest are of brick. According to the last census, taken in 1803, its population, including strangers, amounted to ten thousand six hundred and ninety-nine whites, and nine thousand and fifty slaves.

Travellers, who may arrive here, or at the other towns of the United States, will find no furnished houses or apartments to let; no tables d'hote, or cooks' shops, but only boarding-houses, where all their wants may be supplied. In Carolina, the charge at these establishments is from twelve to twenty dollars per week, which is excessive, and not proportionate to the price of the articles which are provided. Beef, for instance, seldom costs more than twelve sous per pound; and vegetables are dearer than meat. Besides the articles of consumption furnished from the country, the port of Charlestown is continually filled with small vessels, which arrive from Boston, Newport, New York, and Philadelphia, and from all the little intermediate harbours, which bring flour, salt meat, potatoes, onions, carrots, beet-root, apples, oats, maize, and hay: planks and timber also form a considerable article in the importations; and though all these productions are brought from a distance of nine or twelve hundred miles, they are cheaper, and of a better quality, than those of the surrounding country.

In winter, the markets of Charlestown are supplied with sea-fish alive, which are brought from the northern parts of the United States, in vessels so constructed that the sea-water is continually renewed in them. The ships engaged in this commerce return loaded with rice and cot

tons, the greater part of which is re-exported to Europe, the freight being always cheaper in the northern than in the southern states. The wool and cotton which remain in the north are more than sufficient for the supply of the manufactures, which are but few in number; and the excess is distributed in the country parts, where the women make it into articles of clothing for the use of their families.

Wood is very dear at Charlestown; and yet the forests, of which they do not even know the extent, begin at six miles, and, in some parts, at a less distance, from the town; and the conveyance is facilitated by the two rivers at the confluence of which it is situated. The dearness of wood arises from the scarcity of hands to cut it; and a great number of individuals burn, from economy, coals which are brought from England.

New Orleans, the capital of Louisiana, is seated on the east bank of the Mississippi, in thirty degrees two minutes of north latitude. The city was founded in the time of the Mississippi scheme, about the year 1720, under the regency of the Duke of Orleans. The plan is regularly disposed, the three principal and parallel streets being those of Orleans, Bourbon, and Charteris. Towards the river there is a noble quay. In the year 1788, a dreadful conflagration happened, which, out of eleven hundred houses, destroyed nine hundred. It has since been completely rebuilt, and now contains about one thousand four hundred houses, and ten thousand inhabitants. In 1793, it was fortified; but the works are bad, and could offer but little resistance.

A French writer, who, in 1805, published, at Paris, a volume, entitled, "Memoires sur la Louisiane," estimates the exportation of the city of New Orleans, from June 1800 to June 1801, at more than sixty thousand barrels of flour, one thousand bales of cotton, two thousand barrels of tobacco, and one thousand five hundred of sugar, with considerable quantities of indigo and peltry. The inhabitants are generally of French extraction, and the women remarkable for fine complexions and teeth, and beautiful hair. Boarding-schools have been established by some French emigrants.

The advantages for commerce are certainly very great. Its distance is about one hundred and five miles above the mouth of the Mississippi; but a week's sail will convey its trade to Mexico, and the British, French, and Spanish, West-India Islands; hence there is reason to believe that this important settlement will become the grand mart and receptacle for the produce of all the extensive countries on the Missouri, Mississippi, and Ohio.

During the war occasioned by the French Revolution, the inhabitants of the little town of Bedford obtained greater advantages by sending their grain, &c. to Pittsburg, whence they were conveyed, by the Ohio and the Mississippi, to New Orleans, there to be embarked for the Antilles, than by sending those articles to Philadelphia or Baltimore. Notwithstanding this, it is reckoned but two hundred miles from Bedford to Philadelphia, and one hundred and fifty miles from Bedford to Baltimore, on a well-frequented road; whilst the distance from Bedford to New Orleans is thought to be two thousand two hundred miles, viz. one hundred miles, by land, to Pittsburgh, and two thousand one hundred miles, by water, from Pittsburgh to the mouth of the Mississippi. Thus we perceive that the navigation of the Ohio and of the Mississippi is easy, and of light expence, since it compensates for the enormous difference which exists between the two distances. The situation of New Orleans, relative to the Antilles, insures great advantages to this town, over all the eastern parts of the United States; and, in proportion as the new states of the west increase in population, New Orleans will become the centre of an immense commerce.

Savannah was formerly the capital of Georgia, but contained less than one thousand inhabitants. Augusta, which, from two houses, in 1780, rose to two hundred in 1787, has deprived it of its little consequence. The new seat of government is Louisville, on the banks of the River Ogeshe, about seventy miles from its mouth: the records and legislature were transferred thither in the year 1795.

Pittsburgh, which stands at the junction of the Rivers Allegany and Monongala, commands the navigation of the noble River Ohio, and is already a town of considerable trade, the houses amounting to more than four hundred. Within less than a dozen years, this town has increased ten-fold, and is now a receptacle of the trade between Philadelphia, Baltimore, and the western states. Some vessels with three masts, carrying about two hundred and fifty tons, have here been constructed, and pass from the Ohio and Mississippi to the West-Indies.

The level ground on which this town is built is not more than from forty to fifty acres in extent. It is a triangle, the sides of which are confined, on all parts, either by the bed of the Rivers Monongula and Allegany, or by the mountains. The houses are mostly of brick; and, as many of these are not contiguous, but are separated by considerable spaces, the entire surface of the angle is occupied; and they have already begun to build on the sides of the high hills which command the town. It was at the upper part of the angle that the French constructed the Fort Duquésne, but which has been entirely destroyed, nothing remaining but the vestiges of the surrounding fosses. There is a delightful view, produced by the perspective of the rivers, the banks of which are shaded by forests, particularly those of the Ohio, which extends in a right line, and permits the eye to follow its course to a considerable distance.

The air of Pittsburgh and the vicinity is very healthful; intermitting fevers, so common in the southern states, are here unknown; nor are the inhabitants tormented with mosquettos during the summer. The necessaries of life are also one-third cheaper than at Philadelphia. Pittsburgh contains two printing-offices, each of which publishes two newspapers per week. This place has long been considered by the American Government as the key of the western countries. It was from thence that the federal forces were sent against the Indians, who opposed the first establishment of the Americans in Kentucky, and on the banks of the Ohio. But now that the Indians have been driven back to a great distance, and deprived of the power of annoying the inhabitants, even in the remotest parts of the interior; and the western countries having also acquired a vast population, there is at Pittsburgh only a weak garrison, in pallisaded barracks, contiguous to the town, on the bank of the River Allegany. But, though this town has lost its importance as a military post, it has acquired more in point of commerce. It is the depot of merchandise from Philadelphia and Baltimore, sent thither at the commencement of spring and autumn, to supply the states of the Ohio and Kentucky, and of the settlement of Natches.

The conveyance of merchandise from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh is performed in large covered waggons, drawn by four horses, harnessed two a-breast. The price of the carriage varies according to the season; but seldom exceeds six dollars per hundred weight. The distance is computed to be three hundred miles from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh; and the carriers perform the journey in twenty or twenty-four days: the charge of conveyance is not high, for the waggons generally return empty.

MARIETTA did not exist twenty-five years ago, but now contains two hundred houses. In the same state, recently admitted into the union under the name of the state Ohio, is the town of Gallipoli, which contains about a hundred houses, the inhabitants being mostly French.

KNOXVILLE, the seat of government in the state of Tennassee, is situated on the River Holston, which, at this place, is one hundred and fifty fathoms in width: the houses, in number about two hundred, are almost all of wood. Although it has been built nearly thirty years, this little town has not yet any kind of establishment of manufactory, except some tanneries. Commerce, however, is brisker here than at Nashville, and the stores, of which there are fifteen or twenty, are better provided. The merchants obtain their supplies by land from Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Richmond, in Virginia; and, in return, send by the same channel the productions of the country, which they buy from the farmers, or take in exchange for their goods. Baltimore and Richmond are the towns with which they have the greatest dealings. The price of carriage from Baltimore is six or seven dollars the hundred weight. It is reckoned five hundred miles from this town to Knoxville, six hundred and forty to Philadelphia, and four hundred and twenty to Richmond.

They also send flour, cotton, and lime, to New Orleans, by the River Tennassee; but this method is not much used, the navigation of this river being very much interrupted, in two different places, by shoals and rocks. It is reckoned about six hundred miles from Knoxville to the efflux of the Tennassee into the Ohio, and thirty-eight miles from thence to that of the Ohio into the Mississippi.

There are many other towns in the country parts, but they are not worthy of a particular description. M. Michaux observes, that, in the United States, they frequently give the name of *town* to an assemblage of six or eight houses; and that their manner of building is not every where alike. At Philadelphia the houses are of brick; but in the adjacent towns, and even in the fields which surround them, the half, and frequently the whole, of the houses are of shingles; while, between seventy and eighty miles from the sea, in the middle and southern states, but particularly in those that lie to the westward of the Allegany Mountains, seven-tenths of the inhabitants live in log-houses. These are made of the trunks of trees, from twenty to thirty feet long, and about four or five inches in diameter, placed one above the other, and supported by being dove-tailed at the ends. The roof is constructed of pieces of the same length as those that form the shell of the house; but they are not so heavy, and are gradually drawn together on each side: these limbs support the covering of shingles, which are fastened by means of small wooden pegs. Two doors, which often serve instead of windows, are made by sawing away a part of the trunks that form the body of the house: the chimney, which is always situated at one of the angles, is likewise made of the trunks of trees, of a convenient length. The back, which is of potters' clay, about six inches thick, separates the fire from the wooden wall; but, notwithstanding this slight precaution, the accident of fire very seldom happens in these houses. The space between the trunks of the trees is filled with clay, but in such a slovenly manner that the light is perceptible on every side; hence these hovels are extremely cold in winter, notwithstanding the great quantity of wood that is burnt in them.

The doors move on wooden hinges; very few of them have locks, and at night they only fasten them with a wooden pin. Two men can build one of these houses in four or five days, without the use either of nails or other iron-work. Two large beds serve for the whole family; and, in summer, the children often sleep on the ground, wrapt in a coverlet. The floor, which is planked, is raised about two feet above the surface of the soil. They use

feather-beds, and not mattresses. Sheep being very scarce in these parts, wool is dear, and is reserved only for making stockings. The clothes of the family are hung round the room, or suspended upon a long pole placed across it.

Inns.] Taverns, or inns, are very numerous throughout the United States, but particularly in the small towns: every where, however, except in the large towns and their environs, they are of a wretched description, though they never fail to afford brandy, rum, and whiskey. These articles are considered of the first importance, so that the profits of those who keep inns arise chiefly from the sale of liquors, for which there is a great demand. Travellers generally wait till the family-hour to take their meals: they are served for breakfast with bad tea, worse coffee, and small slices of fried bacon, to which are sometimes added eggs and a broiled chicken. For dinner they give you a piece of salt-beef, roasted chickens, and rum and water for beverage. In the evening there is coffee, with tea, and ham. There are always several beds in one chamber: clean sheets, however, are a great rarity; and fortunate is the traveller who arrives on the day when they are changed; but this is a point on which an American gives himself little concern.

"Keeping a tavern," says Mr. Parkinson, "is looked upon as advantageous; but, to my great surprise, I found only three Englishmen in that way of life, and all dissatisfied. One of them lives at Philadelphia, keeps one of the first taverns, and deals very largely in horses. He told me he did not like his situation; but, knowing the art of cropping and nicking horses, and breaking them for carriages, which is not much known in America, he is resorted to by many gentlemen from great distances. I was acquainted with some persons who had gone from two to three hundred miles to buy coach-horses of him. He told me, notwithstanding he appeared to have the best business in the country, that there was nothing to be done: he had sold forty-five horses in England in one day, which was more than he had ever disposed of in America in a year, where, for want of a return, they were rather a loss; the feeding of and attendance upon horses consuming the profit."

The idea of a *military officer* keeping a *public-house* must excite the risibility of an English reader; but this is by no means uncommon in the United States. M. Michaux observes, that he resided at Wheeling, in the house of *Captain Reyner*, who keeps a tavern, known by the sign of the Waggon, and who takes boarders at the rate of two dollars a week. The same writer mentions *Colonel* Ripley, who keeps the sign of the General Washington, and *Colonel* Bird, who keeps a good *eating-house!* Thus, in a country where to get intoxicated is a daily occupation, a man who in other civilized parts holds the rank of a gentleman, is not degraded by keeping a *whiskey-shop!*

Customs, Manners, &c.] It is particularly worthy of remark, that the men who have given the most severe, though accurate, picture of the state of society in North-America, are those who have travelled through it under the idea of finding amongst its inhabitants the utmost extent of urbanity and moral perfection. Among the principal observers of this description is the celebrated M. Volney, who gives his reasons for visiting America in the following words:

"In the year 1793, when I embarked from Havre, it was with the doubt and indifference which the spectacle and experience of injustice and persecution had given. Melancholy from the past, and anxious for the future, I went with doubt among a *free* people, to see if a sincere friend of that liberty which had been profaned, might find for his age a peaceful asylum, of which Europe no longer offered him the hope."

How far the author's doubts were founded on justice will appear by what he observes immediately afterwards. "If, instead of giving way to the exaggerated description of the happiness of the Americans, I had considered, in a moral point of view, the conduct of that people and their government, from the epoch of 1783 to 1793, I should have proved, by incontestible facts, that there does not reign in the United States, in proportion to its population, the mass of its affairs, or the multiplicity of its combinations, either more economy in its finances, more good faith in its transactions, more decency in its public morals, more moderation in the spirit of party, or more care in the education of youth, than in most of the old states of Europe: that what there is of good and useful, that what exists there of civil liberty and security of persons and property, has depended more on popular and individual habits, on the necessity of working, and the high price of manual labour, than on any skilful measures or any wise policy of the government; that among nearly all its chiefs, the nation has retrograded from the principles of its formation; in a word, that the United States owe their public prosperity, and their civil and domestic tranquillity, much more to their insulated situation, to their distance from any powerful neighbour, and from every theatre of war, and, above all, to the general ease of their circumstances, than to the essential goodness of their laws, or the wisdom of their administration."

The manners of an Anglo-American and a French settler are thus described by this writer:—

"The American colonist, slow and silent, does not rise very early; but, once risen, he passes the whole day in uninterrupted and useful labour. As soon as he has breakfasted, he gives his orders to his wife, who receives them with timidity and coldness, and executes them with-

out opposition. If the weather be fair, he goes out to work, cuts down trees, makes fences, &c. If the weather is bad, he overlooks his domestic concerns. With such dispositions, and depending on himself, if he has a favourable opportunity, he sells his farm to go several miles into the woods to form a new establishment; his wife, serious and patient as himself, seconds his labours on her part, and they remain sometimes six months without seeing a stranger's face; but, at the end of four or five years, they will have subdued an extent of land sufficient to ensure a subsistence for their family.

"On the contrary, the French colonist rises early in the morning, though it should only be for the purpose of boasting of it. He consults his wife, he takes her advice, and it would be a miracle if they should always agree. The wife comments, controls, contests; the husband persists or gives way, is angry or is discouraged. Sometimes the house is left to his care, and he takes his gun, and he goes out to shoot, to travel, or to chat with his neighbours. Sometimes he stays within, and passes his time either in chatting with good-humour, or in quarrelling and scolding. The neighbours receive and return his visits. To visit and tattle are to the French a necessity of habit so imperious, that, over all the frontiers of Louisiana and Canada, not one colonist of that country can be cited who is fixed out of view of another. In many places, having asked how far off the most remote colonist was settled, I have been answered, "He is in the desert, among the bears, a league from any habitation, without having a person to talk with."

On the sad effects of the uncontrolled liberty allowed to youth in America, Mr. Janson makes the following interesting remarks:—

"One of the greatest evils of a republican form of government is a loss of that subordination in society which is essentially necessary to render a country agreeable to foreigners. To the well-informed this defect is irksome, and no remedy for it can be applied. The meaning of liberty and equality, in the opinion of the vulgar, consists in impudent freedom, and uncontrolled licentiousness; while boys assume the airs of full-grown coxcombs. This is not to be wondered at, where most parents make it a principle never to check those ungovernable passions which are born with their children, or to correct their growing vices. Often have I, with horror, seen boys, whose dress indicated wealthy parents, intoxicated, shouting, and swearing, in the public streets. In the use of that stupifying weed, tobacco, aping their fathers, they smoke segars to so immoderate a degree, that sickness, and even death, have been the consequence. This is fully elucidated by the following paragraph, copied from a newspaper, printed at Salem, in Massachusetts:—

"Died in Salem, Master James Verry, aged twelve, a promising youth, whose early death is supposed to have been brought on by *excessive smoking of segars!*"

"That this pernicious custom was habitual in an infant, not four years of age, I was myself a witness. This little boy is the son of Thomas Taylor, a segar-maker, in Alexandria, near Washington. While conversing with the father, I observed the son smoking a large segar, made of the strongest tobacco. I expressed my astonishment; on which the infatuated parent, with an exulting smile, replied, that the child had contracted the habit above a year ago, and that he smoked three, four, or more, daily, which he was regularly supplied with, 'or he would cry for them.' In addition, he would steal them when opportunity offered, and, in fact, he was seldom without a lighted segar in his mouth.

"When children are thus indulged, we need not wonder, at an evening's frolic of some young students of William and Mary College, at Williamsburg, in Virginia. The particulars of that abominable transaction found their way into the public newspapers. The first intimation was in the Norfolk Herald, a paper of extensive circulation; and the perpetrators of the outrage were, soon after the publication, *proved* to be students of the college. I shall dismiss this unpleasant subject by adding a copy of the paragraph alluded to.

"Norfolk Herald, April 15, 1803.

"A gentleman of veracity, who has been lately at Williamsburg, informs us, that, on the 1st of April, some youths of that place perpetrated some of the most wicked acts that human imagination could invent. A party of them broke into the church, played on the organ for nearly two hours, and then went to the church-yard, dug up the body of a female that had been buried for many months, took it from the coffin, and placed it on the floor of an empty house, in a situation too shocking to describe! The coffin being found, led to the discovery. It surely could not be any of the students of William and Mary College; for it is impossible, one would imagine, that they would attempt so atrocious and villanous an act under the eyes of their preceptors. Certainly that college must be under better moral government; yet we are told that strong suspicions lurk toward that seminary. It is an old saying, 'Give a dog a bad name, and hang him,' it will therefore behove the governors of that institution, to endeavour, by all means, to discover the offenders, bring them to justice, and rescue the college from the reproach that will otherwise attach. It is the duty of all parents and guardians, that have youths educating there, to probe this matter to the quick; for if the rules and regulations at William and Mary cannot keep its students within the pale of decency, then education will rather be a curse than a blessing to them."

The same author makes the following remarks on the propensity of the Americans for drinking ardent spirits in the early part of the day:—

"I know of no custom more destructive than that which is practised by a numerous set of people in the southern states, called *slingers* and *eleveners*. The European learns with astonishment, that the first cravings of an American, in the morning, is for ardent spirits, mixed with sugar, mint, or some other hot herb; and which are called *slings*. A celebrated physician says, 'No kind of poison kills more than ardent spirits. Sometimes, by destroying the nervous energy, they put an end to life at once; but, in general, their effects are more slow, and in many respects similar to those of opium.'

"Such is the opinion of the faculty, with reference only to those who indulge with the bottle in the evening, or, at any rate, after a hearty dinner; a custom prevalent in Britain. But, if ardent spirits produce such dreadful effects in this case, how much more certain and speedy must they prove to those who swallow slings upon an empty stomach. Englishmen, in some measure, counteract these effects by laying a foundation for the spirits they take to work upon; but the Virginians, Carolinians, and Georgians, suffer it to prey upon their very vitals."

A second-rate consumer of distillations from the sugar-cane, the grape, and the juniper-berry, is the *elevener*.—"Sometimes," says Mr. Janson, "I have found both these vile habits in one unfortunate fellow-creature; and to such admonitions are in vain. These eleveners are generally found strolling about the corners of streets, or other public places at eleven o'clock in the forenoon. After the common-place conversation, they adjourn, and take more spirits."

The horrid practice called *gouging* seems peculiar to the United States, and is thus described by the American geographer, Dr. Morse, under the head of North Carolina:—

"When two boxers are wearied out with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to close quarters, and each endeavours to twist his fore-fingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When these are fast clenched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes gently turned out of the sockets. The victor, for his expertness, receives shouts of applause from the sportive throng, while his poor eyeless antagonist is laughed at for his misfortune."

"It is in vain," says Mr. Janson, "for later authors to gloss over this subject; to pretend that the custom was *once* practised in America; or that such was the revenge which *once* prevailed in the breast of civilized man. It is my avowed purpose to paint 'the manners living as they rise;' and upon this point, with pain am I compelled to declare, that this more than savage custom is daily practised among the lower classes in the southern states. I shall relate a few recent instances of its existence, and an ocular demonstration of the horrors of its execution.

"Passing, in company with other travellers, through the state of Georgia, our attention was arrested by a gouging-match. We found the combatants, as Morse describes, fast clenched by the hair, and their thumbs endeavouring to force a passage into each other's eyes; while several of the bystanders were betting upon the first eye to be turned out of its socket. For some time the combatants avoided the thumb stroke with dexterity. At length they fell to the ground, and in an instant the uppermost sprung up with his antagonist's eye in his hand! The savage crowd applauded, while, sick with horror, we gallopped away from the dreadful scene. The name of the sufferer was John Butler, a Carolinian, who, it seems, had been dared to the combat by a Georgian; and the first eye was for the honour of the state to which they respectively belonged."

It seems, however, that the eye is not the only feature which suffers on these occasions. Like dogs and bears, they use their teeth and feet, with the most savage ferocity, upon each other; as, during Mr. Janson's residence in North Carolina, Mr. Standen, the post-master, and a merchant of Edenton, had a part of his cheek bitten off in an affray with O'Mally, a tavern-keeper in that town.

"A brute, in human form," says our author, "in Bertie county, North Carolina, sharpens his teeth with a file, and boasts of his dependence upon them in fight. This monster will also exult in relating the account of the noses and ears he has bitten off, and the cheeks he has torn. A man of the name of Thomas Penrise, then living in Edenton, in the same state, attempting at cards to cheat some half-drunken sailors, was detected. A scuffle ensued; Penrise knocked out the candle, then gouged out three eyes, bit off an ear, tore a few cheeks, and made good his retreat. Near the same place, a schoolmaster, named Jarvis Lucas, was beset by three men, one Horton, his son, and the son-in-law. These ruffians beat the unfortunate man till his life was despaired of, having bitten, gouged, and kicked him, unmercifully. On the trial of an indictment for this outrageous assault, a Carolina court of justice amerced them in a small fine only.

"Another bestial mode of assault, used by men in North Carolina, is properly called *butting*. This attack is copied from the brute creation, and is executed nearly in the same manner as practised in battle between bulls, rams, and goats. A traveller has endeavoured to confine butting to the negroes; but he must excuse my implicating the white men in this brutal act. That the reader may become a little familiar with these Columbian accomplishments, I can assure him, that disputes, terminated in England by fair blows, are generally there maintained by

the practice of some, and often all, of these dreadful stratagems, should opportunity offer during the combat.

"An American pugilist is equally dexterous with his feet, which are used not only against his antagonist's shins, but are applied, with the utmost violence, against those parts which the contending beasts of the field never assail. Hence loss of eyes, mutilated noses, and indented cheeks, so frequently surprise and shock the traveller. A fellow, named Michie, in my presence, boasted, 'that he could kick any man, six feet high, under the chin, and break his jaws.'

"The lower class," continues Mr. Janson, "in this gouging, biting, kicking, country, are the most abject that, perhaps, ever peopled a Christian land. They live in the woods and deserts, and many of them cultivate no more land than will raise them corn and cabbages, which, with fish, and occasionally a piece of pickled pork or bacon, are their constant food. This land, on which, prior to their settlement, no human step had ever marked a path, required clearing of trees, whose tops almost reached the clouds, before a spot could be found large enough to erect a shelter for the women and children. Their habitations are more wretched than can be conceived; the huts of the poor of Ireland, or even the meanest Indian wigwam, displaying more ingenuity and greater industry. They are constructed of pine-trees, cut in lengths of ten or fifteen feet, and piled up in a square, without any other workmanship than a notch at the end of each log, to keep them in contact. When this barbarous pile is raised between six and seven feet, they split the remainder of their logs to the thickness of two or three inches, and, by laying them over the whole in a sloping direction, form the roof. The chimney is, if possible, worse than Dr. Johnson describes the hole in the roof of a house in Scotland, through which the smoke found a passage. The summer's scorching sun, and the bleak winds of winter, are equally accessible to this miserable dwelling: The interstices between the logs are often left open to the elements, and are large enough to give admission to vermin and reptiles, which abound in this part of the world.

"Amidst these accumulated miseries, the inhabitants of log-houses are extremely tenacious of the rights and liberties of republicanism. They consider themselves on an equal footing with the best educated people of the country, and, upon the principles of equality, they intrude themselves into every company."

The general conduct of the free Americans towards their slaves is too interesting to be passed over in silence, as it affords a remarkable illustration of the national character.

As the state of South Carolina produces abundance of rice, tobacco, cotton, and indigo, most of which articles are exported, it contains more slaves than any other part of the United States. It is, indeed, the only one in which the shameful traffic is carried on, as the port of Charlestown is, perhaps, a greater slave-market than any in the West-Indies.

"The richest planters in the United States," says Mr. Janson, "are to be found in South Carolina, some drawing a yearly revenue from the labour of their slaves to the amount of forty or fifty thousand dollars; and many enjoy an income of from twelve to twenty thousand from the same source. A planter in moderate circumstances is in the receipt of from three to six thousand; while others, so capricious is fortune, drag on a miserable existence, with large families, on the wretched pittance of eighty or one hundred dollars a year.

"The best lands are the tide-swamps, where cotton and rice are grown, and which, in high cultivation, have sold as high as one hundred and seventy dollars per acre; an enormous price, when it is remembered that land, capable of producing corn, may be had, and in good situations too, from five to fifteen dollars; while uncleared land, that is, land in its original state, inhabited by the beasts of the forests alone, is selling at one-third of the last-mentioned price. The value, in short, rises as the land is cleared; while in England we estimate our estates in proportion to the quantity of timber upon them. In general, the tide-swamps command seventy to one hundred, inland swamps twenty to fifty; while such as bear corn, sweet potatoes, &c. fetch from six to forty dollars, and high uncleared land from one to six dollars per acre, in South Carolina.

"The buildings on the plantations are in proportion to the value of the latter, from the cost of thirty thousand dollars to a miserable log-house. The best houses consist, generally, of not more than a ground-floor, with bedchambers above; and many of them of a ground-floor only; but, in this case, they cover a considerable space. At the south-front it is an invariable rule to attach a piazza, which impedes the extreme heat of the sun from penetrating into the sitting and lodging-rooms; and in the evening it affords an agreeable walk. The kitchens and out-offices are always at the distance of several yards from the principal dwelling. This is done as well to guard against the house-negroes through carelessness setting the houses on fire, for they generally sit over it half the night, as to keep out their noise. Negroes are great and loud talkers; and in this warm climate, having wood for the trouble of fetching it, they often sit up, after their work is done, over a large fire, in the summer, when I could scarcely endure the excessive heat of the night in the open air. The masters here, as in the other southern states, regard their slaves as English farmers do their live-stock. The men are valued, like horses, for their superior properties; the females for their fertility. An infant slave is generally valued at a year's service of the mother; and, as

she is compelled to work three-parts of the time she is breeding and nursing, planters are very attentive to this mode of enhancing the value of their estates.

"The swamps and low lands are so unhealthy, that they cannot be cultivated by white persons. Here, however, the negro is compelled to work, uncovered, through the sun's meridian heat, and till evening, often up to his waist in water, for these lands are generally overflowed with stagnant pools, while his pampered master can barely support himself in the shade in such a relaxing atmosphere. If he be employed in the rice-grounds, he must toil all day long in soft mud, ditching and draining the ground; while to a white person such an occupation would, in a few days, prove certain death. Punishments are inflicted with savage ferocity, and frequently at the caprice of a cruel overseer. What else can be expected from the natural brutality of man, in a country where the murder of a slave is only punished by a fine of fifty pounds; and, if wilfully perpetrated, or, as the law terms it, 'with malice afore-thought,' then the fine is only doubled; but, in fact, the sanguinary deed, when committed, is seldom looked into.

"When we contemplate the cruel treatment, which the wretched negroes so often receive, it cannot be matter of astonishment that they should pant for an opportunity of regaining that liberty, of which they have, in general, been unjustly deprived. A white man, a monster in human shape, a few months ago, at Charlestown, compelled one of his negroes to cut off the head of another, while the master *superintended* the horrid deed! He was tried for the offence, and convicted. The judge, in a speech, which did honour to him as a man, lamented the inefficacy of the law with respect to the punishments apportioned to such a crime. The murderer was fined, and then liberated.

"An opportunity once offered," says Mr. Janson, "which gave me full demonstration of the treatment of negroes in North Carolina. I had hired a small sailing-boat to convey me from the island of Mattamuskeet, on Pamlico Sound; the wind proving adverse, with the appearance of an approaching summer-squall, the boatman proposed to make a harbour in a small creek, which he observed led to a new negro-quarter, belonging to Mr. Blount, of Newburn; adding that, as he was acquainted with the overseer, I might there find shelter till the weather proved favourable. This I gladly agreed to, as these summer-gusts, which they call 'white squalls,' are often so sudden, as to upset a vessel before the sails can be handed. From the head of the creek a canal had been cut to the quarter, and from thence it was intended to communicate with Great Alligator River, for the purpose of transporting lumber, with which the country abounds, to a sea-port. For this purpose, Mr. Blount had placed there a gang of about sixty negroes, whose daily work was in water, often up to the middle, and constantly knee-deep. The overseer was a man of some information, and he gave us a hearty welcome to the log-house, which was a few hundred yards from the huts of the slaves. He said that no human foot had trod upon the spot till his arrival with the negroes, who had penetrated about a mile into the forest with the canal, through the haunts of wild beasts. There was an unusual number of children, in proportion to the working-slaves; and, on my noticing this circumstance, the overseer replied, that but few of them belonged to the gang, being sent thither 'to be raised in safety.' From the situation of the place, there was no chance of their escaping; and, being fed at a very small expence, and suffered to run wild and entirely naked, he observed, that their encreased value, when the canal was finished, would nearly defray the expence attending it An infant slave, when born, is computed to be worth thirty or forty dollars, of course every year increases his value; and a stout 'field-fellow' is worth three or four hundred dollars; a 'field-wench' a fourth part less. He had already been two years in this desolate place, and calculated upon remaining there three more before the canal would be finished.

"The day of our arrival happened to be on Saturday, when the week's allowance is given out. This consisted of salt herrings, of an inferior quality, and a peck of Indian corn in the cob, to each, the grinding of which occupied the remainder of the day. Such was the daily food, without variation, of these wretched people, and even of this the allowance was very scanty. No such luxury as salt pork or beef had they been indulged with for many months; and the overseer observed, with perfect indifference, that he did not expect any fresh supplies for some time after what was brought them should be consumed. A few barrels were at first allowed, by way of reconciling them to the place; and so accustomed were they to drag on this miserable existence, that I observed no repining, each receiving his pittance without a murmur. The overseer, however, took special care of himself. His residence was surrounded with turkeys and fowls, and his cupboard was supplied with excellent bacon. These provisions were set before us, together with a bottle of brandy. During our repast we were attended by a stout negro-boy, entirely naked, whom the overseer had selected to be about his person. The poor fellow's attention was so rivetted on the victuals, that he blundered over his employment in a manner that extorted a threat of punishment from his master, who would not attribute his momentary absence of mind to the cause from which it sprung. As soon as an opportunity offered, after dinner, I cut off, unobserved, a piece of bacon, and gave it to the boy, who snatched at it in an ecstacy, and instantly ran off to the negro-huts. On his return, I questioned him what he had done with

it; when the grateful and affectionate creature replied, that he had given the morsel to his poor mother, who was sick, and could not eat her herrings. Hear this, ye pampered slave-holders! contemplate the virtues of this boy; and, while you teach your own offspring to follow his example, treat his unfortunate race as human beings!

"The day proving boisterous, we remained all night with the overseer He described, with much apparent satisfaction, the means he employed to keep his gang in subjection, and the different modes of punishment which from time to time he inflicted on them. Some months ago, it appeared, that he missed some of his fowls; and, being convinced they had been stolen by the slaves, he ordered them all into his presence, charged them with the robbery, and ordered them to point out the perpetrator. This not producing the desired effect, he threatened to flog them all, observing, that by so doing he should get hold of the thief without confession; and he actually put his threat into instant execution. The job, he continued, occupied the whole day, as he took his leisure, that it might be complete, and serve as a warning in future. Thus suffered the whole of these innocent miserable people, by way of punishing one, who might have been guilty.

"The first week in the year, in this land of slavery, is a kind of fair for the disposal of negroes, some for life, and others for a limited time, by public auction, the sheriff of the county generally acting as auctioneer Here is often exhibited a spectacle which would soften the most obdurate heart that had never participated in the horrid traffic. At these times slave-dealers attend from a distant part of the country, making a trade of their fellow-men. Husbands for ever separated from their wives; mothers torn from their children; brothers and sisters exchanging a last embrace, are subjects of mirth to the surrounding crowd of bidders. Often have I witnessed negroes dragged, without regard to age or sex, to the public whipping-post, or tied up to the limb of a tree, at the will of the owner, and flogged without pity or remorse, till the ground beneath was dyed with the blood of the miserable sufferer. These punishments are often inflicted for an unguarded expression of the slave, while groaning under an oppressive task, for neglecting to do homage as his master passes by, and too often to indulge private resentment or caprice. Sometimes they are fastened on a barrel, the hands and feet, nearly meeting round it, are tied together; thus the breech is presented, and in this position they endure their torments. Shocking cruelties of this nature have been practised, even in the more enlightened state of New York.

"An account of some of these barbarities appeared in the New York newspapers, so late as the year 1805. They related the circumstance of a female slave, the property of a fellow at Brocklyne, on Long Island, coming to a house in Pearl-street, New York, to beg for food. She was observed to exhibit symptoms of much pain, and to have something concealed under a handkerchief, which she held to the side of her head. On an examination of the circumstance, it was found that, amongst other diabolical modes of punishment and torture, her owner had gratified his brutality by hacking off a piece of one of her ears, and cutting a gash in the other, through which he suspended a large iron padlock. In this situation the unfortunate girl was left, and thus she had crossed the ferry, and wandered through the streets of New York, begging a morsel of bread."

From the contemplation of these wanton and inhuman cruelties, of which innumerable instances are upon record, we shall turn to the relation of a few rigid punishments which the white *freemen* choose to inflict, when for any serious offence they presume to become the *judges* of their slaves.

"In the district of Chowan," observes Mr. Janson, "in North Carolina, a negro man-slave, in the absence of his master and mistress, knocked at their door, and demanded admission. The parents having gone on a visit to their friends a few miles distant, had left their daughter at home; who, having before received improper conversation from the fellow, and fearing to inform her father, apprehensive of the dreadful punishment he would inflict on him for his presumption, refused to open it: the negro persisted, and finally broke it open. After accomplishing his purpose, he fled to the woods; and the object of his brutality, exhausted with resistance, lay helpless till the return of her parents. The distracted father fled to his neighbours, and related the horrid circumstance. The inhabitants quickly mustered, and went in pursuit of the aggressor. After a long search, he was discovered; when the enraged pursuers tied him to a tree, collected wood around him, and immediately consumed his body to ashes."

The following anecdote was related to our author by Doctor Frederic Ramcke, of Edenton:—

"Calling on a wealthy planter, whose family he had long attended as a physician, but whose name, though then repeated, I have now forgotten, he observed, that he had a dangerous negro fellow, who had made some attempts on his white female neighbours, and who had been heard to assert, that he never would cohabit with those of his own colour, if he could, by any means, possess a white woman. The whole of the planter's conversation, while they drank a glass of grog together, turned on this subject, and he concluded by swearing, that he would give him up to the white men, unless he, the doctor, would cure him of this propensity. Speaking in plainer terms, he entreated the doctor to perform an

operation which would answer his purpose. The doctor hesitated;—the planter offered an hundred dollars—entreated—and was violent. The doctor demanded an indemnity, which was immediately given.

"The planter now ordered the slave into his presence; and at the same time directed his overseer, a white man, already privy to his crimes, to attend. When in the room where the doctor sat, the planter tripped up the heels of the slave; and this being the signal for the overseer, he rushed into the room, and assisted in binding the prisoner, who conceived that he was on the point of receiving an ordinary punishment, which he was conscious of meriting. The doctor, in a few minutes, performed the operation, and the negro was told, that he had received the punishment due for his insults to white women.

"About three months afterwards, as the doctor was going to visit a patient, on the road near the dwelling of the planter, the emasculated slave suddenly appeared before him. We may conclude, that no pleasant sensations pervaded the mind of the operator, for the fellow had on his shoulder a wood-cutter's axe. To turn back, or to risk a meeting, was the question. The doctor checked his horse, to view the physiognomy of the negro, and, finding it tolerably gentle, he boldly enquired after his health, though at a cautious distance. The slave replied, 'Tank ye, massa doctor, you did a me much great good; white or blackee woman I care not for.' This expression, the doctor said, was more acceptable at the moment than the planter's offered fee of a hundred dollars would have proved at any period of his life."

As many erroneous ideas have been formed on the subject of *emigration* to the United States, we conceive we shall perform an important duty by laying the following particulars before our readers:—

"I take up my pen," says Mr. Parkinson, "to write the following pages, free from all unfounded prejudices against America; but at the request of a great number of persons there, who, from different parts of the United Kingdom, and particularly England, have emigrated with the intention of purchasing lands in that country. The great advantages held out by the different authors, and men travelling from America with commissions to sell land, have deluded persons of all denominations, with an idea of becoming land-owners and independent. They have, however, been most lamentably disappointed, particularly the farmers, and all those who have purchased land; for, notwithstanding the low price at which the American lands are sold, the poverty of the soil is such, as to make it not pay for labour; therefore, the greater part have brought themselves and their families to total ruin.

"The only consolation they enjoy is, that all around them are in the same situation; and that, were they to return to their native country in that reduced state, they would not only be the scoff of their former acquaintance, but feel themselves uncomfortable by not having it in their power to enjoy such ease as they had been brought up to. But the working-men that have emigrated have it not in their power to get back; for, if they have not money to pay their passage, the captains of ships will not bring them from America on the terms on which they are taken, because there is no one ready to pay their passage on this side. To explain this: On their first arrival in America, there are men ready to buy them as slaves for a certain time; and, as these people will want clothing, not having the means to purchase it during their stated time of servitude, they are compelled to get the money of their masters, and that keeps them in the same state the greater part of their life."

As we are aware that some of these assertions may be doubted, we shall quote, in confirmation of them, the following passages from Priest's Travels, published, by Johnson, in 1802.

"Philadelphia, September 13, 1796.

"I write this in my way to Boston, where I am going to fulfil my engagement with W——, the particulars of which I informed you of in a former letter. When I arrived at Newcastle, I had the mortification to find upwards of one hundred Irish passengers on board the packet.

"For some time before I left Baltimore, our papers were full of a shocking transaction, which took place on board an Irish passenger ship, containing upwards of three hundred. It is said that, owing to the cruel usage they received from the captain, such as being put on a very scanty allowance of water and provision, a contagious disorder broke out on board, which carried off great numbers; and, to add to their distress, when arrived in the Delaware, they were obliged to perform quarantine, which for some days was equally fatal.

"The disorder was finally got under by the physicians belonging to the Health Office. We had several of the survivors on board, who confirmed all I heard; indeed, their emaciated appearance was a sufficient testimony of what they had suffered. They assured me, the captain sold the ship's water by the pint, and informed me of a number of shocking circumstances, which I will not wound your feelings by relating.

"As the manner of carrying on this *trade* in human flesh is not generally known in England, I send you a few particulars of what is here emphatically called a *white Guinea man*. There are vessels in the trade of Belfast, Londonderry, Amsterdam, Hamburgh, &c. whose chief *cargoes*, on their return to America, are passengers; great numbers of whom, on their arrival, are *sold* for a term of years, to pay their passage: during their servitude they

are liable to be *re-sold*, at the death or caprice of their masters.

"The laws respecting the *redemptioners*, or people who redeem the emigrants, are very severe: they were formed for the English convicts before the revolution. There are lately Hibernian and German societies, who do all in their power to ameliorate the severity of these laws, and render their countrymen, during their servitude, as comfortable as possible. These societies are in all the large towns south of Connecticut. In New England they are not wanting, as the trade is there prohibited. The difficulty of hiring a tolerable servant induces many to deal in this way. Our friend S. lately bought an Irish girl for three years, and in a few days discovered he was likely to have a greater increase of his family than he bargained for. We had the laugh sadly against him on this occasion: I sincerely believe the Jew regrets his new purchase is not a few shades darker. If he could prove her a woman of colour, and produce a bill of sale, he would make a slave of the child as well as the mother. The emigration from Ireland has been this year very great; I left a large vessel full of passengers from thence at Baltimore: I found three at Newcastle, and there is one in this city. The number of passengers cannot be averaged at less than two hundred and fifty to each vessel, all of whom have arrived within the last six weeks!

"While the yellow fever was raging in this city, in the year 1793, when few vessels would venture nearer than Fort Mellin, a German captain, in this trade, arrived in the river, and hearing that such was the fatal nature of the infection, that a sufficient number of nurses could not be procured to attend the sick, for any sum, conceived the philanthropic idea of supplying this deficiency from his redemption-passengers! Actuated by this humane motive, he sailed boldly up the river, and advertised his cargo for sale."

"With regard," says Mr. Parkinson, "to the liberty and equality expected by some who emigrate from these kingdoms to America, they will find that not very pleasant. There is no Englishman who does not think himself above a negro; but, when he comes there, he will have to eat, drink, and sleep, with the negro-slaves. Hence it is that stories are told of the servants in America wanting to eat and drink in the dining-room with their masters. As the master cannot keep three tables, the white servant thinks himself, from the boast of the American liberty and equality, more on an equality with the master than with the negro; and as the negro is under no greater subordination than to acknowledge the man he works for as master; the white man, if he be not a slave, to cause a distinction, will not call him master: therefore, among the white men in America, they are Mr. and Sir; so that, in conversation, you cannot discover which is the master or which is the man. It is the same with the white women: they are all Madam and Miss. If you call at the door of any man, and ask the servant, if his master is at home, he will say, 'Master! I have no master: do you want Mr. Such-a-one?' that is, the man he serves: and, if you want a man that is a white servant, the master calls him in the same manner.

"Now this sits so uneasy on an English servant, that, by being called Mr. and Sir, he soon becomes the greatest puppy imaginable, and much unpleasanter even than the negro. Then, as all men imitate their superiors in pride and consequence, when the negroes meet together, they are all Mr. and Madam among themselves. It is the same with respect to the manner of wearing their hair; almost every one, child or man, has his hair tied. The negro the same; but, as the hair of the negro is short, it is customary to hang lead to it during the week, that it may have length enough to tie on the Sunday."

Mr. Parkinson assures us, that he had *four servants*, in his house at Baltimore, and was not only obliged to clean his own shoes, but his wife and family have risen to milk the cows, while his dependents were in bed. "The idea of liberty and equality," says he, "destroys all rights of the master, and every man does as he likes. Even taking fruit out of your garden or orchard is not looked upon as a theft; nor riding your horse a few miles without leave, if he be only brought back to you again, and particularly if the man that rode him should say he knew you did not want him. It is very unpopular to look upon these things as a crime; and your only way is, to say he is welcome, or have his anger and the whole country about you.

"If a white servant be sent on an errand to a neighbour's house, he will go in with his hat on, and, perhaps, sit down with as much freedom as though he was in his own or his master's house. It is very common, if you step out of your house into the garden, to find a man of any description, black or white, when you come in, to have lighted his pipe, and sitting down in a chair, smoking, without apology, with as much composure as though he were a lodger in the house: and any man that obstructs these liberties is looked upon as a bad subject, an enemy to the rights of man, and an infringer of the rights which the Americans and their fathers have fought for.

"It is not uncommon to take hay or corn out of your fields, for the waggoner's horses or himself to eat; viz. roasting ears of Indian corn. I was in company one evening where a lady was speaking highly of the apples grown in America: she mentioned the captain of a ship to have given them to her. I took the liberty of asking her what they cost? She said, 'O! the captain took them out of an orchard: they cost nothing.' By this method he would take the best; and you, as the proprietor, have

the worst fruit to use yourself: and the whole of the best is taken from you by similar interlopers.

"In the different publications which I have seen, some of these unpleasantries are forgotten. But the fact is, that the men who publish those favourable accounts of America, are frequently emigrants from this country, who are hired by Americans to contract with captains of ships to bring over such as are unable to pay their passage, that they may buy them when they arrive in America; which is an absolute slave-trade, and much worse than the punishment for convicts. The same sort of men in that country, when they are in the greatest distress there, buy or take up lands in the back countries, to pay the money at some future time; and then either come here themselves, or hire what may fairly be termed their counsellors to plead for them; these agents to be paid out of the money raised from the emigrants' pockets, as neither the man who is the pretended land-owner nor his agent have any money to support themselves.

"It is precisely the same with emigrants in similar circumstances from other countries; who are in the same manner purchased and treated as slaves. I will mention a particular instance. A Dutchman, who had lost all his property, which was considerable, and was reduced to great distress, by the war with France, met with the captain of an American ship, who offered him and his two sons a free passage into America; but, at the end of the voyage, the captain offered them all for sale, to pay for the passage. They were bought by Messrs. Ricketts, whom I have before mentioned; who paid the captain ready money for them; and the three emigrants had to repay those gentlemen by labour for a certain number of years. The father, finding himself so wonderfully disappointed in the great expectations held out to him by the captain, proved very obstinate, and would not work; and was, therefore, whipped with a cow-hide, in the same way as the negroes. The old man, nevertheless, in spite of this punishment, still persisting in his obstinacy, the gentlemen chose to give him his liberty, and kept the two boys to work out the sum.

"Now I only blame the captains of ships for holding out such favourable prospects to the emigrants as an inducement, which they know at the same time to be false; for it cannot be supposed that those captains can give them passage and provisions without repayment in some way or other: but the fact is, that they do this by way of profit; and, on the other side the water, they get the same sum as from passengers to this. As to the gentlemen who bought these three men, I can say, from my own knowledge, that better characters cannot exist: the blame, in this case, lay on the old Dutchman, who, when he had brought himself into such a situation, ought with temper to have done his best, and the gentlemen would have treated him with kindness.

"Perhaps, from my observations, it may be here said, that I have been disappointed, and am a prejudiced man. No: I am not. I never had half the condescension shewn me in the same time in England by gentlemen of superior rank to myself as I have had in America; and I solemnly affirm, it was painful to me to leave so respectable acquaintance: but, farming being my sole object, I found the climate and soil there to be of such a nature as to put it out of the power of man to enrich the land without such enormous expence, as (if he had no other means than what the produce of the land would afford) must ruin any one.

"To shew this is true, I will give an example in the speculations of the well-known Messrs. Morris, Nicholson, and Greenleaf. Mr. Morris had so much credit as a banker during the American war, that his notes were current, when those of the United States would not be taken either in their country or abroad. When the war was over, Mr. Morris, not knowing what to do with his money, speculated largely in lands, and took these other two gentlemen as partners. They are broke, have all been in prison, and Mr. Morris must probably die there.

"When I was in America, I was requested, by all the Englishmen whom I knew, to make these facts public at my return. I never met an Englishman in that country, of whatever rank in life he might be, that liked it, but wished himself at home again: but his general acknowledgment was, he had spent his money, and was either unable to get back, or ashamed to return, having so much reduced his circumstances as to be dismayed to see his old friends. And I think it a duty incumbent on me to declare this to my countrymen, that, if they will go, they may go with their eyes open. I have, when in America, discovered my intentions to one American gentleman of rank and fortune, who, perhaps, is one of the best men existing, and one of my most intimate friends. He approved of my design; saying, the delusions carried on were improper; and that the industrious emigrant, finding himself so deceived and disappointed when he arrived in America, is so much disgusted as to brand the whole of the people with being a set of rascals altogether."

The following remarks of Mr. P. on American *education* are worthy of notice:—

"The education of children is both expensive and difficult to be acquired at any price out of towns and cities. Education and clothing will cost in the proportion of from five to one in England. When I first got to America, in travelling from Baltimore to Annapolis, I called at a tavern to feed my horse. I was ushered into a room where there were several young gentlemen; and they were swearing, and making use of such language as I had never before heard from young men of their appearance. I walked out, and asked who they were. The waiter told me they

were a set of young gentlemen going to college at Annapolis. I went into the room, and sat there while my horse was eating his corn, and I never saw greater confusion: they put into their pockets sugar, preserves, or any other thing they fancied. When the bill was brought in, they used every device to cheat the waiter. I thought they were going on in a way that would make them very complete for the character of the country.

"It is usual for men who have families of children, either to take into their houses teachers, or to subscribe a sum of money towards the building of a house for a teacher, according to the number of children of each person, and his ability. I have been applied to, to join an association of this kind; and the applicant for the office of tutor was generally an outlaw, a man from Ireland, as shabby in his appearance, and equally so in his manners, as you would find a bully in a house of bad fame in England. I have remonstrated with some of the better sort of people on the occasion: they for answer would say, 'What can we do?—these are the only men to be got.' To which I have replied, 'Children are better without instructors, than, from the employment of improper ones, probably, to render abortive every attempt of intellectual improvement.'

"I one day called on a gentleman at Shooter's-hill, near Alexandria; and when I was introduced to him, it was in a place at a distance from the house, in the garden, which he called his office. He was instructing his children. He requested me to dine with him; with which I complied: I spent the afternoon there, and was treated very genteely. He is a sensible well-informed man, and of an extensive property. His mother was an English woman, and a relation of Lord Hawke, in England. He told me he had been so troubled to get his children educated, that at last he had found more satisfaction in doing it himself than pursuing any other method. He told me his eldest son was at Annapolis College; and, when he came home in the holidays, his manners were such, that he was disagreeable to him: and as for the boys he had at home, he had an intention of sending them to England. Now, if a gentleman of such large property, and only one mile distant from the town of Alexandria, finds it so difficult to get his young family instructed, what can a man expect when he is situated some miles from a town, and even hard set to procure them food and clothing? which is the case with thousands in America. And, for want of the infant mind being properly impregnated with a sense of morality, the weeds of vice obstruct the growth of virtue; the youth becomes selfish, and either never knows, or forgets, the duty necessary to the parent; for although the latter pays the child the compliment of education for his own good, it is equally so for the parent's comfort: it excites and promotes those necessary sensibilities of affection, which direct more effectually the duty of a child towards a parent, who naturally enjoys part of the blessing.

"I am persuaded that there are thousands of Americans who, for want of education and attending divine worship, think that man a fool who pays any attention to those duties, believing that cunning is the most necessary qualification for mankind to possess.

"I was invited to dine at a gentleman's house one day, where two of the judges were in company: there was one of them an elderly man, who had a family. When I went into the room, there were many gentlemen sitting round the fire, as it is customary in America to go early to the place where you are to dine, and drink apple-toddy, or spirits and water, before dinner. The conversation turned on some lady, who was very rich, but old and ugly; and the old judge was advising the young one to marry her. The young judge asked whether he would have him marry a woman so much older than himself, and ugly too? 'O!' exclaimed the old judge, 'I should not mind that: I would, after marriage, allow her a separate maintenance, and keep a nice girl.'

"I found afterwards that this old judge, when he was a young man, made a tour to England, and in London got into the company of a celebrated popular leader and his party. I suppose he was desirous of marrying some woman for money at that time. Mr. F—— and his party contrived to introduce to this young American a lady he had in keeping as his mistress, under the idea of her being a rich widow. This amorous hero was so fearful of missing the chance, that, having got the lady in the humour, he married her the next morning. But, as soon as he was sensible of his folly, he deserted her without ceremony, and returned home to his native country. His spouse, however, followed him thither. She still lives with him, and is highly esteemed as a dutiful affectionate wife, and tender mother, having now a very fine young family. Thus their acquaintance relate the story. Therefore it appears that an English kept-mistress makes an American gentleman a good wife. I imagine that the judge is inclined to impress strongly on the minds of his sons the policy of marrying rich women, which occasions such conversation in company; yet it must be particularly improper to come from the mouth of a judge: and, although the Americans deal so much in cunning, it appears they sometimes outwit themselves.

Account of some Savage Nations.] The following account of the savage nations who possessed the territory of the United States, is taken from an American publication, entitled, "A Sketch of the Geography of the United States," published at Philadelphia, in 1805.

"Beginning in the north-east, we first meet with the name of the *Tarrenteens*, who resided on the River Kennebec, and other rivers in the district of Maine, and the

country east of it. These were called, by the French, Abenakies, and were always hostile to the English, having French missionaries early settled among them.

"The *Aberginians*, who resided round Massachusetts Bay. These were often attacked by the neighbouring Tarrenteens, and as often fled to the English for protection. The *Mohegins*, living between the Thames and Connecticut Rivers, and the higher branches of the former, who were generally friendly to the first settlers.

"The *Pequods*, settled on the sound between New London and Stonington, who were nearly exterminated in the war of 1637, four or five hundred being destroyed in one campaign.

"The *Narragansets*, who dwelt principally round the bay of the same name. This was a numerous tribe, and could furnish two thousand fighting men in 1675. They were the most ingenious savages in the eastern country: they made the neatest wampum, pendants, and bracelets, stone-pipes, and earthenware, which they disposed of to other Indians for furs and peltry; bartering the latter to the white inhabitants, for paints, rum, and baubles.

"The next to the Narragansets were the *Womponoags*, whose sachem was Massasoiet, that gave his name to Massachusett's Bay, and had his principal seats at the towns now called Bristol and Middleburgh. It was Philip, the son of this chieftain, who waged a destructive and obstinate war against the English, in 1675, and at last fell in the contest.

"Besides these, there were many clans of less notoriety, in what are now called the New England States, all of whom are nearly extinct.

"To the southward of the Pequods there was another powerful nation, who were sovereigns of an extensive region, reaching from the Connecticut River to Chesapeak Bay, and as far westward as the Kittatany Mountains, comprehending all that part of New York that lies between the highlands and the ocean, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware States. They called themselves *Linnellinopes*; by the French they were termed Les Loups, and, by the English, Delawares. This confederacy comprised numerous subordinate clans, the principal of which were the *Chihocki*, who dwelt on the west side of the River Delaware; the *Wanami*, who ranged from the Raritan, in New Jersey, to the sea-coast; the *Mansey*s, on the upper streams of the Delaware, down to the Lehcigh; the *Wabingas*, or River Indians, who resided between the Delaware and Hudson, and from the Kittatany to the Raritan; and the *Mohickons*, or Manhattans, who occupied Staten Island, York Island, and part of Long Island, from the highlands to the ocean. These confederate tribes waged war for the greatest part of a century with the Iroquois, or five nations, but were at last subdued, and reduced to the most humiliating terms, about the year 1682, the time when William Penn landed in Pennsylvania.

"The territory of Maryland was inhabited by the *Susquehannocs*, who were completely destroyed by the five nations; by the *Nanticocks*, *Conoys*, *Tutelocs*, and *Monakans*, most of whom united with the Iroquois in the subjugation of the Delawares.

"When the English made their first settlement in Virginia, in the year 1607, this country, from the sea-coast to the mountains, and from the Potowmac to the southern waters of James River, was occupied by forty different tribes of Indians. Of these the *Powhatans*, the *Mannohoacs*, and the *Monakans*, were the most potent. The Powhatan confederacy claimed an extent of eight thousand square miles, and contained a population of eight thousand souls. These numerous tribes are nearly lost: of forty nations and upwards, there are hardly forty persons left to witness the effects of European civilization.

"To the south of James River, in Virginia, and in North Carolina, the most noted Indian tribes were the *Chowanoes*, with their allies, the *Nottaways* and *Meherrins*, on the east; and the *Corees*, *Tuscaroras*, and *Cherokees*, on the west. The Tuscaroras were a numerous and powerful nation; but, having engaged in a war with the white inhabitants, about the year 1712, were almost exterminated, a remnant of the tribe being obliged to move to the Ohio, where they afterwards united with the Iroquois, and became the sixth confederate nation.

"The most noted nations among the aborigines of South Carolina were the *Stonoes* and *Westoes*, the *Saramees*, *Apalaches*, *Congaroes*, *Esaws*, and *Yamassees*, on the east and in the centre, who are now either extinct or mingled with other tribes; and the *Catawbas*, *Creeks*, and *Cherokees*, on the west, who still retain their names and a portion of their ancient territories on the frontier of the state."

The various efforts to colonize this ample territory are not undeserving of particular attention. When Sir Walter Raleigh sent a small colony, in 1585, they landed in North Carolina; but the colony returned the following year, and no farther attempt was made, until the commencement of the reign of James I. After this, in 1606, Mr. Percy, brother of the Earl of Northumberland, proceeded with a small colony, and discovered the Powhatan, or James River. On the 26th of April, 1607, Captain Newport discovered the fine bay called Chesapeak, and gave the name of Cape Henry, probably in honour of Henry Prince of Wales, to the southern promontory. In the following year a small colony landed, and commenced a settlement on James River, at the place now called James Town, which proved the first permanent establishment of the English in America. This settlement consisted only of one hundred and four persons. In the same year

a small colony was fixed about nine or ten leagues to the southward of the mouth of Sagadahok River, and Quebec was likewise founded by the French.

In 1609, the celebrated Captain Smith sailed up several of the rivers, and explored some part of the interior country. In 1610, Lord Delawar was appointed governor of the British settlements, and his name was imparted to the commercial bay so called.

In 1614, Captain Smith, in a small boat, coasted from Pennopscot to Cape Code, and also drew a map of the country, under the denomination of New England.

The first town in this division was founded in 1620, and called Plymouth, and, in the following year, Massassoit, one of the most powerful Sagamors, or chiefs of the neighbouring savages, came, with sixty attendants, to visit the new settlement, and entered into an amicable treaty to avoid injuries, to punish offenders, and to restore stolen goods, with promises of mutual assistance in case of war. This treaty was faithfully observed for half a century, and the memory of Massassoit is still held in traditional veneration. In a war with a neighbouring tribe, called Narragansets, who gave their name to an adjacent bay, the English settlers successfully defended their new ally, and nine Sachems declared their attachment to England. In 1624, a bull and three heifers arrived from England, being the first cattle seen in this part of the world.

In the spring of 1630, a grand confederacy was entered into by the Savage tribes, particularly the Narragansets, to extirpate the English colony at Plymouth; but the plot was disclosed by a savage, and the English preparations effectually prevented the design. In 1643, the four colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New England, entered into a strict alliance, a congress being instituted, consisting of two commissioners from each colony, to be annually chosen, and considered as the representatives of the United Colonies of New England. Morse observes that the powers delegated to the commissioners were nearly the same as those vested in congress by the articles of confederation agreed upon by the United States in 1678; and this union subsisted, with some few alterations, until the year 1686, when all the charters, except that of Connecticut, were annulled by a commission from James the Second.

The inland discoveries were far from extensive on the part of the English; but the French colonists at Quebec gradually advanced in their knowledge of the interior. Their national character or licentiousness also led the French to form intimate connections with the savage females, while the gravity of the English, probably aided by the puritanical maxims then prevalent among them, preserved their race unmixed.

After an interval of thirty years, Charles II. granted New Jersey to his brother the Duke of York. The Dutch had settled, at an early period, in the country since called New York and New Jersey. These Dutch possessions had always been viewed with a jealous eye by the English colonists, and when the disputes arose with Holland, Charles II. embraced the opportunity of transferring the territory to his brother, the Duke of York. In 1664, Carr was sent with three thousand men to take possession, when most of the inhabitants accepted the oath of allegiance. New Amsterdam was found to be neatly built, the houses being of stone and brick, and covered, in the Dutch taste, with a mixture of red and black tiles. The name of New York was given to the town, and afterwards extended over the country, while Fort Orange received the new appellation of Albany. The boundaries of this region in the Dutch charter were, Maryland on the south, lands belonging to the savages on the west, the French colonies on the north, and New England on the east. A part of it was ceded by the Duke of York to subaltern proprietors, who called it New Jersey. The subsequent settlements of Pennsylvania and South Carolina still further enlarged the bounds of accurate knowledge; but an acquaintance with the real state and natural history of the country was not accomplished till the end of the last and the beginning of the present century.

The *political history* of the United States is blended with that of England; to which the reader is referred for information.

CHAPTER V.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH-AMERICA.

THE best account of the Spanish dominions in North-America is contained in a work scarcely known in England, and called *El Viagero Universal*, or The Universal Traveller; which occupies the greater part of two volumes, printed at Madrid in 1799. From this source we shall lay before our readers some important intelligence; to which we shall add some valuable extracts from the journey of M. Thiery de Menonville to Oaxaca, in 1777; from the dictionary of Alcedo, published at Madrid, in 1786; and from the papers of M. Humboldt, whose recent travels in America have excited considerable interest throughout Europe.

Extent and Boundaries.] In estimating the extent of these large and flourishing possessions, it is necessary to consider the boundaries. That towards the south-east is the eastern boundary of Veragua, the last province of North-America; consisting of a ridge called Sierras de Canatagua. Towards the north, the Spaniards do not readily assent to a boundary, but claim the whole north-west of America, pretending a prior right of discovery to the English, or any other nation: they appoint a governor of New California, by which name they imply all the north-west coast of America. Within land the boundaries of Louisiana, formerly possessed by Spain, ascended to the Turtle Lake, one of the sources of the Mississippi; but since that province has been acquired by the United States, the Spanish possessions terminate on the western coast, where the English claim the port of Sir Francis Drake, and mark the Spanish boundary at Cape Mendocino. The sources of the Rio Bravo, however, may be assumed as a medial boundary, as there are several small Spanish settlements to the north of Santa Fé, in about latitude thirty-nine degrees thirty minutes, while the southern boundary is about latitude seven degrees thirty minutes; hence we have a length of thirty-two degrees, or one thousand nine hundred and twenty geographical miles. The breadth does not correspond to this prodigious length of territory; though in one place, from the Atlantic shore of East Florida to that of California on the Pacific, it amounts to about three-quarters of that length; while the narrowest part of the isthmus, in Veragua, is not above twenty-five British miles: in general, the medial breadth can scarcely be computed at more than four hundred geographical miles.

Divisions.] In North-America, the Spanish dominions are divided into seven grand territories, or domains, generally called kingdoms by the Spanish authors. These are, ascending from the south to the north, 1, Guatemala; 2, Mexico, a name not restricted to the ancient kingdom, but embracing many extensive provinces to the north; 3, New Biscay; 4, New Leon; 5, New Mexico; 6, California; and, 7, Florida.

Climate.] The climate of this country is singularly diversified. Humidity predominates in the isthmus, but not so greatly as in the South-American province of Darien, where it rains for nine months of the year upon an average. Violent storms often occur; and sometimes, according to D'Auteroche, the lightning seems to rise from the ground. The maritime districts of Mexico are, however, so hot and unhealthy, as to occasion much perspiration even in January. The inland mountains, on the contrary, are sometimes partly covered with hoar-frost and ice in the dog-days; while in other inland provinces the climate is mild and salutary, with some slight falls of snow in winter: but no artificial warmth is found necessary, and animals remain all the year in the open air. There are heavy rains, generally after mid-day, from April till September; and hail-storms sometimes fall. Earthquakes and volcanos often terrify the inhabitants, and thunder is not unfrequent.

The height of the ground in this part of the world is a wonderful circumstance, and of course has a material effect upon the climate. Humboldt found that the vale of Mexico is about six thousand nine hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea; and that even the inland plains are generally as high as Mount Vesuvius. These calculations were formerly applied only to mountains; and one of the new improvements of the science is their application to plains and valleys. In the parts to the north of Guadalaxara, where the high chain of Topia runs north from the neighbourhood of that city, for a space of one hundred and fifty leagues, or about six hundred English miles, as far as New Mexico, the rains continue the whole day, from June to September; and in the province of Tabasco the rains are perpetual for nine months of the year. The southern coasts are equally affected, and are subject to great meteorological varieties; but, on the whole, the climate must be regarded as healthy. The aborigines sometimes attain a great age; and grey hairs, baldness, or wrinkles, are unknown till a very late period of life.

Face of the Country.] The general appearance of these extensive regions is singular and diversified. When M. Thiery had passed the ridge of Orazava, proceeding towards the south, he found that nature assumed quite a new aspect. The vegetation was surprisingly beautiful. Geraniums, heliotropes, &c. appeared under the yuccas, a kind of aloes, thirty feet in height. The highways were bordered with hedges of the sensitive plant. Superb bignonias, with yellow flowers, from sixty to one hundred feet in height, were also common, while the sides of the hills were covered with a beautiful species of Indian fig-tree, forming a curious ornament to the landscape. From a trunk of fifteen or sixteen feet in height, and five or six in circumference, spring straight branches, which are crowned by a series of others, regularly diverging, so as sometimes to fill a circumference of forty or fifty feet in diameter, and equal height, thus resembling a large chandelier of a sea-green colour. The fruit, when ripe, discloses a crimson pulp; and is said to be wholesome. The pitahiaha, a smaller species of these plants, afford a delicious fruit, which is the common food of the Indians. Extensive ridges of mountains, numerous volcanos, some of them covered with perpetual snow, precipices and cataracts, delicious vales, fertile plains, picturesque lakes and rivers, romantic cities and villages, amidst an union of the trees and vegetables of Europe and America, contribute to diversify the face of this interesting country.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil is, in general, a deep and fertile clay, which requires no manure, except irrigation. Though the population be extremely thin, yet agriculture has of late years made considerable progress. This progress may partly be judged from the state of the tithes, which, in the archbishopric of Mexico, for ten years, from 1769 to 1779, amounted to four millions one hundred and thirty-two thousand six hundred and thirty pesos, or dollars; while for the ten years, from 1779 to 1789, they rose to seven millions eighty-two thousand eight hundred and seventy-nine pesos; the difference being two millions nine hundred and fifty thousand two hundred and forty-nine pesos, or more than half of the former proceeds.

The chief agricultural product is indigo, of which there are annually exported one thousand five hundred arrobas, and about eight thousand quintals of pimento. The cultivation of sugar is considerably increased, and the augmentation of the price in Europe has augmented the trade. Tobacco is a most important branch. Cochineal is rather an article of horticulture, and requires considerable attention: the plant is a peculiar species of cactus, called nopal, and the insect is peculiar to the plant, being very small, and enveloped in a white film; but, when crushed, the beautiful carmine appears. This plant, which is about eight feet in height, is propagated by branches. The insect is dried before it becomes an article of commerce; and the annual exports are computed, by Estalla, at twenty-three thousand six hundred arrobas. By another computation, the quantity of cochineal exported to Spain is four hundred and sixty thousand pounds, costing in New Spain about twelve shillings a pound, but being worth at Cadiz about thirteen or fourteen shillings. The people employed in this culture are said to amount to between twenty-five and thirty thousand; and the value of the trade to the province of Oaxaca is reckoned at one million pesos.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] The principal river of Spanish North-America is the Rio Bravo, or Del Norte. The course of this river is conjectured to be about one thousand British miles. Alcedo informs us, that it divides the province of Coaguila from that of Texas, which last is in fact a part of the ancient Louisiana. The source is supposed to be in about forty degrees of latitude. In 1779, the governor of New Mexico, D'Ansa, made an expedition against the savages, called Cumanches; and on the 23d of August was at thirty-eight degrees fifty minutes, when the savages informed him that the river rose fifteen leagues to the north-west, in the ridge called Grullas, which belongs to the easterly chain, in the neighbourhood of Santa Fé. The source, according to Antillòn, is in a morass, which not only abounds in springs, but is fed by the constant dissolution of snow from adjacent volcanos. Between the Rio Bravo and the Mississippi the chief rivers are the Medina, the Magdalena, or River of Guadaloupe, that of Flores, the Arcokisas, and Chicowansh.

Towards the west is a large river, the Colorado, which flows into the Gulf of California. The course of this river may be computed at six hundred British miles. The Rio Colorado, or Red River, is so called because the waters become of that colour, owing to the rains falling upon a soil of red clay: it is a deep and copious stream, capable of considerable navigation. The neighbouring savages, called Cocomaricopas, are dexterous in swimming across, holding in the left hand a piece of wood, which supports their arms or burden, and steering with the right, while the women, supported by a kind of petticoat of basket-work, upon which they place their children, pass in like manner. The course of the Colorado is generally from north-east to south-west, but sometimes west. It is joined from the east by a large river called Gila, which is, however, every where fordable.

The chief lake in Spanish North-America is that of Nicaragua, which is about one hundred and seventy British miles in length, and about half as much in breadth. It is situated in the province of the same name, towards the south of the isthmus, and has a great outlet, the River of St. Juan, to the Gulf of Mexico; while a smaller stream is supposed to flow into the Pacific. If the population

were more numerous and industrious, they might make this lake supply the long-wished-for passage from the Atlantic into the Pacific, and in the most direct course that could be desired.

In the province of Yucatan there are many considerable lakes, well known to the cutters of logwood; and, still ascending towards the north, that of Mexico is the first that deserves attention. The lakes of Tezcuco and Chalco are about thirty miles in length, while that of Tezcuco is about fifteen miles in breadth; but as the latter is partly drained, so as to be at the distance of a league from the city, it is probably about twelve miles in breadth. This lake is not only celebrated in history, as originally containing the city of Mexico, rising amidst the waters like another Venice, but is remarkable for the quality of the waters, which are partly salt and partly fresh. There are three or four other smaller lakes, at the distance of about thirty miles from the capital, one of which gives rise to the River Panuco, which falls into the Gulf of Mexico, while another is the source of the River Barnaja.

Mountains.] The principal chain of mountains in Spanish North-America is that of Topia, which, commencing in the neighbourhood of Guadalaxara, extends north to New Mexico, a distance of more than seven hundred miles; while the breadth of all the ridges is sometimes one hundred and sixty miles. This chain is of such a height, as to be comparable with the Andes of Peru, and abounds with precipices of the most terrific appearance. It is in most parts covered with pines of an extraordinary size and height, and so thick as to exclude the rays of the sun. On the summit, the cold is intense; but the temperature of the sides varies according to their exposure. It gives rise to several rivers, which, during the rains, from June to September, inundate the country to the distance of two or three leagues. The ridge of Topia is also called the Sierra Madre, or mother-chain, and embraces the province of Nayarit, which remained pagan till 1718. Towards the north, the extent of the Sierra Madre has not been precisely determined; but the Moquis, on the west of Santa Fé, and under the same parallel, are classed among its inhabitants, and it is supposed to form one chain with that of Nabajo and the Sierra Azul, or Blue Ridge, of Alzate, and the stony mountains of north-west America, sending off a branch called Gemes, on the west of New Mexico, while on the east of that province is the inferior ridge of Namhi.

On the east, there is also a considerable chain, supporting an intermediate table-land, on which are various rivers, terminating in lakes; but not having a general appellation, it has been slightly treated by the Spanish authors. Estalla informs us, that all the extensive territory contained between the Pacific and Atlantic, is divided into three parts, formed by two principal chains of mountains, running from the south-east to the north-west. On the east of the oriental chain are the provinces of New Leon, Santander, Coaguila, and Texas, besides more southern districts on the Gulf of Mexico; and in the middle division, between the chains, are the provinces of New Biscay, as Tepeguana, Taraumara, Topia, and Batopilas, as far as the garrison of the Paso del Norte, which stands in the south of New Mexico; while on the west of the Topian chain are the provinces of Culiacan, Cinaloa, Ostimuri, and Sonora, with Upper and Lower Pimeria, so called from the different elevation of the territory, thus confirming the idea that the western chain terminates in the neighbourhood of Guadalaxara. According to this division, the oriental ridge begins in the vicinity of Mexico, farther to the south than that of Topia; and if either of the two chains could be connected with the Andes, it must be the oriental. At the distance of nine or ten leagues from Vera Cruz, M. Thiery says, he found himself in a plain, with the mountains of Alvorado south, Orizava west, and the Sierras Leones north-west, forming a natural barrier of one hundred and fifty leagues; and the eastern ridge seems, by his account, to form a barrier to the vale of Mexico. The other inferior chains are those of Tamalipa, Apanaca, which runs many leagues east and west, and the mountain of Canatagua, which divides Veragua from Panama. They may all be perceived by referring to the map.

The composition of the mountains of New Spain is but little known; but, according to M. Humboldt, they consist, for the most part, of argillaceous schistus.

Volcanos.] The volcanos of New Spain are very numerous. There are twenty-one from that of Soconusco, in the north, to that of Varu, in the south. They are all on the south-western coast, and, after a considerable interval, they again emerge towards the eastern coast, in the vicinity of Mexico. M. Humboldt has stated, that only a small number, and those little elevated, eject lava. He saw, at the volcano of Xorullo, a basaltic cone, which appeared above ground on the 15th September, 1759, and which is now one thousand four hundred and ninety-four feet above the surrounding plain. This volcano is in the province of Mechoacan, at the distance of eight leagues from Pasquaro, the capital, towards the south-west; the volcano of Colima being in the same direction, but at a greater distance. It first appeared on Michaelmas-day, 1759, with singular circumstances. A fertile vale, eight leagues in length and three in breadth, was called Xorullo by the Indians, a word, in their language, signifying Paradise: there was in it an opulent farm, belonging to Don Joseph Pimentel, which produced the best sugar of the whole viceroyalty, when, by the sudden eruption of a volcano, the whole was not only ruined, but the valley assumed a horrid aspect, being blackened with perpetual

smoke, and covered with rocks and ashes, the trees consumed, the earth full of deep cracks and openings, and now forming a hill of considerable height, crowned with a volcano. Along its side passes a rivulet, which formerly fertilized the valley, but is now so hot as to scald men or animals who attempt to pass it: this is a great inconvenience, as it is in the direct road to the copper-mines in that quarter. Six months before this catastrophe, horrible subterranean noises were constantly heard, and earthquakes were felt, which filled the inhabitants with consternation; and they would have quitted the ground, if the landlord had not employed a Jesuit of some influence to persuade them to remain. The eruptions of the volcano of Colima, though at the distance of seventy leagues, having ceased as soon as the earthquakes began, it was conceived that the matter had met with some obstruction, and had recoiled to this spot.

The volcano of Orizava is the most majestic in the viceroyalty. D'Auteroche observes, that the mountain of Orizava is said to be the highest in Mexico; and its snowy summit is visible from the capital, a distance of sixty miles. This celebrated mountain is to the south-east of Mexico, not far from the road to Vera Cruz; it became volcanic in 1545, and continued for twenty years, since which time there has been no appearance of inflammation. Though the summit be clothed with perpetual snow, the sides are adorned with beautiful forests of cedars, pines, and other trees. There are many other volcanos in this singular province, while other ridges are only remarkable for their height, as the mountain of Tlascala, the Tentzon, Tolocean, and others.

Vegetables.] The plants of the North-American possessions of Spain are the *cactus cochenilifer*, a species of the Indian fig, upon which the cochineal insect delights to feed; *convolvulus jalapa*, the true jalap, a native of the province of Xulappa, in the viceroyalty of Mexico; *copaifera officinalis*, and *toluifera balsamum*, two trees that yield the fragrant gum-resins, known in commerce by the names of Balsam of Capivi and of Tolu. The shores of the bays of Honduras and Campeachy have long been celebrated for their immense forests of mahogany and logwood; and the neighbourhood of Guatemala is distinguished for its indigo. The guaiacum, the sassafras, and tamarind, the cocoa-nut-palm, the chocolate-nut-tree, and a variety of others, which are natives of the West-Indian Islands, enrich those fertile provinces. The pine-apple grows wild in the woods, and the shallow rocky soils are inhabited by the various species of aloe and euphorbia. In the neighbourhood of Vera Cruz, Thiery found the cocoa-tree, a bombax with red flowers, melias, and plumerias. He also met with a rare species of wild fig, and groves of sensitive plants and ceibas. Yuccas, singular ferns, an arum of great beauty, and so large that the root weighs ten pounds, the superb lily, a violet with a bulbous root, thistles equal in size to artichokes, bulbous oxalis, junipers, an oak producing monstrous acorns, licopersica, various geraniums, and heliotropes, and that useful aloe called the agave Americana, or maguey, with various shrubs and flowers, too numerous to mention.

More than sixty kinds of fruit are sold in the market of Mexico, exclusive of the European sorts. Olives thrive in the archbishop's garden, a league from that city; and the province of Tehuacan abounds in pomegranates. Among the productions of Vera Paz, Estulla mentions the tree which yields *liquid amber*, and others of various balsams, gum copal, which, according to some, is the original substance of mineral amber, the mastic-tree, and that which yields the gum called dragon's blood. The reeds of Florida, which in other parts attain the height of thirty feet, are here said to grow to the incredible height of one hundred feet, and are so large that each joint will contain an aroba of water. A singular tree has been discovered in New Spain, and believed to be the only one of the kind existing in the world; the flower is in the form of the human hand. The following description of it is given by Estalla: Among the rare trees of this part of America must be especially placed that called *De las Manitas*. It grows near the village of San Joan, in the district of Toluca, on the side of a hill, and is of a regular form: its leaves somewhat resemble those of the holm-oak, and resist the rigour of winter and the northerly winds, to which it is exposed. Once in two years, it produces a very singular flower, in the shape of a hand, and of a flesh-colour, from which it derives its name. Several efforts were made to propagate this unique species, which, at length, have succeeded, and young plants are now in the botanical garden at Mexico.

In the town of Atrisco, thirty leagues to the south-east of Mexico, there is a celebrated tree, called *ahuehuete:* it was measured in October, 1767, in the presence of the archbishops of Mexico and Guatemala, and the bishop of Puebla. Upwards of one hundred persons entered the hollow trunk, which was then far from being filled, because a part lower than the rest was full of water. Two-thirds of the tree are wanting, having been consumed by lightning, but the height from the root to the part at which it was struck was one hundred and seventy palms of Spain; the outer circumference at the ground was one hundred and fifty-seven palms; the concave at the bottom one hundred and fourteen; at the height of three yards, sixty-six; and, at the same height on the outside, one hundred and nine palms. A palm is about nine inches English measure. This species is common in New Spain: there is one in the province of Oaxaca forty yards in circumference. The productive powers of the soil are also evidenced by an olive-tree, which must have been planted

since the conquest, and which is twenty-one yards and three-quarters in circumference.

Animals.] Among the various animals in this part of America, the most singular are the Mexican or hunch-back dog, and a kind of porcupine. What is called the tiger is a sort of panther, and sometimes grows to a great size. Clavigero says, that the largest quadruped is the danta or tapir, which is about the size of a mule, and is amphibious. The bison is found in New Mexico; and in California there are said to be wild sheep.

The buffalo of North-America is here common, and valuable for its skin and flesh. In 1783, four or five were embarked at Vera Cruz, and brought to Cadiz. A female calved in Spain; but the climate did not agree with them.

A horse in New Spain commonly costs four dollars; but the horses are far from being well trained. The cavalry is mounted on geldings. Oxen are chiefly used for the plough; but the beef is bad, and left for the poor; while the rich eat mutton and veal. In the southern provinces are armadillos, many varieties of apes, and some beautiful birds and insects; among the latter there is a species of ant, which makes a kind of honey, so abundant as to be an article of commerce. Its form and all its habits are those of the common ant, but it is veined with grey and black. The singularity is, that in the spring the belly swells with honey to the size of a cherry; so that if from a common ant the belly be taken, and the other parts joined to a cherry, there will be a perfect resemblance of the insect. The honey is of the same taste as that of bees.

There are enormous snakes, which are said to attack men and animals by their breath. Tame snakes are also kept in the fields of maize, where they destroy rats, moles, and insects. Numbers of a kind of wild geese frequent the lakes, and form a great article of consumption in the city. They are often taken, as in China, by Indians, who place calabashes on their heads, and seize the bird by the feet. The fish are few in number and variety.

Minerals.] The mineralogy of the Spanish empire in North-America is considered to be the most valuable in the world, as, in a much smaller extent, it produces superior wealth to that of all South-America. Silver forms the chief product; but in some spots gold is also abundant. Alcedo informs us, that during the war with the savages, which ended in 1771, rich mines of gold and silver were discovered in various parts of Sonora, particularly in the plain of Cineguilla, where there were found lumps of gold, so huge as sometimes to weigh six pounds, at the depth of only two feet. Two thousand persons soon settled in the neighbourhood, and a general commandant of the province was named; it being regarded as one of the richest in the whole viceroyalty, as all the mountains abound with silver and gold: but the incursions of enemies, the want of labourers, and the difficulty of procuring quicksilver, have concurred, with the abundance of mines near the capital, in causing those of Sonora to be neglected.

Till within the last fifty or sixty years, the richest silver-mines of Spain were those of Zacatecas, about two hundred British miles to the north-west of Mexico; but the minerals appear to have been chiefly smelted at St. Luis de Potosi, which had also rich mines in its neighbourhood, discovered soon after those of Potosi, in South-America, A.D. 1545, whence the name was transferred.

At present, the principal mines are at Guanajuato, considerably nearer the capital, being a distance of only one hundred miles, while it is about one hundred and forty to the east of Guadalaxara, and about fifty to the north-west of the city of Queretaro. The mines in the vicinity of Guanajuato produce abundance of gold, silver, and copper, and are carried to a great depth. The chief mines of gold and silver are the Puerta Ovejera, Maru, San Bernabé, Rosario, and Medalla; but there are also five mining stations within the mountains, and in the vales forty-three smelting-houses, which afford employment to great numbers of labourers, who consume annually one hundred thousand loads of maize, eighteen thousand sheep, five thousand oxen, and eighteen thousand loads of meal, there being sixteen villages in the township of Irapuato. The mining operations have much increased within the last fifty years, as appears from the quantity of the coinage; for during thirteen years, from 1766 to 1778, there were coined at Mexico two hundred and three millions eight hundred and eighty-two thousand nine hundred and forty-eight pesos; while, during another thirteen years, from 1779 to 1791, there were coined two hundred and fifty-two millions forty-two thousand four hundred and nineteen pesos; the difference being more than forty-eight millions. Gold and silver are now rarely sent to Spain in bars or ingots, nor are they consumed in plate. Before the freedom of commerce, the coinage never exceeded twenty millions of pesos; and in 1792 and 1793, it annually surpassed twenty-four millions. There are mines of quicksilver in New Spain; but they have not been sufficiently explored.

On the riches of New Spain, the celebrated traveller, Bourgoing, makes the following observations:—

"It might be said to the Spaniards, 'Far from making efforts to draw from your mines all that they can produce, you ought rather to shut a part. Confine the influx of your metals into the ancient continent to the quantity necessary to replace the insensible waste, what luxury converts into utensils, and what avarice buries either in Asia or Europe. Follow the example of the Portuguese, who restrict the operations in their diamond-mines, in order

that their value may not be diminished; and that of the Dutch, who burn a part of their spices, that the price may be maintained. The silver of Mexico is to you as diamonds and spices: if you triple the sum, your miners, whose labour might be more usefully exerted on other objects, will have more occupation, but you will not be more rich. You will only pay a triple price for the productions of foreign industry, which will always be necessary in a greater or less degree.'

"To these specious arguments it is answered in Spain, 'We do not perceive any thing terrible in this augmentation of currency. In the first place, the duties present a clear profit to the public treasury; and while the other states of Europe are occupied with increasing their revenues, that they may support great enterprises either in peace or war, by what fatality should it happen that Spain may find causes of decline in what is thought to constitute the prosperity of other states.'

"We may say as much of our manufactures. As long as their operations shall keep pace with the exploration of our mines, our currency will be increased, both by what we employ to pay foreign industry, and with the surplus of what is furnished by Mexico and Peru. Nor do we see any thing dreadful in the prospect. We ask, on the contrary, what are the most flourishing nations? Are they not France and England, those who have by far the most abundant currency? Of what consequence is the source from whence it springs. The combined product of our mines and of our industry will still be useful to Spain, in the hands of great capitalists, who will embellish our cities and country, will furnish funds for public establishments, and will supply the state in critical periods with loans at a lower interest than formerly."

Natural Curiosities.] There are here the same common mineral-waters as in other countries. Besides the volcanos, there are many natural curiosities, one of the most remarkable of which is the Ponte de Dios, or Bridge of God, resembling the natural bridge in the territory of the United States.

It is about one hundred miles south-east from Mexico, near the village of Molcaxac, over a deep river called the Aquetoyaque, and is constantly passed as a highway; but it seems uncertain whether the river have worn the passage through a rocky mountain, or the fragment be part of a fallen hill, detached by an earthquake. There are many romantic cataracts, particularly those of the River Barnaja, between the city of Guadalaxara and the Lake of Chapala. The floating gardens in the Lake of Mexico were artificial curiosities, the bottom being formed of intertwisted willows.

In the province of Vera Paz, which seems to be chiefly calcareous, as it abounds with spots where rivers suddenly sink under ground, there is, between two high ridges, a cave of great extent, with many detached recesses, abounding with beautiful stalactitic columns and figures, which appear like alabaster. The cold is extreme, and a great noise of water is heard, which, rushing from various parts forms, at a little distance from the mouth of the cave, a lake of great depth that rolls like a sea, and gives rise to a river, which at a short distance vanishes under ground. There are many subterranean rivers in the province of Yucatan, where, according to Estalla, there is no large visible stream, except that of Lagartos, between the ports of Silan and Cuyo, on the north of this peninsula. This province also abounds with lofty and picturesque cataracts, which are likewise frequent in many parts of New Spain.

Antiquities.] The ancient monuments of the Mexicans consist chiefly of a few symbolical paintings, the colours of which are remarkably bright, but the designs rude. Many of their utensils and ornaments have also been preserved, but they are coarse and uncouth. Their edifices were meanly built with turf and stone, and thatched with reeds. The great temple of Mexico was a square mound of earth, only ninety feet wide, partly faced with stone; with a quadrangle of thirty feet at the top, on which was a shrine of the deity, probably of wood. Clavigero, indeed, speaks of this temple in enthusiastic terms; but Estalla, after ridiculing the hunters for Mexican antiquities, says, "There are in Mexico no remains of what our historians have painted: begging pardon of these respectable men, I do not believe one half of what they boast. Those great palaces, gardens, and temples; those immense and populous cities subject to Mexico, and whose kings were tributary to Montezuma; that high and vast wall which divided the Mexican empire from the republic of Tlascalá, and the other wonders related by historians, would have left at least some few ruins in testimony of their existence, even granting that the Spaniards entertained the extravagant wish of destroying all, in order that they might be obliged to construct, with great labour and expence, other edifices far inferior.

"Must we not think in the same manner of the relations concerning the manner and delicacy with which the Mexicans worked gold and other metals? What has become of all those precious toys? They were embarked on board a ship, it is said, and were lost. A wonderful empire, which lost in a small vessel all its precious manufactures of gold! It is certain that not a particle remains of these wonders. Let us suppose in the Spaniards an unnecessary brutality; let us grant to Las Casas that the conquerors, in three or four years, annihilated fifty millions of Indians; shall we also imagine that they destroyed the cities and magnificent edifices, which their own interest and convenience must have led them to preserve? Shall we suppose they did it with a design of not leaving

to the Indians any monument which might remind them of their former power? Absurd supposition! The Indians had no occasion for any monument of art to remind them that they had emperors, or that they were conquered by the Spaniards, who thus became their lawful lords; and if there was any necessity not to revive the memory of those transactions, it would be absurd, on an annual solemnity, to display in triumph the standard of Cortez, in commemoration of this famous conquest.

"I am far from believing the absurd calculations of Las Casas, and those who imitate his extravagance. It appears to me that, in all the empire of Mexico, the population did not surpass three or four millions, even including the people of Tlascala, and other towns not subject to Montezuma. But are we then to suppose that Cortez, Diaz, and other eye-witnesses of credit, repeated falsehoods with regard to Mexico? I would reserve the term of falsehoods for those relations of historians or travellers, who only study to divert the reader with marvellous accounts of non-existencies, or idle exaggerations. I believe Cortez, Diaz, and other witnesses of the conquest, to have been men of a very different character, who were naturally surprised at the grandeur of Mexico, from a comparison with what they had hitherto found in the isles, and on the continent of America; and who, never conversant in works of art, and then a long time estranged from them, were surprised at the rudest exertions of this description. For a long time they had seen nothing except the hovels of savages, the rudest furniture, and naked tribes, without any policy or regular form of government. In New Spain were found numerous villages of neater and more regular houses; and the city of Mexico appearing very populous, with a powerful chief, some buildings of great extent, and various objects of art, they fondly compared it with the best cities of Europe. All these objects they encountered in a country, whose inhabitants they had previously held in the meanest estimation; and, dazzled with such unexpected wealth in gold, silver, and precious stones, their inflamed imagination led them to extravagant descriptions. Thus, in modern times, the enchanted islands of Juan Fernandez, of Tinian, of Otaheite, described by voyagers as so many paradises of delight, what are they? Cool judgement would say—little isles, more or less agreeable. But shall we say that these respectable voyagers have told falsehoods? No. They arrived fatigued with the uniform and melancholy spectacle which a tempestuous sea had presented during many months of navigation, wearied beyond expression, sick, deprived almost of the necessaries of life: the most rocky and desert island would, in their eyes, have assumed the charms of paradise. But happily finding an island covered with verdant trees, with fruits, with salutary plants, diversified with crystaline rivulets, and possessed by humane inhabitants, eager to relieve their numerous wants, shall it be thought strange that no expressions could equal their feelings in describing these countries; though there were in fact nothing which they themselves would not have despised in other circumstances. From these examples may be seen the real cause of the exaggerations of our historians; and if to this be added the self-interest which induced the Spaniards to magnify the grandeur of their conquests, there is little room to be surprised at their relations."

The chief antiquities of the Mexicans appear to be earthen-ware, in which the Indians of Guadalaxara and Mechoacan excel to this day.

Population.] The population of all the Spanish provinces in North-America has been estimated at not much more than seven millions; of whom the native Indians are supposed to amount to four millions; and the Spaniards and other mixed inhabitants to three millions, of which the Spaniards form about one-third. This calculation is however considered as beyond the actual number, and it is probable that the whole population of Spanish North-America does not exceed six millions. The small-pox is remarkably fatal; and the black vomit, as connected with the yellow fever, acts at intervals with dreadful ravages: notwithstanding the number of priests, monks, and nuns, the population appears on the whole to have greatly increased: in 1612, the inhabitants of Mexico were computed at fifteen thousand; they are now about one hundred and forty thousand.

The population of America, before the European conquest, must have been greatly exaggerated. But this is always the case on the discovery of new countries. The English voyagers to Otaheite supposed the inhabitants to exceed one hundred thousand, when, upon actual enumeration, there were found little more than sixteen thousand. It is probable that, when America was discovered, the whole population, including the West-Indies, did not exceed four millions.

Estalla observes, "that though he has not been able to acquire exact information concerning the population of New Spain, yet, by the most intelligent computations, there are in the intendancy of Mexico, one million two hundred thousand souls, including one hundred and forty thousand for the city. And by the proportion between this province and the others, as well as by the best-founded calculations, it may be supposed that there are, in all the kingdom, three millions and a half of inhabitants." M. Thiery adds, that from Panama to California and Sonora on the one side, and from Carthagena to the Mississippi on the other, including a surface of more than two millions of square leagues, the latest enumerations did not present one million of souls, comprising not only all the Spaniards, but the Indians, mingled races, and negroes. This is indeed surprising, as the population of the Spa-

nish dominions in North-America has been understood to be far greater in proportion than of those in the southern part of that continent. But upon the whole there is reason to believe, that neither Estalla nor Thiery are correct, and that the whole population of the Spanish possessions in North-America can in no case exceed three millions."

Army.] According to the detailed accounts of Estalla, it appears that the total of the military force in New Spain is as follows:—

Regulars	5,982
Militia, &c.	31,523
Garrisons, &c.	5,686
Total	43,191

A great portion of these regular forces consists of cavalry; but the whole are very ill-armed and accoutred; and it may be doubted whether the whole grand viceroyalty of New Spain could send into the field fifteen thousand effective men. This province, however, does not seem to share the domestic discontents which have appeared in some of the others, having been generally favoured by the Spanish monarchs.

Revenue.] By the most recent account, the total revenue derived by Spain from America and the Philippines, is two millions seven hundred thousand pounds, of which one half may be deducted for the extravagant charges of the administration. The recent observations of Estalla on the revenues of New Spain are not only little known, but contain much useful information.

"The augmentation," says he, "which has taken place in all the branches of the royal treasury, in this viceroyalty, would appear incredible, were it not proved by authentic documents. For since the visit of Don Joseph de Galvez, afterwards Marquis of Sonora, the sums paid into the royal treasury have been tripled, so as to amount annually to nineteen millions of dollars, and latterly even that sum has been increased. I do not doubt that the expences of administration, salaries, &c. amount to four millions eight hundred thousand dollars, yet there is still an overplus of fourteen millions two hundred thousand dollars; or more than one million eight hundred thousand pounds sterling.

"If all this sum were remitted to the parent-country, the riches of this viceroyalty would redound more to her advantage; but the assignments to the Windward Islands, the Philippines, Louisiana, Florida, and Truxillo, consume three millions four hundred thousand dollars. What is remitted to Spain in money, and copper for the founding of artillery; for quicksilver from Castille and Germany; in the produce of vacant bishoprics, and for cards and tobacco, amounts to four millions eight hundred thousand dollars.

"There are some branches of the revenue which attract superior attention, on account of their amount, though they are the most modern in the establishment, and in other respects they may be regarded as of an inferior class. Such are the tributes, the products of the coinage, of quicksilver, gunpowder, cards, duties on goods sold, the beverage called *pulque*, bulls of indulgence, tobacco, lotteries, and letters, all of which are under the management of the minister of state. Other branches are administered in what are called the royal coffers, by their respective superintendants; such as the duties on gold, silver-plate, the assays, tythes, ninths, various ecclesiastical concessions, titles of Castille, vendible offices, compositions and confirmations of lands, cock-fighting, snow and ice, stamps, fines, &c. the product of the mines, copper, lead, tin, alum, and others. Other branches belong to the coffers of Vera Cruz; as customs, freight, convoy-money, &c.

"The branch of tributes is one of the most ancient, as having been established immediately upon the conquest; with this difference, that at first it was rendered in effects, as the Indians paid it in their pagan times; but in 1561 it was ordered to be according to the value of the manufactures and products of the soil. As early as 1569 there were established one hundred and five greater *alcaldias*, or bailiwicks, in which the greater part of the tribute was reduced to money; a practice gradually established throughout the viceroyalty, so that at present the tribute is paid at a fixed proportion of the manufactures and products of the soil. In this, however, there is the inconvenience of inequality: for example, in the district of Guanajuato, only twelve reals are paid yearly, while in that of San Luis Potosi the rate is eighteen reals; because the mines of the former augment in value, while those of the latter decline. The registers of the Indians are made by intendants, or commissaries, who present them to fixed offices for their revision and approbation, and that the exemptions may be notified. On the other hand, the Indians are exempted from the duties on things sold; and in every other respect they have more privileges than the Spaniards.

"The duties on coinage have latterly augmented, and may produce annually to the royal treasury, one million seven hundred thousand pesos. The salaries amount to one hundred thousand, the expences of the mint to three hundred thousand which being deducted, leave a clear sum of one million three hundred thousand pesos. A marc of silver is bought for eight pesos, two maravedis; and is sold to the public at eight pesos four reals; this difference forming the advantage derived by the royal treasury.

"The revenue from salt-works is administered separately, that article being also of great use in the fusion of metals.

"The clear and whole result is one hundred thousand pesos. Gunpowder is of no less utility than salt in the

mines; and such a quantity is made in the viceroyalty, as not only to suffice for home-consumption, but also for the Spanish West-Indies; producing to the king an annual sum of two hundred thousand pesos. The fine sort is sold at ten reals the pound, the common at eight reals; but a deduction of two reals is made to the proprietors of mines, for their encouragement. The quality is excellent. The duty on cards belongs to the same office as that of gunpowder, and clears annually seventy thousand pesos, after deducting fifty thousand for salaries and expences: each pack is sold at a hard dollar, so that the packs consumed are one hundred and twenty thousand. The duty on articles sold is, after that on tobacco, one of the most productive, and does not fall short of the annual sum of three millions four hundred thousand pesos; of which the salaries deduct three hundred and twenty thousand, and the expences eighty thousand. That which is called the sea-duty, exacted at Vera Cruz, whether the articles be sold there or not, is three per cent. on the supposed value, while, in the interior, it is six per cent. In some custom-houses of the interior only two per cent. is exacted, and sometimes even less.

"The tax on the beverage called *pulque* belongs to the same office as the last; and the use of that liquor is so general, as to amount to four millions of arrobas yearly, at a very low price, three quartillos being sold in the city of Mexico for half a real, and in the country it is still cheaper. Each arroba brought into the capital pays a duty of one real nine and a half granos; in Puebla one real and nine granos; and in other parts of the viceroyalty the Spaniards pay a quarter of the value, and the Indians a sixth. This revenue amounts annually to eight hundred thousand pesos; salaries thirty thousand, expences twenty thousand; clear sum seven hundred and fifty thousand. It may be proper to add, that the *arroba* is about three English gallons.

"The duty on tobacco, though of more modern date, and in the form of a monopoly, is of all others the most useful to the royal treasury. The offices are in the towns of Cordova, Orizava, Zongolica, and Huatusco. It is bought by the king at a medial price of three reals a pound in the leaf, and is sold for ten reals. In order to increase the revenue, there is also a monopoly of segars, the fabric being established at Mexico, Puebla, Oaxaca, Orizava, Queretaro, and Guadalaxara, which manufacture varies in quantity according to the demand. The snuff called rappee was made in Mexico, but the consumption did not pay the expence. The sale of snuff, which comes entirely from the Havannah, amounts to fifty thousand pesos; that in rolls three hundred and fifty thousand; the puros five hundred thousand; and the segars, of which the consumption is infinitely greater, five millions four hundred thousand: total sum, six millions three hundred thousand. In the year 1797, the augmentation of this revenue was eight hundred thousand pesos. Snuff is sold at twenty reals a pound; the puros from five to fourteen for half a real, according to size; and at the same price the packets of segars, each containing three dozen and a half. The expences attending on this revenue are about two millions eight hundred thousand; the salaries being seven hundred thousand, general expences two hundred and fifty thousand, purchases seven hundred and fifty thousand, manufacture one million one hundred thousand. The clear revenue is, therefore, three millions five hundred thousand pesos.

"In the capital alone there are more than seven thousand persons employed in making segars: they were formerly a tumultuous class, but are now as peaceable as the other inhabitants, in consequence of the vigilance and firmness of the government.

"Each shop for eatables, or other commodities, pays thirty pesos a year: the gross amount is one hundred and ten thousand pesos; and, after deducting four thousand four hundred, there remains one hundred and five thousand six hundred.

"The revenue from the lottery is one of those which has prospered the most; and, though more subject to variation than any other, may be rated at the clear sum of one hundred thousand pesos.

"Among the taxes gathered at particular offices must also be placed that of the post, which belongs to the minister of state, each courier being supposed to convey the quantity of thirty thousand pesos, more or less. This revenue has also the singularity of liquidating its accounts, not in pesos fuertes, like the others, but in reals of silver. The clear product is supposed to be more than one million four hundred thousand reals.

"Hitherto," says our author, "I have treated of those branches of the revenue which are gathered at particular offices; I have now to mention those under the care of the ministers of the royal coffers.

"The duties on gold and silver, among the most ancient in the vice-royalty, were at first very considerable, but afterwards declined, till, by a royal ordinance of the 1st of March, 1777, the contributions on the gold were reduced to three per cent.; and the double seigniorage was extinguished, the single alone being permitted. This revenue now amounts to two millions of pesos, the expences being only four hundred pesos. Plate, whether gold or silver, presented to be stamped, pays three per cent. besides other duties. To prevent the frauds practised by the artificers, it was determined in the Superior Junta, that they should be furnished from the mint with what gold they might want at one hundred and twenty-eight pesos and thirty-two marcos, the marc of twenty-two carats, (each of four grains;) and that the silver should

be supplied from the state-coffers. The value of this branch amounts to fourteen thousand nine hundred and seventy-seven pesos annually. There are other duties on assays, &c. to the amount of ninety thousand pesos.

"The tithes of the cathedral churches belonged at first entirely to the crown, and the clergy were paid from the royal treasury; but this plan has since been altered. The tithes of Panuco, New Leon, and Arispe, in Sonora, produce sixty thousand pesos. In other provinces ninths are deducted for the use of the king, and valued at one hundred and ninety thousand pesos.

"The extraordinary fondness of the natives for cock-fighting gave rise to a formal establishment in favour of this diversion, which produced a revenue of not less than fifty thousand pesos; and, in order to increase this advantage, a hall or theatre was constructed in the village of San Augustin de las Cuevas, much frequented by the citizens of Mexico during Easter. This building cost six thousand eight hundred and thirty-eight pesos; and in two years and eight months had yielded one thousand seven hundred and forty pesos. There are considerable sums also raised by taxes on trifling articles, such as stamped paper, leather, lead, tin, &c. It is supposed by some able calculators, that after every necessary expence is deducted, the clear revenue must amount to above one million five hundred thousand pounds sterling."

Cities, &c.] MEXICO, the principal city of Spanish America, is celebrated for the singularity of its situation. In a beautiful vale, surrounded with mountains, the lake of Tezcuco is joined on the south to that of Chalco by a strait, on the west side of a tongue of land, the whole circuit of these lakes being about ninety miles. In a small isle, to the north of this junction, and upon the west side of the Lake of Tezcuco, was the old city of Mexico, which was reached by several causeways, raised in the shallow waters; but, on the east, there was no communication, except by canoes. Chappe D'Auteroche, who visited the city in 1769, informs us, that it is built upon a fen, near the banks of a lake, and crossed by numerous canals, the houses being all built upon piles; from which it would seem that the waters of the lake have diminished, so as to leave a fenny access on the west. This probably happened after 1629, when there was a remarkable inundation, and a wide canal was opened through a mountain to drain the lakes. The site of the city is the same with the ancient one, the viceroy residing on the spot of Montezuma's palace, in a large mansion built by Cortez, and still rented at four thousand ducats from the Marquises del Valle, his descendants. In many places the ground still yields; and some buildings, as well as the cathedral, have sunk six feet. The streets are wide and straight, though very dirty; and the houses, which resemble those in Spain, are tolerably well-built. The chief edifice is the viceroy's palace, which stands near the cathedral, in a central square. Behind the palace is the mint, in which more than one hundred workmen are employed, as the owners of mines here exchange their bullion for coin. The other chief buildings are the churches, chapels, and convents, which are very numerous, and richly ornamented. The outside of the cathedral is unfinished, as the foundations are suspected not to be safe; but the rail round the high altar is of solid silver; and there is a silver lamp so capacious that three men can get into it; it is also enriched with lions' heads, and other ornaments, in pure gold. The images of the virgin and other saints are either solid silver, or covered with gold and precious stones. Besides the great central square, there are two others, each with a fountain in the middle. "To the north of the town," says D'Auteroche, "near the suburbs, is the Alameda, or public walk. A rivulet runs all round it, and forms a tolerably large square, with a basin and jet d'eau in the middle. Eight walks, each with two rows of trees, terminate at this basin, like a star. This is the only walk in or near to Mexico; all the country about it is swampy ground, and full of canals. A few paces farther, and facing the Alameda, is the Quemadero: this is the place where they burn the Jews, and other unhappy victims of the inquisition. It is an enclosure between four walls, and filled with furnaces, into which are thrown, over the walls, the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive; condemned by judges professing a religion whose first precept is charity. The dresses of the Spanish inhabitants are generally silk, and their hats are adorned with belts of gold and roses of diamonds; for even the slaves have bracelets and necklaces of gold, silver, pearls, and gems."

Mexico is the seat of a very great commerce between Vera Cruz on the east, and Acapulco on the south; and the shops display a profusion of articles in gold, silver, and jewels.

The air of this city is very foul in the narrow parts, and the bodies of dead animals remain long unconsumed. There are many water-courses, covered and open; but they are cleansed only once in two years. The winter is gentle, and it is thought severe when the ice exceeds the thickness of paper. The summer-heats are tempered by the regular showers which fall in the evenings. About noon, during the rainy season, the clouds begin to rise from the lakes, and betwixt two and three o'clock descend in violent showers, of which an European can hardly form an idea, except by comparing the noise and rapidity to a hail-storm. The rain continues two hours, more or less, and is sometimes accompanied with lightning. Water-spouts often occur; but they have never been known to have fallen on the city, but always on the lake. They, however, sometimes destroy small mining establishments; and Estalla asserts, that they have been known even to

level hills. Though just within the tropic of Cancer, the annual cold at Mexico appears, from observations, to exceed the heat. The rainy season prevails from the middle of May to the middle of September; during which, if it failed to rain every evening, the harvest would be lost, and many diseases would ensue.

Mexico contains thirteen hospitals and other charitable establishments; a house of refuge for married women; a Magdalen for abandoned females; a foundling hospital, and a general hospital for the sick poor and mendicants. There are also several houses for female orphans, who are well fed, and receive one hundred dollars a year, and five hundred when they are able to establish themselves. Other girls draw lots at the cathedral, and receive certain perquisites; by which, sometimes, when they wish to marry, they possess from six to eight thousand dollars.

There is a general hospital for the Indians, of which the expences are defrayed by themselves; but the family of Cortez, the conqueror, maintains another hospital for the Indians, with such excellent assistance, that they are eager to enter. Among several other hospitals, that of San Lazaro receives people afflicted with the leprosy, an ancient malady prevalent in America, where it is chiefly imputed to the use of cotton-shirts, or other garments of that material, as also to the use of pork, of which there is a great consumption, and that of pimento-sauce; but the chief cause is the uncleanliness of the people.

The city is abundantly supplied with grain, fruit, and the productions of the garden from the environs, which are very fertile, except on the eastern side of the great lake of Tezcuco, where the saline-waters and vapours impede the vegetation. The more populous and crowded parts of the city extend from north to south one Spanish league, and from east to west three-quarters of a league.

The chief gates are that of Guadalupe and those of Los Angeles, Traspana, Chapultepec, San Antoni, and San Lazaro. All the pulque enters by the gate of Guadalupe; and, when a new cargo arrives, the joyous occasion is celebrated with banners, music, and incredible uproar. In the midst of the great square is a fountain, with a horse of bronze. The palace of the viceroy has a considerable garden, where he sometimes erects a tent, assumes a country dress, and transacts business; but, in general, the viceroys, having no country-houses, pass the warm season at that of the archbishop, in Tacubaya.

The *coliseo*, or theatre, is small, but handsome; the actors generally come from Spain. Smoking is permitted in the theatre, except when the viceroy or his lady is present; the women, who smoke like the men, divert themselves with throwing the ends of segars at the opposite boxes. The spectators are sometimes enthusiastic in favour of certain actresses: not many years ago, in a fit of this kind, while an European actress was repeating a favourite passage, ounzas of gold were thrown upon the stage, to the amount of three thousand dollars, or about seven hundred English guineas; a striking proof of Mexican opulence and extravagance.

The most splendid festivals observed in this city are the procession of Corpus Christi, and the entrance of a new viceroy. On the former are displayed all the luxury and pomp of the capital, particularly in ecclesiastic wealth and ornaments: the latter is a magnificent spectacle. The viceroy proceeds on horseback through the chief streets to the cathedral, where he is received by the archbishop at the head of the chapter. Another solemnity is the 13th of August, the anniversary of the conquest, when the standard of Cortez is hoisted with great parade, and accompanied by the viceroy. A courier from Spain generally arrives once a month: on his arrival all the bells are rung; and on the following day the viceroy and royal audience always celebrate a solemn mass.

Vera Cruz is described by M. Thiery as situated in a sandy and barren plain, on the shore of the Atlantic, with infectious marshes on the south. It fronts the sea in a semicircle, and is enclosed with a wall, six feet high and three broad, surmounted by a wooden palisade. On the shore are two redoubts, with some cannon to defend the port, which is bad and intricate. The houses are of tolerably good masonry, in stone and lime, with wooden balconies, which have induced some travellers to report that the houses themselves are of wood. The churches abound in decorations of silver, while in the houses the chief luxury consists of porcelain and other Chinese articles. The principal inhabitants are merchants; but European commerce is chiefly conducted at Xalapa. The population is about eight thousand; the inhabitants are generally proud and indolent; but commerce is well understood, and there are seven or eight trading firms, each worth one million of dollars. Opposite Vera Cruz, at the distance of four hundred fathoms, is an islet, on which stands the castle of St. Juan d'Ulloa, which is fortified with three hundred pieces of cannon. From forty to sixty ships of war, or one hundred merchantmen, might anchor from four to ten fathoms; but the northerly winds often drive vessels on shore. In the rainy season the marshes on the south are haunted by alligators, from seven to eight feet in length. The sea-fowl and other birds are so numerous as sometimes to darken the air; and the mosquettos are very troublesome. Estalla informs us, that the north winds are so furious, that the ladies are excused from going to mass; and these gales sometimes load the walls with sand. In the rainy season the water regularly falls in the night; while at Mexico it falls in the afternoon.

Acapulco is the chief mart of the trade with the Philippine Islands. When a galleon or Chinese ship arrives, the merchants at Mexico hasten to receive their commo

dities; but at other times the town is little frequented, being in a hot and wet climate, where the south-east winds, in a rainy season, are singularly destructive; hence Acapulco is scarcely inhabited by any Spanish families; but it contains about four hundred families, consisting of Chinese, or people from the Philippines, mulattoes, and negroes. Provisions are scarce; and the city depends on a supply from the Indians. At the distance of a musket-shot stands, on a promontory, the castle of San Diego, with thirty-one pieces of cannon, to defend the haven, which is sufficiently spacious to contain five hundred ships.

PUEBLA DE LOS ANGELES is regarded as the most opulous city after Mexico, the number of inhabitants being not less than sixty thousand. It is in a warm and dry climate, and one of the most beautiful cities in America, the churches being sumptuous, and the streets broad and regular, with large squares and handsome houses. It contains twelve nunneries and several monasteries.

QUERETARO is said to be one of the most opulent cities in the viceroyalty, and the most extensive, next to Mexico; the situation being in a delicious vale, watered by a river, which is divided into numerous channels, and conveyed into two thousand gardens, producing all the fruits and flowers of Europe and America. From three grand squares proceed numerous streets towards the four cardinal points of the compass; and there is a celebrated aqueduct, supported by more than forty arches, of the height of one hundred and five feet. The aqueducts, in general, are beautiful objects of architecture in New Spain. The parochial church is magnificent, and the curacy is considered one of the richest in the viceroyalty. Another church is so sumptuously adorned, that the altar is of massy silver. There are three thousand families of Spaniards, Mestizos, and Mulattoes, and about as many of Otomite Indians; so that the population is computed at forty-seven thousand, among which are many rich and noble families. The manufactures are fine cloths, woollen stuffs, and coarse linens; and the shops are very numerous.

GUADALAXARA is situate on the River Barnaja, or Esquitlan, which flows from the Lake of Mechoacan, and runs rapidly to the north-west, there being a great cataract at the distance of four leagues. Here are eight squares, many convents, and two colleges. The streets are unpaved, and the carriages drawn by unshod mules. There are frequent tempests, but it never snows; and when a shower fell, it was so great a phenomenon, that the inhabitants imagined the world to be at an end: the like superstition was shewn at Mexico some years ago, on the appearance of the aurora borealis.

SANTA FE', the capital of New Mexico, is rather a village than a town, but deserves some description, on account of its singular and remote position, being computed, by the Spanish authors, at the distance of two thousand four hundred British miles to the north of the capital city of Mexico. It was founded in 1682, on the skirts of a high chain of mountains, from which issues a clear river, abounding in excellent trout. The population consists of three hundred Spanish families; the Indians of that district having no desire to live in the town. The surrounding territory is fertile and pleasant, producing wheat, maize, garden-plants, fruits, and particularly grapes, of which esteemed wines are made.

Manufactures and Commerce.] In New Spain there are many tanneries, but the leather is far from being equal to the Spanish; and the same may be said of the glass and earthenware. In Guadalaxara they make earthen jars, of a sweet scent, which are brought even to Spain. In the city of Queretaro, there are various manufactures of cloth, and the soldiers are accustomed to keep their uniforms, as a splendid dress, on their return to the mother-country. The hams of Tolnca, twelve leagues south-west from Mexico, are highly esteemed. In Puebla forty-three sorts of woollen-cloths are made, but the dearest is only six reals a yard. There are also potteries and glass-houses, and about twelve hundred looms for veils, mantles, and other articles of fine cotton, some mixed with silk. Most of the other towns have a few looms for the same purposes. The manner of weaving appears to be as simple as in Hindoostan; yet the war having embarrassed the importation of European articles, they are imitated with considerable success, and even blond-lace has been carried to great perfection. The manufacture of plate is carried on to a great extent. Silk is found in the province of Oaxaca.

The commerce of New Spain is of great extent, and has recently undergone considerable improvements, which deserve illustration. Charles III. and his successor exerted themselves so beneficially in favour of the American colonies, that more was done during their reigns than in the whole preceding period. The number of shops has been greatly increased. The imports have also augmented, so that at Vera Cruz alone they amounted, in 1792, to fourteen millions twenty-three thousand eight hundred and eighty-nine dollars. The duties also shew the rise of trade, upon a medium of thirteen years, compared with thirteen preceding the change, the advantage of the former being more than fourteen millions of dollars.

By their successful speculations there are many merchants who can disburse twenty or thirty thousand dollars, without any impediment; and those who can advance smaller sums are very numerous, though formerly there were none of this last class, all being dependent upon the monopolists. Thus an appearance of ease is observed among the middle classes, and even the lower orders.

The greater diffusion of wealth appears, besides, from many circumstances. Formerly many tickets of the lottery remained in the treasury; at present, all are sold, because many can afford to buy. The theatre of the capital, which formerly yielded only four thousand pesos, cleared, in 1792, twelve thousand three hundred and six. In 1791, a theatre was opened at Vera Cruz; and one has also been erected in the city of Queretaro.

The commerce of the viceroyalty may be regarded under five distinct heads; that with China, or the Philippine Islands; that with Peru, the West-Indies, Spain, and the interior of the viceroyalty. The first consists solely in a ship, which arrives annually with five hundred thousand pesos of goods, at prime cost, in the Philippines, but worth at least double that sum in New Spain. The greater part of the cargo consists of silks, printed cottons, or chintzes, wax, porcelain, and other small articles. If delayed by storms or accidents, the cargo is doubled in the following year. This trade had declined, but is now re-established. The company of the Philippines at Cadiz remitted to Vera Cruz, in 1790, 1791, and 1792, goods of those islands to the amount of more than four hundred and fifty thousand pesos, so as to impede the sale of those brought to Acapulco: and this new plan, it is expected, will supplant the ancient, especially in the domain of Guatemala, and the northern coast, separated from Acapulco by a great extent of miserable roads. From this account it will appear, that when Estalla wrote (from whom we have extracted these remarks) a free trade was not established between New Spain and the Philippines, though some writers have asserted that such a regulation had long before taken place.

Religion and Government.] The religion of the ancient Mexicans appears to have been chiefly founded on fear, their temples being decorated with the figures of destructive animals; while fasts, penances, voluntary wounds, and tortures, formed the principles of their rites. Human sacrifices were deemed the most acceptable; and every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured and immolated. Thus, instead of a benevolent deity, the worship of the Mexicans may be said to have resembled the principle of some oriental nations. In the Mexican language, *Teotl* was a general term for any divinity; and, in their theory, they believed in a creator, whom they styled *Ipalnemoani*, that is, "he by whom we live:" but their supreme deity was an evil spirit, called *Klacatecolototl*, or the *rational owl*, whose delight was to injure and terrify. They believed in the immortality of the soul, and a kind of transmigration; the good being transformed into birds, and the bad into creeping animals. The principal deities were thirteen in number, among whom were the sun and moon; and Tlaloc, the god of water, who was the master of paradise; but Mexitle, the god of war, received the chief adoration. They had gods of the mountains, of commerce, &c.; and idols rudely formed of clay, wood, or stone, sometimes decorated with gems and gold, were numerous. One was composed of certain seeds, cemented together with human blood. The priests wore a black cotton mantle, like a veil; and there seems to have been orders of monks, the same as among the eastern nations of Asia. The austerities and voluntary wounds of the priests, their poisonous ointments, and other abominable rites, as related by Clavigero, evince, that the entire system was one of the most execrable that was ever practised on the face of the earth.

The place for the performance of the common sacrifice was the temple, in the upper area of which stood the altar. The ministers were the priests, the chief of whom, on such occasions, were clothed in a red habit, fringed with cotton. On his head he wore a crown of green and yellow feathers. The other ministers, which were five in number, were dressed in habits of the same make, but embroidered with black; and their bodies were dyed all over with the same colour. These barbarous ministers carried the victim naked to the upper area of the temple; and, having pointed out to the by-standers the idol to whom the sacrifice was made, extended him upon the altar. Four priests held his legs and arms, and another kept his head firm with a wooden instrument, made in the form of a coiled serpent, and put about his neck. The body of the victim lay arched, the breast and belly being raised up and totally prevented from moving. The chief priest then approached, and, with a cutting-knife made of flint, dexterously opened the breast, and tore out the heart, which, while yet palpitating, he offered to the sun, and afterwards threw it at the feet of the idol: he then took it up and burnt it, and the ashes were preserved as a precious relic. If the idol were of large size, and hollow form, it was customary to introduce the heart of the victim into its mouth, with a golden spoon. It was usual also to anoint the lips of the idol, and the cornices of the door of the temple, with the blood. If the victim were a prisoner of war, they severed the head from the body, to preserve the skull. The body was carried, by the officer or soldier to whom the prisoner had belonged, to his house, to be boiled and served up for the entertainment of his friends. If he were not a prisoner of war, but a slave purchased for sacrifice, the proprietor carried off the body from the altar for the same purpose. They ate only the legs, thighs, and arms, burning the rest, or preserving it as food for wild beasts and birds of prey. Some sects among them, having slain the victim, tore the body in pieces, which they sold at market. Others sacrificed men to their gods, women to their goddesses, and children to the inferior deities. This was the most common mode of sacrifice: but there were others less frequent: such as put-

ting the victims to death by fire, drowning children of both sexes in the lake, or shutting them up in a cavern, and suffering them to perish with hunger.

The principal sacrifice among the ancient Mexicans was that called by the Spaniards the Gladiatorian. This was ar honourable death, and reserved exclusively for prisoners distinguished by their valour. The prisoner was placed on a stone in a conspicuous part of the city, armed with a shield and a short sword, and tied by one foot. A Mexican officer, or soldier, better armed, mounted the stone to combat with him. If the prisoner were vanquished, he was carried by a priest, dead or alive, to the altar of the common sacrifices, where his breast was opened, and his heart taken out; while the victor was applauded, and rewarded with some military honour. If the prisoner conquered six different combatants, who successively engaged him, he was set at liberty, and dismissed with honour to his native country.

The present established religion of Spanish America is the Roman Catholic, in all its bigotry and superstition. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico; and it has been computed that priests, monks, and nuns, of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. The people are superstitious, ignorant, indolent, wealthy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

The archbishopric of Mexico is extremely opulent, but considered inferior to the bishopric of Puebla de los Angeles. The ecclesiastical courts are numerous; and the holy tribunal of the faith, that is, the Inquisition, is vigilant and severe. The chapter of the cathedral comprehends twenty-six ecclesiastics. While the revenue of the archbishop is computed at one hundred thousand dollars; the dean has upwards of ten thousand; the canons from seven thousand to nine thousand; the minor canons from two thousand to four thousand. The curates are named by the viceroy, from a list of three proposed by the bishop, but the first is always preferred. Several of the curacies are worth many thousand ducats; and one in the archbishopric of Mexico is valued at fourteen thousand ducats a year; while many of the curates in time become prebendaries and bishops. The religious orders at one time held many curacies; but at present they are chiefly bestowed on secular priests.

There are two archbishoprics, those of Mexico and Guatemala, with eight bishoprics, viz. Peblade los Angeles, Oaxaca, Durango, Mechoacan, Antequera, Guadalaxara, Yucatan, and Chiapa.

Government.] The ancient government of Mexico was an hereditary monarchy, tempered by a kind of election, by which a brother or nephew of the late king was preferred to his sons. There were several royal councils, and classes of nobility, mostly hereditary. The nobles were styled *pilli* or *tlatoania;* but the Spaniards introduced the general term of *cazique,* which, according to Clavigero, signifies a prince, in the language of Spain. The land did not belong to the monarch, but was alienable by the proprietors. Writing was unknown there, so that they had no code of laws; but some traditions have been preserved on the subject. Their armour and tactics appear to have been extremely rude.

The political system was feudal, there being thirty families which composed the first class in the state, and each of them had many thousand vassals: in the second class there were about three thousand families; the vassals being literally slaves, while the lords had the power of life and death.

The laws were very severe; and numerous crimes were deemed capital.

Each province was subject to a tribute, excepting some nobles, who were obliged to take the field with a certain number of vassals, as was the case during the ancient feudal system in Europe.

The viceroyalty of Mexico is the chief in Spanish America, as it extends over a territory equal to an empire in Europe; but there are several inferior governors, named by the Spanish sovereign. The large domain of Guatemala is ruled by a president, who is also captain-general, or commander of the troops. In New Biscay, some provinces form a separate presidency: but the northern provinces are chiefly held by religious settlements. A lieutenant-governor of the two Californias presides at Monterey. The government of Florida is of no consequence, as the chief power of the viceroy consists in the patronage of all the churches.

The civil government of Mexico is administered by tribunals called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the old parliaments in France In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is an office of the greatest trust which his catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration; for as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to retain his power for more than three years; which, no doubt, may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The ancient Mexicans are said to have been a ferocious people, and, at the same time, servile and obsequious. Their wars were constant and sanguinary; and their manners in general corresponded

with this barbarous disposition; the principal warriors covering themselves with the skins of the sacrificed victims, and dancing through the streets.

Even in the time of La Perouse, the dress was a loose cloak, and a sash girt round the naked waist; and the under-lip was pierced, to receive an ornament of gold. The year was divided into eighteen months, each of twenty days; and five days were added, which were dedicated to festivity. They cultivated maize and some roots; but their agriculture was rude, and they were strangers to the use of money.

Since the progress of Christianity, however, and the establishment of a foreign yoke, the manners have become more mild. But so much attached are they to games of chance, that they will even pledge their own persons, when they have nothing else to stake, and the Spaniards make use of this infatuation to inveigle recruits for the Philippines. They also sometimes pledge their persons for a debt, and labour in the public works till it be defrayed. As food is cheap, and labour dear, they will, in other cases, gain enough in two days to support them for the week, by which they fall into intoxication and other excesses. They are naturally ingenious, working in wax, ivory, and glass, or making earthenware, with great skill; but as they do not make previous models, nor understand the principles of design, nothing is perfectly finished. When the academy of the Three Noble Arts was established, an Indian presented a skull, which neither by sight, touch, nor weight, could be distinguished from nature, and yet it was wood. Such as have received a little education become honest and decent, and are often made petty magistrates in the villages.

M. Thiery, who made a journey, in 1786, from Vera Cruz to Orizava, and thence to Oaxaca, a distance of about three hundred and fifty British miles, gives some striking sketches of the national manners. He observes that the Indians have a marked aversion to the negroes, whom they regard as scourges in the hands of their masters. Their chief food consists of cakes of maize, called *tordillas*, which, as they are eaten hot, it is a chief duty of the females to prepare. They are often accompanied with *chillé*, a kind of sauce, composed of pimento and love-apples, pounded together with salt and water, and which is also used with meat and fish. Their little huts resemble those of woodmen. The universal beverage is pulque, drawn from the magney, or agave Americana, which is to them of infinite use: the leaves, which are three or four feet in length, serving as tiles, while the fibres are used for thread and clothes, the stem as beams, and the young sprouts as asparagus: the juice also supplies them with water, wine, vinegar, balsam, and honey. They make an incision to the heart of the plant, then take off the head, and form a cavity in the trunk, sufficient to hold two or three French pints. The top is then replaced, and during the following day and night the sap transudes from the young leaves into the cavity, is withdrawn the following day, and afterwards until the plant be exhausted, when the buds are planted to secure a new crop.

The rude pyramids, says M. Thiery, sometimes forty feet in height, on a base of twenty, which are frequent in the Mexican dominions, seem to have served as sepulchres of distinguished chiefs. They resemble a kind of rude hovels, raised in St. Domingo, for preserving ice. Baths for the sick, constructed on a very simple plan, are also not uncommon near the fountains. The Indian women are sometimes handsome, and dress in the Spanish fashion of the country; that is, in a shift and petticoat.

The manners and customs of the creoles, or descendants of the original Spaniards, have in many instances become distinct from those of the mother-country; and Estalla has entered into some curious details on this subject. There is a general defect of education, and the manners are not a little corrupted in the populous and opulent city of Mexico, the capital of all America.

As the first colonists were chiefly Andalusians, the Spanish language is spoken with an accent not agreeable to a Castilian; and the men, as well as the women, have a kind of fawning affability, not consistent with Spanish pride. When a Mexican lady receives a visit, she asks a number of questions all at once:—"How do you do?—How is your health?—How were you the other day?" although they may not have seen each other for months. When two gentlemen meet, if the one feel himself inferior, it is—"You are my lord—you are my all;" or even, "you are my great lord:" while the women say—"You are all my desire." But these frivolous failings sink before their ardent loyalty, and extensive generosity. On occasions of epidemic disorders, and other public calamities, their beneficence is excessive; and their charitable establishments would do honour to Europeans.

All the Mexican ladies smoke tobacco, in little segars of paper, which they take from a case of gold or silver, hanging by a chain or riband, while on the other side they wear little pincers, of the same metal. They are continually occupied in this amusement, and as soon as one segar is exhausted another is lighted: they only cease to smoke when they eat or sleep, and even light a segar when they retire to repose. "It may easily be imagined," says our author, "how ridiculous and disagreeable even a pretty woman becomes, with the eternal segar in her mouth; how richly flavoured her breath must be; and how much her health and complexion are vitiated, by this indecent and filthy custom. Girls never smoke in the presence of their fathers; nor are the latter supposed to know that they smoke, though they give them money to

buy segars. This affectation of ignorance is truly diverting: when a mother wants tobacco, she says to her daughter, "Give me the segars which I gave you to keep," knowing that she has given none; but, with dissimulation, pretending to save appearances of respect. The girls, who do not fear their mothers upon much more important occasions, are so circumspect in this business, that, if the mother enter the room, the segar is instantly concealed, because it would be very unpolite to smoke before the *nanita*, for so they call their mothers; while the father is styled *tatita*, a name also given in fondness to any man whom they esteem. The girls address their mothers by *thou*, while the latter call them *sisters*, as expressing greater tenderness; but in fact that they may avoid the appearance of age.

These people are extremely fond of gaming, and affect the most perfect indifference and cheerfulness when they lose. A fellow enters a gaming-house, produces ten or twenty dollars, which had been tied up in a corner of his mantle, lays them on a card, loses them, and, without saying a word, takes a segar from behind his ear, lights it, and walks out, as if nothing had happened. The men easily assume a military air, and learn their exercise with much facility. When a boy has completed his rudiments, it is a day of rejoicing for the school and family. A procession is formed from the seminary, with standard, drums and fifes, to the house of the parents. The masters say that this stimulates application, but they rather wish to profit by the foolish vanity of the relations. When any youth pleases in a ball, by his dancing, music, or voice, all, even the ladies, give him what is called the *gala*; nor can he refuse them without affronting the assembly. The dances of the common people are very licentious; nor are the songs more decent than the movements. In superior houses serious dances are usual; but for the sake of variety they are mingled with those of the country. On the eve and day of All Saints, there are great crowds at the doors of the shop-keepers, both on foot and in carriages, to buy toys and sweetmeats for children, in both of which the Mexicans excel. On other solemn days there are great assemblies in different parts of the city, which are illuminated. At the Indian festival, in the sanctuary of Guadaloupe, near Mexico, an immense multitude appears, even from distant provinces, and much disorder ensues.

In this climate nature anticipates her rights, especially in the female-sex, which is much sooner exhausted than in Spain. At the age of thirty, especially if they have borne children, women appear as aged as in Spain at fifty; the teeth falling out, and the face having totally faded. The shocking plan of diet is, no doubt, the principal contributor to this rapid decay. The whole day is employed in eating: in the morning they take chocolate; at nine they breakfast; take another breakfast at eleven; and soon after noon they dine. After having taken the *siesta*, or day-sleep, they return to their chocolate, which is succeeded by an afternoon's luncheon, more chocolate, and a considerable supper. A remarkable absurdity among them is, that a guest can only acknowledge the goodness of his dinner, or supper, with tears in his eyes. A meal at which no one cried would be regarded as good for nothing: such is the force or quantity of the chillé, or pimento, with which they season every dish.

The laced veils, made in the country, and worn by the ladies, descends to the feet, and usually costs from eighty to one hundred dollars. The *basquina*, or large upper petticoat, also descends very low; and the shoes are neat, and sometimes rich. When at home, or on going out in a carriage, they wear what is called the *rebozo*, or muffler, which resembles the shawls used at Madrid. They are particularly ostentatious in the quantity of their diamonds, and the size of their pearls, which they exhibit at balls and festivals. M. Thiery describes the ladies of Vera Cruz as being covered, when abroad, with a long silk-cloak, with only a little opening on the right-side, that they may see their way. At home, they only wear over their shifts a little corset of silk, laced with a cord of gold or silver; while their head-dress is composed of their own hair, fastened at the top with a riband; yet with this simple dress they wear chains of gold around the neck, golden bracelets on their wrists, and beautiful emeralds in their ears. There is little difference between the dress of the men here and those of Spain, though in their houses they display greater wealth in silver images of saints, cornucopias, chandeliers, &c. Only a few years since, the men of the lower class, whether whites or creoles, were all wrapped up in mantles, without any other dress, except drawers and a little hat: this dress served them for street and chamber, and even for bed, which was merely a raised part of the room, covered with a mat, called *petate*. The greater part, which formed two-thirds of the inhabitants, had no other articles whatever. Some regulations, however, have since been made to prevent the indecency of this class, who are forbidden to enter various public places, except in proper clothing.

The Mexicans make frequent use of the bath, which partly atones for the want of linen; and the climate, being dry and warm, renders this custom agreeable and salutary. There are at Mexico a great number of baths, and *temascales*, a kind of steam-baths, used by the ancient natives.

The Indians of *Florida* are robust, and well proportioned. Both sexes go naked, except having a deer-skin round the waist. They stain their skin with the juice of plants, and have long black hair, which they have a method of twisting and binding upon the head, so as to

render it rather becoming. The women, who, in general, have good features, and are well-made, are so active, that they will climb, with amazing swiftness, to the tops of the highest trees, and swim across broad rivers with their children on their backs.

Their economy in the management and distribution of their corn, which is accounted the common stock of the public, is well worthy of notice. The crop, which is calculated to serve only half the year, is collected into granaries appointed for that purpose, and afterwards regularly delivered out to every family, in proportion to the number of persons it contains. The soil is, indeed, capable of affording much more corn than they are able to consume; but they choose to sow no more than will serve them for that term, retiring, for the remainder of the year, into the recesses of the forests, where they build huts of palm-trees, and live upon roots, wild fowl, and fish. They are very fond of the flesh of alligators, which has a strong musky smell. Their meat is dressed in the smoke upon a wooden instrument, resembling a gridiron, and water serves for their common drink.

The people are, in general, satisfied with one wife, but the chiefs are indulged with more, though the children of only one of them succeed to the father's dignity.

In their warlike expeditions they carry with them honey and maize, and sometimes fish, dried in the sun. The chief marches at the head of the army, carries a bow in one hand, and a bow and arrows in the other; his quiver hangs at his back; and the rest follow tumultuously with the same arms. The men make use of bows and arrows with great dexterity. The strings of their bows are made of the sinews of stags; and they point the ends of their arrows with sharp stones, or the teeth of fishes. In their warlike deliberations, if the matter be of great moment, their priests, who are also a kind of physicians, are called in, and their opinions particularly asked. Then the cacique, or chief, carries round a beverage, something like our tea, made by the infusion of the leaves of a certain tree.

The funeral of a deceased cacique is celebrated with great solemnity. They place upon his tomb the bowl out of which he was accustomed to drink, and stick great numbers of arrows in the earth around him, bewailing his death, for three days, with fasting and loud lamentations. The generality of them cut off their hair as a singular testimony of their sorrow. Their chieftains also set fire to, and consume, all the household furniture, together with the hut that belonged to the deceased; after which some old women are deputed, who every day, during the space of half a year, at morning, noon, and evening, bewail him with dreadful howlings.

In *California* there are three nations of Indians, who speak three distinct languages, but they are all nearly similar in appearance, being well-formed, robust, vigorous, and of a healthy countenance. The males, whether children or adults, go almost entirely naked, in all parts of the peninsula; but there is some diversity in the ornaments used by each nation. In the southern parts, they decorate their heads with strings of pearl, braided with their hair, and interwoven with small feathers, the whole forming a very curious ornament. The nation of Loretto generally wear a becoming girdle round their waists, and a curious fillet of net-work on their foreheads; to which some add a sort of neck-cloth, ornamented with tolerable imitations of small round fruits, which bear some resemblance to a rosary. The Cochines of the north usually wear their hair short, and have a kind of diadem, formed of several bands of nacar; to compose which they first detach the mother-of-pearl from the shell, give it a fine polish on both sides, and divide it into small pieces, which are afterwards perforated for the conveniency of stringing.

The garments of the women consist of three pieces, two of which form a petticoat, reaching from the girdle to the feet, and the third a short cloak, which covers the body from the shoulders. These pieces, which are made from palm-threads, are not woven, but fastened at the top as in fringes, and hang down in thick skeins and tufts. The Indian women of Cape San Lucas wear their hair long, loose, and spread on their shoulders; but their head-dress, like that of all the other women of California, consists of a piece of net-work, made with great ingenuity The women of the northern parts wear meaner garments, being covered only from the waist to the knees; and their petticoat, which is made of thin pieces of sedge, cut off at the knots, and fastened together with threads, merely serves to hide their nakedness, without defending them from the inclemency of the weather.

The houses of the Californians make no better appearance than their habits. Those of every *ranchiera*, or village, are merely wretched huts, situated near some water, and when there is a necessity of removing to other places in quest of subsistence, the inhabitants easily shift their station. Wherever they stop, they shelter themselves under the trees, from the scorching heat of the sun by day, and the coldness of the air at night. In severe winters they live in caverns, which they either dig themselves or find in the sides of the mountains; and it is a remarkable fact, that they obstinately refuse to reside in more comfortable dwellings, which have been erected for them by the missionaries.

The Californians admit of a plurality of wives, who provide for the family, and procure a sufficient quantity of fruits from the woods, to keep their husbands in good humour; for, if once they are discarded, no other man will take them. Adultery is accounted a capital crime, except at the festivals and wrestling-matches among the ranchieras, when it is the privilege of the victors. Among the Co-

chines of the north, however, scarcely any such exercises are known; and a missionary, speaking of his district, says that, amidst all the freedoms of these Indians, debauchery and illegal amours are very rarely seen.

The manner of negotiating marriages in the nation of Loretto, which inhabits the middle part of California, is to present the bride with a batea or jug; her acceptance of it denotes her consent; and, on her presenting the man with a net for his head, the marriage is confirmed. In the other nations the agreement is concluded at an entertainment, to which the lover invites the whole ranchiera; but, after all this solemnity of contract, the slightest motive sometimes annuls it.

The time of gathering the pitahayas is the vintage of the Californians, and they celebrate it with particular mirth and rejoicings. "The three pitahaya months," says Salva Tierra, "resemble the carnival in some parts of Europe, when the men are, in a great measure, stupified or mad. At this time, the whole nation give themselves up to feastings, dancings, and buffooneries; in which whole nights are frequently spent. The actors are chosen for their talents of imitation, and, for the most part, acquit themselves tolerably well.

As practice naturally produces perfection, their excellence in dancing is not to be wondered at, it being their principal occupation in time of peace. They dance at their weddings, on any good success in hunting or fishing, at the birth of a child, at a plentiful harvest, at a victory over their enemies, and on every other occasion to which they annex any idea of importance. To these festivities the ranchieras usually invite one another, and likewise send challenges for wrestling, leaping, running, and other trials of strength and agility; to which whole weeks and months are sometimes devoted.

The chief characteristics of the Californians are want of reflection, inconstancy, abhorrence of labour, an inordinate love of pleasure; and, in short, a total want of every thing which renders man inventive, tractable, and useful to himself and society. It is in vain to represent to them any future advantages which will result from their making such and such exertions; the relation of means and ends being beyond the reach of their faculties; nor have they the least idea of pursuing such intentions as will procure some future good, or avert impending evil. Their will is proportionate to their faculties; and all their passions move in a very confined sphere. Equally free from avarice and ambition, they seem to have no care beyond that of procuring food for the present day, and enjoying their most favourite amusements.

The hatred and revenge of these people are excited by the slightest causes; but they are easily appeased, and even without any satisfaction, if they meet with opposition; for, although they appear extremely proud of their courage, it may be said, with truth, that they have not the least notion of true bravery. The most trivial circumstance is sometimes sufficient to daunt them; and, when once they begin to yield, their fear induces them to stoop to the basest indignities. But, if they happen to gain an advantage, or their enemies become disheartened, they behave in the most haughty and overbearing manner. It is but justice, however, to observe, that the Californians have few of those bad dispositions, for which many of the other American Indians are infamous. No strong liquors are used among them; and it is only on their public festivals that they intoxicate themselves with the smoke of wild tobacco: quarrels are rarely known among them, their malice and rage being reserved for their enemies; and so far are they from harshness or cruelty, that nothing can exceed their gentleness and peaceable disposition.

The Californian priests are frequently called *hechiceros*, or sorcerers; and their supposed commerce with invisible spirits, together with a variety of mystic rites and ceremonies, serves to procure them great authority over their ignorant countrymen. This authority appears most conspicuous at the public feasts; for, although the whole consists of eating, drinking, dancing, talking, and laughing, yet the presence of the priests makes them considered as religious solemnities. The habit worn by the priests on these occasions consists of a large cloak, covering them from head to foot, and entirely composed of human hair: the head is adorned with a plume of hawk's feathers; and in their hands they carry a fan of the same materials. The Southern Edues, when they cannot procure feathers, adorn their heads with the tails of deer; and the Cochines of the north add two strings of the hoofs of the same beast; one as a chain round the neck, and the other as a girdle.

Having intoxicated themselves with the smoke of wild tobacco, these priests open the entertainment with an oration on their tenets, which they deliver with wild gestures and frightful vociferations, pretending to be inspired by certain spirits, and in their name denouncing whatever their frenzy or interest suggests. But whilst these frantic creatures are haranguing, the others continue feasting and dancing, till they abandon themselves indiscriminately to the gratification of their passions, alike regardless of modesty and decorum.

At these feasts the priests do not omit exercising that authority which they owe to the fears or ignorance of the people; celebrating some as brave and generous, upbraiding others with cowardice and wickedness, and even commanding them to expiate their faults by rigid abstinence, or by clearing the ways along the highest mountains, for the more easy descent of the visiting spirit, when it comes to see them.

These priests are the only physicians among the Cali-

formans; and their medicines are always administered with great ostentation and solemnity. When all their prescriptions prove ineffectual, they assemble all the patient's relations; and, if he have a daughter or sister, they cut off the little finger of her right-hand, pretending that the consequent effusion of blood will either relieve the pains of the dying man, or remove from the family all sorrow for his death. Then are introduced all the inhabitants of the rancheria, who, being acquainted with their neighbour's desperate condition, set up a confused howling, occasionally covering their faces; whilst the women increase the horror of the scene by their passionate cries and exclamations.

The howling being ended, the patient requests his visitors to suck and blow him, in the same manner as the physician had previously done. This is by filling a stone-tube with tobacco, applying one end of it to the part affected, and then, with their mouth at the other end, sometimes sucking up the smoke, at others blowing it through the tube with all their force. This office is performed by every person present, as this and the strength of their cries are accounted the strongest proofs of affection. The doctors then thrust their hands into the sick man's mouth, pretending to pluck death forcibly out of his body; and the women give him several smart strokes, in order to rouse him; till, at length, the poor wretch breathes his last, and is taken out to be burnt or buried, as is most convenient. The funeral is performed without any preparation, and with little ceremony, except that of burning or burying with the deceased all his utensils; and so little do they enquire into the reality of a man's death previously to the burning or interment, that the missionaries have sometimes discovered persons on the funeral-pile with evident remains of life, and have snatched them from impending destruction.

CHAPTER VI.

NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

SECTION I.

NORTON'S SOUND.

Discovery.

CAPTAIN COOK having, in the month of September, 1778, steered over from the coast of Asia for that of America, saw land, bearing south three-quarters east: and in the course of less than twenty-four hours got sight of the American coast, and soon after came in close with the land, and was abreast of a point lying in the latitude of sixty-four degrees twenty-one minutes north, beyond which the coast takes a more northerly direction. Sailing along the coast, two islands, as he supposed them to be, were seen; and he stood over for one of them; but, on a near approach, he found it to be a peninsula, united to the continent by a low neck of land, on each side of which the coast forms a bay. He plied to the southward, and came to an anchor, the point of the peninsula, which obtained the name of Cape Denbigh, bearing north sixty-eight degrees west, three miles distant.

Name.] In honour of Sir Fletcher Norton, Speaker of the House of Commons, and Mr. King's near relation, this inlet was called *Norton's Sound*. It extends to the northward as far as latitude sixty-four degrees fifty-five minutes. The bay lies on the south-east side of it, and is called, by the natives, *Chacktoole*. It is but an indifferent station, being exposed to the south and south-west winds; nor is there a harbour in all this sound.

The weather being fine, afforded an opportunity of making a great number of lunar observations, the result of which gave one hundred and ninety-seven degrees thirteen minutes east, as the longitude of the anchoring-place on the western side of the sound, while its latitude was sixty-four degrees thirty-one minutes north. With respect to the tides, the night-flood rose two or three feet, and the day-flood was scarcely perceivable.

Country and Produce.] A party of men were sent to the peninsula for brooms and spruce. At the same time, half the remainder of the people in each ship had leave to go and pick berries. These returned on board at noon, when the other half went on the same errand. The berries to be got there were wild currant-berries, hurtle-berries, partridge-berries, and heath-berries. The captain also went ashore, and walked over part of the peninsula. In several places there was very good grass; hardly a spot was seen on which some vegetable was not growing. The low land which connects this peninsula with the continent is full of narrow creeks, and abounds with ponds of water, some of which were already frozen over. There were many geese and bustards; but so shy, that it was not possible to get within musket-shot of them. Where there was any wood, mosquettoes were in plenty. It appeared

that this peninsula must have been an island in remote times, for there were marks of the sea having flowed over the isthmus; and, even now, it appeared to be kept out by a bank of sand, stones, and wood, thrown up by the waves. By this bank it was evident, that the land was here encroaching upon the sea, and it was easy to trace its gradual formation.

Report of Survey.] When Lieutenant King returned from his expedition, he reported, that he proceeded with the boats about three or four leagues farther than the ships had been able to go; that he then landed on the west side; that, from the heights, he could see the two coasts join, and the inlet to terminate in a small river or creek, before which were banks of sand and mud, and every where shoal water. The land too was low and swampy for some distance to the northward, then it swelled into hills, and the complete junction of those, on each side of the inlet was easily traced.

From the elevated spot on which this officer surveyed the sound, he could distinguish many extensive valleys, with rivers running through them, well wooded, and bounded by hills of a gentle ascent and moderate height. One of these rivers to the north-west appeared to be considerable; and, from its direction, he was inclined to think that it disembogued into the sea, at the head of the bay. Some of his people, who penetrated beyond this into the country, found the trees larger the farther they advanced.

Inhabitants.] Several people were seen upon the peninsula, and one man came off in a small canoe. Captain Cook gave him a knife and a few beads, with which he seemed well pleased. Having made signs to him to bring something to eat, he immediately left the Europeans, and paddled toward the shore. But meeting another man coming off, who happened to have two dried salmon, he got them from him; and, on returning to the ship, would give them to nobody but the captain. Others of the natives soon came off, and exchanged a few dry fish for such trifles as they could get. They were most desirous of knives, and they had no dislike to tobacco.

"One family of the natives," says Captain Cook, "came near to the place where we were taking off wood. I know not how many there were at first; but I saw only the husband, the wife, and their child, and a fourth person, who bore the human shape, and that was all, for he was the most deformed cripple I had ever seen or heard of. The other man was almost blind. The under-lips of both were bored, and they had in their possession some such glass-beads as I had met with before amongst their neighbours; but iron was their favourite article. For four knives, which we had made out of an old iron hoop, I got from them near four hundred pounds weight of fish, which they had caught on this or the preceding day. Some were trout, and the rest were, in size and taste, somewhat between a mullet and a herring. I gave the child, who was a girl, a few beads; on which the mother burst into tears, then the father, then the cripple, and, at last, to complete the concert, the girl herself. But this music continued not long. Before night, we had got the ships amply supplied with wood, and had carried on board about twelve tons of water to each."

Captain King has communicated the following account of his interview with the same family.—"When I attended the wooding party, a canoe full of natives approached us; and, beckoning them to land, an elderly man and woman came on shore. I gave the woman a small knife, making her understand that I would give her a much larger one for some fish. She made signs to me to follow her. I had proceeded with them about a mile, when the man, in crossing a stony beach, fell down, and cut his foot very much. This made me stop; upon which the woman pointed to the man's eyes, which, I observed, were covered with a thick white film. He afterwards kept close to his wife, who apprised him of the obstacles in his way. The woman had a little child on her back, covered with the hood of her jacket, and which I took for a bundle, till I heard it cry. At about two miles distant we came to their open skin-boat, which was turned on its side, the convex part towards the wind, and served for their house. I was now made to perform a singular operation on the man's eyes. First, I was directed to hold my breath; afterwards to breathe on the diseased eyes, and next to spit on them. The woman then took both my hands, and pressing them to his stomach, held them there for some time, while she related some calamitous history of her family, pointing sometimes to her husband, sometimes to a frightful cripple belonging to the family, and sometimes to her child. I purchased all the fish they had, consisting of very fine salmon, salmon-trout, and mullet, which were delivered most faithfully to the man I sent for them. The man was about five feet two inches high, and well-made; his colour of a light copper, his hair black and short, and with little beard. He had two holes in his upper-lip, but no ornaments in them. The woman was short and squat, with a plump round face, wore a deer skin jacket, with a large hood, and had on wide boots. The teeth of both were black, and seemed as if they had been filed down level with the gums. The woman was punctured from the lip to the chin."

But to return to Captain Cook's account. "On the 14th a party of men were sent on shore to cut brooms, which we were in want of, and the branches of spruce trees, for brewing beer. Toward noon, every body was taken on board, for the wind freshening had raised such a surf on the beach, that the boats could not continue to land without great difficulty. Some doubts being still entertained whether the coast we were now upon belonged to

an island or the American continent, and the shallowness of the water putting it out of our power to determine this with our ships, I sent Lieutenant King, with two boats under his command, to make such researches as might leave no room for a variety of opinions on the subject. Next day, the ships removed over to the bay, which is on the south-east side of Cape Denbigh, where we anchored in the afternoon. Soon after, a few of the natives came off in their small canoes, and bartered some dried salmon for such trifles as our people had to give them.

"Soon after, nine men, each in his canoe, paid us a visit. They approached the ship with some caution, and evidently came with no other view than to gratify their curiosity. They drew up abreast of each other, under our stern, and gave us a song, while one of their number beat upon a kind of drum, and another made a thousand antic motions with his hands and body. There was, however, nothing savage, either in the song or the gestures that accompanied it.

"Their clothing consisted principally of deer-skins, and they observed the custom of boring their under-lips, and fixing ornaments to them.

"The dwellings of these people are situated close to the beach. They consist simply of a sloping roof, without any side-walls, composed of logs, and covered with grass and earth. The floor is also laid with logs; the entrance is at one end; the fire-place just within it, and a small hole is made near the door to let out the smoke."

SECTION II.

PRINCE WILLIAM'S SOUND.

Discovery, &c.] We are also indebted to Captain Cook for the discovery of this part of the North-West Coast of America, of which he relates the following particulars in his narrative.

"Proceeding on the North-West Coast of America, in May, 1778, and being in the latitude of fifty-nine degrees thirty minutes north, the east point of a large inlet was seen to bear west-north-west, about three leagues distant. Being desirous of repairing a damage the ship had sustained by tempestuous weather, I was induced to steer for this inlet. In our passage thither were seen two or three coves, and in the middle some rocky islands.

"To these islands Lieutenant Gore was sent, in order to procure some eatable birds. He no sooner approached them than about twenty of the natives made their appearance in two large canoes, on which he thought proper to return to the ships, and they followed him. They would not venture along-side, but kept at some distance, halloo'ing aloud, and alternately clasping and extending their arms; and, in a short time, began a kind of song. One man held out a white garment, which we interpreted as a sign of friendship; and another stood up in the canoe, quite naked, for almost a quarter of an hour, with his arms stretched out like a cross, and motionless. The canoes were not constructed of wood; the frame only, being slender laths, was of that substance, the outside consisting of the skins of seals. Though we returned all their signs of friendship, and, by every expressive gesture, tried to encourage them to come along-side, we could not prevail. After receiving some presents, which were thrown to them, they retired towards that part of the shore whence they came, giving us to understand, by signs, that they would visit us again the next morning. Two of them, however, each in a small canoe, waited upon us in the night; probably with a design to pilfer something, thinking we should be all asleep; for they retired as soon as they found themselves discovered.

"The weather, bad as it was, did not hinder three of the natives from paying us a visit. They came off in two canoes, two men in one, and one in the other, being the number each could carry: for they were built and constructed in the same manner with those of the Esquimaux; only, in the one were two holes for two men to sit in, and in the other but one. Each of these men had a stick, about three feet long, with the large feathers of birds tied to it. These they frequently held up to us, with a view, as we supposed, to express their pacific disposition.

"The treatment these men met with induced many more to visit us, between one and two the next morning, in both great and small canoes. Some ventured on board the ship, but not till some of our people had stepped into their boats. Amongst those who came on board was a good-looking middle-aged man, whom we afterwards found to be the chief. He was clothed in a dress made of the sea-otter's skin, and had on his head a cap, ornamented with blue glass-beads, about the size of a large pea. He seemed to set a much higher value upon these than upon our white glass-beads. Any sort of beads, however, appeared to be in high estimation with these people, and they readily gave whatever they had in exchange for them, even their fine sea-otter skins: but here I must observe, that they set no more value upon these than upon other skins, till our people set a higher price upon them; and, even after that, the natives would sooner part with a dress made of these, than with one made of the skins of wild cats or of martens.

"These people were also desirous of iron; but they wanted pieces eight or ten inches long at least, and of the breadth of three or four fingers, for they absolutely rejected small pieces; consequently they got but little from us, iron having by this time become rather a scarce article. The points of some of their spears or lances were of that metal, others were of copper, and a few of bone.

of which the points of their darts and arrows were composed. I could not prevail upon the chief to trust himself below the upper deck, nor did he and his companions remain long on board; but, while we had their company, it was necessary to watch them narrowly, as they soon betrayed a thievish disposition. At length, after being about three or four hours along-side the Resolution, they all left her, and went to the Discovery, none having been there before except one man, who at this time came from her, and immediately returned in company with the rest. When I observed this, I thought this man had met with something there, which he knew would please his countrymen better than what they met with at our ship; but in this I was mistaken.

"It was not long before all the Americans left the Discovery, and, instead of returning to us, made their way toward our boat, that was employed in sounding the head of the bay. The officer in her, seeing this, returned to the ship, and was followed by all the canoes. The boat's crew had no sooner come on board, leaving in her two of their number, by way of a guard, than some of the Americans stepped into her. Some presented their spears before the two men; others cast loose the rope which fastened her to the ship, and the rest attempted to tow her away. But the instant they saw us preparing to oppose them, they let her go, stepped out of her into their canoes, and made signs for us to lay down our arms, having the appearance of being as perfectly unconcerned as if they had done nothing amiss. This, though rather a more daring attempt, was hardly equal to what they had meditated on board the Discovery. The man who came and carried all his countrymen from the Resolution to the other ship, had first been on board of her, where, after looking down all the hatchways, and seeing nobody but the officer of the watch and one or two more, he, no doubt, thought they might plunder her with ease, especially as she lay at some distance from us. It was unquestionably with this view that they all repaired to her. Several of them, without any ceremony, went on board, drew their knives, made signs to the officer and people on deck to keep off, and began to look about them for plunder. The first thing they met with was the rudder of one of the boats, which they threw overboard to those of the party who had remained in the canoes. Before they had time to find another object that pleased their fancy, the crew were alarmed, and began to come upon deck, armed with cutlasses. On seeing this, the whole company of plunderers sneaked off into their canoes, with as much deliberation and indifference as they had given up the boat; and they were observed describing to those who had not been on board how much longer the knives of the ship's crew were than their own. It was at this time that my boat was on the sounding duty, which they must have seen, for they proceeded directly for her, after their disappointment in the Discovery. I have not the least doubt, that their visiting us so early in the morning was with a view to plunder, on a supposition that they should find every one asleep.

"The natives, who had left us when the bad weather came on, paid us another visit the next morning. Those who came first were in small canoes; others afterwards arrived in large boats, in one of which were twenty women and one man, besides children. When the weather cleared up, we found ourselves surrounded on every side by land. Our station was on the east side of the sound, in a place which, in the chart, is distinguished by the name of *Snug Corner Bay;* and a very snug place it is. I went, accompanied by some of the officers, to view the head of it; and we found that it was sheltered from all winds, with a depth of water from seven to three fathoms, over a muddy bottom. Soon after we were under sail, the natives, both in great and small canoes, paid us another visit, which gave us an additional opportunity of forming a more perfect idea of their persons, dress, and other particulars, which shall be afterwards described. Our visitors seemed to have no other business but to gratify their curiosity; for they entered into no sort of traffic with us.

"To enable me to form a better judgment, I despatched Mr. Gore, with two armed boats, to examine the northern arm; and the master, with two other boats, to examine another arm, that seemed to take an easterly direction. Late in the evening they both returned. The master reported, that the arm he had been sent to communicated with that from which he had last come; and that one side of it was only formed by a group of islands. Mr. Gore informed me, that he had seen the entrance of an arm, which, he was of opinion, extended a long way to the north-east, and that, probably, by it a passage might be found. On the other hand, Mr. Roberts, one of the mates, whom I had sent with Mr. Gore to sketch out the parts they had examined, was of opinion that they saw the head of this arm. The disagreement of these two opinions, and the circumstance of the flood-tide entering the sound from the south, rendered the existence of a passage this way very doubtful. And as the wind in the morning had become favourable for getting out to sea, I resolved to spend no more time in searching for a passage in a place that promised so little success."

A voyage was undertaken to the north-west coast of America, in the year 1785, and prosecuted to 1788, under the patronage of a commercial company, entitled the *King George's Sound Company*, for carrying on a fur-trade from the western coast of America to China. For this purpose two vessels were fitted out, which were named the *King George* and *Queen Charlotte*; and the command of the former given to Captain Portlock, and that of the

latter to Captain Dixon, both having accompanied Captain Cook in his last voyage into the Pacific Ocean. From the narrative of the former, it appears that the ships arrived on the coast of America in July, 1786, and failed in their first attempt to reach Prince William's Sound, but at length accomplished it in April, 1787. Concerning this spot, the following particulars are related in the narrative.

"When the King George was brought to an anchor, in a bay in which, from the report of an officer who had been sent to examine it, the captain was satisfied the ships could ride with safety, she was visited by five canoes, some containing but one man, and others two; but, to the great surprise of the Europeans, they had not so much as the skin of a single animal among them. They had beads of various colours, which they seemed to hold in much estimation. Captain Portlock having enquired if they had any of the sea-otters' skins to dispose of, and being informed that they had sold their whole stock to a trader from Europe, who had just left the sound, entertained but little expectation of carrying on much traffic; however, he determined to make the attempt, and wait for an opportunity of proceeding further up the sound.

"The party that was sent on shore found that the only space they could walk in was along the beach, the rest of the country being entirely covered with snow. Great plenty of wild-fowl were seen, but so shy that they could not be approached. The remains of two Indian huts were seen, and some wood that appeared to have been cut down with edge-tools, and of a different kind from those used by the Indians; from which it was supposed the Russians had been at this spot the preceding autumn, as it was then the general opinion that the people of that nation only made a practice of visiting these seas.

"Having advanced farther up the sound, and moored the ship, the captain observed an Indian advancing in a single canoe: he came along-side, but brought nothing to barter, except a little porpoise-blubber, which he seemed to consider as a dainty. Captain Portlock made him a present, which appearing to gratify him much, he was given to understand the nature of the commodities for which the Europeans wished to traffic; and, as he took his departure seemingly well pleased with his reception, hopes were entertained that he would introduce others for the purpose of commencing a trade.

"In the course of the ensuing day the ship was visited by three natives, in two canoes; but the whole stock they brought to sell consisted of two river-otter skins and two seal-skins, which the captain purchased, and made them a present for their attendance, so that they left the ship very highly satisfied.

"It was observed that the natives were acquainted with the use of fire-arms, and it was conceived they had derived that information from the Russians; it was also conjectured, from several circumstances, that these visitors were of the party seen in the first harbour the ship had anchored in.

"Two days after, the Queen Charlotte, under the command of Captain Dixon, returned from an excursion to Snug Corner Cove, during which a purchase had been made of about thirty-six sea-otter skins of different qualities, and a few other furs, part of which were procured near Cape Hinchinbroke, to which place the Queen Charlotte first went, and afterwards proceeded to Snug Corner Cove; as the Indians gave the crew to understand there was a vessel in that neighbourhood, and that another had left it just before the arrival of the former. Captain Dixon was conducted by the Indians to the place, and found the vessel to be the snow Nootka, Captain John Meares, from Bengal. The Nootka had left Bengal in March, 1786, and arrived at Prince William's Sound in October, where Captain Meares had passed the winter. From the inclemency of the climate, there had been a great mortality on board; numbers of the crew had fallen victims to the scurvy, and the remainder were in a very infirm state. Captain Meares, by letter to Captain Portlock, represented his very distressed situation, and entreated such assistance as he could afford; a compliance with which was immediately determined on. Captain Portlock learned from Captain Dixon, that both these vessels had given such high prices in barter for skins, that the value of the cargoes of the King George and Queen Charlotte were greatly reduced. The only commodities held in any estimation were green and red beads, and unwrought iron, in pieces nearly two feet long; but hatchets, saws, adzes, brass-pans, pewter-basins, and tin-kettles, would not be taken in barter, even for fish; so that all that could be depended on, as articles of trade with the natives of this place, were pieces of iron and a few beads. The account sent to Captain Portlock was confirmed by Captain Meares, who came on board the King George, and declared that the survivors in the Nootka were in so languid a state, that he and his chief mate were the only two persons capable of dragging the dead bodies from the ship, over the ice, and burying them in the snow on shore. He also observed, with respect to traffic, that he was in the sound a considerable time before he could procure a single skin, all having been disposed of to vessels that had previously arrived. Captain Meares, on his departure, was supplied with refreshments of various kinds.

"The ships were visited, a few days after, by two large Indian boats, containing about forty men, women, and children, attended by a number of small canoes. All they brought were two very indifferent skins, and a few fish, which were purchased by Captain Portlock, who made the chief, whose name was Shee-na-waa, a liberal

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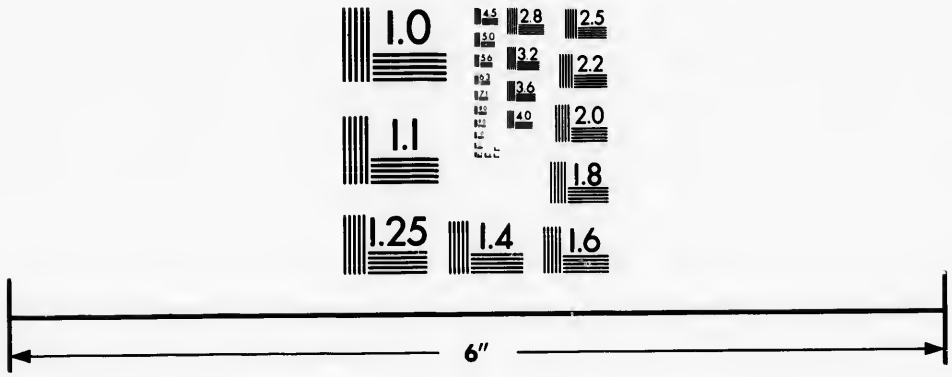

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present. He was chief of the most powerful tribe in the sound: his people, however, were notorious thieves, and it was observed that the little boys were furnished with small hooked sticks, for the purpose of picking pockets. The visitors remained about the ship till the evening, when they took their departure, and went out of the harbour. The next day Captain Portlock weighed anchor, hauled further up Prince William's Sound, and proceeded on, till, observing a point in an arm of the cove, that promised good shelter, he sent a boat to examine and sound the place, and following with the ship, and observing that there was an excellent harbour round the point, he stood in, came to anchor, and moored the ship.

"As the articles the people on board the ship had to barter were not held in great estimation, the captain sent off two boats, to trade with the natives up the sound, if any opportunity should offer; but they met with very little success; indeed, most of the sea-otter skins, procured since the arrival of the ships, were green, and recently taken from the animal, so that the purchasers were under the necessity of stretching and dressing them themselves.

"The boats which had been sent out a second time, for the purpose of traffic, having unfortunately got into a large flat bay, and the tide ebbing before they could extricate themselves from the shoals, they were left dry for near two miles round. Shee-na-waa and his tribe, consisting of near two hundred men, observed their situation, and approached them, armed with spears and knives. The people in the boats were at first intimidated, but their fears rather subsided, when they found that plunder was the sole aim of the Indians. Though they were desirous of evading their designs, they were cautious of irritating the Indians, conscious that opposition to the measures of their numerous opponents would expose them to a most violent resentment; so that the plundering party obtained an excellent booty, consisting of most of the trading articles, two muskets, two pistols, and some of the people's clothes, and what the old chief, Shee-na-waa, accounted a most invaluable prize, was an officer's quadrant, with an ephemeris, and the necessary tables. It is to be observed, that the Europeans were permitted to purchase some skins, the plundering tribe affecting a desire to traffic, to disguise their intention of committing depredations.

"After this transaction, some natives came along-side the ship; they consisted of about twenty-five in number, men, women, and children. The chief was a man of placid countenance, rather of a low stature, with a venerable beard, and seemed to have attained his sixtieth year. He was disabled on one side, and seemed to have undergone a paralytic stroke. He presented the captain with an excellent otter-skin, but had only a few salmon to dispose of, which were purchased, and afterwards the chief, and those who seemed to be of most consequence, were gratified with donations, and trifles were distributed amongst the women and children. The whole of this party were mild and courteous, and went on shore highly gratified with their reception."

Captain Portlock observed that these Indians dwelt in temporary huts, composed of a few sticks and a little bark. Their principal food is fish; but their most delicious fare is a kind of rock-weed, covered with the spawn of some fish. What is extraordinary, they eat, according to Captain Portlock's account, hemlock-root, which, though poisonous to an European, by constant practice, is nutritious to these Indians.

The captain, after repeated trials and experience, during a course of near three months, finding that no traffic worthy of prosecution could be carried on with the natives of this sound, determined to put to sea, and accordingly, on the 25th of July, he departed from the harbour, which obtained the name of Port Etches, and stood out of the sound, to pursue his progress on this coast.

Captain Vancouver, who, in the year 1790, undertook a voyage, by his majesty's command, in the Discovery sloop of war, attended by the armed tender, Chatham, in order, as a principal object, to examine and survey the north-west coast of America, with a view to ascertain the existence of any navigable communication between the North Pacific and North Atlantic Oceans, visited the coast of America three different times. The last time he touched at Prince William's Sound, concerning which the following interesting particulars are communicated in his narrative.

"When the ships came to anchor within the south point of Montagu Island, in May, 1794, they were visited by four of the natives, one of whom appeared to know that the people belonging to the ship came from England, as he often mentioned the words English, Portlock, and Nootka. From the first two words the inference was obvious, and the latter seemed to refer to the name of the vessel in which Mr. Meares came into the sound, and passed the winter. The natives did not bring any articles for barter, nor would they venture on board, though they did not refuse the presents that were offered, but returned thanks in the Russian language, and intimated that there were some people of that country, who lived up the sound. As it was the design of Captain Vancouver to examine the western shore of the inlet, he despatched two boat-parties for that purpose, under the command of two experienced officers.

"Soon after their departure, as the natives did not seem inclined to visit the vessels, the captain attended them on shore, and found a party, consisting of eight Indians and a Russian. The Indians came on board, and many attempts were made to induce the Russian to come at the

same time; but all proved ineffectual, and as it appeared, from his shy and reserved behaviour, that he was alarmed for his personal safety, some necessary refreshments were conveyed to him by the Indians, from an expectation that such an instance of hospitality would banish his apprehensions, and inspire him with such a degree of confidence as to admit the Europeans to an interview.

"Having delivered the articles with which they had been entrusted, the Indians returned, and brought some birds, as a present from the Russian, who, from the account of the messenger, still entertained apprehensions of danger, though he readily accepted whatever was sent him, and enjoined the Indians to solicit such articles as were known to be most agreeable to him. With these he was accordingly gratified, and the presents were accompanied with the most explicit declarations of sincerity. At length he was prevailed on to come on board, when he took immediate opportunity of testifying the fidelity of the Indians, in the discharge of the trust committed to them. He was joined by two other Russians, and they visited the ships together.

"The Russian who had been so frequently importuned to visit the ship, appeared to be much better versed in geography and sea-charts than either of his companions, as well as to be a man of more general information, as he soon conceived the import of the business of the navigators in the distant parts, as well as their desire of seeing a Russian chart of the modern discoveries in this ocean. The Russian assured them he could gratify their wishes, as he had a chart at Port Etches, which had been recently sent from Kamtschatka, which he undertook to procure from thence, and, having taken some refreshment, he set out for that purpose, leaving his companions behind him.

"Stress of weather having obliged one of the parties, sent out for the purpose of surveying the coast, to retire to an island adjacent to Snug Corner Cove, as soon as they were landed they were accosted from the woods by an exclamation of "*lawlee!*" a word signifying friendship; and four Indians appeared, indicating, by their words and gestures, an amicable inclination, which being returned by the Europeans, accompanied by some donations, a friendly intercourse was established between the parties. The Europeans remained in this place during the night, expecting the storm would subside; but it increased, and was attended with torrents of rain. But the Indians had disappeared unnoticed, and it was found that the cause of their abrupt departure was their having purloined an axe, for which the negligence of those of the crew who were appointed to the watch was severely censured.

"In the morning, the storm in some degree subsiding, the party proceeded on the business of their survey, and, in the course of their progress, were conducted to an island by two Russians, and, on their landing, received, by eight others, with the utmost cordiality. Their abode on this island seemed to be merely transient, their only shelter being under a large skin-boat, resting with one of its gunwales on the ground, while the other was propped up by sticks, of a height sufficient to admit their creeping under it. Thus did these ten Russians live in the proximity of a large village, inhabited by not less than two hundred Indians, which would have rendered it dangerous for the surveying party to have taken up their night's abode so near, were it not for the confidence of the Russians in the friendly disposition of the natives, which was justified in the event; for two large canoes, containing about twenty persons in each, arrived just as the party were retiring to rest; and one of these Indians, who had the appearance of a chief, delivered to the Russians ten skins, nine of which were beaver, and one a sea-otter skin.

"The officer of the surveying party having received directions from Captain Vancouver to visit the north-west point of Port Etches, if circumstances would admit, in order to obtain some general information from the Russians resident there, accordingly proceeded towards that quarter. Here they experienced every instance of hospitality from a Mr. Colomenee, who was intrusted with the management of an extensive commercial establishment. The Russian residence was defended by a galliot, of about seventy tons burthen, hauled on shore, placed erect, and forming nearly one side of the square, within which their houses were built, the whole of which it overlooked, and commanded the circumjacent country to a considerable distance."

The natives of Prince William's Sound are not above the common height, though many of them are under it. They are strong-chested, and the most disproportioned part of their body is their heads, which are very large, with thick short necks, and large, broad, or spreading, faces, which, upon the whole, are flat. Their eyes, though not small, scarcely bear a proportion to the size of their faces, and their noses have full round points, hooked or turned up at the tip. Their teeth are broad, white, equal in size, and even. Their hair is black, thick, and straight, and their beards, in general, thin.

There is a considerable variety in their features, but few can be said to be handsome. Their countenances commonly indicate a considerable share of vivacity, good-nature, and frankness; and yet some of them have an air of sullenness and reserve. Some of the women have agreeable faces; and many are easily distinguishable from the men by their features, which are more delicate. The complexion of some of the women, and of the children, is white, but without any mixture of red; and some of the men, who were seen by the Europeans naked, had rather a brownish or swarthy hue.

With respect to their disposition, they are, in general, friendly, and remarkably affectionate to their women and children. It must be admitted that they are addicted to thieving, which seems common to Indians in general. Captain Portlock observes, that during the intercourse of his people with them, they were less addicted to this practice, in consequence of their being severely reprimanded; and he expresses an opinion, that, if good examples were set before them, they would become industrious in hunting, and procuring the sea-otter and other skins for sale to the settlers.

The dress which is worn indiscriminately by men, women, and children, consists of a kind of close frock, or rather robe, reaching generally to the ankles, though sometimes only to the knees. At the upper part is a hole, just sufficient to admit the head, with sleeves that descend to the wrist. These frocks are made of the skins of different animals, the most common of which are those of the sea-otter, grey fox, racoon, and pine-martin, with many of seal; and, in general, they are worn with the hairy side outward. Some also have these frocks made of the skins of fowls, with only the down remaining on them, which they glaze on other substances; and one or two woollen-garments were seen. At the seams, where the different skins are sewed together, they are commonly ornamented with tassels or fringes of narrow thongs, cut out of the same skins. A few have a kind of cape, or collar, and some a hood, but the other is the most common form, and seems to be their whole dress in good weather. When it rains, they put over this another frock, ingeniously made from the intestines of whales, or some other large animal, prepared so skilfully, as almost to resemble our gold-beaters' leaf. It is made to draw tight round the neck; its sleeves reach as low as the wrist, round which they are tied with a string, and its skirts, when they are in their canoes, are drawn over the rim of the hole in which they sit, so that no water can enter. At the same time, it keeps the men intirely dry upward; for no water can penetrate through it, any more than through a bladder. It must, however, be kept continually moist, otherwise it is apt to crack.

They do not usually cover their legs or feet, but scarcely any are without mittens for the hands, made of the skins of bears' paws. Those who wear any thing on their heads, have high conical caps, made of straw, and sometimes of wood, resembling a seal's head.

The men commonly wear their hair cut short round the neck and forehead: but the women allow it to grow to a considerable length, and most of them tie a small lock of it on the crown. Both sexes have the ears perforated with several holes, about the outer and lower part of the edge, in which they hang little bunches of beads, of a tubulose shelly substance. The septum of the nose is also perforated, through which they frequently thrust the quill-feathers of small birds, or little ornaments, strung on a stiff string or cord, three or four inches long, which give them a truly grotesque appearance. But the most unsightly fashion, adopted by some of both sexes, is their having the under-lip cut quite through, in the direction of the mouth, a little below the swelling part. This incision, which is made even in the sucking children, is often above two inches long, and, either by its natural retraction when the wound is fresh, or by the repetition of some artificial management, assumes the true shape of lips, and becomes so large as to admit the tongue through. In this artificial mouth they stick a flat narrow ornament, made chiefly out of a solid shell or bone, cut into little narrow pieces, like small teeth, almost down to the base or thickest part, which has a small projecting bit at each end, that supports it when put into the divided lip, the cut part then appearing outward. Others have the lower lip only perforated into separate holes, and then the ornament consists of as many distinct shelly studs, whose points are pushed through these holes, and their heads appear within the lip, as another row of teeth immediately under their own.

These are their native ornaments: but many beads of European manufacture were found among them, chiefly of a pale blue colour, which they hang in their ears, about their caps, or join to their lip-ornaments, which have a small hole drilled in each point to which they are fastened, and others to them, till they hang sometimes as low as the point of the chin. They also wear bracelets of the shelly beads, or others of a cylindrical shape, made of a substance like amber, with such also as are used in their ears and noses

The men frequently paint their faces of a bright red, and sometimes of a blue or leaden colour, but not in any regular figure; and the women, in some measure, endeavour to imitate them, by staining the chin with black, that comes to a point in each cheek.

Their habitations are ill-made and inconvenient; they are, in general, from four to six feet high, about ten feet long, and about eight feet broad, built with thick plank, and the crevices filled up with dry moss. The method they use in making plank is to split the trees with wooden or stone wedges.

Their articles of food are fish and animals of all kinds. They also eat the vegetables which their country affords, and the inner bark of the pine-tree, which is an excellent antidote to the scurvy, which prevails in this country very much.

Their beverage is most probably water; for in their boats they were seen to bring snow in the wooden vessels, which they swallowed by mouthfuls. Perhaps it could be carried with less trouble, in these open vessels, than water

itself. Their method of eating seems decent and cleanly, for they always took care to separate any dirt that might adhere to their victuals: and though they sometimes did eat the raw fat of some sea-animal, they cut it carefully into mouthfuls, with their small knives. The same might be said of their persons, which, to appearance, were always clean and decent, without grease or dirt; and the wooden vessels, in which their victuals are probably put, were kept in excellent order, as well as their boats, which were neat, and free from lumber.

Their canoes are of two sorts, the one being large and open, and the other small and covered. Captain Cook observes that in one of the large boats were twenty women and one man, besides children. He attentively examined and compared the construction of this with Crantz's description of what he calls the great or women's boat, in Greenland, and found that they were built in the same manner, with no other difference than in the form of the head and stern, particularly of the first, which bears some resemblance to the head of a whale: the framing is of slender pieces of wood, over which the skins of seals, or of other larger sea-animals, are stretched, to compose the outside. It appeared, also, that the small canoes of these people are made nearly of the same form and of the same materials with those used by the Greenlanders and Esquimaux; at least the difference is not material. Some of these carry two men. They are broader in proportion to their length than those of the Esquimaux; and the head or forepart curves somewhat like the head of a violin.

Their weapons and instruments for fishing and hunting are the same that are made use of by the Esquimaux. For defensive armour they have a kind of jacket, or coat of mail, made of thin laths, bound together with sinews, which makes it quite flexible, though so close as not to admit an arrow or dart; it only covers the trunk of the body, and may not be improperly compared to a woman's stays.

Of domestic utensils they have oval shallow dishes, of wood; and others, of a cylindrical shape, much deeper; the sides are made of one piece, bent round, like our chip-boxes, though thick, neatly fastened with thongs, and the bottoms fixed in with small wooden pegs: others are smaller, and of a more elegant shape, somewhat resembling a large oval butter-boat, without a handle, but more shallow, made from a piece of wood or horny substance. These last are sometimes neatly carved. They have many little square bags, made of the same gut with their outer flocks, neatly ornamented with very minute red feathers interwoven with it, in which are contained some very fine sinews, and bundles of small cord, made from them, most ingeniously plaited: they have also chequered baskets, so closely wrought as to hold water; wooden models of their canoes; little images, four or five inches long, either of wood or stuffed, which are covered with a bit of fur, and ornamented with pieces of small quill-feathers, in imitation of their shelly beads, with hair fixed on their heads. Whether these might be mere toys for children, or held in veneration, as representing their deceased friends, and applied to some superstitious purpose, could not be determined. They have instruments made of two or three hoops, or concentric pieces of wood, with a cross-bar fixed in the middle, to hold them by; to these are fixed a great number of dried barnacle-shells, with threads, which serve as a rattle, and make a loud noise when they shake them.

They have iron knives, some of which are straight, others a little curved, and some very small ones, fixed in long handles, with the blades bent upward; they have knives of another sort, which are sometimes near two feet long, shaped almost like a dagger, with a ridge in the middle. These they wear in sheaths of skins, hung by a thong round their neck, under their robe; and they are, probably, only used as weapons, the other knives being apparently applied to other purposes. Every thing they have, however, is as well and ingeniously made as if they were furnished with the most complete tool-chest; and their sewing, plaiting of sinews, and the small work on their little bags, may be put in competition with the most delicate manufactures found in any part of the known world: in short, considering the otherwise uncultivated and rude state in which these people are, their northern situation, amidst a country perpetually covered with snow, and the wretched materials they have to work with, it appears that their invention and dexterity, in all manual works, is, at least, equal to that of any other nation.

SECTION III.

PORT DES FRANCAIS.

Discovery, &c.] This port was discovered by that eminent French circumnavigator, M. de la Perouse, on his arrival at the north-west coast of America, in June, 1786, of which he gives the following account in his narrative.

"Being in the latitude of fifty-eight degrees thirty-six minutes north, we discovered a falling-in of the coast, which appeared to be a very fine bay. I stood towards it, and, at the distance of a league, sent two officers to reconnoitre it; and, from the report they made on their return, I resolved to shape my course towards the passage, and, having entered it, came to an anchor.

"This port had never been discovered by any other navigator: it is situated in latitude fifty-eight degrees thirty seven minutes north, thirty-three leagues to the north-west of that of Los Remedios, the extreme boundary of Spa

nish navigators, about two hundred and twenty-four leagues from Nootka, and a hundred from Prince William's, Sound. The calmness of the interior of this bay was very delightful to us, who were under the absolute necessity of making an almost entire change in our stowage, for the purpose of getting out six guns that were in the hold, without which it would have been imprudent to navigate the Chinese seas, so frequently infested by pirates. I gave this place the name of Port des Français.

"To form a conception of this bay, let us suppose a basin of water, of a depth in the middle that could not be fathomed, bordered by peaked mountains, of an excessive height, covered with snow, without a blade of grass upon this immense collection of rocks, condemned by nature to perpetual sterility. I never saw a breath of air ruffle the surface of this water: it is never troubled but by the fall of enormous pieces of ice, which continually detach themselves from five different glaciers, and which, in falling, make a noise that resounds far in the mountains. The air is in this place so very calm, and the silence so profound, that the mere voice of a man may be heard half a league off, as well as the noise of some sea-birds, which lay their eggs in the cavities of these rocks. It was at the extremity of this bay that we were in hopes of finding channels by which we might penetrate into the interior of America.

"We soon perceived Indians, who made signs of friendship to us, by hanging up in the air white cloaks and different skins. Several canoes of these Indians were fishing in the bay, where the water was as smooth as in a basin, whilst the jetty was seen covered with foam by the breakers; but the water was very smooth beyond the passage, which was an additional proof to us that there was a considerable depth. During our forced stay at the entrance of the bay, we had been continually surrounded by the canoes of the Indians. In exchange for our iron, they offered us fish, skins of otters and other animals, as well as different little articles of their dress: they had, to our great surprise, the appearance of being well accustomed to traffic, and made a bargain, in favour of themselves, with as much ability as the most experienced purchasers of Europe. There was none of our articles of commerce for which they expressed so ardent a desire as iron; they accepted also some beads, but it served rather to finish a bargain than to form the basis of an exchange. We prevailed upon them in the end to receive plates and pewter-pots; but these articles had only a transient success, and iron prevailed over all. This metal was by no means unknown to them; they had each of them a dagger of it hung from their neck: the form of this instrument resembled that of the *creese* of the natives of Hindoostan; but they bore not any resemblance in the handle, which was no more than a lengthening of the blade, rounded, and without an edge. This weapon was enclosed in a case of tanned leather, and it appeared to be the most valuable article in their possession. Observing us to examine these daggers with great attention, they made signs to us, that they never used them but against bears and other beasts of the forests. Some of them were also made of copper, but they did not appear to prefer them to others, as that metal is common enough among them.

"Soon after our arrival, we were visited by one of the principal villagers. Before he came on board, he seemed to address a prayer to the sun; he afterwards made us a long speech, which was terminated by some very agreeable songs: the Indians of his canoe accompanied him by repeating the same air in chorus. After this ceremony, they almost all of them came on board, and during the space of an hour danced to the sound of their own voices. I made the chief several presents, which rendered him so troublesome, that he every day passed five or six hours on board, and I was obliged to renew them very frequently, or else he went away discontented, and muttering threats, which, however, were not very dangerous. On the day of our arrival at the second anchorage, we established the observatory upon an island, which was only a musket-shot from the ship; here we formed a settlement for the time of our stay in this port. As soon as we had established ourselves upon the island, almost all the Indians of the bay repaired thither. The report of our arrival had spread itself to the adjacent parts: we saw the arrival of several canoes, filled with a very considerable quantity of otter-skins, which these Indians bartered for hatchets, knives, and bar-iron. They gave us their salmon for pieces of old hoops; but they afterwards became more knowing, and we could not procure this fish, except for nails and other small pieces of iron.

"As all the Indian villages were on the continent, we flattered ourselves with being in a state of security upon our island, but we were soon convinced of the contrary. We had already experienced that the Indians were great thieves, but we did not suppose them to be possessed of an activity and obstinacy capable of carrying into execution the longest and most difficult projects. We were soon taught to know them better. They passed every night in watching the most favourable opportunity to rob us; but we kept a good guard on board our ships, and they seldom deceived our vigilance. I had, besides, established the Spartan law; the person robbed was punished; and, if we did not applaud the robber, we at least reclaimed nothing, in order to avoid any quarrel, that might be attended with melancholy consequences. I do not dissemble that this extreme lenity rendered them insolent; I had, however, endeavoured to convince them of the superiority of our arms; a cannon, with ball, had been discharged in their presence, for the purpose of letting them see that

they could be reached at a distance, and a musket, loaded with ball, had, in the presence of a great number of these Indians, penetrated through several doubles of a cuirass which they had sold to us, after having made us understand, by signs, that it was impenetrable to arrows and daggers; besides, our most expert marksmen killed the birds flying over their heads. I am very certain they never thought of inspiring us with sentiments of fear; but I have been convinced, by their conduct, they imagined our patience to be inexhaustible; they soon compelled me to take away the settlement I had made upon the island: they disembarked there in the night from the side of the coast; they traversed a very thick wood, which was totally impervious to the day, and gliding upon their bellies, almost without stirring a leaf, they contrived, in spite of our sentinels, to carry off some of our effects; in a word, they had the address to introduce themselves into the tent where the guard of the observatory slept; they took away a musket ornamented with silver, as well as the clothes of the two officers, who, by way of precaution, had placed them under their bolster; they were unperceived by a guard of twelve soldiers, and they never once awakened the two officers. This last theft would have given us but little disquiet, but for the loss of the original memorandum-book, in which was written all our astronomical observations since we had arrived in Port des Français.

"The chief before mentioned paid us another visit on board, better attended, and much better dressed, than before. After many songs and dances, he made a proposal to sell me the island on which we had placed our observatory, reserving, no doubt, to himself and the other Indians, the right of robbing us. It was somewhat more than doubtful whether this chief had a property in any land; the government of this people is such, that the country might belong to the whole society: however, as many Indians were witnesses to this bargain, I had an undoubted right to conclude that they gave their sanction to it, and I accepted the chief's offer; convinced, at the same time, that the contract for this purchase might be set aside by many tribunals, if the nation should ever contest it with us; for we had no proof that the chief was the real proprietor, and the witnesses his representatives. Be that as it may, I gave him several ells of red cloth, hatchets, knives, bar-iron, and nails; I also made presents to all his suite. The bargain being thus concluded, I sent to take possession of the island with the customary formalities. I ordered them to bury a bottle at the foot of a rock, which contained an inscription adapted to this taking possession, and I laid near it one of the bronze-medals which had been struck in France before our departure.

"The principal work which had been the peculiar object of our stopping here was finished; our guns were mounted, our stowage completed, and we had taken in a great quantity of wood and water. No port in the universe could furnish more conveniences for expediting this labour, which is frequently so difficult in other countries. Cascades, falling from the top of the mountains, poured the clearest water into the casks as they lay in the long boat; drift-wood in great abundance is scattered along the shore of a smooth sea. The survey was finished, as well as the measurement of a base taken, which had enabled many of our officers to measure trigonometrically the height of the mountains. We had only to regret the loss of the memorandum-book of observations; and this misfortune was nearly done away by the different notes, which had been found again.

"But a misfortune of the most lamentable kind, which no human prudence could foresee, at this period awaited us. It is with the most lively grief that I am about to trace the story of a disaster, which was a thousand times more afflicting than disease and all the other events incident to long voyages. I yield to the imperious duty I have imposed on myself of writing this narrative; and I am not ashamed or afraid to make known that my sorrows since this event have been a hundred times accompanied by my tears; that time has not had power to assuage my grief; every instant, every object recalls to my mind the loss we sustained, in circumstances where we thought we had so little cause to dread such an event.

"As it was proposed that the soundings should be laid down in the draught of Monsieur de Monneron, engineer in chief, and Monsieur Bernizet, geographical engineer, by the sea-officers, the pinnace of the Astrolabe, under the orders of M. de Marchainville, an officer of that ship, was ordered for the next day, and I prepared that belonging to my ship, as well as the barge, the command of which I gave to M. Boutin, an officer of the Boussole. M. d'Escures, my first lieutenant, chevalier of St. Lewis, commanded the pinnace of the Boussole, and was the commanding officer of this little expedition. As his zeal had sometimes appeared to me to be rather too warm, I thought it my duty to give him his instructions in writing. The details I made of the prudence which I expected from him appeared to him so minute, that he asked me if I thought he was a child, adding, that he had commanded ships before that time. I amicably explained to him the motive of my orders: I told him, that M. de Langle, commander of the Astrolabe, and I had sounded the passage of the bay two days before, and that I perceived that the commanding officer in the second boat had passed too near the point, upon which he had even touched: I added, that young officers, during a siege, deemed it a feather in their cap to mount the parapet of the trenches; and that the same spirit made them, when in boats, brave the dangers of rocks and breakers; but that this unreflecting boldness might be attended with the most melancholy con-

sequences in a voyage like ours, where these kind of dangers were every moment presenting themselves before us. After this conversation, I gave M. d'Escures the following instructions in writing, which I read to M. Boutin: they will explain, better than any other exposition, the mission of M. d'Escures, and the precautions which I took.

"Previous to making known to M. d'Escures the object of his mission, I apprise him, that he is expressly forbidden to expose the boats to any danger, and to approach the passage, if the sea break there. He is to set off at six o'clock in the morning, with two other boats, commanded by Messrs. de Marchainville and Boutin, and sound the bay from the passage as far as the little creek which is to the west of the two paps. He is to lay down the soundings upon the draught which I have put into his hands, or to sketch one from which they may be taken. Even if there is no broken water in this channel, but only a swell, as this work is not very pressing, he is to postpone sounding till another day; and he will constantly keep in view that all things of this kind which are done with difficulty are always done ill. It seems probable, that the most convenient moment for approaching the channel will be at slack water, about half-past eight o'clock; if circumstances are then favourable, he will endeavour to measure the breadth of it with a log-line, and he is to place the three boats in a parallel line, sounding across it, or from east to west. He is afterwards to sound from north to south; but there is little likelihood of his being able to take these latter soundings during the same tide, because the current will have acquired too great strength.

"In waiting for slack water, or supposing the sea should be rough, M. d'Escures will take the soundings of the interior of the bay, particularly the creek which is behind the paps, where I think it is likely there may be a very good anchorage: he is also to endeavour to lay down upon the draught the extent of the two bottoms of rock and sand, in order that the good ground may be well and easily known. I think that, when the channel from the south of the island is open from the point of the paps, there is a certainty of a good sandy bottom. M. d'Escures is to ascertain whether my opinion be well founded; but I again repeat, that I entreat him not to deviate from the most consummate prudence.

"After these instructions could I be supposed to have any thing to fear? They were given to a man of thirty-three years of age, who had before commanded men-of-war. What a combination of motives for security!

"Our boats set off, as I had ordered, at six o'clock in the morning: it was as much a party of pleasure as of utility and instruction; they might hunt and breakfast under the trees. I joined with M. d'Escures, M. Pierrevert and M. de Montarnal, young officers, the latter the only relation that I had in the sea-service, and to whom I was attached with as tender an affection as if he had been my son. No young officer had ever given rise to more promising hopes, and M. de Pierrevert had already acquired what I shortly expected from the other. Seven of the best soldiers of the detachment formed the armament of the long-boat, in which the head pilot of my ship embarked to take soundings. M. Boutin had for second in his small boat M. Mouton, lieutenant of the Boussole. I knew that the boat of the Astrolabe was commanded by M. de Marchainville; but I was not informed whether there were any other officers on board.

"At ten o'clock in the morning I saw our jolly-boat coming back. In some surprise, because I did not expect her so soon, I asked M. Boutin, before he came on board the frigate, if any thing new had occurred: the first thing which struck me, as a cause of fear, was an attack from the Indians. The countenance of M. Boutin was by no means calculated to remove my doubts: in his face was painted the most lively sorrow. He soon informed me of the dreadful wreck he had just witnessed, and from which he had himself escaped only by the firmness of his disposition, which had discovered to him all the resources that remained in such extremity of danger. Drawn away by following his commander into the middle of the breakers, which set into the channel, whilst the tide ran out of it at the rate of three or four leagues an hour, he imagined he could lay his boat's stern to the sea, and driving in this manner it would prevent her from filling, so that she might nevertheless be drifted out to sea by the tide. He soon saw breakers ahead of his boat, and found himself in the main sea. More taken up with the safety of his comrades than with his own, he rowed along the edge of the breakers, in hopes of saving some of them; he even pushed into them again, but was repelled by the tide; at length he got upon the shoulders of M. Monton, in order to see to a greater distance: vain hope! all, alas, had been swallowed up, and M. Boutin returned at the time of slack water. The sea having become very calm, this officer entertained some hopes for the pinnace of the Astrolabe. He had only seen ours perish. M. de Marchainville was at the time a full quarter of a league from the place of danger, that is to say, in water as perfectly calm as the best enclosed port; but this young officer, impelled by a generosity which undoubtedly was imprudent, since in these circumstances all assistance was impossible, having too high a courage, and too elevated a soul, to make these reflections when his friends were in so imminent a danger, flew to their assistance, threw himself into the breakers, and perished like his commanding officer, a victim to his generosity and formal disobedience of orders.

"M. de Langle soon came on board my ship, equally oppressed with grief as myself, and with tears in his eyes,

informed me that the misfortune was still infinitely greater than I imagined. Since our departure from France, he had made it an invariable rule never to send the two brothers, Messrs. la Bourde Marchainville and la Borde Boutervilliers, on the same expedition, and he had yielded in this single instance to the desire which they had expressed to walk and hunt together; for it was almost under this point of view that both of us had considered this excursion of our boats, which we thought as little exposed to danger as they would have been in Brest Road, when the weather was remarkably fine.

"At the same moment we had a visit from the Indians in their canoes, to announce to us this melancholy event: these rude unpolished men expressed to us, by signs, that they had seen our two boats perish, and that there was no possibility of affording them assistance; we loaded them with presents, and endeavoured to make them understand, that he who should have saved a single man would have been entitled to all our riches.

"Nothing could be better calculated to move their humanity; they hastened to the sea-shore, and spread themselves over the two coasts of the bay. I had already despatched my long-boat, commanded by M. de Clouard, second captain of the Bousole, to the eastward, where if any one, contrary to all probability, had escaped death, it was likely he would land. M. de Langle went upon the western shore, in order to leave no part unvisited, and I remained on board, charged with the protection of the two ships, with the necessary compliment of men to preclude all fear from the Indians, against whom prudence required that we should be constantly on our guard. Messrs. de Langle and Clonard were attended by all the officers, and many other persons: they went three leagues along the beach, upon which, however, not the smallest wreck came ashore. I, nevertheless, still entertained a small degree of hope; the mind with difficulty acquiesces in so sudden a transition from a pleasant situation to that of so rooted a sorrow; but this illusion was destroyed by the return of our boats, and I was thereby plunged into a state of such acute distress, as no language is adequate to describe, but in the most imperfect manner.

"Nothing more now remained to be done but to quit, as speedily as possible, a country where we had experienced so melancholy a disaster; but there were still some days due to the families of our unfortunate friends: too precipitate a departure might occasion doubts and uneasiness in Europe; it might not occur to people there, that the current extended no farther than a league without the channel; that the boats, and those wrecked in them, could be driven to no greater distance; and that the fury of the sea in that place dissipated every hope of their return. If, contrary to any probability, any of them had been able to return, as this could only happen in the vicinity of the bay, I formed the resolution of waiting some days longer; but I quitted the anchorage of the island, and took that of the bed of sand, which is at the entrance upon the west coast. It took me five days to effect this passage, though no more than a league, during which time we were exposed to a squall of wind, which would have put us in very great danger, had we not been anchored in a good muddy bottom. It was fortunate we did not drag our anchors, for we were less than a cable's length from the shore. The wind being contrary, detained us longer than I intended to stay, and we did not sail till the 30th of July, eighteen days after the event, the description of which has given me so much pain, and the remembrance of which will perpetually make me unhappy. Before our departure we erected upon the island in the middle of the bay, to which I gave the name of *Cenotaph Island*, a monument to the memory of our unfortunate companions. The following inscription was composed by M. de Lemanon, a scientific man, who buried it in a bottle at the foot of the monument:—

"At the entrance of this harbour perished twenty brave seamen.

"Reader, whoever thou art, join thy tears to ours."

Description of the Harbour.] "In the harbour," says M. de la Perouse, "to which I gave the name of Port des Français, the sea rises seven feet and a half at full and change of the moon. The sea-breezes, or, perhaps, other causes, act so powerfully upon the current of the channel, that I have seen the flood come in there like the most rapid river; and, in other circumstances, though at the same periods of the moon, it may be stemmed by a boat. I have in my different excursions found the high-water mark to be fifteen feet above the surface of the sea.

"These tides are probably incident to the bad season. When the winds blow with violence from the southward, the channel must be impracticable, and at all times the currents render the entrance difficult; the going out of it also requires a combination of circumstances, which may retard the departure of a vessel many weeks; there is no getting under way but at the top of high water; the breeze from the west to the north-west does not often rise till towards eleven o'clock, which does not permit the taking advantage of the morning-tide; finally, the easterly winds, which are contrary, appear to me to be more frequent than those from the west, and the vast height of the surrounding mountains never permits the land-breezes, or those from the north, to penetrate into the road. As this port possesses great advantages, I thought it a duty incumbent on me to make its inconveniences also known. It seems to me, that this anchorage is not convenient for those ships which are sent out at a venture for trafficking in skins: such ships ought to anchor in a great many bays,

and always make the shortest stay possible in any of them, because the Indians have always disposed of their whole stock in the first week, and all lost time is prejudicial to the interests of the owners: but a nation which should form the project of establishing factories, similar to those of the English in Hudson's Bay, could not make choice of a place more proper for such a settlement. A simple battery of four heavy cannon, placed upon the point of the continent, would be fully adequate to the defence of so narrow an entrance, which is also made so difficult by the currents. This battery could not be turned or taken by land, because the sea always breaks with such violence upon the coast, that to disembark is impossible. The fort, the magazines, and all the settlements for commerce, should be raised upon Cenotaph Island, the circumference of which is nearly a league; it is capable of being cultivated, and there is plenty of wood and water. The ships, not having their cargo to seek, but being certain of having it collected to a single point, would not be exposed to any delay; some buoys, placed for the internal navigation of the bay, would make it extremely safe and easy; it would form pilots, who, better versed than we are in the set and strength of the current at particular times of tide, could ensure the entrance and departure of the ships. Finally, our traffic for otter-skins has been so very considerable, that I may fairly presume, there could not in any part of America be a greater quantity of them collected."

Climate.] The climate of this coast seemed to be infinitely milder than that of Hudson's Bay, in the same degree of latitude. Some of the pines measured six feet in diameter, and one hundred and forty feet in height; those of the same species at Prince of Wales's Fort and Fort York are of a dimension scarcely sufficient for studding-sail booms.

Vegetable, Animal, and Mineral, Productions.] Vegetation is very vigorous during three or four months of the year. The Europeans found great abundance of celery, round-leaved sorrel, lupines, the wild pea, yarrow, and endive. Every day and every meal the copper of the ship's company was filled with them. They ate them in soups, ragouts, and salads, and these herbs did not a little contribute to keep them in a good state of health. There was seen among these pot-herbs almost all those of the meadows and mountains of France; the angelica, the butter-cup, the violet, and many species of grass proper for fodder.

The woods abound in gooseberries, raspberries, and strawberries, clusters of elder-trees, the dwarf-willow, different species of briar, the gum-poplar tree, the sallow, the horn-beam, and superb pines, fit for the masts of the largest ships. Not any of the vegetable productions of this country are unknown in Europe. M. de Martinière, in his different excursions, met with only three plants which he thought new.

The rivers are filled with trout and salmon, and in the bay are fletans, ling, the single thornback, and some plaice. Muscles are scattered in profusion upon that part of the shore which is uncovered at low water, and the rocks are clothed with small limpets. M. de Lamanon took from a place elevated more than two hundred toises above the level of the sea, petrefactions well preserved, and of the largest dimensions, of the shell known by conchologists under the name of the *royal cloak*, or *St. James's shell*.

In the woods the hunters met with bears, martins, and squirrels; and the Indians sold them skins of the brown and black bear, of the Canadian lynx, ermine, marten, little grey squirrel, beaver, Canadian marmot or monax, and the red fox. M. de Lamanon also took alive a water and a musk rat.

There is no great variety of birds, but the individuals are pretty numerous. The thickets abound with sparrows, nightingales, blackbirds, and yellow-hammers. Here are also the white-headed eagle, a large species of raven, king-fishers, blue jays, and some humming-birds. The swallow or martin, and the black oyster-catcher, build their nests in the clefts of the rocks on the sea-shore.

From among the minerals, the French naturalists collected ochre, coppery pyrites, garnets, brittle but very large and perfectly crystalized, schorle in crystal, granite, schisti, hornstone, very pure quartz, mica, plumbago, and coals; some of these substances prove that the mountains contain copper and iron ores.

Inhabitants, Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of this place have rather a low forehead, but more open than that of the South-Americans. Their eyes are black, and very animated, their eye-brows full, their noses well-formed, except being widened a little at the extremity, their lips thin, their mouths moderately large, their teeth fine and very even, their chin and ears very regular. The colour of their skin is very brown, owing to their being exposed continually to the air; but their children, at the time of birth, are white. The beards of the men are less than that of Europeans, but, nevertheless, sufficient to take away all possibility of doubt of their existence. "The belief," says our author, "that the American Indians have no beards, is an error which has been too slightly adopted: I have seen the native Indians of New England, Canada, Acadia, and Hudson's Bay; and I have found amongst the different nations several individuals with beards, which led me to think that the others were in the habit of pulling them out by the roots.

"The frame of their body is feeble; the weakest of our sailors would overcome in wrestling the strongest of the Indians. I have seen some of them, whose swelled legs seemed symptomatic of the scurvy, but their gums were

in a very good state: I have my doubts, however, of their arriving to any great age, and I perceived only one woman who seemed to have reached sixty; she did not enjoy any privilege, and was, like the others, subjected to the different labours of her sex."

The men pierce the cartilage of the ears and nose, to which they hang different small ornaments. They make scars on their arms and breast, with a very keen-edged instrument, which they sharpen by passing over their teeth, as over a stone; their teeth are filed close to the gums, and for this operation they use a sand-stone, rounded in the shape of a tongue. They use ochre, soot, and plumbago, mixed up with train-oil, to paint the face and the rest of the body, in a frightful manner. In their full-dress, their hair is flowing at full-length, powdered, and plaited with the down of sea-birds: this is their greatest luxury, and is, perhaps, reserved only to the chiefs of a family: their shoulders are covered with a simple skin; the rest of the body is absolutely naked, except the head, which is generally covered with a little straw-hat, very skilfully plaited; but they sometimes place on their heads two horned bonnets of eagles' feathers, and even whole heads of bears, in which they fix a wooden skull-cap. These several head-dresses are extremely various; but their principal object is to render themselves frightful, perhaps for the purpose of keeping their enemies in awe.

Some of the Indians had entire shirts of otters' skins, and the common dress of a great chief was a shirt of a tanned skin of the elk, bordered with a fringe of deers' hoofs and beaks of birds, which, when they dance, imitates the noise of a kind of bell. This same dress is very well known among the savages of Canada, and other nations who inhabit the eastern parts of America.

The women have a strange custom of wearing in the lower-lip an elliptical piece of wood, lightly grooved on its circumference and both its sides, and which is commonly half an inch thick, two in diameter, and three in length. This singular ornament, besides being a great deformity, is the cause of a very troublesome, as well as disgusting, involuntary flow of saliva. This appendage is peculiar to the women; and female children are made to undergo the preparatory operations from the time of their birth.

The arts are somewhat advanced among these people, and in this respect civilization has made considerable progress; but that which softens their natural ferocity, and polishes their manners, is yet in its infancy; and the mode of life they pursue excluding all kind of subordination, they are continually agitated by fear or revenge; and are continually attacking each other. Exposed in the winter to perish for want, because the chase cannot be successful, they live during the summer in the greatest abundance, as they can catch in less than an hour a sufficient quantity of fish for the support of a family; they remain idle during the rest of the day, or devote it to gaming, to which they are much addicted.

"Indians in their canoes," says M. de la Perouse, "were continually round our frigates; they passed two or three hours there before they began to exchange a few fishes, or two or three otter-skins; they seized all occasions to rob us; they tore off the iron which was easy to be carried away, and, above all, they examined carefully how they might deceive our vigilance during the night. I caused the principal persons amongst them to come on board my frigate, and loaded them with presents; yet these very men whom I so particularly distinguished, did not disdain the theft of an old pair of breeches, or a nail. When they assumed a mild and pleasant appearance, I was convinced they had stolen something, although I frequently pretended not to perceive it.

"I had expressly recommended the caressing of their children, and giving them little presents. The parents were insensible to this mark of benevolence, which I thought incident to all countries; the only reflection it gave rise to in their breasts was, to ask to accompany their children when I made them come on board; and I several times, for my instruction, had the pleasure of seeing the father take advantage of the moment in which we seemed most engaged with his child, to take up and hide under his garment any thing that lay within his reach.

"Sometimes, immediately after loading them with presents, I pretended to have a desire for certain little articles of trifling value, which belonged to these Indians; but this was a trial of their generosity which I always made in vain.

"We never went on shore but well armed and in force. They were very much afraid of our firelocks, and eight or ten Europeans in a body might keep a whole village in awe. The surgeon-majors of our two frigates having been so imprudent as to go a hunting by themselves, were attacked by the Indians, who endeavoured to force their muskets from them, but in this they were unsuccessful: thus two men, without any other assistance, made so good a defence as to oblige them to retire. The same event was experienced by M. de Lesseps, a young Russian interpreter, to whose assistance one of our boat's crews very fortunately arrived.

"I gave the name of *village* to three or four wooden sheds, of twenty-five feet in length, and fifteen in breadth, covered only to windward with planks, or bark of trees; in the middle was a fire, over which were hung some flat fish and salmon, drying in the smoke. Eighteen or twenty persons were lodged in each of these sheds; on one side the women and children, and the men on the other. It seemed to me that every cabin formed a small colony, independent of its neighbour; each of them had its canoe, and a kind of chief; it took away its planks and fish, de-

parted and proceeded out of the bay, without the rest of the village seeming to be at all concerned. I think I may venture to assert, that this port is inhabited only in the favourable season, and that the Indians never pass a winter in it. I did not see a single cabin sheltered from the rain; and although there had never been collected together so many as three hundred Indians in the bay, we were visited by seven or eight hundred others.

"The canoes were continually entering and going out of the bay, and each of them brought and carried away their house and furniture, which consisted of a great many small boxes, in which were enclosed their most valuable effects. These boxes are placed at the entrance of their cabins, which exhale a stench, worse than that of the den of any animal in the world. They never remove themselves more than a few steps for the performance of any necessary occasion, in which they seek neither for shade nor privacy; and when this happens during a meal, they take their place again, from which they never were at a greater distance than five or six feet.

"By our stay at the entrance of the bay, we procured infinitely more knowledge of the manners and customs of these Indians, than we could possibly have obtained at the other anchorage. Our ships lay at anchor near their villages. We every day made them visits, and every day we had cause of complaint against them; though our conduct towards them had never varied, and we had never ceased giving them proofs of our mildness and benevolence.

"Like us, they fish by staking the rivers, or with a line. In the latter method they are very ingenious: they fasten to every line a large seal's bladder, and then throw it into the water; from every canoe a dozen or fifteen lines may be cast: when the fish is hooked, it sets the bladder in motion, and the canoe hastens after it; two men may thus watch a dozen or fifteen lines without the trouble of holding them in their hands.

"They know how to forge iron, to fashion copper, to spin the hair of different animals, and, by the help of a needle, to fabricate with this yarn a tissue equal to our tapestry; they intermix in this tissue narrow strips of otter's skin, which give their cloaks the semblance of the finest silk shag. In no part of the world can hats and baskets of reeds be plaited with more skill; they figure upon them very agreeable designs; they also engrave very tolerably figures of men and animals in wood and stone; they inlay boxes with mother-of-pearl, the form of which is very elegant; and they make ornaments of a serpentine form, to which they give the polish of marble.

"Their weapons of attack and defence are the dagger, a lance, made of wood hardened by fire, or with iron, according to the wealth of the owner; and a bow and arrows, which are generally tipped at the point with copper; but these bows have nothing particular in them, and are not near so strong as those of many other nations.

"I found amongst their trinkets pieces of yellow amber, but I am ignorant whether it be a production of their country, or whether, like the iron, they have received it from the old continent by their indirect communication with the Russians.

"I have spoken of the passion of these Indians for play; and the custom to which they deliver themselves up with the greatest avidity is a game of chance. They have thirty wooden pieces, each having different marks, like our dice; of these they hide seven; each of them plays in his turn, and he whose guess comes nearest to the number marked upon the seven pieces, is the winner of the stake agreed upon, which is generally a piece of iron or a hatchet. This gaming renders them serious and melancholy: I have, however, frequently heard them sing; and when the chief came to pay me a visit, he commonly paddled round the ship singing, his arms extended in the form of a cross, in token of friendship; he then came on board, and played a pantomime, which was expressive either of combats, surprises, or death."

Our travellers met with a morai, which proved that these Indians were in the habit of burning their dead, and preserving the head. Each of these monuments consists of four tolerably strong stakes, which support a little wooden chamber, in which repose the ashes deposited in coffins. In one of them the Europeans opened the coffins, untied the packet of skins which enveloped the head, and, after having satisfied their curiosity, they scrupulously replaced every thing; and added to it a great many presents of different kinds of iron instruments and beads. The Indians, who were witnesses of this visit, discovered a little uneasiness, but they did not fail to take away the presents.

SECTION IV.

FOX ISLANDS.

Situation, Discovery, &c.] These islands, which have obtained their general appellation from their abounding in foxes of various colours, are situate in about forty-two degrees of north latitude, and one hundred and fifty degrees of west longitude. They are called separately by a variety of names, among which the principal are Atchu, Amlak, Atak, Unmak, Alasku, Oonella, Acootan, and Oonalashka.

In September, 1758, two vessels were fitted out by some Russian merchants to sail to the north-west coast of America, in quest of sea-otters. One of these, called the St. Vlodimir, sailed the 28th of that month, under the command of Dmetri Paikof, carrying on board a collector of tribute, named Shaffyrin, and a crew of forty-

five men. In a short time they reached Beering's Island, where they wintered. In July, 1759, they steered towards the south, in order to discover land; but being disappointed, they bore away for the Aleutian Isles. Contrary winds preventing them from effecting this purpose, they directed their course for the distant islands, now known under the name of Lyssie Ostrova, or the Fox Islands.

On the 1st of September they reached the first of these, called, by the natives, Atak or Atchu, and, by the Russians, Goreloi, or Burnt Island; but as they found the coasts very steep and craggy, they made for an adjoining island, named Amlak, where they determined to winter. To accomplish the purposes of their voyage with more expedition, they divided themselves into three parties. At the head of one was Drusinin, who went over to the small island of Sitkin: Shaffyrin led the second to Atak; and Polevoi remained on board with the rest of the crew.

All the islands were well peopled. The men had bones stuck through their ears, under their lips, and in the gristle of their noses. The faces of the women were marked with blackish streaks, made by a needle and thread passed under the skin. They had no iron among them; and their darts were pointed with bone and flint.

At first the Russians imagined that Amlak was uninhabited; but, in one of their hunting parties, they met with a boy, of about eight years of age, whom they named Hermolai, and taught him the Russian tongue, that he might be able to act as an interpreter. Soon after, they discovered a hut, in which were two women, four men, and as many boys. These people they conciliated by a mild behaviour, and employed them in hunting, fishing, and digging roots. By degrees, others were induced to associate with them, from the character their countrymen had given of the strangers; and they passed the winter without the least interruption.

In the spring, the hunting parties returned, who had lost one man on the island of Atak; in June, 1760, the same parties returned to their former stations; and shortly after, Shaffyrin, who headed one of them, was cut off, with eleven men, by the inhabitants of Atak. Drusinin received the first intelligence of this massacre from some of the natives of Sitkin, where he then resided; and immediately set out to join his companions on board. He succeeded in regaining the vessel; but their numbers were so considerably reduced, that their situation was very critical. At this period, however, their apprehensions were allayed by the arrival of a vessel, commanded by Betshevin, at the island of Atak. Both crews now joined in partnership. The one of them wintered at Amlak, the other continued at Atak.

The consort vessel was named the Gabriel. She had put to sea on the 31st of July, 1760, and was well manned; carrying, besides, some passengers, and agents for the merchant at whose risk she was fitted out. The Gabriel, having reached the Aleutian Isles, stood from thence to make new discoveries among the more remote islands, which lie in a chain to the extent of fifteen degrees of longitude. On the 25th of September they reached Burnt Island, as has been previously mentioned, and joined crews with the St. Vlodimir, which was in momentary dread of being attacked by the natives.

During the ensuing winter they obtained a valuable collection of furs and sea-horse teeth. In the following June, the two crews being distributed on board the consort vessels, the Vlodimir remained at Amlak, with an intention of proceeding to Kamtschatka, while the Gabriel put to sea in quest of new discoveries.

After touching at Umnak, to take in wood and water, they sailed to the remote island of Alaksu, where, having secured the ship, they built huts, and made other preparations for wintering. They found this island populous; and at first the natives behaved in a friendly manner, and even delivered up nine of their children as hostages to the Russians, to obviate all suspicion of treachery; but, in a short time, the irregular behaviour of the crew alienated their affections, and provoked them to hostilities. In January, 1762, two of the principal persons on board, with a party of twenty men, proceeding along the shore, offered some violence to the young females; in resentment of which their countrymen fell upon the aggressors, and the two leaders were killed, and three wounded. Not long after, the watch of the crew was suddenly attacked, when several of the Russians lost their lives, and their huts were reduced to ashes. The following May, two other Russians were killed, as they were going to bathe in the warm-springs on the island, not far from the harbour; on which seven of the innocent hostages were put to death. The same month, a general attack was commenced on the Russians; but, having gained time to prepare their fire-arms, the natives were repulsed with loss. The adventurers, however, finding themselves in continual danger, weighed anchor, and sailed for Umnak, where they seized some of the inhabitants, with their wives and children, to serve as their guides in the discovery of other islands. Stormy weather setting in, they were driven out to sea, to the westward, with such violence, that all their sails were carried away. At length they struck against land, which was found to be in the district of Stobolskoi Ostrog. Six men were immediately despatched to land, in order to collect some supplies, while the crew endeavoured to ply the ship to the windward. When the boat returned, the men were with great difficulty drawn aboard, and the ship was driven with impetuosity along the coast of Kamtschatka, and ran into the bay of Kalatzoff, where the cargo was landed.

During this voyage, the captain and his crew had behaved so inhumanly towards the islanders, that they were brought to trial for their crimes, and the preceding circumstances, with many aggravations, came out in evidence against them. It appears also they had carried away above twenty women and girls, whom they used with great brutality. On their first approach to the coast, fourteen of these unfortunate females were sent on shore to dig roots and gather berries for their oppressors. Of these, two eloped, and a third was killed; when the rest, in a fit of despair, threw themselves into the sea, and were drowned. The natives of the islands they had visited are described as being tall, and strong built. They make their clothes of the skins of birds; and thrust bones through their under-lips, by way of ornament. Their dwellings are under ground; and they have several apertures on the sides, by which they make their escape, when the principal entrance is beset by an enemy.

The island of Oonella is about [illegible] miles in circumference; Airotan is considerably [illegible], and has in it some high mountains covered with snow.

A voyage to Oonalashka was undertaken by a Russian of the name of Drusinin. The ship was manned by thirty-four Russians and three Kamtschadales; and the distresses they encountered have hardly been exceeded in any nautical enterprise on record. They sailed from Okotsk on the 6th of September, 1762, and on the 11th of October arrived at the harbour of St. Peter and Paul, where they wintered. In June, 1763, they again put to sea, and, after a prosperous navigation, reached the Aleutian Isles, and anchored before Atak, where they took up seven shipwrecked Russians.

About the middle of July they proceeded to some of the more distant islands, and having laid in a supply of water, they continued their voyage. In the beginning of September they reached Umnak, where they cast anchor. Here a large party landed, and, after passing over to the eastern extremity of the island, they returned in safety to the vessel. During this excursion they found several traces of their countrymen.

On the 22d, Drusinin continued his voyage to the northern point of Oonalashka, and, having laid up the vessel in a secure harbour, they took the lading ashore, and began to construct a hut. Three companies were now despatched on a hunting expedition; one, consisting of eleven men, under the guidance of Peter Tsekalef; a second, of the same number, under the command of Michael Kudyakof; and a third, of nine men, under Yephim Kaskitsyn. Of the two last no circumstantial account has ever been received, as not one of them ever returned to Kamtschatka.

Kaskitsyn remained near the harbour, while the other two parties proceeded to the northern part of the island. Kudyakof stopped at a village called Kalaktak, and Tsekalef went on to Inalok, about thirty versts farther. Having found a dwelling with about seventy inhabitants there, whom he apparently conciliated by kindness, he built a hut for himself and his companions, and kept a constant watch.

On the 4th of December, six of the party being despatched to look after the pit-falls for their game, there only remained five persons, viz. Tsekalef, Korelin, Bragin, Shaffyrin, and Kokovin, to guard the hut. The islanders, seeing them weakened by this separation, took the opportunity of displaying the first proofs of their hostile intentions. As Tsekalef and Shaffyrin were on a visit among them, they suddenly, and without provocation, struck Tsekalef on the head with a club, and afterwards stabbed him with knives. They next fell on his companion, who defended himself with a hatchet with so much resolution, that he effected a retreat to the hut.

Bragin and Korelin, who were in the hut, had immediate recourse to their fire-arms; but Kokovin, being at a small distance, was surrounded by the savages, and desperately wounded, before Korelin could come to his assistance. At last, however, his companion brought him off, though half dead. In a short time the natives surrounded the hut, which, being furnished with musket-holes, stood a siege for four days without intermission. The fire-arms prevented the savages from storming it; but the Russians, on the other hand, found it impossible to move from their retreat on the most urgent occasions. At length, Shaffyrin and Kokovin being a little recovered from their wounds, they all sallied out with their guns and lances, when three of the assailants were killed on the spot, and several wounded, and the rest were put to flight. During the siege, the caps and arms of the six Russians who had been sent to the pit-falls were displayed by the savages in triumph, as a proof that these unfortunate men had fallen victims to their resentment.

On the retreat of the natives, the Russians dragged the baidar into the sea, and rowed out of the bay without molestation. They soon after landed at a small habitation; and, finding it unoccupied, they drew their vessel ashore, and, armed with guns and lances, they traversed the mountains where they had left Kudyakof's party. As they approached Kalaktak, the village where these men had been stationed, they fired from the heights, but no signal being returned, they drew the melancholy conclusion that this party had been massacred. Immediately on the report of the fire-arms, numerous bodies of the islanders made their appearance, and closely pursued the Russians, who escaped their fury only by the favour of the night. Having reached a rock on the sea-shore, where they were sheltered, and could act on the defensive, they made such good use of their fire-arms, that the assailants

thought it prudent to retire. No sooner were they gone, than the miserable fugitives seized the opportunity of proceeding towards the spot where their vessel lay at anchor. They ran the whole night, without intermission; and at break of day, when they were about three versts from the haven, they espied a locker of the vessel lying on the shore. Alarmed by this unexpected event, they retreated with precipitation to the mountains, where they descried several islanders in their canoes, but no signs of their own vessel.

During that day they kept themselves closely concealed; but, when night set in, they descended with anxious fear towards the haven, and the first objects that met their view were the fragments of the vessel on which they placed all their hopes, and mangled carcases of their companions scattered over the beach. Having collected what provisions they found left by the savages, they again returned to the mountains.

The subsequent day they scooped out a cavity, in which they might shelter themselves, and covered it with a piece of a sail. In the evening they paid another visit to the beach, where they found the image of a saint, and a prayer-book; but all the tackle and lading had been carried off, excepting the sacks for provision, which being made of leather, the savages had ript them up, probably in search of iron, and had left them, with the provision, as useless. The Russians gladly collected these supplies, and dragged them to their mountainous retreat, where they lived in the greatest misery from the 9th of December until the 2d of February following.

To fill up their melancholy hours with some labour that might tend to give them the pleasure of anticipation at least, they constructed a little baidar, which they covered with the leather of the sacks. When completed, they drew it by night to the sea, and, instantly embarking, they rowed along the northern coast of Oonalashka, in order to reach a vessel belonging to Trapesnikof, under the command of Korovin, which, they had reason to apprehend, lay somewhere in that direction. By keeping at some distance from the shore, they had the good fortune to pass three habitations unperceived. Next day, however, they were seen by five islanders in a baidar, who, immediately on descrying them, made towards Makusinsk, before which place the fugitives must necessarily pass.

Darkness coming on, the Russians landed on a rock, where they passed the night, and early next morning discovering the islanders advancing towards them in hostile array, they occupied an advantageous post, and prepared themselves for defence. Part of the savages landing, and part remaining in their baidars, they commenced the assault with a volley of darts; and notwithstanding the Russian fire-arms did considerable execution, the skirmish continued the whole day, at the close of which the enemy retired, and the fugitives sheltered themselves and their canoe in an adjoining cavern. The attack was again renewed; but the assailants were at length compelled to retire.

In this place the Russians remained posted three days, secure from their enemies; but the sea, rising at a spring-tide, threatened to overflow them, on which they sallied out towards a neighbouring cavern, which they gained without sustaining any loss.

In this new asylum they were confined five weeks, watching by turns, and never venturing more than twenty yards from the entrance. They allayed their thirst with snow-water and the oozings of the rock; and, to appease the calls of hunger, they had a few shell-fish, which they collected on the beach. Driven, at last, by extreme want to the necessity of attempting something, they one night returned to draw their baidar out to sea, and happily escaped unperceived. They continued rowing by night, and concealing themselves by day, by which means they escaped observation, till they fell in with Trapesnikof's vessel, to their unbounded joy, on the 30th of March, 1764.

But, though their calamities were lightened by the enlarged society of their countrymen, they were by no means at an end. Korovin, under whose command they had now put themselves, had suffered scarcely fewer disasters than they had done. He had been repeatedly attacked by the savages, and sustained serious losses, nor was he now in a state of quiet. However, his crew being now reinforced, by the arrival of Korelin and his three companions, to the number of eighteen persons, he put to sea towards the end of April, carrying with him eleven hostages. Contrary winds soon overtook them, and, after combating their fury for some days, they were stranded in a bay of the island of Umnak. The ammunition and sails, together with some skins for the construction of baidars, were with difficulty saved. During the landing, one man was drowned; and in the general confusion eight of the hostages effected their escape.

Under the present distressing circumstances, they secured themselves between their baidar and some empty barrels, spreading the sails over head. in the form of a tent. Two were appointed to watch, while the rest, being worn out with fatigue, laid themselves down to repose. Before day-break, however, they were alarmed by the approach of about one hundred savages, who, at the distance of twenty yards, threw their darts with such force, that many of them pierced through the baidar and the skins, and others fell from above, through the sails. By this discharge the two men on the watch and the three remaining hostages were killed on the spot; and all the Russians were wounded.

So effectually had the latter been surprised, that they had not been able to have recourse to their fire-arms. They

were, therefore, obliged to attack the enemy with lances; and, after killing two of them, the rest were put to flight. Korovin and his companions were so severely wounded, that it seems the savages only wanted resolution to despatch them at once. The following night the vessel was totally dashed to pieces, and the greater part of the wreck, which was cast on shore, was carried away by the natives. The natives also shewed their resentment, by destroying what they could not use; and having thus satiated their vengeance, they retired, and left the wretched Russians at liberty to collect such poor remains of the lading and stores as the mercy of the sea, rather than the savages, had spared.

Soon after this was effected, a large body of the islanders returned again, and attacked the Russians at some distance, but fortunately without doing any execution. They also set fire to the high grass, which, being blown by the wind in the direction of the tent, was with extreme difficulty extinguished. The Russian fire-arms being now effectually used against the savages, taught them forbearance, and they molested Korovin and his men no more. Sickness and misery, however, detained them here till the 21st of July. They then put to sea in a baidar, twenty-four feet long, which carried twelve persons, to which number they were now reduced; and steered in order to reach a vessel, which they knew to be on the coast, and with whose fate they were yet unacquainted.

After rowing ten days, they landed on a different quarter of the Isle of Umnak, where they saw the remains of a vessel that had been burnt, and other signs of devastation. At a small distance from the beach was an empty Russian dwelling, and near it a bath-room, in which, to their inexpressible terror, they found twenty dead bodies in their usual dress. Each of them had a thong of leather, or his own girdle, fastened round his neck, with which, it was evident, he had been dragged along. Korovin and his companions had the affliction to recognise some of the corpses, and were well convinced that they belonged to the vessel they were in search of. But no traces of the remaining crew could be discovered, nor have any circumstances ever come to light, which could explain this fatal catastrophe.

While Korovin and his companions were employed in burying their dead countrymen, and constructing a hut, they were agreeably surprised by the arrival of Captain Glottof and a hunting-party, whose vessel lay at a small distance from this part of the coast. On board her Korovin and his associates entered. This was the third ship during this expedition in which Korelin and his three friends had sailed.

Soon after this junction, Korovin and a party of twenty men were sent to coast the island, in order to discover if any of the crew belonging to Protassof's vessel were still in being, but their enquiries were without effect. In the course of this expedition a great number of savages, in a hundred baidars, made an attack upon them with a volley of darts. The Russians fired, and soon threw the islanders into confusion. Korovin took some women prisoners, and afterwards proceeded to a dwelling of the natives, which he found deserted, but containing many articles which he knew must have belonged to his murdered countrymen.

Towards winter, Korovin and a large party was sent out on a hunting expedition to the western point of Oonalashka. When he arrived there, he was informed that a Russian ship, commanded by Soloviof, was then lying before Oonalashka, on which he immediately rowed towards her. In his course, he had a sharp encounter with the natives, ten of whom were killed on the spot, and some women and children taken prisoners. Korovin, having staid a few days on board Soloviof's vessel, returned to the place where he had been lately attacked. The inhabitants now received him in the most friendly manner, delivering hostages, and giving him liberty to hunt without molestation. They also entered into a friendly traffic, and were prevailed on to restore several muskets and other things taken from the Russians who had been massacred. Afterwards, however, these savages gave indications of renewing hostilities; but the Russians were on their guard.

Korovin, on leaving Oonalashka, was driven again by a storm on the beach of Umnak, and detained there in great distress till the 6th of April, 1765. On the 22d of that month they returned to Glottof; but the party afterwards dividing, Korovin and five other Russians, among whom were Korelin, Kokovin, and Bragin, joined Soloviof, with whom they returned to Kamtschatka, after a series of distresses which claim our commiseration, while they exalt our ideas of the courage and perseverance of the sufferers.

The island of *Oonalashka* was visited by Captain Cook in his third and last voyage; and from his narrative we have extracted the following account:

Passage to the Island.] "Being off Halibut Island, as our people were employed in fishing, about three or four miles from the shore, a small canoe came off, conducted by one man, who, in approaching the ship, took off his cap and bowed. It was evident that the Russians must have had a communication and traffic with these islanders, not only from this instance of obeisance, but from this man's having a pair of green cloth breeches, and a jacket of black cloth, or stuff, under the frock of his own country. He had nothing to barter except a grey fox-skin, and some fishing implements, the heads of the shafts of which were neatly made of bone, and carved. He had with him a bladder full of something which was supposed to be oil, as he opened it, took a mouthful, and then fastened it again. In size and features he resembled those

we had seen in Prince William's Sound and the Great River, but he was free from paint. He did not seem to understand any of the words commonly used by the people of the Sound, when repeated to him.

"We left this place, and steered to the westward, till we got sight of the continent, the nearest part of which was about four leagues distant. The land to the south-west proved to be islands. We then steered to the northward, and proceeded till we had land in every direction. That to the south extended to the south-west in a ridge of mountains; but our sight at first could not determine whether it composed one or more islands; we afterwards found it to be only one island, and that called, in the account of the Russian discoverers, by the name of *Oonalashka*. Before we were through the channel that leads to the harbour, as the wind failed, we were obliged to anchor, and wait, till a light breeze springing up, we weighed and stood in for it. This harbour is called, by the natives, *Samganoodha*, and is situated on the north side of Oonalashka, in the latitude of fifty-three degrees fifty-five minutes north. It runs in, south by west, about four miles, and is about a mile broad at the entrance, narrowing towards the head, where its breadth is not above a quarter of a mile, and where ships can be landlocked, in seven, six, and four, fathoms water.

Intercourse with the Natives and Russian Traders.] "Soon after we came to anchor in this harbour, I received, by the hands of an Oonalashka man, named Derramoushk, a very singular present, considering the place. It was a rye-loaf, or rather a pie made in the form of a loaf, for it enclosed some salmon, highly seasoned with pepper. It was natural to suppose that this present was from some Russians now in our neighbourhood; and, therefore, we sent, by the same hand, to these unknown friends, a few bottles of rum, wine, and porter, which we thought would be as acceptable as any thing we had besides; and we soon knew that in this we had not been mistaken. I also sent along with Derramoushk a corporal of the marines, an intelligent man, in order to gain some farther information, with orders, that, if he met with any Russians, he should endeavour to make them understand that we were English, the friends and allies of their nation. The corporal returned with three Russian seamen, or furriers; who, with some others, resided about two miles to the westward of the harbour, where they had a dwelling-house, some store-houses, and a sloop of about thirty tons burthen. One of these men was either master or mate of this vessel; another of them wrote a very good hand, and understood figures; and they were all three well-behaved intelligent men, and very ready to give me all the information I could desire. But, for want of an interpreter, we had some difficulty to understand each other. They seemed to have a thorough knowledge of the attempts that had been made by their countrymen to navigate the Frozen Ocean, and of the discoveries which had been made from Kamtschatka, by Beering, Tscherikoff, and Spangenberg. One of these men said that he had been with Beering in his American voyage; but must then have been very young, for he had not, at the distance of thirty-seven years, the appearance of being aged. Never was there greater respect paid to the memory of any distinguished person, than by these men to that of Beering. The trade in which they are engaged is very beneficial; and its being undertaken and extended to the eastward of Kamtschatka, was the immediate consequence of the second voyage of that able navigator, whose misfortunes proved to be the source of much private advantage to individuals, and of public utility to the Russian nation; and yet, if his distresses had not accidentally carried him to die in the island which bears his name, and from whence the miserable remnant of his ship's crew brought back sufficient specimens of its valuable furs, probably the Russians never would have undertaken any future voyages, which could lead them to make discoveries in this sea, toward the coast of America. Indeed, after his time, government seems to have paid less attention to this; and we owe what discoveries have been since made principally to the enterprising spirit of private traders, encouraged, however, by the superintending care of the court of Petersburgh. The three Russians having remained with me all night, visited Captain Clarke next morning, and then left us, very well satisfied with the reception they had met with, promising to return in a few days, and to bring with them a chart of the islands lying between Oonalashka and Kamtschatka.

"While I was at a village at a small distance from Samganoodha, a Russian landed there, who, I found, was the principal person amongst his countrymen in this and the neighbouring islands. His name was Erasim Gregorioff Sin Ismyloff. He appeared to be a sensible intelligent man; and I felt no small mortification in not being able to converse with him, unless by signs, assisted by figures and other characters; which, however, were a very great help.

"I found that he was very well acquainted with the geography of these parts, and with all the discoveries that had been made in them by the Russians. On seeing the modern maps, he at once pointed out their errors. Both Ismyloff and the others affirmed, that they knew nothing of the continent of America to the northward; and that neither Lieutenant Synd, nor any other Russian, had ever seen it of late. They call it by the same name which Stæhlin gives to his great island; that is, Alaschka. Stachtan Nitada, as it is called in the modern maps, is a name quite unknown to these people, natives of the islands as well as Russians; but both of them know it by the name

of America. From what we could gather from Ismyloff and his countrymen, the Russians have made several attempts to get a footing upon that part of this continent that lies contiguous to Oonalashka and the adjoining islands, but have always been repulsed by the natives, whom they describe as a very treacherous people. They mentioned two or three captains, or chief men, who had been murdered by them, and some of the Russians shewed us wounds, which, they said, they had received there.

"Some other information, which we got from Ismyloff, is worth recording. He told us that, in the year 1773, an expedition had been made into the Frozen Sea in sledges, over the ice, to three large islands that lie opposite to the mouth of the River Kovyma. A few days after, Ismyloff returned, and brought with him the charts before mentioned, which he allowed me to copy, and the contents of which furnish matter for the following observations. There were two of them, both manuscripts, and bearing every mark of authenticity. The first comprehended the *Penshinskian Sea*, the coast of Tartary, as low as the latitude of forty-one degrees, the Kurile Islands, and the peninsula of Kamtschatka. The second chart was to me the most interesting, for it comprehended all the discoveries made by the Russians to the eastward of Kamtschatka, towards America. The latitude of the coast discovered by Beering and these two navigators, especially the part of it discovered by Tscherikoff, differs considerably from the account published by Muller and from his chart.

Object of the Russian Settlement.] "There are Russians settled upon all the principal islands between Oonalashka and Kamtschatka, for the sole purpose of collecting furs. Their great object is the sea-beaver, or otter. I never heard them enquire after any other animal, though those whose skins are of inferior value are also made part of their cargoes. I never thought to ask how long they have had a settlement at Oonalashka, and the neighbouring isles; but, to judge from the great subjection the natives are under, this cannot be of a very late date. All these furriers are relieved, from time to time, by others. Those we met with arrived here, from Okotsk, in 1776, and were to return in 1781, so that their stay at the island would be four years at least.

Inhabitants, Customs, Manners, &c.] "The native inhabitants are rather low of stature, but plump and well shaped, with rather short necks, swarthy chubby faces, black eyes, small beards, and long straight black hair, which the men wear loose behind, and cut before, but the women tie it up in a bunch.

"To all appearance, they are the most peaceable inoffensive people I ever met with; and, as to honesty, they might serve as a pattern to the most civilized nation upon earth. But, from what I saw of their neighbours, with whom the Russians have no connexion, I doubt whether this was their original disposition; and rather think that it has been the consequence of their present state of subjection. Indeed, if some of our officers did not misunderstand the Russians, they had been obliged to make some severe examples, before they could bring the islanders into any order. If there were severities inflicted at first, the best apology for them is, that they have produced the happiest consequences; and, at present, the greatest harmony subsists between the Russians and the natives. The natives have their own chiefs in each island, and seem to enjoy liberty and property unmolested; but whether or not they are tributaries to the Russians we could never find out.

"As to their dress, both sexes wear the same in fashion; the only difference is in the materials. The women's frocks are made of seal-skin, and those of the men of the skins of birds; both reaching below the knee. This is the whole dress of the women; but, over the frock, the men wear another, made of gut, which resists water, and has a hood to it, which draws over the head. Some of them wear boots, and all of them have a kind of oval snouted cap, made of wood, with a rim to admit the head. These caps are dyed with green and other colours, and round the upper part of the rim are stuck the long bristles of some sea-animal, on which are strung glass-beads, and on the front is a small image or two, made of bone.

"They make use of no paint, but the women puncture their faces slightly; and both men and women bore the under-lip, to which they fix pieces of bone. But it is as uncommon, at Oonalashka, to see a man with this ornament, as to see a woman without it. Some fix beads to the upper-lip, under the nostrils, and all of them hang ornaments in their ears.

"Their food consists of fish, sea-animals, birds, roots, and berries, and even of sea-weed. They dry large quantities of fish in summer, which they lay up in small huts for winter-use; and, probably, they preserve roots and berries for the same time of scarcity. They eat almost every thing raw. Boiling and broiling were the only methods of cookery that I saw them make use of, and the first was probably learnt from the Russians. Some have got little brass-kettles, and those who have not, make one of a flat stone, with sides of clay, not unlike a standing pie. I was once present when the chief of Oonalashka made his dinner of the raw head of a large halibut, just caught. Before any was given to the chief, two of his servants ate the gills, without any other dressing beside squeezing out the slime. This done, one of them cut off the head of the fish, took it to the sea, and washed it; then came with it, and sat down by the chief, first pulling up some grass, upon a part of which the head was laid, and the rest was strewed before the chief. He then cut

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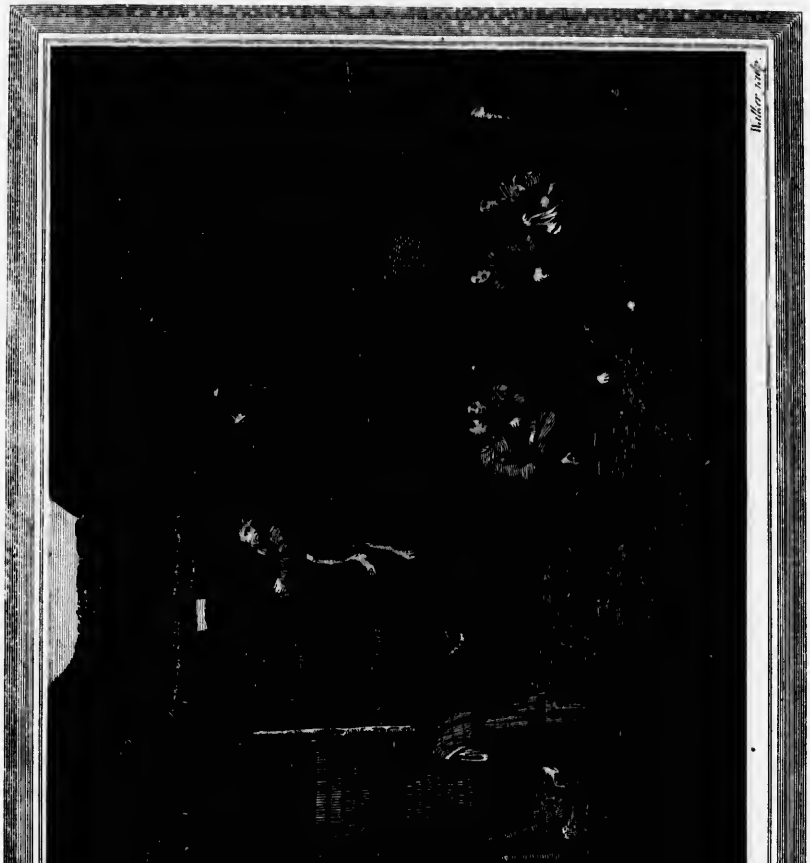

INSIDE OF A HOUSE IN OONALASHKA.

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large pieces off the cheeks, and laid these within the reach of the great man, who swallowed them with as much satisfaction as we should do raw oysters. When he had done, the remains of the head were cut in pieces, and given to the attendants, who tore off the meat with their teeth, and gnawed the bones like so many dogs.

"As these people use no paint, they are not so dirty in their persons as the savages who thus besmear themselves, but they are full as filthy in their houses. Their method of building is as follows:—They dig in the ground an oblong square pit, the length of which seldom exceeds fifty feet, and the breadth twenty, but in general the dimensions are smaller. Over this excavation they form the roof, of wood which the sea throws ashore. This roof is covered first with grass, and then with earth, so that the outward appearance is like a dunghill. In the middle of the roof, towards each end, is left a square opening, by which the light is admitted; one of these openings being for this purpose only, and the other being also used to go in and out by, with the help of a ladder, or rather a post, with steps cut in it. In some houses there is another entrance below, but this is not common. Round the sides and ends of the huts the families (for several are lodged together) have their separate apartments, where they sleep, and sit at work, not upon benches, but in a kind of a concave trench, which is dug all round the inside of the house, and covered with mats, so that this part is kept tolerably decent. But the middle of the house, which is common to all the families, is far otherwise; for, although it be covered with dry grass, it is a receptacle for dirt of every kind.

"Their household-furniture consists of bowls, spoons, buckets, piggins or cans, matted baskets, and, perhaps, a Russian kettle or pot. All these utensils are very neatly made, and well formed; and yet we saw no other tools among them but the knife and the hatchet, that is, a small flat piece of iron, made like an adze, by fitting it into a crooked wooden handle. These were the only instruments we met with there, made of iron; for, although the Russians live amongst them, we found much less of this metal in their possession than we had met with in the possession of other tribes on the American continent, who had never seen, nor perhaps had any intercourse with, the Russians. Probably, a few beads, a little tobacco and snuff, might purchase all they have to spare. There are few, if any of them, that do not both smoke and chew tobacco, and take snuff; a luxury that bids fair to keep them always poor.

"They did not seem to wish for more iron, or to want any other instruments, except sewing-needles, their own being made of bone. With these they not only sew their canoes and make their clothes, but also execute very curious embroidery. Instead of thread they use the fibres of sinews, which they split to the thickness which each sort of work requires. All sewing is performed by the women.—They are the taylors, shoe-makers, and boat-builders, or boat-coverers; for the men, most probably, construct the frame of wood over which the skins are sewed. They make mats and baskets of grass, that are both beautiful and strong. Indeed there is a neatness and perfection in most of their work, that shews they neither want ingenuity nor perseverance.

"I saw not a fire-place in any one of their houses. They are heated, as well as lighted, by lamps, which are simple, and yet answer the purpose very well. They are made of a flat stone, hollowed on one side like a plate, and about the same size, or rather larger. In the hollow part they put the oil, mixed with a little dry grass, which serves the purpose of a wick. Both men and women frequently warm their bodies over one of these lamps, by placing it between their legs, under their garments, and sitting thus over it for a few minutes.

"They produce fire both by collision and by attrition; the former, by striking two stones against each other, on one of which a good deal of brimstone is first rubbed. The latter method is with two pieces of wood, one of which is a stick, of about eighteen inches in length, and the other a flat piece. The pointed end of the stick they press upon the other, whirling it nimbly round, as a drill, and thus producing fire in a few minutes.

"Their fishing and hunting implements lie ready upon their canoes, under straps fixed for the purpose. They are all made, in great perfection, of wood and bone, and differ very little from those used by the Greenlanders. These people are very expert in striking fish, both in the sea and in rivers. They also make use of hooks and lines, nets and wears. The hooks are composed of bone, and the lines of sinews.

"The natives of Oonalashka bury their dead on the summits of hills, and raise a little hillock over the grave. In a walk into the country, one of the natives, who attended me, pointed out several of these receptacles of the dead. There was one of them, by the side of the road leading from the harbour to the village, over which was raised a heap of stones. It was observed that every one who passed it added one to it. I saw in the country several stone hillocks, that seemed to have been raised by art. Many of them were apparently of great antiquity. What their notions are of the Deity, and of a future state, I know not. I am equally unacquainted with their diversions, nothing having been seen that could give us an insight into either."

SECTION V.

NOOTKA, OR KING GEORGE'S, SOUND.

Discovery, Situation, &c.] Captain Cook, on his departure from the Sandwich Islands, in the month of February, 1778, prosecuted his voyage, in order to accomplish his main object of making discoveries in the northern hemisphere, among which was that he called King George's Sound, in honour of our august sovereign, but he afterwards found that it was called Nootka by the natives. The entrance is situated in the east corner of Hope Bay, in forty-nine degrees thirty-three minutes north latitude, and in two hundred and thirty-three degrees twelve minutes east longitude. The east coast of that bay, all the way from Breakers Point to the entrance of the Sound, is covered by a chain of sunken rocks, that seem to extend some distance from the shore; and near the Sound are some islands and rocks above water.

The harbours and anchoring-places within its circuit are numerous. The cove is covered from the sea, but has little else to recommend it, being exposed to the south-east winds, which blow with great violence.

Climate.] The climate is considerably milder than that on the east coast of America, under the same parallel of latitude. When Captain Cook was here, the mercury in the thermometer never, even in the night, fell lower than forty-two degrees, and very often, in the day, it rose to sixty degrees. No such thing as frost was perceived in any of the low ground; on the contrary, vegetation had made a considerable progress.

Vegetables.] The trees which chiefly compose the woods are the Canadian pine, the white cypress, and the wild pine, with two or three other sorts of pine less common. The trees in general grow with great vigour, and are all of a large size. There is but little variety of other vegetable productions. About the rocks, and on the verge of the woods, grow strawberry-plants, some raspberry, currant, and gooseberry, bushes, with a few small black alder-trees. There are likewise a species of sow-thistle; goose-grass; some crow's foot, which has a very fine crimson flower; and two sorts of anthericum, one with a large orange flower, and the other with a blue one. There are also wild rose-bushes; a great quantity of young leeks, with triangular leaves; a small sort of grass; and some water-cresses, which grow about the sides of the rills; besides great abundance of andromeda. Within the woods, besides two sorts of underwood-shrubs, are mosses and ferns. Of the first of these there are seven or eight different sorts; of the last, not above three or four; and the species of both are mostly such as are common to Europe and America.

Animals.] As the ships under the command of Captain Cook lay in a cove on an island, no other animals were seen alive in the woods than two or three racoons, martens, and squirrels. Besides these, some of the people, who one day landed on the continent, near the south-east side of the entrance of the sound, observed the prints of a bear's feet, near the shore. All the account, therefore, that could be given of the quadrupeds, is taken from the skins which the natives brought to sell; and these were often so mutilated with respect to the distinguishing parts, such as the heads, paws, and tails, that it was impossible even to guess at the animals to which they belonged; though others were so perfect, or at least so well known, that they left no room to doubt about them. Of these, the most common were bears, deer, foxes, and wolves. The bear-skins were very numerous, and in general of a shining black colour. The deer-skins were scarcer, and they seem to belong to that sort called the fallow-deer by the historians of Carolina; though Mr. Pennant thinks it a different species from ours, and distinguishes it by the name of Virginian deer. The foxes are in great plenty, and of several varieties; some of their skins being quite yellow, with a black tip to the tail; others of a deep or reddish yellow, intermixed with black; and a third sort, of a whitish grey or ash colour, also intermixed with black. The ermine is found at this place, but is rare and small; the racoons and squirrels are of the common sort; but the latter are rather smaller than the European, and has a deeper rusty colour running along the back.

There are two quadrupeds which Captain Cook's people could not distinguish with sufficient certainty. Of the first of these they saw none of the skins, but what were dressed or tanned like leather. The natives wear them on some occasions; and, from the size, as well as thickness, they were generally concluded to belong to the elk, though some of them might belong to the buffalo. The other animal, which seems by no means rare, was supposed to to be a species of the wild cat, or lynx. The length of the skins, without the head, was about two feet two inches. They are covered with a very fine wool or fur, of a light brown or whitish yellow colour, intermixed with long hairs, which, on the back, where they are shortest, are blackish; on the sides, where they are longer, of a silver white; and on the belly, where they are longest, of the colour of the wool; but the whitish, or silver hairs, are often so predominant, that the whole animal acquires a cast of that kind. The tail is only three inches long, and has a black tip.

The marine animals off the coast are whales, porpoises, and seals. The sea-otter is fully described in different books, taken from the accounts of the Russian adventurers, in their expeditions eastward from Kamtschatka. Captain Cook's people for some time entertained doubts whether the numerous skins which the natives brought really belonged to this animal; as their only reason for being

of that opinion was founded on the size, colour, and fineness of the fur; till a short time before their departure, when a whole one, that had been just killed, was purchased from some strangers who came to barter. It was rather young, weighing only twenty-five pounds; of a glossy black colour; but many of the hairs being tipt with white, gave it a greyish cast at first sight. The face, throat, and breast, were of a yellowish white, or very light brown colour, which, in many of the skins, extended the whole length of the belly. It had six cutting-teeth in each jaw; two of those of the lower jaw being very minute, and placed without, at the base of the two middle ones. In these circumstances, it seems to disagree with those found by the Russians, and also in not having the outer toes of the hind-feet skirted with a membrane. There seemed, also, a greater variety in the colour of the skins than is mentioned by the describers of the Russian sea-otters. These changes of colour certainly take place at the different gradations of life. The very young ones had brown hair, which was coarse, with very little fur underneath; but those of the size of the entire animal, which came into their possession, and just described, had a considerable quantity of that substance; and both in that colour and state the sea-otters seem to remain, till they have attained their full growth: after that, they lose the black colour, and assume a deep brown or sooty colour; but have then a greater quantity of very fine fur, and scarcely any long hairs. Others, which were suspected to be still older, were of a chesnut-brown, and a few skins were seen that had even acquired a perfectly yellow colour.

Birds in general here are not only rare as to the different species, but very scarce as to numbers; and these few are so shy, that, in all probability, they are continually harassed by the natives, who use their feathers as ornaments. Those which frequent the woods are crows and ravens; a blueish jay or magpie; common wrens; the Canadian, or migrating, thrush; and a considerable number of brown eagles, with white heads and tails; which, though they seem principally to frequent the coast, come into the Sound in bad weather, and sometimes perch upon the trees. There are four species of wood-peckers: one less than a thrush, of a black colour above, with white spots on the wings, a crimson head, neck, and breast, and a yellowish olive-coloured belly; the second is a larger, and much more elegant, bird, of a dusky brown colour on the upper part, richly waved with black, except about the head; the belly of a reddish cast, with round black spots; a black spot on the breast; and the under-side of the wings and tail of a plain scarlet colour, though blackish above, with a crimson streak running from the angle of the mouth, a little down the neck on each side. The third and fourth are a small bird of the finch kind, about the size of a linnet, of a dark dusky colour, whitish below, with a black head and neck, and white bill; and a sand-piper, of the size of a small pigeon, of a dusky brown colour, and white below, except the throat and breast, with a broad white band across the wings. There are also humming-birds, which yet seem to differ from the numerous sorts of this delicate animal already known. The birds which frequent the waters and shores are gulls, shags, wild ducks, divers, swans, and plovers.

Fish are more plentiful than birds, though the variety is not great: the principal sorts are the common herring, but scarcely exceeding seven inches in length; a smaller sort, which is the same with the anchovy or sardinia, though rather larger; a white or silver-coloured bream, and another of a gold-brown colour, with many other longitudinal blue stripes. The herrings and sardinias come in large shoals, and only at stated seasons, as is common with that sort of fish. The bream, of both sorts, may be reckoned the next to these in quantity; and the full-grown ones weigh at least a pound. The other fish, which are all scarce, are a small brown kind of sculpin, such as is found on the coast of Norway; another of a brownish red cast; the frost-fish; and a large one, somewhat resembling the bull-head, with a tough skin, destitute of scales. There is a small brownish cod, spotted with white, and a red fish of the same size, besides another differing little from the hake. There are also considerable numbers of the fish called the *chimæræ*, or little sea-wolves, by some; which are a kin to, and about the size of, the *pezegallo*, or elephant-fish. Sharks sometimes frequent the Sound, as the natives were seen to have some of their teeth in their possession. The other marine animals are a small cruciated *medusa*, or blubber; star-fish, which differ somewhat from the common ones; two small sorts of crabs; and two others; one of them of a thick, tough, gelatinous consistence; and the other a sort of membranaceous tube or pipe, both which are probably taken from the rocks. There is also a very large cuttle-fish.

The only reptiles here are brown snakes, two feet long, with whitish stripes on the back and sides; they are entirely harmless; and brownish water-lizards, with a tail exactly like that of an eel, which frequent the small standing pools about the rocks.

The insect-tribe is very numerous. There are four or five different sorts of butterflies, none of which are uncommon; many humble-bees, some large moths, two or three sorts of flies, a few beetles, and some mosquettoes.

Minerals.] As to the mineral substances in this country, though Captain Cook's people found both iron and copper here, they had little reason to suppose that either of them belonged to the place: neither were the ores of any metal seen by them, except a coarse, red, earthy, or ochreous substance, used by the natives in painting themselves, which probably might contain a little iron; with a

white and a black pigment, used for the same purpose: but they did not procure specimens of them, and, therefore, could not possibly determine what were their component parts.

Besides the stone or rock that constitutes the mountains and shores, which sometimes contains pieces of very coarse quartz, the same navigators found amongst the natives articles made of a hard black granite, though not remarkably compact or fine grained; a greyish whet-stone, the common oil-stone of carpenters, in coarser and finer pieces, and some black pieces, which were little inferior to the hone-stone. Here were also observed some Muscovy talc, and some pieces of rock-crystal, tolerably transparent.

Inhabitants, Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives are, in general, under the common stature, but not slender in proportion, being commonly full or plump, though many of the old people are rather lean. The visage of most of them is round and full, with high prominent cheeks; and above these the face is frequently much depressed, or seems fallen in between the temples; the nose also flattening at its base, with pretty wide nostrils, and a rounded point: the forehead rather low; the eyes small and black; the mouth round, with large thick lips; the teeth tolerably equal and well set, but not remarkably white. They have either no beards, which is most commonly the case, or a small thin one upon the point of the chin; which does not arise from any natural defect of hair on that part, but from plucking it out more or less; for some of them, and particularly the old men, have not only considerable beards all over the chin, but mustachios, both on the upper lip and toward the lower jaw, descending obliquely. Their eye-brows are scanty and narrow; but the hair of the head is in great abundance, very coarse and strong; and, without a single exception, black and straight. The neck is short; the arms and body are rather clumsy; and the limbs in all are very small in proportion to the other parts, and ill-made; with large feet and projecting ankles.

Their complexion could not be satisfactorily ascertained, as their bodies were incrusted with paint and dirt; though, in particular cases, when these were rubbed off, the whiteness of the skin appeared almost to equal that of Europeans, though rather of that pale cast which distinguishes those of southern nations. Their children, whose skins had never been stained with paint, also equalled the Europeans in whiteness. During their youth, some of them have an agreeable look; but this seems to be entirely owing to the particular animation attending that period of life; for, after attaining a certain age, there is hardly any distinction. In fact, it is said that a remarkable sameness seems to characterize the countenances of the whole nation.

The common dress consists of a flaxen garment, ornamented on the upper edge by a narrow strip of fur, and at the lower edge by fringes or tassels: it passes under the left arm, and is tied over the right shoulder by a string before, and one behind, near its middle, by which means both arms are left at liberty; and it hangs perfectly even, covering the left side, but leaving the right open, except from the loose part of the edges falling upon it, unless when the mantle is fastened by a girdle round the waist; over this, which reaches below the knees, is worn a small cloak of the same substance, likewise fringed at the lower part. In shape this resembles a round dish-cover, being quite close, except in the middle, where there is a hole just large enough to admit the head; and then, resting upon the shoulders, it covers the arms to the elbows, and the body as far as the waist. The head is covered with a truncated conical cap, made of fine matting, having the top frequently ornamented with a round or pointed knob, or a bunch of leathern tassels.

Besides this dress, which is common to both sexes, the men frequently throw over their other garments the skin of a bear, wolf, or sea-otter, with the hair outward, and tie it, as a cloak, near the upper part, wearing it sometimes before, and sometimes behind. In rainy weather they throw a coarse mat about their shoulders. They have also woollen garments, which, however, are little in use. The hair is commonly worn hanging down loose; but some, when they have no cap, tie it in a bunch on the crown of the head. Their dress, upon the whole, is convenient, and would by no means be inelegant, were it kept clean. But, as they rub their bodies constantly over with a red paint, of a coarse ochry substance, mixed with oil, their garments contract a rancid smell, and a greasy nastiness, so that they make a very wretched dirty appearance: and, what is still worse, their heads and their garments swarm with vermin.

Though their bodies are always covered with red paint, their faces are often stained with a black, a brighter red, or a white, colour, by way of ornament. The last of these gives them a ghastly disgusting aspect. They also strew brown mica upon the paint, which makes it glitter. The ears of many of them are perforated in the lobe, where they make a pretty large orifice, and two others higher up on the outer edge. In these holes they hang bits of bone, quills fixed upon a leathern thong, small shells, bunches of woollen tassels, or pieces of thin copper. The septum of the nose, in many, is also perforated, through which they draw a piece of soft cord, and others wear, at the same place, small thin pieces of iron, brass, or copper, shaped almost like a horse-shoe, the narrow opening of which receives the septum, so that the two points may gently pinch it; and the ornament thus hangs over the upper lip. About their wrists they

wear bracelets of white bugle-beads, made of a conic shelly substance; bunches of thongs, with tassels; or a broad black shining horny substance, of one piece; and about their ankles they also frequently wear many folds of leathern thongs, or the twisted sinews of animals.

Thus far we have described their *ordinary* dress and ornaments; but they have some that seem to be used only on extraordinary occasions, either when they exhibit themselves as strangers in visits of ceremony, or when they go to war. Amongst the first may be considered the skins of wolves or bears, tied on in the usual manner, but ornamented at the edges with broad borders of fur, or of a woollen-stuff, ingeniously wrought with various figures. These are worn either separately, or over their other garments. On such occasions, the most common head-dress is a quantity of half-beaten bark, wrapped about the head, which, at the same time, has various large feathers, particularly those of eagles, stuck in it, or is entirely covered with small white feathers. The face at the same time is variously painted, having its upper and lower parts of different colours, the strokes appearing like fresh gashes; or it is besmeared with a kind of tallow, mixed with paint, which is afterwards formed into a great variety of regular figures, and appears like carved work. Sometimes the hair is separated into small parcels, which are tied at intervals of about two inches to the end with thread, and others tie it together behind, and stick branches of the cypress in it. Thus dressed, they have a truly savage appearance; but this is much heightened, when they assume what may be called their monstrous decorations. These consist of a variety of carved wooden masks, applied to the face, or to the upper part of the head or forehead. Some of these resemble human faces, furnished with hair, beards, and eye-brows; others represent the heads of birds, particularly of eagles; and many are in imitation of the heads of land and sea animals, such as wolves, deer, porpoises, and others; but, in general, these representations exceed the natural size, and they are painted, and strewed with pieces of foliaceous mica, which makes them glitter, and serves to augment their deformity.

The only dress amongst these people that seems peculiarly adapted to war, is a thick leather mantle, doubled, which, from its size, appears to be the skin of an elk or buffalo, tanned. This they fasten on in the common manner, and it is so contrived that it may cover the breast quite to the throat, falling, at the same time, almost to the heels. It is sometimes ingeniously painted in different compartments, and is not only sufficiently strong to resist arrows, but even spears cannot pierce it, so that it may be considered as their most complete defensive armour. Upon the same occasion, they sometimes wear a kind of leathern cloak, covered with rows of dried hoofs of deer, disposed horizontally, appended by leathern thongs, covered with quills, which, when they move, make a loud rattling noise.

Though these people cannot be viewed without a kind of horror, when equipped in such extravagant dresses yet, when divested of them, they have no appearance o ferocity in their countenances; but appear, on the contrary, to be of a phlegmatic and inactive disposition. Their orations, which are made either when engaged in any altercation or dispute, or to explain their sentiments publicly on other occasions, seem little more than short sentences forcibly repeated, but in a monotonous tone, and accompanied only with a single gesture, which they use at every sentence, jerking their whole body a little forward, by bending the knees, their arms hanging down by their sides.

They seem to have very little curiosity; as few expressed any desire to see or examine things wholly unknown to them, and which, to those possessed of that passion, would have appeared astonishing. They were always contented to procure the articles they knew and wanted, regarding every thing else with perfect indifference; nor did the persons, apparel, and manners, of the Europeans, so different from their own, or even the extraordinary size and construction of their ships, seem to excite admiration, or even engage attention.

In trafficking with the Europeans, some of them betrayed a knavish disposition, and carried off goods without making any return; but, in general, there was reason to commend the fairness of their conduct. Their eagerness, however, to possess iron and brass, and, indeed, any kind of metal, was so great, that few of them could resist the temptation to steal it, whenever an opportunity offered.

The houses in the village at the entrance of the Sound are disposed in three rows, rising gradually behind each other, the largest being that in front, and the others less, besides a few single ones, at each end. These ranges are interrupted, at irregular distances, by narrow paths, that pass upward; but those which run in the direction of the houses, between the rows, are much broader. Though there is some appearance of regularity in this disposition, there is none in the single houses, for each of the divisions made by the paths may be considered either as one house, or as many, there being no regular separation, either without or within. They are built of long and broad planks, resting upon the edges of each other, fastened by withes of pine-bark, here and there, and have only slender poles, at considerable distances, on the outside, to which they also are tied; but within are some larger poles, placed aslant. The height of the sides and ends of these habitations is seven or eight feet, but the back part is a little higher, by which means the planks that compose the roof slant forward, and are laid on loose, so as to be moved

about, either to be put close to exclude the rain, or, in fair weather, to be separated, to let in the light, and carry out the smoke. They are, upon the whole, miserable dwellings, and constructed with little care or ingenuity; for, though the side-planks be made to fit pretty closely in some places, in others they are quite open, and there are no regular doors into them; the entrance being by a hole where the unequal length of the planks has accidentally left an opening. There are also apertures in the sides of the houses to look out at, but without any regularity of shape or disposition.

On the inside, one may frequently see from one end to the other of these ranges of building without interruption. For though, in general, there be the rudiments of separations on each side, for the accommodation of different families, they are such as do not intercept the sight, and often consist of no more than pieces of plank, running from the side toward the middle of the house, so that, if they were complete, the whole might be compared to a long stable, with a double range of stalls, and a broad passage in the middle. Close to the sides, in each of these parts, is a little bench of boards, raised five or six inches higher than the rest of the floor, and covered with mats, on which the family sit and sleep. These benches are commonly seven or eight feet long, and four or five broad. In the middle of the floor, between them, is the fire-place, which has neither hearth nor chimney.

The furniture consists chiefly of a great number of chests and boxes of all sizes, which are generally piled upon each other, close to the sides or ends of the house, and contain spare garments, skins, masks, and other articles of dress or ornament. Some of these are double, or one covers the other as a lid; others have a lid fastened with thongs; and some of the very large ones have a square hole or scuttle, cut in the upper part, by which the things are put in and taken out. They are often painted black, studded with the teeth of different animals, or carved and decorated with figures of birds or animals. Their other domestic utensils are square and oblong pails or buckets, round wooden cups and bowls, and small shallow wooden troughs, about two feet long, out of which they eat their food, and baskets of twigs, bags of matting, &c. Their fishing implements, and other things, also, lie or hang up in different parts of the house, but without the least order, so that the whole is a complete scene of confusion.

The nastiness and stench of their houses are, however, at least equal to the confusion; for, as they dry their fish within doors, they also gut them there, which, with their bones and fragments thrown down at meals, and the addition of other sorts of filth, lie every where in heaps, and are never carried away till it becomes troublesome to walk over them.

The images which are found in these houses are nothing more than the trunks of large trees, four or five feet high, set up singly, or by pairs, at the upper end of the apartment, with the front carved into a human face, the arms and hands cut out upon the sides, and variously painted, so that the whole is a truly monstrous figure. The general name of these images is *Klumma*. A mat, by way of curtain, generally hangs before them, which the natives are not willing, at all times, to remove; and, when they do unveil them, they seem to speak of them in a very mysterious manner.

The principal employment of the men seems to be that of fishing, and killing land or marine animals, for the sustenance of their families. The women are occupied in manufacturing their flaxen or woollen garments, and in preparing the sardinias for drying, which they also carry up from the beach in twig-baskets, after the men have brought them in their canoes. The women are also sent in the small canoes to gather muscles and other shell-fish, and perhaps on some other occasions: for they manage these with as much dexterity as the men, who, when in the canoes with them, seem to pay little attention to their sex, by offering to relieve them from the labour of the paddle. The young men appeared to be the most indolent set in this community; for they were observed either sitting about, in scattered companies, or laying, to bask in the sun, in the sand upon the beach, without any covering.

Though their food, strictly speaking, may be said to consist of every thing, animal or vegetable, that they can procure, the quantity of the latter bears an exceedingly small proportion to that of the former. Their greatest reliance seems to be upon the sea, as affording fish, muscles, and smaller shell-fish, and sea-animals. Of the first, the principal are herrings and sardinias, two species of bream, and small cod; but the herrings and sardinias are not only eaten fresh, in their season, but likewise serve as stores, which, after being dried and smoked, are preserved, by being sewed up in mats, so as to form large bales, three or four feet square. The herrings also supply them with another grand resource for food, which is a vast quantity of roe, incrustated about small branches of the Canadian pine. They also prepare it upon a long narrow sea-grass, which grows plentifully upon the rocks, under water. This *caviare*, if it may be so called, is kept in baskets of mat, and used occasionally, being first dipped in water. The next article, on which they seem to depend for a large proportion of their food, is the large muscle, great abundance of which are in the Sound. These are roasted in their shells, then stuck upon long wooden skewers, and taken off occasionally as wanted, being eaten without any other preparation, though they sometimes dip them in oil, as a sauce.

Of the marine animals, the most common in use amongst them, as food, is the porpoise, the fat or rind of which, as well as the flesh, they cut in large pieces, and, having dried them as they do herrings, eat them without any farther preparation. They also prepare a sort of broth from this animal, in its fresh state, in a singular manner, putting pieces of it in a square wooden vessel, with water and then throwing heated stones into it, till they think the contents are sufficiently stewed. The oil, which they procure from these and other sea-animals, is also used by them in great quantities. Upon the whole, it seems, from a variety of circumstances, that these people procure almost all their animal-food from the sea, except a few birds, of which the gulls or sea-fowl, which they shoot with their arrows, are the most material.

The Canadian pine-branches, and sea-grass, on which the fish-roe is strewed, may be considered as their only winter vegetables; but, as the spring advances, they make use of several others as they come in season. The most common of these are two sorts of liliaceous roots, one simply tunicated, the other granulated upon its surface, called *mahkatte* and *koohquoppa*, which have a mild sweetish taste, and are mucilaginous, and eaten raw. The next, which they have in great quantities, is a root called *sheita*, resembling liquorice in taste, and another fern-root. They also eat raw another small sweetish root, about the thickness of sarsaparella.

Their manner of eating is consonant to the filthiness of their houses and persons; for the troughs and platters in which they put their food appear never to have been washed from the time they were first made, and the dirty remains of a former meal are only swept away by the succeeding one. In fact, they seem to have no idea of cleanliness; for they even eat the roots which they dig from the ground without so much as shaking off the soil that adheres to them. It is uncertain if they have any regular hours for meals, for they were seen to eat at all times in their canoes; and yet, from seeing several messes of the porpoise-broth preparing at the village, it should seem that they make a principal meal about noon.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, slings, spears, short truncheons of bone, and a small pick-axe, not unlike the common American tomahawk. The spear has generally a long point, made of bone. Some of the arrows are pointed with iron; but in general their points are of indented bone. The tomahawk is a stone, six or eight inches long, pointed at one end, and the other end fixed into a handle of wood. This handle resembles the head and neck of the human figure, and the stone is fixed in the mouth, so as to represent an enormously large tongue. To make the resemblance still stronger, human hair is also fixed to it. They have another stone weapon, called *seeaik*, nine inches or a foot long, with a square point. From the number of stone weapons, and others, it might be concluded that it is their custom to engage in close fight, and it is evident, that their wars are both frequent and sanguinary, as vast numbers of human skulls were offered for sale to the Europeans.

Their manufactures and mechanic arts are far more extensive and ingenious than could have been expected from the natural disposition of the people, and the little progress that civilization has made amongst them in other respects. The flaxen and woollen garments, with which they cover themselves, must be ranked under the head of manufactures. The former of these are made of the bark of a pine-tree, beat into a hempen state. It is not spun, but, after being properly prepared, is spread upon a stick, which is fastened across to two others that stand upright. It is disposed in such a manner, that the manufacturer, who sits on her hams at this simple machine, knots it across with small plaited threads, at the distance of half an inch from each other. Though, by this method, it is less close than cloth that is woven, the bunches between the knots make it sufficiently impervious to the air, by filling the interstices, and it has the additional advantage of being softer and more pliable. The woollen garments, though probably manufactured in the same manner, have the strongest resemblance to woven cloth; but the various figures which are inserted in them, destroy the supposition of their being wrought in a loom, it being extremely unlikely that these people should be so dexterous as to be able to finish such a complex work, unless immediately by their hands. They are of different degrees of fineness; some resembling our coarsest blankets, and others almost equal to our finest sorts, and certainly warmer. The wool of which they are made seems to be taken from different animals, as the fox and brown lynx; the last of which is by far the finest sort, and, in its natural state, differs little from the colour of our coarser woots; but the hair, with which the animal is also covered, being intermixed, its appearance, when wrought, is somewhat different. The ornamental figures in these garments, which are disposed with great taste, are commonly of a different colour, being dyed either of a deep brown or of a bright yellow.

They seem to be particularly fond of carving, in every thing which they make of wood. Nothing is without a kind of freeze-work, or the figure of some animal, upon it; but the most general representation is that of the human face, which is often cut out upon their images, and even upon their weapons. The general design of all these things is perfectly sufficient to convey a knowledge of the object they are intended to represent; but the carving is not executed with the nicety that a dexterous artist would bestow even upon an indifferent design. The same, however, cannot be said of many of the human masks and

heads, where they shew themselves to be ingenious sculptors. They not only preserve, with great exactness, the general character of their own faces, but finish the more minute parts, with a degree of accuracy in proportion, and neatness in execution. The strong propensity of this people to works of this sort, is remarkable in a vast variety of particulars. Small whole human figures; representations of animals, birds, and fish; models of their household utensils and of their canoes; were found amongst them in great abundance.

To their skill in working figures in their garments, and carving them in wood, they add that of drawing them in colours. Captain Cook's people saw the whole process of their whale-fishery painted on some of their caps. This, though rudely executed, serves at least to shew that, though there be no appearance of the knowledge of letters amongst them, they have some notion of commemorating and representing actions, in a lasting way, independently of what may be recorded in songs and oral traditions.

Their songs are generally slow and solemn; but the music is not characterised by that monotony usually found amongst many rude nations; for their variations are numerous and expressive, and the melody powerfully soothing. Besides their full concerts, sonnets, of the same grave cast, are frequently sung by single performers, who keep time by striking the hand against the thigh. But the music is sometimes varied from its predominant solemnity of air, and there are instances of stanzas being sung in a more gay and lively strain, with a degree of humour.

The only instruments of music (if such they may be called) which Captain Cook's people saw among them, were a rattle, and a small whistle, about an inch long, incapable of any variation, from having but one hole. They use the rattle when they sing, but upon what occasions they use the whistle our navigators could not determine, unless it be when they dress themselves like particular animals, and endeavour to imitate their howl or cry. One of them was seen dressed in a wolf's skin, with the head over his own, and imitating that animal, by making a squeaking noise with one of these whistles, which he had in his mouth. Their rattles are for the most part made in the shape of a bird, with a few pebbles in the belly, and the tail is the handle.

Captain Vancouver visited this sound, for the last time, in September, 1794, and paid a visit, with a party of English and Spanish officers, to the chief, at the village where he resided, on which occasion he was entertained in the following manner:

On a signal given, a man entered the apartment in the chief's habitation where the party were seated, fantastically dressed in a war-garment: this was variously ornamented, as was his face, with black and red paint, so that his features appeared to be extravagantly distorted. His hair was covered with the most delicate white down of young sea-fowl, and in his hand he bore a musket with a fixed bayonet, making altogether a most savage, though, at the same time, a whimsical, figure. This man was followed by about twenty more, decorated with a considerable variety, after the same fashion, but differently armed; some, like himself, with muskets, others with pistols, swords, daggers, spears, bows, arrows, and hatchets; seemingly with intent to display their power, by an exhibition of the several implements they possessed.

When this ludicrous group retired, the chief performed a mask-dance by himself, in which, with great adroitness, he frequently, and almost imperceptibly, changed his mask: this seemed to be a favourite amusement with him, as he appeared to be in high spirits, and to take great delight in the performance. His dress consisted of a cloak and a kind of short apron, covered with hollow shells and small pieces of copper, so placed as to strike against each other, and to produce a jingling noise, which, being accompanied with the beating of a stick on a hollow board, as a substitute for a drum, and some vocal exertions, produced a savage discordant noise, as offensive to the ear as the former exhibition had been to the eye. But, in compliment to the chief, the party applauded the exhibitions, which highly gratified him and the crowd of spectators assembled on the occasion. There was another vocal and instrumental performance, in which another chief acted as master of the ceremonies, and passed many compliments on the Spanish and English officers, at the breaking up of the entertainment.

Their canoes are constructed with great simplicity, but well calculated for every useful purpose. Even the largest, which carry twenty people or more, are formed of one tree. Many of them are forty feet long, seven broad, and about three deep. From the middle, towards each end, they become gradually narrower, the stern ending abruptly, or perpendicularly, with a small knob on the top; but the fore-part is lengthened out, stretching forward, and ending in a notched point or prow, considerably higher than the sides of the canoe, which run nearly in a straight line. For the most part they are without any ornament, but some have a little carving, and are decorated by setting seals' teeth on the surface, like studs. A few have, likewise, a kind of additional head or prow, which is painted with the figure of some animal. They have no seats, nor any other supporters, on the inside, than several round sticks, little thicker than a cane, placed across, at mid-depth. They are very light, and their breadth and flatness enables them to swim firmly, without an out-rigger, which none of them have; a remarkable distinction between the navigation of all the American nations, and that of the southern parts of the East-Indies, and the islands in the Pacific Ocean.

Their paddles are small and light, the shape, in some measure, resembling that of a large leaf, pointed at the bottom.

Their implements for fishing and hunting, which are both ingeniously contrived, and well made, are nets, hooks and lines, harpoons, and an instrument like an oar. This last is about twenty feet long, four or five inches broad, and about half an inch thick. Each edge, for about two-thirds of its length, is set with sharp bone-teeth, about two inches long. Herrings and sardinias, and such other small fish as come in shoals, are attacked with this instrument; which is struck into the shoal, and the fish are caught either upon or between the teeth. Their hooks are made of bone and wood, and rather inartificially; but the harpoon, with which they strike the whales, and smaller sea-animals, shews a considerable degree of contrivance. It is composed of a piece of bone, cut into two barbs, in which is fixed the oval blade of a large muscle-shell, containing the point of the instrument. To this is fastened about two or three fathoms of rope; and, to throw this harpoon, they use a shaft of about twelve or fifteen feet long, to which the line or rope is made fast; and to one end of which the harpoon is fixed, so as to separate from the shaft, and leave it floating upon the water as a buoy, when the animal darts away with the harpoon.

Captain Cook's people knew not any thing of the manner of their catching or killing land-animals, unless it might be supposed they shoot the smaller sorts with their arrows. For the purpose of catching land-animals they have several nets, which they frequently threw over their heads, to shew their use, when they brought them for sale. They, also, sometimes decoy animals, by covering themselves with a skin, and running about upon all fours, which they do very nimbly, as appeared from the specimens of their skill, which they exhibited, making a kind of neighing at the same time; and, on these occasions, the masks, or carved heads, as well as the real dried heads, of the different animals, are put on.

As to the materials of which they make their various articles, it is to be observed, that every thing of the rope kind is formed either from thongs of skins, and sinews of animals, or from the same flaxen substance of which their mantles are manufactured. The sinews often appeared to be of such a length, that it might be presumed they could be of no other animal than the whale. And the same may be said of the bones of which they make their weapons already mentioned; such as their bark-beating instruments, the points of their spears, and the barbs of their harpoons.

Their great dexterity in works of wood, may, in some measure, be ascribed to the assistance they receive from iron tools: for, as far as we know, they use no other; at least, the Europeans saw only one chissel of bone: and though, originally, their tools must have been of different materials, it is not improbable that many of their improvements have been made since they acquired a knowledge of that metal, which now is universally used in their various wooden works. The chissel and the knife are the only forms, as far as appeared, that iron assumes amongst them. The chissel is a long flat piece, fitted into a handle of wood. A stone serves for a mallet, and a piece of fish-skin for a polisher. Some of these chissels are eight or ten inches long, and three or four inches broad, but in general they are smaller. The knives are of various sizes; some very large, and the blades are crooked, somewhat like pruning-knives; but the edge is on the back or convex part. Most of them are about the breadth and thickness of an iron-hoop. These iron tools are sharpened upon a coarse slate whet-stone, and are always kept bright.

Of the political and religious institutions established amongst this people, it cannot be supposed that much should be known. The chiefs are distinguished by the title of *Acweek*, and to them the others are, in some measure, subordinate. But the authority of each of these great men seems to extend no farther than the family to which he belongs, and who acknowledged him as their head.

Captain Cook's people did not see any thing that could give the least insight into their notions of religion, besides the figures called Klumma. Most probably these were idols; but, as they frequently mentioned the word *acweek*, when they spoke of them, it may be supposed that they are the images of some of their ancestors.

CHAPTER VII.

GREENLAND.

Situation, and General Description.

THE country thus denominated is the remotest tract of land in the north of our globe, and has been generally classed, by geographers, among those northern countries that remain unknown; but it is now clearly ascertained to belong to North-America. As far as it has been explored, it has been found to reach, on the north-east side, from the fifty-ninth to the eightieth degree of north latitude; and on the side opposite North-America to about the seventieth degree.

When seamen speak of Greenland, they generally mean the islands of Spitzbergen, lying north of Lapland, between the seventy-fifth and eightieth degree of latitude, with the eastern coast of Greenland lying opposite thereto. This eastern coast is but thinly, if at all, inhabited at present; but the western side of Greenland, from the sixty-second to the seventy-first degree north, is colonized by Europeans. The islands of Spitzbergen are uninhabited, except during the season of the whale-fishery. The globe here is so round, that, even at the distance of six miles, in a calm, sailing east or west, the masts of a ship only are discoverable; at eight miles, no other part can be seen than the topmast, and, at twelve miles distance, the flag only; yet the mountains of Spitzbergen rise so high as to be seen forty-eight miles off. Captain Constantine Phipps, afterwards Lord Mulgrave, in his voyage to the north pole, in 1773, coasted round them.

The land, on the western side of Greenland, is barren, high, and rocky, and rises, in most places adjoining the ocean, in such lofty mountains and inaccessible cliffs, as may be seen at sea at the distance of about forty leagues. The cliffs and mountains being continually covered with ice and snow, these, by constantly falling, have filled the valleys, and seem annually to increase their height. The plains between the rocks are also covered with ice, except when there is a scanty portion of earth and grass, an occasional little brook and pond, and some few low scattered shrubs. Within land there are no inhabitants, and but very few upon the coast. Of the European settlements, the most southern is the colony of *Frederic's Haab*, or Frederic's Hope, situated in the sixty-second degree of north latitude, planted by the Danes, in 1742. It lies one mile and a half from the open sea, and is a good haven, and place of trade. In the islands opposite, where the Dutch merchant-ships formerly harboured, many Greenlanders reside, they being well situated for catching fish, seals, and rein-deer. This colony is yet but small.

About twelve leagues north of this colony is the shining ice, called in the charts *Eis-blink*. It is a large high field of ice, whose glances in the air, resembling the aurora borealis, may be seen at sea for many leagues. It was an inlet within the land, whose entrance is now blocked up in such a manner, by many vast pieces of ice, driven out by the ebb, that it forms, as it were, an arched ice-bridge, eight leagues in length, stretching from land to land, and two in breadth. Such Greenlanders as wish to enter this harbour, carry their little canoes over land upon their heads, and, when they have passed this bridge, they find open water, for twenty leagues in length, and two in breadth. Places are found here where Greenland houses formerly stood; a proof that the mouth of the harbour was once open.

About thirty-six leagues north of Frederic's Hope is another colony, called *Fischer's Fiorte*, or Fisher's Bay, begun in 1754; but, as few Greenlanders live about this place, it has but little trade. In this neighbourhood are seen many ruins, supposed to be relics of the old Norwegians.

A third colony, called *God-haab*, or Good-hope, lies in about forty-six degrees fourteen minutes, thirty-six leagues north of Fisher's Bay. Here there are a number of small islands, crowded together in the compass of six leagues. The Moravians have here established a congregation, built a church, a provision-house, a smith's shop, and a brew-house; and the houses of the natives are scattered round them. This is the oldest colony in Greenland, having been founded in 1721. It was formerly inhabited by some thousands of Greenlanders; but the small pox having made great ravages in 1733, the number is so decreased, that there are now few natives settled in it. It was calculated, in 1746, that, on the whole western coast of Greenland, in the space of four hundred leagues, there were not above twenty thousand Greenlanders there settled; whereas, in the year 1730, the number was computed at thirty thousand, the remainder having been destroyed by the small-pox.

A fourth colony, established in 1734, lies in seventy-nine degrees. There are also three or four others; but the twelfth, and farthest north, is in seventy-one degrees,

and was erected in 1758. The natives assert, that the country is inhabited as far north as seventy-eight degrees, though very thinly; for, notwithstanding there are numerous fowls and animals, yet, from the long winter-nights, it is almost impossible to live there, the land being little else than dreary rock and ice. In these parts, instead of building their houses with wood and turf, as in more southern places, the natives are obliged to erect them with clay, seal-skins, &c.

Climate.] This country, being covered perpetually with snow, must necessarily be very cold. In such places, in winter, where the inhabitants enjoy the sun for an hour or two in the day, the cold is tolerable; but, where the sun is entirely below the horizon, it is most intense, insomuch that, while people are drinking tea, the emptied cup, when put down, will freeze to the table. Paul Egede, a missionary, in his journal of January 7, 1738, says, that in latitude sixty-eight degrees, when he was there, the ice and hoar-frost reached through the chimney to the stove's mouth, without being thawed by the fire, even in the day-time, so that over the chimney was an arch of frost, with little holes, through which the smoke issued.

The summer, in Greenland, is from the beginning of May to the end of September, during which time the natives encamp in tents; yet the ground is not mellowed by a thaw till June, and then only on the surface, nor does it cease snowing till this time. In August it begins snowing again, but not any snow continues on the ground till that which falls in October. In the longest summer-days, particularly in serene and clear weather, it is so hot that people are not only obliged to throw off their winter-garments, but, on the sea, the pitch will melt from the ships; and, from April to August, the fogs are so thick, almost every day, that people cannot see forty yards before them. It has been often remarked, that the weather in Greenland is just the reverse of what it is in Europe. In the year 1763, when it was extremely cold throughout Europe, it was remarkably mild in Greenland. In general, however, the air is so pure, that, if a man clothe himself warm, eat moderately, and take good exercise, he will enjoy a good state of health and spirits. The winds are as variable here as in other countries; but, when it once begins to be stormy, which happens mostly in autumn, they rage so vehemently, that the houses shake and crack; tents and the lighter boats fly up into the air, and the sea-water scatters about on the land like snow-dust. When any one is obliged to leave his house, in order to put his boats into shelter, he must creep upon his belly, lest the wind should take him off his legs.

There is not any night in this country, during the summer, beyond the sixty-sixth degree north; in the longest days, the sun does not set; but it does not shine with such lustre at night as at noon, resembling only a very bright moon, which a person may look at without being dazzled. On the other hand, the winter-nights are so much the longer; and in the sixty-seventh degree the face of the sun is never seen above the horizon, from November 30 to January 12. And yet there are no dark nights here, as in other countries; the inhabitants enjoy a moderate twilight, and the moon and stars, added to the snow and ice, give such a light that one might see plainly to read print of an ordinary size. In the shortest days the moon never sets; but very little is seen of it in the summer-time, and the stars never appear from May till August.

Vegetable Productions.] The valleys, in general, have no other herbage than moss and sour moor-grass, and the uninhabited islands furnish only a few low shrubs, heath, and herbs; the land, however, near the Greenland houses and encampments, from many years cultivation with the blood and fat of seals, though in itself nothing but a barren sand, produces the finest and largest herbs. Grass grows here, not only in fenny, sandy, and turfy ground, but also in the cliffs of rocks, where any earth has lodged, and especially near the houses. One sort of moss is like a soft thick fur, which the natives use to stop the crevices of their houses; another sort serves them for tinder, and wicks for lamps. They have a kind of white moss, on which the rein-deer feed in winter, and which is said to be very medicinal. There is also another kind of moss, that serves them instead of bread, being occasionally boiled with milk, as a substitute for oatmeal. As the season will not admit of sowing till the middle of June, they cannot raise many vegetables. Radishes grow as well here as in most other countries; but salad and cole are very small, and will not bear transplanting. Wortleberries and cranberries are here met with, and a fruit like the mulberry, only yellow, instead of red: these last are very refreshing, and a remedy for the scurvy. There are plenty of large juniper-berries; but they are held in no estimation. There are also three kinds of willows, but the cold will not suffer them to rear their heads. The birch, though somewhat different from ours, is in the same predicament. The Greenlanders mention alders, that grow in the southern parts to an immense height and size, and say that the wild service-tree grows there in abundance, and brings its fruit to maturity.

Animals.] This desolate land affords nourishment to a very few kinds of beasts, which supply the natives with food and raiment. The hares are white, both in summer and winter, are pretty large, and subsist on grass and white moss. The rein-deer are of that kind which are met with in Siberia, Norway, Lapland, and the northern parts of America. The largest are about the size of a two-year old heifer; their colour is brown, or grey, with white bellies; their skin very thick of hair, about an inch long; their antlers differ only from those of the common

buck, in being smooth, grey, and broad at top; and their flesh is tender, and well-tasted. They are very cleanly and contented creatures; live, in summer, on the tender grass, which they find in the valleys, and, in winter, on the white moss, which they dig for under the snow, between the rocks. Here are also foxes, but somewhat different from those of southern countries. Some are white, but, in general, they are blue or grey: they bark like dogs, and resemble them about the head and feet; they live on birds and their eggs, berries, muscles, crabs, and what the sea casts up. The natives catch them in traps; and, if in want of food, prefer them to hares.

The Greenland dogs frequently snarl and howl, but are never heard to bark: they are timorous, and, consequently, unfit for the chase; yet, if not tamed when young, they become remarkably wild and mischievous. The natives use these creatures to draw their sledges, yoking four, six, and sometimes eight, to a sledge, loaden with five or six large seals; and it is said that they often travel sixty miles in a winter's day upon the ice.

The white bears of Greenland differ from those of other countries, in having the head and neck of a more lengthened form, and the body longer in proportion to its bulk. The hair of these animals is long, and soft as wool; the ears and eyes are small, but the teeth are large, and the limbs remarkably long. They are not only seen at land, but often on ice-floats, several leagues at sea. They are sometimes transported in this manner to the coast of Iceland; and it sometimes happens that, when a Greenlander and his wife are paddling out at sea, a white bear unexpectedly gets into their boat, and, like a passenger, suffers himself to be rowed to shore.

It appears, however, that the Greenland bear is an animal of great spirit, and, if attacked, will make astonishing exertions to revenge himself on his assailant. Barentz had the most horrid proofs of their ferocity at Nova Zembla, where they attacked and devoured many of his seamen, even in the sight of their comrades. And an instance still more remarkable is thus narrated by the Rev. Mr. Bingley, in his Animal Biography: "Not many years ago, the crew of a boat, belonging to a ship in the whale-fishery, shot at a bear at a little distance, and wounded it. The animal immediately set up the most dreadful howl, and ran along the ice towards the boat. Before he reached it, a second shot was fired, and hit him. This served but to increase his fury. He presently swam to the boat, and, in attempting to get on board, reached one of his fore-feet upon the gunnel; but one of the crew, having a hatchet in his hand, cut it off. The animal still, however, continued to swim after them, till they arrived at the ship; and several shots were fired at him, which also took effect: but, on reaching the ship, he immediately ascended the deck; and the crew having fled into the shrouds, he was pursuing them thither, when a shot from one of them laid him dead upon the deck."

During the summer, these creatures reside chiefly on the ice-islands, frequently swimming from one to another; but, at the approach of winter, they retire, and conceal themselves deep beneath the snow, where they pass the long Arctic night in a state of torpidity. Great numbers of them, however, are annually driven from their favourite retreats, by impetuous winds or currents, and perish in the open sea.

These bears produce one or two cubs at a time; and their maternal affection is so strong, that they will rather die than desert their young in the hour of danger. We shall relate one instance, which seems peculiarly worthy of attention.

While a frigate, which was sent out some years ago to make discoveries towards the north pole, was locked in the ice, a man at the mast-head gave notice, that three bears were advancing over the frozen ocean, and directing their course directly toward the vessel; having, probably, been invited by the scent of some blubber of a sea-horse, which was burning on the ice at the time of their approach. The animals, which proved to be a she-bear and two large cubs, ran eagerly to the fire, and drew out the flesh that remained unconsumed. The mariners then threw some other lumps of flesh upon the ice, which the old bear fetched away singly, and, dividing each lump, gave a share to each of her cubs; but, as she was fetching away the last piece, she received a wound from a musket-ball, and her young ones were both shot dead. The scene now became truly affecting, and the tender concern expressed by the poor animal in the last moments of her expiring cubs, might have drawn tears of pity from any but unfeeling minds. Though desperately wounded, and scarcely able to crawl to the place where the victims lay, she carried the lump of flesh thither, divided it between them, and laid her paws first upon one and then upon the other, anxiously endeavouring to raise them up. When she found that she could neither stir them, nor entice them to eat, she went off to some distance, looked back, and mourned most piteously; but this not availing, she returned, and, with signs of inexpressible affection, walked round them, pawing them and moaning. At length, perceiving them to be cold and lifeless, she raised her head towards the ship, and uttered a growl of despair. This was immediately returned by a discharge of musketry; and the affectionate animal, having fallen between her cubs, expired in the act of licking their wounds.

The usual food of these quadrupeds consists of seals, fish, and the carcases of whales; but, when on land, they prey on deer, hares, young birds, and other animals; and they are also said to eat various kinds of berries. When allured by the scent of the flesh of seals, they assemble in

large droves, and sometimes attempt to break into the habitations of the Greenlanders; but they are easily repulsed by the smoke of burnt feathers.

Of their astonishing sagacity in searching for prey, the following particulars are related. "The white bears in Greenland, notwithstanding the coldness of the climate, have an exquisite sense of smelling, and sometimes, when the fishermen have dismissed the carcase of a whale, and left it floating on the waves three or four leagues from the shore, these animals will stand as near the water as they can, and, raising themselves on their hind-legs, snuff in the air, till they are, at length, satisfied whence the odour comes. They then cast themselves into the sea, and swim directly toward the carcase." Their flesh is said to be coarse, and the liver is extremely unwholesome; but their skins are used for coverings of various kinds; and their tendons, when split asunder, are said to form excellent thread.

Of land-birds, the principal is the northern partridge, known in Switzerland by the name of the snow-hen: they cast their feathers twice a year. The colour of the cocks is grey in summer, and white in winter:—a wise precaution of Providence to preserve them from birds of prey, which hunt after them, and, but for this circumstance, would readily find them. Their claws have, within, a thick ball, covered with small feathers, to enable them to endure the cold, and, as their toes are not divided the whole way up, they are capable of swimming. Here are also snipes, and some small singing-birds; and among the birds of prey are the great dark-brown eagle, grey and spotted falcons, white owls, and ravens.

The eider-duck is, on account of its down, a profitable article of commerce. Its flesh is eaten by the Greenlanders, and of its skin they make their warmest undergarments. This fowl is, however, most valued for its down, which is found in great quantities, when stripped of its coarse feathers. As the down, when stripped from the dead bird, is apt to heat by lying, and will not distend itself properly, they contrive to procure it from the fowl whilst living: for this purpose, they visit the nests, which the tender mother lines with this soft substance, either dropped or plucked from her body, to prepare a warm bed for her callow brood.

In treating of Greenland, it is indispensably necessary to give some account of the whale and its fishery, which annually employs so many ships of different nations, and that in a compass of two degrees, from the seventy-seventh to the seventy-ninth. These ships sometimes catch from one thousand eight hundred to two thousand whales in the space of two months.

The Greenland whale is described, in *Marten's Voyage to Spitzberg*, and *Zordrager's Greenland Fishery*, to be from fifty to eighty feet long. The head is a third part of the length of the whole body; it has only two fins, on each side of the head, from five to eight feet long, but with these it rows along very fast. Its tail is six or eight yards broad, and, turning up at both ends in a curve, it is enabled with it to dash the strongest boat in pieces; it is, however, a timid animal, never commencing an attack, but retiring at the least alarm. Its skin, above, is commonly black and smooth, like velvet, and white underneath. On the head is a bunch, where are two nostrils, through which it breathes, and spouts out the water it takes in at its mouth, with a noise that can be heard at three miles distant. Its eyes are placed between its nostrils and fins, and are not larger than those of an ox. It has no flaps to its ears, nor any teeth in its mouth, but contains in its upper-jaw, which is six yards long, those blades, or whiskers, as they are called, of which whalebone is made. There are commonly three hundred and fifty on each side; but the fifty largest only are taken. The tongue consists wholly of soft fat, which will fill from five to seven large barrels. This fish brings forth its young full-formed, generally one at a time, but never more than two, which it suckles: when pursued, it wraps up its young in its fins, close to its body. Whales have two skins, the inner an inch thick, the outer one as thin as parchment; under these lies the fat, from six to twelve inches thick; about the under-lip it is two feet in thickness. The entire fat of the whale will, according to the size of the fish, fill from one hundred to three hundred barrels. Its flesh is coarse. The bones are hard; full of holes on the inside, and filled with train-oil.

The taking of whales in the seas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increasing for ages, is perhaps one of the boldest enterprises of man. These fields of ice are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of one hundred feet in thickness; and, when they are put in motion by a storm, nothing can be more terrible: the Dutch had thirteen ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

When the seamen see a whale spout, the word is immediately given, *a fall! a fall!* when every one hastens from the ship to his boat; six or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats usually belong to one vessel.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with a barbed dart, called a harpoon; and the animal, finding himself wounded, dives swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line fast enough. To prevent the wood of the boat taking fire, by the violent friction of the rope on the side of it, some person wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes such a terrible noise with his spouting, that some have com-

pared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, upon which he plunges again into the deep. When he comes up a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood, instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and, by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home. Every fish is computed to yield between sixty and a hundred barrels of oil.

In these seas there are five or six species of seals; some two and some three yards in length. They, in general, yield a great quantity of blubber; and the train that drops from them is not more rancid than stale oil of olives: with their skins the Greenlanders frequently make waistcoats. They cannot easily be caught by a single person; but, as they are animals of passage, retiring from Greenland in March, to cast their young, and returning in June, like a flock of sheep, the seal-hunters endeavour, on their return, to surround them on the ice, where they often lie sleeping in herds. They first frighten them by shouting, which occasions them to stretch out their necks, and yell, at which time the catchers take the opportunity to stun them, by giving them a violent blow on their noses; after which they kill and skin them.

To the Greenlanders the seal-fishery is of the greatest importance. Seals' flesh, with that of the rein-deer, is their most delicious and substantial food: the fat supplies their lamps and fires with oil, softens their dry food, and, by barter, furnishes them with all the necessaries of life. Of the fibres of seals' sinews, they make thread; the transparent skins of the entrails serve them for windows, curtains for their tents, shirts, &c.; and of the maw they make train bottles. When there is a scarcity of iron, they make instruments and tools of their bones: their blood, with other ingredients, they convert into soups; and make their clothes, bedding, and boats, of their skins. Catching seals, therefore, is the great end of Greenland education; to which the children are trained from their infancy, and by which they obtain a subsistence.

In this fishery they use two kinds of boats; a large one and a small one. The large one they call *umiak*, or the woman's boat; and the small one, *kaiak*. The woman's boat is from thirty-six to fifty-four feet long, four or five wide, and three deep; the other about seventy-two feet long, eighteen inches broad, and barely twelve inches deep; they are flat-bottomed, widest in the middle, go off sharp at each end, and are covered with seal-skin. The large boats are open at the top, and are generally rowed by four women; one steering with an oar behind. In the fore-part is a mast, with a sail, six feet high, and nine feet wide.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Greenlanders are of low stature, not exceeding five feet in height; but they are well shaped, and proportionate in their limbs. Their faces are generally broad and flat, with high cheek-bones, but their cheeks are round and plump. Their eyes are small and black, but without any animation, and their noses project but little from their faces; their bodies are of a dark grey, but their faces are of an olive-colour. As their children are born white, this tinge may proceed in part from their filthiness; for they are continually handling train-oil and grease, sitting in the smoke, and seldom wash themselves: their food also may contribute to the same end; for their breath smells like train-oil, and their hands feel clammy. But there are a few whose complexions are fairer, and who might pass undistinguished among the natives of Switzerland. The hair on their heads is universally long and black; but the men have seldom any beard, as they take great pains to pluck it out. Their hands and feet are small and soft, but their head and limbs are large. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who accustom themselves to carry heavy burdens, and, being corpulent, can endure the cold, with bare heads and necks, and very thin clothing. They are very light and active, do not want strength, and can endure great fatigue. They are of a phlegmatic nature, but good-humoured, sociable, and far from covetous: being so little concerned for the future, as not to hoard up any thing.

The pacific disposition of these people is much to be admired. As several families live in one house, if any one conceives himself injured, he removes to another habitation, and that without a murmur. They cheerfully assist each other, and live, in some measure, in common, yet without any one relying on the labour of another. If a man return home with provision in the evening, he divides it with the families under the same roof; but, poor as they may be, not one presumes to ask for any thing; nor, indeed, is it necessary in a country where such hospitality is practised.

Their clothes are made of skins of rein-deer, seals, and birds. Their outer garment has some resemblance to a waggoner's frock, and they put it on by drawing it over their heads, like a shirt; at the top of it is a hood, which they can occasionally pull up over their heads. Their under-garment is a kind of shirt, made of the skins of birds, with the feathers inwards. Some of them make their upper-garment of cloth, or cotton. Their breeches are of seal's skin, very short above and below; their stockings are made of the skin of a seal's fœtus, taken

out of the body of the dam; and their shoes are of smooth black leather, tied with a thong on the instep. The soles of their shoes stand out, bending upwards, both before and behind, two inches broad, but they have no heels. The rich natives wear woollen stockings, breeches, and caps; and, when they make a voyage, cover themselves with a black smooth seal's hide, as a great coat. The dress of the women is much the same, only their jackets have higher shoulders, and a higher hood, and are not cut round at the bottom, like the men's, but, from the thigh, drop in a point before and behind, below the knee, and are bordered with red cloth. The women also wear short drawers, and a kind of high shoes, of white or red leather, the seam of which is before, and ornamented. Mothers and nurses wear an upper-garment, wide in the back, with a pocket in the shoulders large enough to hold a child, which is left there naked, and is no otherwise taken care of. They are very careful of their best clothes, but their ordinary garments drip with grease, and their heads swarm with vermin, which they are said to kill between their teeth.

The men wear their hair cut short in the poll, and squared off on their foreheads; but, as it is a reproach to a woman to cut her hair, except in cases of deep mourning, or when they resolve never to marry, they tie it up to the top of their heads, so as to ornament their crowns, binding it with glass-beads, or some gay bandage. The same kind of ornaments they wear round their arms and necks, and in their ears, and round the borders of their clothes and shoes: but such as wish to be admired draw threads, blacked with soot, under their chins, cheeks, hands, and feet, which leave a black mark behind, somewhat resembling a beard.

The habitations of the Greenlanders are huts in winter, and tents in summer. The former, which are built with stones and sods, are generally erected on some eminence near the sea, in order that the snow may run from them. They are seldom more than about four yards broad, and from eight to twenty-four yards in length, according to the size of the family, and just high enough for a person to stand upright in. They have neither door nor chimney, but the deficiency is supplied by a passage, five or six yards long, by which they can pass through the middle of the hut; the roof of the passage is so low, that they are obliged to creep in almost on their hands and feet. This long entrance excludes the wind and cold, and lets out the thick air, for, as they burn only oil within, they have no smoke. The inside of the walls are hung with old skins, and the roofs covered with the same. From the middle of the hut to the back wall, there is a raised broad bench, made of wood, and covered with skins, and this is divided by skins, stretched from the posts that support the roof, into apartments, like horse-stalls, in each of which a family lives, so that houses contain from three to ten families, some more, and some less. On these benches they sit in the day-time, the men with their legs hanging down, the women behind, cross-legged, and in the night they sleep on them. Along the front wall, opposite to this wall, are several square windows, made of seals' entrails and halibuts' maws, and sewed so neatly as to keep out the weather, and yet admit the light. A bench runs along the whole length of the house, under the windows, where strangers sit or sleep. By every post is a fire-place. A block of wood is laid upon the ground, and upon that a flat stone; on the stone, a low three-legged stool, and on that stool a lamp, resembling a half moon, hewn out of marble; it stands in an oval wooden bowl, placed under the lamp, to receive the waste oil. In this lamp, filled with seal-oil, they lay some moss, rubbed fine, which burns so bright, and gives such a heat, as not only lights, but warms the apartment. Over this lamp hangs a marble kettle, by four strings, fastened to the roof, in which they boil their meat; and over this is placed a wooden rack, on which they lay their clothes and boots to dry. At the outside of these mansions they have little store-houses, where they lay up their provision, and close by are their boats, drawn on the land, and laid with their bottoms upwards, to preserve them.

Their cookery, like their persons, is marked by filthiness; as they seldom wash their kettles, but leave them to the dogs to clean. Their broth they eat with bone-spoons, from a wooden dish, but their meat they eat with their fingers, and tear with their teeth; and, when the repast is over, scrape their lips with a knife, lick the blade, and put it in their pockets. When they entertain a stranger, they first lick the meat he is to eat clean from the scum it had contracted in the kettle, and this is to be considered as a particular mark of attention and respect. They eat whenever they are hungry, but the evening meal is their chief repast, when they frequently invite their neighbours, or send them a part of it. They take no thought for the morrow, but, when they have plenty, will dance and eat to excess. But when March comes, and the seals retire, till May, if bad weather ensue, they are obliged to struggle with hunger for many days together; and, in fact, they are sometimes reduced to the necessity of eating muscles, sea-weed, old tent-skins, &c.

Their beverage is clear water, which stands in the house in a large copper vessel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made, and ornamented with fish-bones and rings.

The principal employments of the men are hunting and fishing; but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers

and cooks, and also are expected to dress the skins, and make them up into clothes, shoes, and boots. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenter's work.

The Greenlanders seldom marry a relation, or any person bred up with them, yet there have been instances of a man's marrying two sisters, or a mother and the daughter. Polygamy is allowed among them; but scarcely one married man in twenty has more than one wife. If a woman do not breed, she is sometimes put away, and this with little more ceremony than a sour look, on the part of the husband, and packing up her clothes, on that of the wife. When this happens, the woman returns to her own friends. Where a wife cannot agree with other women in the same house, she will elope, especially if she have no son, for sons are the pride of a Greenlander's heart, his greatest treasure, and the best security of his property.

The women are not very prolific, having seldom more than three or four children. Very few die in child-birth, and a still-born or deformed child is scarcely ever heard of, though the mother works just before and immediately after her delivery. Mothers love their children excessively, and carry them with them, wherever they go, in the pocket of their outer garment.

The Greenlanders are unacquainted with salutations and tokens of respect, and laugh at a man's standing uncovered in presence of his superior; yet the young have a due respect for the aged, and each man entertains a proper regard for the other. Assiduous to please, and cautious not to displease, they study to avoid every thing that will create uneasiness. They never contradict or interrupt any one in his discourse, but one person is suffered to finish his speech, before another begins. When they make a visit in their boats, they never fail to take with them a present; if their company be approved, they are welcomed on the shore with singing, and all hands are ready to draw the boat upon land. Every one is anxious to have the guest at his house; but, as the visitor is unwilling to have it thought that he is come abroad with mercenary views, he waits in silence till pressed to partake of their hospitality. The men sit among the men, and the women by themselves. The conversation of the former turns upon the weather, hunting, and fishing; that of the latter, on the death of their relations, which they close with a general howl, and then proceed to divert their guests with little entertaining anecdotes. In the mean time the horn goes round with snuff, and the repast is prepared.

Their traffic is very simple. They have no money; of course they barter with each other for what they want; and, as they are as eager for new things as children, they are constantly changing, and often to their disadvantage. They will give the most useful article in exchange for a trifle that pleases their fancy; and will reject a useful thing in exchange for a bauble, if it does not please them. They seldom cheat one another, but they consider it a proof of superior adroitness if they can over-reach an European. They keep a kind of annual fair among themselves; and as the people in the south have no whales, and those in the north have no wood, the Greenlanders coast the country every summer, from two hundred to four hundred leagues, with new boats and tackling, exchanging them for wood, horns of the unicorn-fish, teeth, whalebone, &c.; part of which they barter on their return.

The sun-feast is a rejoicing at the return of the sun, in the winter solstice, about the twenty-second of December. On this occasion, they assemble, all over the country, in large parties, and treat each other with the greatest hospitality. When they have feasted, they rise up to play and to dance, but have nothing but water to drink. The only musical instrument they have is a drum, which the performer beats with a stick to common time, skipping at every stroke, and making antic motions with his head and his body. This music he accompanies with a song, in honour of seal-catching, and expresses his joy at the return of the sun. When one is tired, another begins, and thus they continue the whole night through; the next day they sleep, and in the evening feast, dance, and sing, again. This festival generally lasts several days and nights.

When the moon shines, they amuse themselves by playing at ball, and they have various methods of trying each other's strength; such as striking one another on the bare back, and trying who can bear it the longest; sitting down, and linking their legs and arms together, endeavouring to out-pull each other; hooking their fingers together, and trying their strength by drawing, &c. Dancing assemblies are also appointed, at different seasons of the year.

But the most singular custom in Greenland is their singing and dancing combats, by which they decide their quarrels. If a man conceives himself injured, he does not vent his anger in words, nor proceed to any revenge, but composes a satirical poem: this he rehearses so often, with singing and dancing, before his family, that they all get it by heart. The man publishes his design of fighting with his antagonist, not with a sword, but a song; and a place of meeting is appointed. The party challenged attends at the place, encircled with his friends, when the challenger begins his song, to the beat of a drum, and chorussed by his party. In this song he points many mortifying invectives at his adversary. When he has done, the accused renews his attack, and so on, and he that has the last word, gains the cause. The body of the people present constitute the jury, and bestow the palm of victory, and the two contending parties become perfectly reconciled.

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The Greenlanders have some traditionary notions of the creation, and a future state; but they are so enveloped in idle tales, as to bear very little affinity to the truth. The Moravian missionaries, however, have taken great pains to instruct them in the glorious truths of the gospel.

They have no conception of writing, nor can they count more than twenty; they contrive to reckon their years by winters, and their days by nights, but when they get beyond twenty, they leave off counting. In physic, they have methods of curing themselves; and in surgery, of bleeding, setting a fracture, and couching an eye.

When a Greenlander is at the point of death, they dress him in his best clothes; and, as soon as he expires, they carry every thing within the house into the air, that the smell of the corpse may go off: they then silently bemoan him, for about an hour, and proceed to bury him, which is done usually in some remote place, the nearest relation carrying the body, which is sewed up in a skin, and laid on some moss on the ground, and heaped round and covered with large broad stones, to defend it from the birds and foxes. Near the spot they deposit the boat and tools of the deceased, and, if a woman, her knife and sewing implements. After the interment, those who attended the procession retire to the house of mourning. The men sit some time, leaning with their elbows on their knees, and their heads between their hands, and the women lie prostrate with their faces on the ground, softly weeping and sobbing. At last the father, son, or nearest relation, repeats a funeral discourse, in praise of the deceased; and, at every period, they utter loud cries and lamentations.

When the oration is ended, the women continue their howl in one tremulous tone, the men only sobbing. At last the viands left by the deceased are spread upon the floor before the mourners, who eat heartily, and never fail to repeat their visits daily, whilst there is any thing left. All condoling visitors afterwards are received by the mistress of the house with expressions to this effect:—"Him that you seek you will find no more; alas, you are come too late!"

CHAPTER VIII.

AMERICAN ISLANDS, OR THE WEST-INDIES.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

BETWEEN the northern and southern continents of America lie a multitude of large and fertile islands, denominated the West-Indies, in contradistinction to the islands of Asia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East-Indies. Those which are worthy of cultivation belong to five European powers:—Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark.

The climate in all these islands is nearly the same, allowing for those differences which are produced by the various situations and qualities of the lands. As they lie between the tropics, and the sun goes quite over them, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about thirty degrees to the south, they are continually subjected to a heat which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner as to enable the people to attend to their concerns, even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to blow from the land as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

In the same manner, when the sun has made a considerable progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a degree vertical, it draws after it such a vast body of clouds as shield the earth from its direct beams; and, dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, parched with the long drought, which commonly continues from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West-Indies are by no means so moderate as those in Europe. The former are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity: the rivers rise in a moment, new rivers and lakes are formed; and, in a short time, all the low country is completely inundated. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their source within the tropics swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continued and fervent heat; and to be, for that reason, uninha-

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bitable, when, in reality, some of the largest rivers in the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is, in several parts, one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West-Indies. The trees preserve their verdure the whole year round; they have no cold, frosts, or snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent, when they happen, and the hailstones very large and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are subject to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time; and this cause, perhaps, as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West-Indies unfriendly to an European constitution.

In the rainy season, the inhabitants are assaulted by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which they are subject from the climate: these destroy, at a stroke, the labours of many years, annihilate the most exalted hopes of the planter, and often just at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of injury. A hurricane is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance which the elements can assemble that is terrible and destructive. As the prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar-canes are whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country; the strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; the windmills are swept away in a moment; the utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper-boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; the houses afford no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises to the height of five feet, rushes in upon them with irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West-Indies is sugar; an article which was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made at a very early period in China, whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of universal luxury in Europe. Writers are not agreed whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best, sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, least cloying, sweet in nature; and, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses, rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar an inferior spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North-America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants employed in the African trade, or distributed from thence to the fisheries of Newfoundland, and other parts, besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. A very great quantity of molasses is also taken off raw, and carried to New England to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for the cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fuel.

It is computed that, when a plantation is well managed, the rum and molasses pay the expences, and the sugars are clear gain. It is true, the expences of a plantation in the West-Indies are very great, and the profits at the first view precarious: for the chargeable articles of the windmill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling-houses, and the buying and subsisting of a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any person to begin a sugar-plantation of consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least five thousand pounds. There are, however, no parts of the world in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the West-Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provides against the ill effects of the worst, as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of one hundred and fifty pounds a year, with overseers under him, in proportion to the extent of the plantation, one to about thirty negroes, with a salary of about forty pounds. Such plantations, also, have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes who belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of rent, and the keeping up repairs and the stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the net produce of the best years. Such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon realize good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally done by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it. Some planters, however, find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt-pork, a day. All the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches,

and a blanket; and the annual profit of their labour is ten or twelve pounds. The price of male-negroes, upon their first arrival, is from thirty to thirty-six pounds, women and grown boys fifty shillings less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring above forty pounds, upon an average, one with another; and there are instances of a single negro-man, expert in his business, bringing one hundred and fifty guineas: the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves in his possession.

It has been justly remarked by a modern geographer, that "to particularise the commodities proper for the West-India market would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities already mentioned. Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell; but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or less as a venture, the West-India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost, or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West-Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant in accumulating riches."

The state of the population in the British West-Indies, a few years since, was said to be about sixty-five thousand whites, and four hundred and fifty-five thousand blacks. There was likewise in each of the islands a considerable number of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they were reckoned at ten thousand and four; and they did not fall short of the same number in all other islands, collectively taken. The whole of the inhabitants, therefore, may be properly divided into four great classes:—1, European Whites; 2, Creole, or native Whites; 3, Creoles of mixed blood, and free native Blacks; and, 4, Negroes in a state of slavery.

The West-Indian Islands lie in the form of a semicircle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida, north, to the River Oroonoko, on the main continent of South-America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships from Old Spain or the Canaries, to Carthagena or New Spain and Porto Bello. Geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the Great and Little Antilles.

A more *particular* account of the respective islands which, unitedly, constitute the West-Indies, will be found in the following sections.

SECTION I.

JAMAICA.

Discovery, Settlement, &c.] Jamaica, which is the largest of the British West-Indian Islands, was first discovered by Columbus, in the year 1494, but at that time he did not attempt to make any settlement there. Some years after, in his fourth expedition, he was cast ashore here by a storm; the loss of his ships putting it out of his power to get away, he implored the humanity of the natives, and received from them all the help of a natural compassion; but these people, who planted only for their own necessities, were soon tired with maintaining strangers, who exposed them to the risk of a famine, and, therefore, gradually removed themselves from the neighbourhood. The Spaniards no longer kept any measures with the Indians, and soon grew so mutinous as to take up arms against their commander. Columbus, forced to yield to their menaces, to extricate himself from a desperate situation, took advantage of one of those appearances of nature, where a man of genius sometimes finds a resource pardonable through necessity. His astronomical knowledge informed him, that there would soon be an eclipse of the moon, and he desired all the *caciques* to assemble together, to hear from him some things very important to their safety. When he was in the midst of them, after having reproached them for their cruelty towards himself and his companions, "To punish you for it," said he, with an air of great importance, "the God whom I adore is going to inflict on you one of his most terrible strokes: this evening you will see the moon redden, grow dark, and refuse you light. This is only the prelude of your misfortunes, if you persist in refusing to give me provisions." Columbus had hardly ceased speaking, when his prediction was accomplished: the fright was general among the savages: they thought they were going to be destroyed, begged for mercy, and promised every thing. He then declared to them, that Heaven, touched with their repentance, had appeased its wrath, and that nature was about to resume its course. After this, provisions were sent from all parts, and Columbus had every thing he could wish for till his departure.

The court of Spain had granted the property of Jamaica to Columbus, who gave it the preference to all other parts, on account of its populousness and pleasant situation. He called it the Sicily of the Indies. Don Diego, his son, was the first governor of it, with the title of Duke de la Vega, from the city of St. Jago de la Vega, founded by him, which became its capital. Don Diego

had caused about an hundred Indians to go over from St. Domingo, under the conduct of Juan d'Esquimel; others soon followed them; but in a few years after they all deserted the island.

The Spaniards had erected several other cities here, but all their settlements fell to decay as fast as the population decreased, and as the ravagers were convinced the island produced no gold, they were soon reduced to that of St. Jago de la Vega, which then consisted of one thousand one hundred houses, four churches, and an abbey. The inhabitants of this city, plunged into that indolence which follows tyranny after devastation, contented themselves to live on some plantations, the overplus of which they sold to the vessels which passed by their coasts. The whole people of the island, collected into a small territory, which nourished this useless race, was confined to one thousand five hundred slaves, commanded by their tyrants; when the English, coming at last to attack their capital, made themselves masters of it, and settled there in 1655.

At first their new colony contained only three thousand inhabitants, part of the militia that had fought under the rebellious standard of Oliver Cromwell. They were soon joined by a number of royalists, who went to America to meet with some alleviation for their defeat, and to enjoy the calm of peace. The spirit of division, which had so long and so cruelly rent the two parties in Europe, followed them beyond the seas; there was enough to renew in the New World the scenes of horror and bloodshed so often repeated in the Old. But Admiral Penn and Colonel Venables, after conquering Jamaica, had left the command to one of the wisest and bravest men, who fortunately was the senior officer: it was D'Oyley, a friend of the Stuarts. Cromwell twice substituted some of his party in his place, and both times their deaths restored D'Oyley to the head of affairs. His manner of ruling was quite military. He had to keep in order and govern an infant colony entirely composed of soldiers, and to prevent or repel the invasions of the Spaniards, who might try to recover what they had just lost. But on the restoration of Charles II. a civil government was established at Jamaica, formed, like those in the other islands, after the model of the mother-country; but the first attempts were confined to compiling, without any methods, some provisional regulations for the police, justice, and finances. It was not till 1682 that the body of the laws was formed by which the island is at present governed.

After the Restoration, this colony increased so considerably, that it soon contained eighteen thousand persons, who had little other trade but their depredations on the Spaniards. Sir Thomas Modiford, a rich planter of Barbadoes, who came to Jamaica to increase his possessions, was then governor: he introduced into this island the art of making sugar, and of planting cocoa-trees, and erected salt-works. His attention to encourage culture and industry could not make the people of Jamaica give up their maritime expeditions; adventurers of all kinds increased the crowd of these romantic pirates, known by the name of free-booters and buccaneers: they infested the whole West-Indian Sea, and laid waste all the coasts of the New World. The plunder of Mexico and Peru was always carried to Jamaica, both by the natives and strangers: they found in this island a greater degree of ease, and received more protection and liberty than elsewhere, both to disembark and to spend, at their own pleasure, the booty they had acquired in their courses. There the extravagance of their debaucheries soon plunged them into distress; and this made them fly to new combats and to new prey. Then the colony profited by their continual changes of fortune, and enriched itself by the vices which were the origin and ruin of their treasures: and when this lawless race was destroyed by its own activity, these same treasures became the basis of a new opulence, by the help they offered to increase the plantations and productions, or to open a contraband trade with the Spaniards. It is, indeed, evident that England owes the possession of Jamaica, as well as the means which determined the grandeur of its settlement, to the Buccaneers.

Situation, Extent, &c.] This island lies between seventy-five and seventy-nine degrees of west longitude from London, and between seventeen and eighteen degrees of north latitude. From the east and west it is about one hundred and seventy British miles in length, and in the middle about sixty in breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies nearly four thousand five hundred miles south-west of England.

The large islands of Cuba and St. Domingo defend it from the winds which desolate the Atlantic, whilst the number and disposition of its harbours put it in a condition to carry on a considerable trade with either these and the other islands of the West-Indian Sea, or with the continent. There are about sixteen principal harbours, besides thirty bays, roads, or good anchoring-places. Though this situation may expose it to the insults of its too-powerful neighbours, it at the same time facilitates the entrance of the succours which the mother-country has at all times lavished on it.

The longest day in summer is here about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven. The air is, in most places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. The sea-breeze is stronger at some times than at others, and more so near the coast than within land; whereas it is just the reverse with the land-breeze. Sometimes the sea-breeze blows day and night for a week or

two. In December, January, and February, the north wind blows furiously, checking the growth of the canes, and all other vegetables, on the north side of the island; but the south side is sheltered from them by the mountains. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which, when it happens, is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness; and the lightning, in these violent storms, frequently does great damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes, and in May and October the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together.

The dews here are so great within land, that the water drops from the leaves of the trees in the morning, as if it had rained; but there are seldom any fogs, at least in the plain, or sandy places near the sea.

Mountains, Rivers, and Lakes.] There is a ridge of hills, called the Blue Mountains, that runs through the island from east to west; the tops are covered with different kinds of trees, particularly cedar, lignum vitæ, and mahogany. Several fine rivers, well stored with fish, and navigable by canoes, take their rise from these mountains. A lower ridge runs parallel to the greater, and the valleys or savannahs are exceeding level, without stones, fit for pasture, and fruitful, when cleared of wood, especially on the south side of the island. After the rains, the savannahs are very pleasant, and produce such quantities of grass, that the inhabitants are sometimes forced to burn it; but, after long droughts, they are quite parched and burnt up.

Though this island abounds with rivers and lakes, water is very scarce in some places, and in others so mixed with sand and sediment, that it is not fit for use till it has been purified for some days in earthen jars. In the island are several salt-springs, which form a salt-river, and several lakes. Near the sea, as well as at Port Royal, the well-water is brackish and unwholesome. In the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It affords relief in the dry cholic, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible distempers of Jamaica.

The soil is, in general, exceeding fertile, yet it is supposed that not one-fourth of the sugar-ground upon the island is cultivated. Even the grounds lying near the rivers and the sea are, in many places, over-run with wood, insomuch that a planter who has planted three or four thousand acres, has seldom above five hundred well cultivated.

Vegetable Productions.] This island produces a number of trees, shrubs, and useful plants, some of them natives of the soil, and others brought from the other American islands. The principal trees are the cedar; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood; the palma, affording an oil much esteemed by the savages; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive-bark, useful to tanners; and the fustic and red-wood, used in dying. The indigo-plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; but they have maize or Indian-corn, Guinea-corn, peas of various kinds, and a variety of edible roots. Among the fruits of the island are citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, soursops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries; also culinary vegetables in great plenty. The bread-fruit and other useful plants have been introduced into this island by the exertions of Sir Joseph Banks. Here are, likewise, various sorts of medicinal drugs, such as the guaiacum, China-root, sarsaparella, cassia, vanilla, aloes, and the wild cinnamon-tree, which is esteemed an excellent antidote against flatulency and indigestion.

The most valuable production of this island is sugar The cane, from which it is extracted, is a kind of reed, which rises commonly about eight or nine feet, taking in the leaves growing out of the top; and the most common thickness is from two to four inches. It requires a light, porous, and deep, soil, and is usually cut at the end of eighteen months. Within twenty hours after the canes are cut down, they are broken between two rollers of iron or copper, which are put in motion by an horizontal wheel, usually turned by oxen or horses.

The juice, with which the inner part of the cane is filled, is received in a reservoir, whence it is successively carried to several boilers, to reduce it into crystals. This liquor is called treacle or molasses. After the draining, they have muscovado, or rough sugar, which is greasy, brown, and soft. This sugar does not become white, shining, and hard, till it is refined, which is generally done in Europe, though there are two refining-houses at Kingston. The molasses are usually the twelfth part of the value of the sugar. A great proportion of this article is consumed in the north of Europe, and in North-America, where they supply the place of butter and sugar to the common people. The Americans use them to produce a fermentation; and they give an agreeable taste to a drink called pruss, which is nothing more than the infusion of the bark of a tree. These molasses are likewise prodigiously useful, since the secret has been discovered of converting them, by distillation, into rum. The operation is performed by mixing one-third of syrup with two thirds of water. When these two substances have sufficiently fermented, at the end of twelve or fifteen days, they are put into a still, where the distillation is carried on with great facility. The annual exports of Jamaica, in these several articles, the produce of sugar-canes, are upwards

of one hundred thousand hogsheads of sugar, between thirty and forty thousand puncheons of rum, and three hundred thousand gallons of molasses.

Next to the sugar, the most considerable production of this island is pimento, great quantities of which are annually exported. There are several kinds, more or less strong and acrid. The tree which produces that kind of pimento known by the name of Jamaica pepper, was not cultivated in regular plantations till about the year 1668. It commonly grows on the mountains, and rises above thirty feet high. It is very straight, and covered with a grey, close, shining bark. The leaves resemble those of the laurel; and at the end of the branches grow the flowers, to which succeed berries, a little larger than those of the juniper. They are gathered green, and laid to dry in the sun, where they become brown, and exhale that spicy smell, which has given to pimento the name of allspice. To the culture of pimento the people on this island join that of ginger, which is the root of a small plant, about eighteen or twenty inches high. This island also produces some tobacco, but of a coarse kind, and cultivated only for the sake of the negroes, who are fond of it; together with cabbages, and a variety of roots, particularly cassava, yams, and potatoes.

The cattle of this island are very small, and the flesh is tough and lean. The sheep, however, are superior, and their flesh is very good; but the wool, which is long and full of hairs, is of little use. Hogs are very numerous, and their flesh is sweet and delicate. Horses, asses, and mules, are plentiful: the former are small and hardy, and, when well made, fetch a good price. There are various sorts of fowl, both wild and tame, and more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parroquets, humming-birds, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea-hens, geese, ducks, and turkeys. The bays and rivers contain an abundance of excellent fish; but the turtle is the most valuable. The manati, or sea-cow, which is often taken in calm bays, is reckoned by the Indians very good eating. In the mountains are numberless adders and other noxious animals; and in the fens and marshes the guana and gallewasp; but these last are not venomous.

The ciror, or chegoe, is an insect which eats into the nervous and membranous part of the flesh of the negroes; and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not, perhaps, till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. These insects sometimes get into the toes, and devour the flesh to the bone.

Government.] The administration of public affairs in Jamaica is by a governor, who represents the king, a council of twelve, and forty-three representatives of the people. The government, next to that of Ireland, is the best in the king's gift. The established religion here, as well as in all the British Islands, is that of the Church of England; but there are no bishops. The Bishop of London's commissary is the principal ecclesiastic.

Principal Towns.] KINGSTON, in the county of Surrey, is the most considerable town in the island, and, at present, the capital, being the residence of the merchants, and the chief place of trade. It is about a mile and a half long, and half a mile broad. All the streets, which are broad and regular, cross each other at right angles. The Jews, who are very numerous here, have a fine synagogue. This town received considerable damage by a dreadful hurricane, which happened in the month of August, 1781. Many houses were blown down, and numbers of vessels, that lay in the harbour, as well as at Port-Royal, were driven ashore, some of which were sunk, and many others materially damaged. Kingston harbour is one of the most commodious in America, and so capacious, that one thousand sail of ships may ride in safety.

ST. JAGO DE LA VEGA, commonly called Spanish Town, is a small city, pleasantly situated in the county of Middlesex. It is the residence of the governor, and of the courts of justice, and where the assembly is held. The greater part of the inhabitants are persons of fortune or rank, which contributes much to its splendour and magnificence. The principal building is the governor's house, which is one of the most handsome in America. Here are also a handsome church, a chapel, and a Jewish synagogue.

PORT-ROYAL was formerly the capital of Jamaica: it stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour, of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing one thousand sail of large vessels, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, induced the inhabitants to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water: but the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates, called Buccaneers, fought with an inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with an inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared with Port-Royal for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, however, in the same year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to its foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave, in one quarter, not even

the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes the earth opened, and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and threw the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour, and a frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people. An officer, who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quickly in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above the ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above one thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place, appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. After some time, the city was rebuilt; but, ten years after, it was destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, it was laid in ruins by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. The same fate attended it in 1774, by another hurricane, and as above. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants, therefore, resolved to forsake it for ever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston.

Commerce and Population.] The whole commercial produce of this island may be reduced to these heads: First, sugars, of which article was exported to Great Britain, in 1787, eight hundred and twenty-four thousand seven hundred and six hundred weight; in 1790, one million one hundred and eighty-five thousand five hundred and nineteen hundred weight. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North-America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, staves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from hence. Secondly, rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Thirdly, molasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple, the sugar-cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island has two hundred and eighty thousand acres in canes, of which two hundred and ten thousand are annually cut, and make from sixty-eight to seventy thousand tons of sugar, and four millions two hundred thousand gallons of rum. Fourthly, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweetmeats, mahogany, and manchincel-planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a vast and profitable trade in all kinds of European goods: and, even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spanish main goes on; which it will be impossible for Spain to stop, whilst it is so profitable to the British merchant, and whilst the Spanish officers, from the highest to the lowest, show so great a respect to presents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilst they appear to live in such a state of luxury, as, in most other places, leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner instantly. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion imaginable. This obliges all the treasures they receive to make but a very short stay, being hardly more than sufficient to answer the calls of their necessity and luxury on Europe.

In the beginning of the present century, it was computed that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to sixty thousand, and that of the negroes to one hundred and twenty thousand. At present, the inhabitants are stated at thirty thousand whites, ten thousand freed negroes and people of colour, and two hundred and fifty thousand negro-slaves. The militia is computed at eight thousand men.

The decrease of inhabitants, as well as the decline of commerce, arise from the difficulties to which their trade is exposed, of which they have often complained to the court of Great Britain: these are, their having been of late deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spanish coast; the low value of their produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements the French make in their sugar-colonies, who are enabled to undersell them by the lowness of their duties; and the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch islands, where they pay no duties, and are supplied with goods at an easier rate. Some of these complaints, which equally affect the other islands, have been heard, and some remedies applied, but many yet remain unredressed.

The current coin of the island is Spanish. There is hardly any place where silver is more plentiful, or has a quicker circulation.

Inhabitants, Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Jamaica consist of English, or persons of English extraction, born on the island, Indians, Negroes, Mulattoes, and their descendants. The better sort of the English, on Sundays or particular days, appear very gay; at other

times they generally wear thread stockings, linen drawers, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men-servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowsers of the same, and a check shirt. The negroes, except those who are immediately employed in domestic services, go naked. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them. Before dinner they put off their dishabille, and appear with a good grace, in all the advantages of a rich and becoming dress. There is no country in the world where luxury is carried to a higher pitch than in this island.

The common beverage of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water, sherbet, or weak punch. Ale, London porter, and claret, are extravagantly dear; but the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum-punch, which they call *kill-devil*, because, being frequently drunk to excess, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which sends numbers of people to an untimely grave, especially those who are just come to the island, which is the reason that so many die very soon after their arrival.

Learning is here at a very low ebb. There are, indeed, some persons well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great Britain to be educated; but the majority of the inhabitants take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or dissipation. The former hardships of the negroes were truly pitiable; and the ill-treatment they received so shortened their lives, that, instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands were annually imported to the West-Indies, to supply the place of those who died. Some of the negroes, however, who are in the possession of gentlemen of humanity, find their situations more easy and comfortable.

They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life easy, which would otherwise, to many of them, be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprising to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it: they are quite transported to think their slavery is near at an end, that they shall revisit their native shore, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is at the point of death, his fellow-slaves kiss him, wish him a pleasant journey, and send their respects to their relatives in Guinea. They make no lamentations, but inter the deceased with the liveliest emotions of joy, fully believing that he has returned to his native country.

SECTION II.

BARBADOES.

Situation, Climate, &c.] Barbadoes is the most considerable of all the British sugar-islands, next to Jamaica: it lies between fifty-nine degrees fifty minutes and sixty degrees two minutes of west longitude, and between twelve degrees fifty-six minutes and thirteen degrees sixteen minutes of north latitude; extending twenty-one miles from north to south, and fourteen from east to west. The climate is hot, especially for eight months in the year, but not unwholesome; for though there are no land-breezes, there are others arising from the sea, which increase as the sun advances to, and decrease as it declines from, the meridian. A temperate regimen renders it as safe to live in as any climate in Europe, south of Great Britain. The days are very nearly equal, the sun rising and setting about six o'clock all the year round.

The following remarks of Dr. Pinckard, describe some phænomena of the climate.

"The beautiful appearance of the iris, resting in a number of small circles upon the surface of the ocean, frequently attracted our notice. These were only seen near the ship, and it will occur to you, that they arose from the minute particles of water, beat off by the vessel, dividing the rays of light, and causing them to fall upon the sea in the form of rich and distinct rainbows. They are often extremely brilliant, and are seen, as it were, lying in numbers upon the water. The very beautiful rising and setting of the sun and moon, were the frequent and admired subjects of our contemplation. Viewed from a West-India sea, the surface of these orbs does not appear, like a mere plane fixed in the heavens, as in Europe, but their convexity and globular form are seen very distinctly. When rising, they appear as detached globes protruding from the deep; at setting they resemble distinct spheres sinking, or rather dropping, divested of their rays, into the ocean.

"The moon is brighter than in England, and reflects a clearer light. When only a few days old, the whole orb is visible, not decked in uniform brightness, as when it is at the full, but with the great body in shade, while the horned edge alone is dressed in silver. The appearance of the western sky was likewise an object of novelty to us. By day the whole canopy is one fine azure expanse, bright and unclouded; but, at evening, dark mountainous clouds accumulate, and, gathering into deep heavy masses, impend in awful majesty of form over the horizon."

Face of the Country, Natural Curiosities, &c.] This island is, in general, a plain level country, with some small hills. The woods have been all cut down to make room for the plantations of sugar-canes, which now occupy the greatest part of the island, and render it a most valuable possession to Great Britain. The soil is various, being in some places sandy and light, in others rich, and in others spongy; but all of them are cultivated according to their several qualities. There are, likewise, two streams that are called rivers, on each side, with wells of

good water all over it, and large ponds or reservoirs for rain-water.

Dr. Pinckard gives the following account of a natural curiosity in Barbadoes:—

"The cool shelter of the forest was derived from the mountain-cabbage, from large cedars, and from others of the oldest and finest trees of the island. Amidst these shades we descended to a narrow gulley, between two mountains, to see one of the reported phænomena of Barbadoes, 'a boiling spring.' On approaching the spot, we came to a small hut, in which was living an old black woman, who employed herself as a guide to exhibit, under a kind of necromantic process, all the details of this boiling and burning fountain. The old dame, bearing in her hand a lighted taper, and taking with her an empty calabash, and all the other necessary apparatus of her office, led the way from the hut down to the spring. In a still and most secluded situation, we came to a hole, or small pit, filled with water, which was bubbling up, in boiling motion, and pouring from its receptacle down a narrow channel of the gully. Here our sable sorceress, in all the silence and solemnity of magic, placing the light at her side, fell down upon her knees, and, with her calabash, emptied all the water out of the hole, then, immersing the taper in the deep void, she suddenly set the whole pit in a flame, when she instantly jumped upon her legs, and looked significantly round, as if anxious to catch the surprise expressed upon our countenances from the workings of her witchcraft. The taper being removed, the empty space continued to burn with a soft lambent flame, without the appearance of any thing to support the combustion. We observed fresh-water slowly distilling into the pit from the earth at its sides, and dropping to the bottom; and as this increased in quantity, it raised the flame higher and higher in the pit, supporting it upon its surface, and conveying the appearance of the water itself being on fire, although it was very clear and pure, and not spread with any oily or bituminous matter. When the water had risen to a certain height, the flame became feeble, then gradually declined, and presently was extinct. The water was now seen to boil and bubble as before, and, soon overflowing the pit, resumed its course. down the narrow channel of the gully, and all was restored to the state in which we had found it.

"You will, before this," says Dr. P. "have discovered that the water was cold, and that the boiling and burning of this fiery deep was only the effect of inflammable gas, which, escaping from the bowels of the earth, and rising from the bottom of the pit, supported the flame when it was empty, and, bubbling through it, when it was filled with water, gave it the appearance of a boiling spring. During the combustion, the smell of the inflammable air was very powerful. In the stones and soil, in the very rocks and roads, we traced the origin of this phenomenon of nature. Asphaltic productions abounded in every quarter; and, upon inquiry, we found that we were in the very part of the country which produces the celebrated Barbadoes tar, the smell of which saluted us as we rode along; and we even saw it distilling from the hills of hardened clay, and likewise issuing from the rocks at the sides of the road. The argillaceous soil of this neighbourhood is every where strongly impregnated with bitumen, in which you will readily perceive the origin of the boiling, or inflammable spring."

Vegetable and Animal Productions.] The fruits here are various and very plentiful, particularly pine-apples, guavas, plantains, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, tamarinds, mangroves, cedars, prickly-apples, pomegranates, papays, custard-apples, figs, bullace, cocoa, and cocoa-nuts. Indian corn can be imported from North-America cheaper than it can be sold when growing upon the island. There are great quantities of hogs, also oxen, cows, horses, asses, goats, monkeys, and racoons, with a few sheep and rabbits.

The wild fowl are teals, curlews, plovers, snipes, wild pigeons, wild ducks, and a kind of bird called a man-of-war. The tame pigeons, pullets, ducks, and poultry of all kinds, that are bred in Barbadoes, have a fine flavour, and are accounted more delicious than those of Europe.

Insects are very numerous here, but they are not venomous, nor do either the snakes or scorpions ever sting. The surrounding sea abounds with fish, some of which are almost peculiar to itself, as parrot-fish, snappers, grey cavellos, tarbums, &c. The mullets, lobsters, and crabs, are excellent, and the green turtle are caught here in vast quantities.

This island abounds with *land-crabs*, of which a respectable writer has given the following interesting account:—

"These creatures are of various sizes, the largest about six inches wide: they walk sideways, like the sea-crab, and are shaped like them; but they differ considerably in colour; some being black, some yellow, some red, and others variegated with red, white, and yellow, mixed. Some of these are poisonous, and several people have died by eating them, particularly the black kind. The light coloured are reckoned best; and when full of flesh are very well tasted

"These animals live not only in a kind of orderly society in their retreats among the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the sea-side, in a body of some millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they choose the month of April or May to begin their expedition; and then sally out by thousands from the stumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themselves under the

surface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers, insomuch that a person cannot set down his foot without treading upon them. The sea is their place of destination, and to that they direct their march with the utmost precision. No geometrician could send them to their destined station by a shorter course, for they neither turn to the right nor left, whatever obstacles may intervene; and, even if they meet with a house, they will attempt to scale the walls, to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But, though this be the general order of their route, they, upon other occasions, are obliged to conform to the face of the country; and, if it is intersected with rivers, they are then seen to wind along the course of the stream.

"The procession sets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into three battalions; of which the first consists of the strongest and boldest males, who, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route, and face the greatest dangers. They are often obliged to halt for want of rain, and to go into the most convenient encampment till the weather changes. The main body of the army is composed of females, which never leave the mountains till the rain is set in for some time, and then descend in regular battalia, being formed into columns of fifty paces broad, and three miles deep, and so close that they almost cover the ground. The rear-guard follows three or four days after; a straggling undisciplined tribe, consisting of males and females, but not so vigorous as the former. The night is their chief time of proceeding; but, if it rain by day, they do not fail to profit by the occasion; and they continue to move forward in their slow uniform manner. When the sun shines hot upon the surface of the ground, they make a general halt, and wait till the cool of the evening. When terrified, they march back, in a confused disorderly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they sometimes tear off a piece of the skin, and then leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound. They even try to intimidate their enemies; for they often clatter their nippers together, as if to threaten those who disturb them. But, though they thus strive to be formidable to man, they are much more so to each other: for they are possessed of one most unsocial property, which is, that if any of them by accident is maimed in such a manner as to be incapable of proceeding, the rest fall upon and devour it on the spot, and then pursue their journey.

"When, after a fatiguing march, and escaping a thousand dangers, (for they are sometimes three weeks in getting to the shore,) they have arrived at their destined port, they prepare to cast their spawn. They have no sooner reached the shore, than they go to the edge of the water, and let the waves wash over their bodies two or three times. This seems only a preparation for bringing the spawn to maturity; for, without farther delay, they withdraw to seek a lodging upon land. In the mean time, the spawn grows larger, is excluded out of the body, and sticks to the barbs under the tail. This bunch is seen as big as a hen's egg, and exactly resembles the roes of herrings. In this state, they once more seek the shore, and, shaking off their spawn into the water, leave accident to bring it to maturity. At this time whole shoals of hungry fish are at the shore, in expectation of this annual supply; the sea to a great distance is black with them; and about two-thirds of the crabs' eggs are immediately devoured by these rapacious invaders. The eggs that escape are hatched under the sand; and, soon after, millions of little crabs are seen quitting the shore, and slowly travelling up to the mountains. The old ones, however, are not so active to return; they have become so feeble and lean that they can hardly creep along, and their flesh at this time changes its colour. Most of them, therefore, are obliged to continue in the flat parts of the country till they recover, making holes in the earth, which they cover at the mouth with leaves and dirt, that no air may enter. There they throw off their old shells, which they leave quite whole; the place where they opened on the belly being unseen. At that time they are quite naked, and almost without motion for six days together, when they become so fat as to be delicious food. They have then under their stomachs four large white stones, which gradually decrease in proportion as the shell hardens, and, when they come to perfection, are not to be found. It is at this time that the animals are seen slowly making their way back; which is commonly performed in six weeks.

"When possessed of its retreats in the mountains, the land-crab is impregnable; for, only subsisting upon vegetables, it seldom ventures out; and its habitation being in the most inaccessible places, it remains for a great part of the season in perfect security. It is only when impelled by the desire of bringing forth its young, and when forced to descend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for their descent in eager expectation, and destroy thousands; but, disregarding their bodies, they only seek for that small spawn which lies on each side of the stomach within the shell, of about the thickness of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return after they have cast their shells; for being covered with a skin resembling soft parchment, almost every part except the stomach may be eaten. They are taken in the holes, by feeling for them with an instrument, and are sought after by night, when on their journey, by flambeaux. The instant these animals perceive themselves attacked, they throw themselves on their backs, and with their claws pinch most terribly whatever they happen to fasten on. But the dexterous crab-catcher takes

them by the hinder legs in such a manner that the nippers cannot touch him, and thus he throws them into his bag. Sometimes also they are c ght when they take refuge in the bottoms of holes in rocks by the sea-side, by covering the mouth of the hole to prevent their getting out, and then soon after, the tide enters the hole, and the animal is found, upon its ebbing, drowned in its retreat."

Chief Town.] BRIDGE-TOWN, the capital of Barbadoes, is situated on Carlisle-Bay, in the south-west part of the island, and has the best, or rather the only, harbour in it. It is reckoned the finest and largest town in all the Caribbee Islands, if not in all the British West-Indian colonies. It takes its name from a bridge in the east part of it, erected over the waters that come from the neighbouring marshes; but a dreadful fire, which happened some years ago, destroyed a great part of it. It is the seat of the governor, council, and assembly, and also of the court of chancery. The governor's house is about a mile out of the town, which is not reckoned very healthy, on account of the neighbouring marshes. There are several forts and batteries about the bay. There is a college in the town, which was founded and liberally endowed by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island.

Mr. M'Kinnen, in the account of his voyage to the West-Indies, makes the following remarks on the general mode of building.

"The most agreeable situations in the country are certainly those *to windward* (which is a term universally used in the West-Indies to denote the east, from whence the wind generally blows); and the spots commonly chosen for building are those which are highest and most exposed to the draught of air. Some of the country-houses are well contrived for all the purposes of comfort and coolness. But the mode of building generally practised might be greatly improved upon; nor should I apprehend one need go farther for a perfect example than that of the native Indians, in the construction of their dwellings. I was shown a model of a house, with all the domestic conveniences, imported from South America. The sides represented a wicker-work of bamboo-canes, and the roof a tight thatch, I believe of palmetto-leaves; thus admitting the breeze horizontally in every direction, and excluding the rain at top. The beds were a loose elastic net-work, like the hammocks of the Caribs, who made them of cotton, and of a texture remarkably neat and durable. The only objection I found to the model of the house was, that it did not provide against an admission of rain, or the sun's rays, in an oblique direction (which might easily be done by substituting the moveable lattice-work resembling Venetian blinds, now partially in use); nor of the damps affecting always the lower parts of the West-Indian houses, and which ought necessarily to be constructed of more solid materials."

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants of Barbadoes, like those of the other islands, may be divided into three classes, viz. the masters, the white servants, and the black servants. The first of these are either English, Scotch, or Irish, with some Dutch, French, Portuguese, and Jews. The white servants lead more easy lives than the common day-labourers in England; and when they come to be overseers, their wages, and other allowances, are considerable. Most of the negroes are employed in the fields; but some of them work in the sugar-mills and storehouses, while those of both sexes, who are most likely, are employed as housemaids and menial servants. Every negro family has a cabin, and a small piece of ground adjoining to it, in which the more industrious sort plant potatoes, yams, and other roots, and rear live-stock, which they are at liberty to eat, or convert into money for their own use. They are fond of rum and tobacco.

The governor of Barbadoes has a considerable salary. The council consists of twelve members, and the assembly of twenty-two, chosen yearly, out of the several parishes, viz. two for each, by a majority of votes. Most of the civil officers are appointed by the governor, who also collates rectors to the parishes of the island. Their perquisites are very considerable. The church-affairs of Barbadoes are governed by a surrogate of the bishop's appointment. There are upon the island some Jews and Quakers, but very few other dissenters. The inhabitants of this island support their own military establishment, which is respectable, with great credit. The island is divided into five districts In each of the districts are a judge and five assistants, who hold a court of common pleas every month, from January to September; and if any difficult matter arises, it is referred to the arbitration of the governor.

Commerce and Population.] The principal articles of exportation are aloes, cotton, ginger, sugar, rum, and molasses. Those of importation are timber of various kinds, bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, some salt beef and pork, fish, pulse, and other provisions, from the northern colonies; slaves, from the coast of Africa; wine, from Madeira, Tercera, and Fial, as also some brandy; beef and pork, from Ireland; salt, from Curaçoa; linen of all sorts, broad-cloth, kerseys, silks and stuffs, red caps, stockings and shoes of all sorts, gloves and hats, millinery-ware and perriwigs, laces, peas, beans, oats, strong beer, pale ale, pickles, candles, butter and cheese, iron-ware for the sugar-works, leaden-ware, powder and shot, brass and copper articles, &c.

In 1786, the number of inhabitants was sixteen thousand one hundred and sixty-seven whites, eight hundred and eighty-eight free people of colour, and sixty-two thousand one hundred and sixty-seven negroes; a proof that this island is much upon the decline from its former state.

This island, as well as Jamaica, suffered the greatest calamities by the dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October, 1780. The plantations were almost all destroyed, and Bridge-Town was reduced to a mere heap of ruins, scarcely a building in it being left standing. No less than eleven parish-churches, and two chapels, were levelled with the ground, among which was the fine church of St. Michael. The streets were covered with the ruins of the houses; and it was supposed that no less than three thousand persons perished. The ships in Carlisle Bay were driven out to sea, and several of them cast ashore and lost. The damage was so great throughout the island as not to be estimated; and the whole formed a scene more melancholy and deplorable than it is possible for words to describe.

SECTION III.

TRINIDAD.

This island is about ninety British miles in length, by about thirty in breadth. The climate is excellent, and free from those hurricanes which are the scourges of the other American isles. Rains prevail from the middle of May till the end of October; and there are so many rivers, that the drought of the other part of the year is of no consequence. Sometimes slight earthquakes are felt. In the interior are four groups of mountains, which, with some other ridges towards the shores, are computed at a third part of the territory; the other two-thirds consist of a very fertile soil; and on the west is a large harbour, which is reputed very secure in all seasons.

Dr. Anderson, of St. Vincent's, has given the following account of a remarkable phenomenon in the Isle of Trinidad: "A most remarkable production of nature," says he, "is a bituminous lake, or plain, known by the name of Tar Lake, from its resemblance to, and answering the purposes of, ship-pitch. It lies in the leeward side of the island, about half-way from the Bocas to the south end, where the mangrove-swamps are interrupted by the sand-banks and hills, and on a point of land which extends into the sea about two miles, exactly opposite to the high mountains of Paria, on the north side of the gulf.

"The cape, or headland, is about fifty feet above the level of the sea, and is the greatest elevation of land on this side of the island. From the sea it appears a mass of black vitrified rocks; but, on a close examination, it is found a composition of bituminous scoriæ, vitrified sand, and earth, cemented together; in some parts, beds of cinders only are found. In approaching this cape, there is a strong sulphureous smell, sometimes disagreeable. This smell is prevalent in many parts of the ground, to the distance of eight or ten miles from the spot.

"This point of land is about two miles broad, and on the east and west sides, from the distance of about half a mile from the sea, falls with a gentle declivity to it, and is joined to the main land on the south by the continuation of the mangrove-swamps, so that the bituminous plain is on the highest part of it, and only separated from the sea by a margin of wood which surrounds it, and prevents a distant prospect of it. Its situation is similar to a savannah, and, like them, it is not seen till treading upon its verge. Its colour, and even surface, present at first the aspect of a lake of water, but it is possible it got the appellation of lake when seen in the hot and dry weather; at which time its surface, to the depth of an inch, is liquid, and then, from its cohesive quality, it cannot be walked upon.

"It is of a circular form, about three miles in circumference. At my first approach, it appeared a plain as smooth as glass, excepting some small clumps of shrubs and dwarf-trees, that had taken possession of some spots of it; but, when I had proceeded some yards on it, I found it divided into areolæ of different sizes and shapes; the chasms, or divisions, anastomosed through every part of it; the surface of the areolæ is perfectly horizontal and smooth; the margins undulated, each undulation enlarged to the bottom till they join the opposite. On the surface, the margin or first undulation is distant from the opposite from four to six feet, and the same depth before they coalesce; but, where the angles of the areolæ oppose, the chasms or ramifications are wider and deeper. When I was at it, all these chasms were full of water, the whole forming one true horizontal plane, which rendered my investigation of it difficult and tedious, being necessitated to plunge into the water a great depth, in passing from one areolæ to another. The truest idea that can be formed of its surface will be from the areolæ and their ramifications on the back of a turtle. Its more common consistence and appearance is that of pit-coal, the colour rather greyer. It breaks into small fragments, of a cellular appearance, and glossy, with a number of minute and shining particles interspersed through its substance; it is very friable, and, when liquid, is of a jet black colour. Some parts of the surface are covered with a thin and brittle scoria, a little elevated. As to its depth, I can form no idea of it, for in no part could I find a substratum of any other substance: in some parts I found calcined earth mixed with it.

"Although I smelled sulphur very strong in passing over many parts of it, I could discover no appearance of it, nor any rent or crack through which the steams might issue; probably it was from some part of the adjacent woods; for although sulphur is the basis of this bituminous matter, yet the smells are very different, and easily distinguished; for its smell comes the nearest to that of pitch

of any thing I know. I could make no impression on its surface without an axe; but, at the depth of a foot, I found it a little softer, with an oily appearance in small shells. A little of it held to a burning candle makes a hissing or crackling noise, like nitre, emitting small sparks, with a vivid flame, which extinguish the moment the candle is removed. A piece put in the fire will boil up a long time without suffering much diminution; and, after a long time's severe heat, the surface will burn, and form a thin scoria, under which the rest remains liquid. Heat seems not to render it fluid, nor to occupy a larger space than when cold; from which I imagine there is but little alteration on it during the dry months, as the solar rays cannot exert their force above an inch below the surface. I was told by one person, that, in the dry season, the whole was an uniform smooth mass; and, by another, that the ravins contained water fit for use during the year. But neither of these assertions can I believe; for if, according to the first, it were an homogenous mass, something more than an external cause must affect it, to give it the present appearances; nor, without some hidden cause, can the second be granted. Although the bottoms of these ramified channels admit not of absorption, yet, from their open exposure, and the black surface of the circumjacent parts, evaporation must go on amazingly quick, and a short time of dry weather must soon empty them; nor, from the situation and structure of the place, is there a possibility of supply but from the clouds. To show that the progress of evaporation is inconceivably quick here, at the time I visited it, there were, on an average, two-thirds of the time incessant torrents of rain; but from the afternoon being dry, with a gentle breeze, (as is generally the case during the rainy season in this island,) there evidently was an equilibrium between the rain and the evaporation; for in the course of three days I saw it twice, and perceived no alteration on the height of the water, nor any outlet for it but by evaporation.

"I take this bituminous substance to be the *bitumen asphaltum* of Linnæus. A gentle heat renders it ductile: hence, mixed with a little grease or common pitch, it is much used for the bottoms of ships, for which intention it is collected by many; and I should conceive it a preservative against the borer, so destructive to vessels in this part of the world.

"Besides this place, where it is found in a solid state, it is found liquid in many parts of the woods, and at the distance of twenty miles from this, about two inches thick, in round holes of three or four inches diameter, and often in cracks or rents. This is consequently liquid, and smells stronger of tar than when indurated, and adheres strongly to any thing it touches: grease is the only thing that will divest the hands of it.

"The soil, in general, for some distance round this lake, consists of cinders and burnt earths; and, where not so, it is a strong argillaceous soil; the whole exceedingly fertile, which is always the case where there are any sulphureous particles in it. Every part of the country, to the distance of thirty miles round, has every appearance of being formed by convulsions of nature from subterraneous fires. In several parts of the woods are hot springs; some, which I tried with a well-graduated thermometer of Fahrenheit, were twenty and twenty-two degrees hotter than the atmosphere at the time of trial. From its position to them, this part of the island has certainly experienced the effects of the volcanic eruptions, which have heaped up those prodigious masses of mountains that terminate the province of Paria on the north; and no doubt there has been, and still probably is, a communication between them. One of these mountains, opposite to the bituminous lake in Trinidad, has every appearance of a volcanic mountain: however, the volcanic effects have been very weak here, as no traces of them extend above two miles from the sea in this part of the island, and the greater part of it had its origin from a very different cause to that of volcanoes; but they have certainly laid the foundation of it, as is evident from the high ridge of mountains which surrounds its windward side, to protect it from the depredations of the ocean, and is its only barrier against that overpowering element, and may properly be called the skeleton of the island.

"From every examination I have made, I find the whole island formed of an argillaceous earth, either in its primitive state or under its different metamorphoses. The bases of the mountains are composed of *schistus argillaceous* and *talcum lithormargo*; but the plains or lowlands remaining nearly in the same moist state as at its formation, the component particles have not experienced the vicissitudes of nature so much as the more elevated parts, consequently retain more of their primitive forms and properties. As argillaceous earth is formed from the sediment of the ocean, from the situation of Trinidad to the continent, its formation is easily accounted for; granting first the formation of the ridge of mountains that bounds its windward side, and the high mountains on the continent that nearly join it: for the great influx of currents into the gulf of Paria from the coasts of Brazil and Andalusia must bring a vast quantity of light earthy particles from the mouths of the numerous large rivers which traverse these parts of the continent: but the currents being repelled by these ridges of mountains, eddies and smooth water will be produced where they meet and oppose, and, therefore, the earthy particles would subside and form banks of mud, and, by fresh accumulations, would soon form dry land; and from these causes it is evident such a tract of country as Trinidad must be formed. But these causes still exist, and the effect from them is

evident; for the island is daily growing on the leeward side, as may be seen from the mud-beds that extend a great way into the gulf, and these constantly increase. But, from the great influx from the ocean at the south end of the island, and its egress to the Atlantic again, through the Bocas, a channel must ever exist between the continent and Trinidad."

SECTION IV.

ST. CHRISTOPHER.

This island, called by mariners St. Kitt's, is situated in seventeen degrees of north latitude, and is about twenty miles long and seven broad. It received its name from Columbus, in his first voyage to America. The French and English arrived here on the same day, in 1625, and divided the island between them. Three years after their settling, the Spaniards drove them out of it. They soon returned, and continued to live in harmony till 1666, when, war being commenced between the two nations, St. Christopher became, at different periods, the scene of war for half a century. In 1702, the French were entirely expelled, and the peace of Utrecht confirmed this island to the English. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but restored again to Great Britain, by the treaty of peace in 1783.

The assemblage of a great number of high and barren mountains make St. Christopher appear, to those who approach it by sea, like one huge mountain covered with wood; but, on a nearer approach, they find that the coast grows more easy, as well as the ascent of the mountains, which, rising one above another, are cultivated as high as possible.

For the following particulars relative to the great mountain on this island we are indebted to the Rev. Mr Smith, the historian of Nevis:

"From Basse-Terre, the chief town of the island, I set out with a friend for Chianne, and, after riding through many plantations of sugar and some of cotton, we came to thick woods, where we were agreeably entertained with the soft notes of a vast number of turtle-doves, which, with the murmurs of the sea beating gently against the rocks at half a mile's distance, were enough to lull any one to sleep who was so inclined. To avoid the heat of the sun, we travelled along the deep valley, which runs upwards from the sea-side, growing steeper the farther from the coast, and plentifully stocked with wild palm, pimento, cassia fistula, and other fragrant trees. Through the whole length of this valley, which is about two hours' journey, runs a little, but exceedingly transparent, river of very sweet water; and not far from the side of this rivulet there is a pleasant garden, regularly planted with rows of citrons, lemons, oranges, limes, pomegranates, &c., besides pine-apples, asparagus, lettuces, and all sorts of European roots and herbs that will grow in so warm a latitude. To this garden the gentlemen and ladies often resort from Basse Terre, to divert themselves with singing, dancing, cards, and other amusements.

"In the evening, we arrived at my friend's house at Chianne, which is about eight miles from Basse Terre, the road thither having the ocean on the right, and the vast Conorrhee Hills on the left, whose lofty tops then touched the clouds, and seemed to rise to that height almost perpendicularly. The next morning we diverted ourselves with catching cray-fish in Chianne River, or rather brook, for it is narrow and shallow, but a very clear stream, which they poisoned with green tobacco, pounded and mixed with unslacked lime. This poison is so strong, that the fish creep out of the water to skun it; at which I was not a little surprised, but my friend assured me it was a common thing."

Proceeding through the woods, our traveller, in company with nine others, whites and negroes, began to ascend the mountain, the ascent growing steeper and steeper the higher they advanced; and, in the like proportion, the large trees began to dwindle and grow shorter. Before they passed all the trees, they entered among the clouds, which felt raw and cold, not unlike a fog in a winter's morning. From these woods to the top, which is almost half a mile, there are no trees at all, and very rarely a bush, the ground producing scarcely any thing but a sort of wild pine-apple plant, which bears no fruit. Being at last arrived at the top with great fatigue, the clouds were at least half a mile beneath them, but, the wind dispersing them, a charming view was opened of the woods and plantations below, besides an unbounded prospect of the Atlantic Ocean.

The top of this mountain is a small plain, not three hundred yards wide, ending at the verge of a vast deep cavity, exactly round, and about a mile in circumference. Our author judges its perpendicular depth to be about two hundred and twenty yards, and observes that he looked down into it with horror, observing large and continual clouds of steam arise from the veins of sulphur, &c., with which the bottom of it every where abounds. The rim of this cavity, except where it joins to, and makes part of, the plain, is not above twenty, and, in some places, scarcely ten, yards broad; and the inside of it, for at least half-way downwards, appears to be solid rock, over-run with very short blackish moss. "Upon maturely weighing the whole state of this mountain," says our author, "we unanimously agreed that it was on fire underneath us, and that the cavity was formerly occasioned by some furious and dreadful eruption, when it might be a volcano for a time, like Vesuvius or Etna."

Upon the rim of the cavity, to the south-east, there is a large and steep rocky mount, called Mount Misery, from an unfortunate man, who, attempting to climb the precipice, fell backwards, and was killed. It is the highest point of land on St. Christopher's, its height being reckoned a mile and a half perpendicular from the sea; but Mr. Smith thinks it not so high by a quarter of a mile. This vast mountain is situated in the middle of a long chain of lesser and lower ones, that run across the island.

The whole breadth of one part of the above-mentioned rim is taken up by a large single rock, in the form of a triangular pyramid, equilateral, and almost as smooth as if it had been cut by the chissel of a skilful workman. From angle to angle, at the base, it measures seven or eight yards, is somewhat blunted or rather broken off at the top, and a third part downwards from thence it seems to be cracked quite through sideways. The colour of the rock resembles the red part of oriental granite, and, like that, it is so extremely hard, that a strong arm can scarcely make a visible impression on it with the point of a sharp cutlass. This triangular pyramid on one side of the cavity, and Mount Misery on the other, each taking up the breadth of the rim, prevent a person's walking more than half way round the circle.

Near this pyramid, by the help of bushes and roots, our author and his companions ventured to slide down forty or fifty yards into the cavity, till they came to some wild bananas, which were ready to quench their thirst with most clear and excellent water, that runs out of them upon sticking in a penknife just where the leaves join to the top of the body of the tree, and so form a small hollow, as if on purpose to receive the blessings of Heaven, the rain and dew, and reserve them for the thirsty traveller. It is observable of these trees, that they are annuals, dying quite to the ground every autumn, and shooting up again from the roots in the spring, till they are thicker than a man's thigh; but the wood is so very soft and porous, that one may easily cut it through at a single stroke with a sharp hatchet.

Keeping on, in a very steep descent, through this wood of bananas, cabbage-trees, &c., they arrived at the bottom of the cavity, where, having crossed a little plain, they came to an uneven spot of ground, consisting of thirty acres or upwards. Here they found a very large rock, jutting out of the side of the hill; and at the bottom of it were three or four round holes in the earth, as wide as a hat-crown, from which issued hot steams, like smoke out of chimneys, which tinged the edges of the holes with seemingly fair brimstone. The little plain above mentioned is so sulphureous, that it bears nothing but long deadish grass, or rather weeds, with a few stunted bushes.

At length they came to some boiling springs, vulgarly called the "devil's coppers," each of them about three feet in diameter. The water is of a muddy colour, and rises within twelve inches of the surface of the earth, boiling fiercer than a sugar-copper, and sending up strong clouds of steam into the air. No kind of grass will grow within twelve yards of these springs, the soil being wholly sulphureous, and so excessively hot, that the travellers found it warm through very thick shoes which they had bought on purpose for this expedition. A negro in company was much frightened at the sight of these coppers, and could not be dissuaded from believing that jumbo, or the devil, had his residence underneath them.

On the south side of the plain before mentioned there is a pond, about forty yards over, not supplied by springs, but by rains, which fall very heavily in that warm latitude. The bottom of this pond consists entirely of clay, which is as beautifully veined as the finest Castile soap, and as delicate as well-polished marble. Near this pond grew a bed of rushes, on which the company sat down and dined; and afterwards returned to Chianne, not a little fatigued with their journey.

The climate is hot; and the island is subject to frequent storms, hurricanes, and earthquakes. The soil is, in general, light and sandy, but very fruitful, and well watered by several rivulets, which run down both sides of the mountains. The animal and vegetable productions are the same with those of Barbadoes. The whole island is covered with plantations, whose owners live in clean and convenient habitations, adorned with fountains and groves of orange and lemon trees.

The most considerable town upon the island is Basse-Terre, formerly the capital of the French part: The other is called Sandy-Point, and always belonged to the English. There is no harbour; on the contrary, the surf is continually beating on the shore at the few places fit to land, which not only prevents the erection of any quay or wharf, but renders the landing or shipping of goods always inconvenient, and very often dangerous. A singular method is, therefore, adopted in embarking heavy goods, such as hogsheads of sugar or rum. For this purpose they use a small boat of a peculiar construction, called a *moses;* this boat sets off from the ship with some active and expert rowers: when they see what they call a *lull,* that is, an abatement in the violence of the surge, they push to land, and lay the sides of the moses on the strand; the hogshead is rolled into it, and the same precautions are used to carry it to the ship. It is in this inconvenient and hazardous manner, that the sugars are conveyed on board by single hogsheads. Rum, cotton, and other goods that will bear the water, are generally floated to the ship both in going and coming.

The public affairs of the island are administered by a governor, a council, and an assembly chosen from the nine parishes into which the island is divided, and which

have each a large handsome church. St. Christopher sustained great damage by a violent hurricane, which happened in October, 1780. All the goods in the warehouses and cellars near the beach were totally destroyed, and upwards of eight hundred vessels were driven out to sea, many of which were lost, and the crews perished.

SECTION V.

NEVIS.

This island, which is no more than a vast mountain rising to a very considerable height, is situated about four miles to the south of St. Christopher's. The soil is fruitful, and the staple commodity is sugar, which serves all the purposes of money. Here are sometimes violent rains and hurricanes, as in the other islands, and the air is even hotter than in Barbadoes.

On the south side of St. John's parish in this island there is a considerable spot of sulphureous ground, at the upper end of a deep rupture in the earth, commonly called Sulphur-gut, which is so exceedingly hot as to be presently felt through thick shoes; and some eggs being buried in it about an inch deep, for the space of three or four minutes, were as hard in that time as boiling or roasting could have made them.

At the foot of the declivity adjoining to the south side of Charles-Town, there is a little hot river, called "the bath," supposed to flow from the above-mentioned sulphureous ground, which is not above three-quarters of a mile higher up in the country. This rivulet runs at least half a mile before it loses itself in the sands of the sea; and towards the sea-side there is a particular part of it where a man may set one foot upon a spring that is excessively cold, and the other upon another spring that is surprisingly hot. All distempered people, both whites and blacks, find great benefit from this hot river; and Mr. Smith says, he knew a negro-boy, who was sent from Barbadoes to Nevis for this purpose, cured of the leprosy by drinking and bathing in it three or four times a day, after having been twice salivated in vain. Our author himself bathed in it once a fortnight, and owns that it contributed not a little to his health and vivacity; and the last nine months of his stay in Nevis, it was his custom to walk to the river every morning at sun-rising, and drink a pint of its water, which operated well, and proved very beneficial.

At another place, a little to the southward of Charles-Town, there is a sharp point of land that jets out a considerable way into the sea; on the rocky extremity of which Mr. Smith stood, whilst a negro slipped down from it into the water, and, taking some sand from the bottom, he gave it into our author's hand, who found it to be very warm, the man at the same time affirming that the spring at the bottom was so excessively hot, that he could scarcely bear to set his foot upon it. The water of Black-rock Pond, about a quarter of a mile from Charles-Town, is milk-warm; occasioned, no doubt, by a mixture of such hot and cold springs.

Many remarkable insects and reptiles are found on this island, particularly the flying-tiger, the horn-fly, and a kind of snail called a soldier. The sea abounds with a variety of excellent fish, as groopers, rock-fish, cavallies, mud-fish, wilks, cockles, lobsters, &c. The only venomous creatures are scorpions and centipedes.

The most remarkable vegetable production of Nevis is a tree called *diddle-doo*, which bears a lovely blossom of the finest yellow and scarlet colours, and is esteemed a sovereign remedy in some disorders. The liquorice-bush runs wild along the stone walls of common fields, like the vine. The butter here is not good, and the new cheese far worse. The sheep have neither horns nor wool, but are clothed with smooth hair, and generally full of small red or black spots, resembling those of a fine spaniel. They breed twice a year, and generally bring two, three, or four, lambs at a time, and, what is more extraordinary, suckle them all. The rams are of a pale red colour, with a thick row of long red hair, hanging down from the lower jaw to the breast, as far as the fore-legs.

Here are three tolerable roads or bays, on which are as many little towns, viz. Newcastle, Littleborough on Moreton Bay, and Charles-Town, the capital, with a fort that defends the anchoring-place, where the governor, council, and assembly, meet: the last is composed of five members for each of the three parishes into which the island is divided.

Here, as in some of the other Caribbees, if a white man kill a black, he cannot be tried for his life for the murder; and all that he suffers is a fine of thirty pounds currency to the master for the loss of his slave. If a negro strike a white man, he is punished with the loss of his hand; and, if he should draw blood, with death. A negro cannot be evidence against a white man.

The trade of Nevis consists in molasses, rum, and a prodigious quantity of lemons.

SECTION VI.

ANTIGUA.

Antigua was discovered by Columbus, but not colonized till the year 1632, when the English took possession of it. It is situated in seventeen degrees of north latitude, and is of a circular form, about twenty miles each way, and near sixty in circumference. It is more noted for good harbours than all the English islands in these

seas, yet so encompassed with rocks, that it is of dangerous access in many parts, especially to those that are not well acquainted with the coast. The climate is hotter than that of Barbadoes, and very subject to hurricanes. The soil is sandy, and much overgrown with wood. There are but few springs, and not so much as a brook in the whole island; so that the principal dependence of the inhabitants arises from the water supplied by casual rains, which they save in cisterns. The capital of Antigua is St. John, a regular built town on the western shore, with a good harbour of the same name, whose entrance is defended by Fort James. It is the residence of the governor-general of the Caribbee Leeward Islands, the place where the assembly for this island is held, and the port where the greatest trade is carried on. Antigua has, besides, a lieutenant-governor, a council, and its own assembly, composed of twenty-four members. It is divided into six parishes, and eleven districts, of which ten send each two representatives, and that of St. John four.

SECTION VII.

ST. VINCENT.

This island is situated in thirteen degrees of north latitude, and sixty-one degrees of west longitude, about fifty miles north-west of Barbadoes. It is about twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. Out of the ridge of mountains, which crosses it from south to north, rise a great number of rivers, which are well stored with fish. These mountains are, in general, of an easy ascent, and the valleys and plains, some of which are of considerable extent, are exceeding fertile, producing most of the necessaries of life.

The volcanic mountain on this island, called *Mornegarou*, is too remarkable to be passed over in silence. It was visited, in the year 1784, by Mr. James Anderson, surgeon, who is the only person that ever ascended to its summit, and from whose account, in the seventy-fifth volume of the Philosophical Transactions, the following particulars are extracted.

This mountain is situated on the north-west part of the island, and is the highest in it. It is reported to have constantly emitted volcanic eruptions; and the ravines at the bottom seem to corroborate the traditions of the inhabitants in this respect. The structure of it, when viewed at a distance, appears different from that of any other mountain in the island, or that Mr. Anderson had seen in the West-Indies. He could perceive it divided into many different ridges, separated by deep chasms, and its summit appeared quite destitute of every vegetable production. Several ravines, that run from the bottom a great way up the mountain, were found quite destitute of water; and pieces of pumice-stone, charcoal, and several earths and minerals of a particular quality, found in them, plainly indicated some very great singularity in this mountain. Some very old men also informed our author, that they had heard it related by the captain of a ship, that between this island and St. Lucia he saw flames and smoke rising from the top of the mountain, and next morning his decks were covered with ashes and small stones.

Mr. Anderson's curiosity was so much excited by these circumstances, that he formed a resolution of going up to the top; but was informed that this was impossible; nor could he find either white man, Caribbee, or negro, who would undertake to show him the way. Having examined the basis as well as he could, in order to discover the most proper place for attempting an ascent, he found several dry ravines that seemingly ran a great way up, though he could not be certain that they were not intersected by rocks or precipices lying across. Having examined the mountain with a good glass, he thought he perceived two ridges, by which there was a possibility of getting up; and, though they appeared to be covered for a great way with wood, he hoped by a little cutting to open a way through that impediment.

On the 26th of February, 1784, our author began his journey, having been furnished by a friend with two stout negroes, and having another boy who waited on himself. They arrived at the foot of the mountain a little before seven in the morning, having each a good cutlass, to cut through the woods, or to defend themselves in case of an attack from the Caribbees or runaway negroes. Before they could get at either of the ridges, however, they had a rock to climb, upwards of forty feet high. Having scrambled up this with great difficulty, they found themselves in the bottom of a deep and narrow ravine, which having ascended a little way, they arrived at the habitation of M. Gasco, a Frenchman. Our author expresses his surprise, that a young and healthy man, and a good mechanic, should sequestrate himself from the world among woods and precipices, where he was in continual danger of being swept away, with his whole habitation, by the torrents occasioned by the rain. He found him, however, to be an intelligent man, and was hospitably entertained by him.

"The difficulty," says Mr. Anderson, "in going through woods in the West-Indies, where there are no roads nor paths, is far beyond any thing an European can conceive. Besides tall trees and thick underwood, there are hundreds of different climbing plants, twisted together like ropes, and running in all directions to a great extent, and even to the tops of the highest trees. These cannot be broken by pushing on; and many of them are not to be cut without difficulty. Besides these, a species of grass, with serrated leaves, cuts and tears the hands and face terribly."

By reason of these obstructions, it was upwards of two hours before Mr. Anderson and his attendants got upon the ridge; and there they found their passage more difficult than before. They were now surrounded by a thick forest, rendered more impracticable by the large piles of trees blown down by the hurricanes, which obliged them in many places to creep on their hands and knees to get below them, while in others it was necessary to climb to a considerable height to get over them; at the same time that, by the trunks being rotten, they often tumbled headlong from a great height, and could not extricate themselves without great difficulty.

The fatigue of cutting their way through the woods soon became intolerable to the negroes; so that, about four in the afternoon, it was impossible to persuade them to go any farther. Mr. Anderson, therefore, returned to M. Gasco's, where he spent the night, determining to try another route the next morning. The hospitable Frenchman entertained him in the best manner he could; but though he parted with his own hammock to him, and slept on a board himself, our author found it impossible to close his eyes the whole night, by reason of the cold. "The hut," says he, "was built of large reeds, between each two of which a dog might creep through, and the top was covered with dry grass. It is situated in the bottom of a deep gully, where the sun does not shine till nine in the morning, nor after four in the afternoon. It is also surrounded by thick wood, and during the night the whole of the mountain is covered with thick clouds, from which it frequently rains, and which renders the night air exceedingly cold."

Early next morning, Mr. Anderson set out in company with the negro boy, who continued very faithful to him during the whole of the journey. He now resolved to take his course up the ravine, and proceeded for about a mile and a half without any considerable obstruction. However, it now began to narrow fast; and there were numbers of rocks and precipices to climb over, with many bushes and vines, which could scarcely be got through. At length the ravine terminated at the bottom of a very high precipice. It was impossible to know the extent of this, as the top was covered with thick wood; but from the bottom upward, as far as our author could see, was loose sand, with ferns and tufts of grass, which, as soon as he took hold of them, came up by the roots. Though the ascent was evidently at the risk of his life, Mr. Anderson resolved to attempt it; and, therefore, telling the boy to keep at some distance behind, lest he should tumble and drive him down, he began to ascend, digging holes with his cutlass to put his feet in, and taking hold of the tufts of grass as lightly as possible. Notwithstanding all his care, however, he frequently slipped down a considerable way; but as it was only loose sand, he could easily push his cutlass into it up to the handle, and thus, by taking hold of it, recover himself again. At last he got up to some wild plantains, which continued all the way to the place where the trees began to grow. Here he rested himself for some time, waiting for the boy, who got up with much less difficulty than he had done. On getting up to the top of the precipice, he found himself on a very narrow ridge, covered with wood, and bounded by two ravines, the bottoms of which he could not see, the descent to them appearing to be nearly perpendicular, though all the way covered with thick wood. Proceeding onwards, they found the ridge exceedingly narrow, with a tremendous gulf on each side, into which they were every moment in danger of falling; so that Mr. Anderson was obliged to lie down on his belly with great caution, in order to see through the bushes how the ridge tended.

Here a sulphureous smell, or rather one like gunpowder, began to be perceived; which our author knew must proceed from the top of the mountain, as the wind then blew that way; and as it grew stronger as he advanced, he was in hopes that the summit could not be very far distant. Perceiving a rising before him, he imagined that, by getting upon it, he might have a view of the top of the mountain; but when this was done, he could only see a peak on the north-west side of the mountain, to which, by appearance, he judged himself very little nearer than when at the bottom.

The woods now became extremely difficult, great quantities of fallen trees lying buried among the grass, and these being rotten, our author was frequently buried deep among them when he thought himself walking upon firm ground. About noon he was alarmed with a rustling among the bushes, and something like a human voice behind him; but as he was preparing to defend himself against Caribbees or run-away negroes, he was agreeably surprised with the sight of those who had formerly left him, with three others, sent by Mr. Malouine, with plenty of provisions. After refreshing themselves, they renewed their labours with fresh vigour, and Mr. Anderson thought himself sure of reaching the top before night. In a little time he had a fair view of the ravine on the left, which was of prodigious depth, and ran from near the top of the mountain to the sea. Its bottom seemed to be a rock nearly resembling lava in colour, and it seemed as if there had been vast torrents of sulphureous matter running upon it for some time. He now regretted that he knew not of this ravine before he commenced his excursion, as, by passing a headland in a canoe, and getting into it, he might have gained the summit without all those difficulties he had encountered.

About four o'clock in the afternoon, he had no prospect of the top of the mountain, but imagined that, if he could get into the ravine before night, he might easily reach it

next morning. After cutting through wild plantains for a great way, however, he found himself, at sun-set, on the brink of a precipice, where he fortunately escaped falling, by catching hold of some shrubs. They were now about half way down, but all the rest of the way seemed a perpendicular precipice, which it was impossible to pass: the top of the mountain was yet at a great distance, and there was no other resource than to attempt the ridge they had left.

The evening was now so far advanced, that they were obliged to take up their residence where they were; and there was only time to place two or three sticks against the stump of a tree, and slightly to cover them with plantain-leaves, for a night's habitation. Their situation was extremely uncomfortable; for it began to rain and blow violently, which prevented them from making a fire, and almost chilled them with cold. At break of day they renewed their work with great alacrity; in a short time they had the satisfaction to perceive the woods become thin; and about eleven o'clock they obtained a full view of the top, about a mile distant. It seemed to be composed of six or seven ridges, very much broken in the sides, as if they had suffered great convulsions, and they were also divided by excessively deep ravines, without any water in them. Mr. Anderson directed his course towards a high peak that overlooked a large excavation where the ridges met, and which he supposed to be the crater of the volcano. In his way he found the last wood composed of a most beautiful species of trees; and he then entered into a thick long grass, intermixed with fern, which branched and ran in every direction. Through this they were obliged to cut their way with almost as much difficulty as they had done through the woods, and it seemed to continue very near to the top of the mountain. The fatigue of this work soon reduced them to such a situation, that they were scarcely able to stand; and they were obliged to quench their thirst by chewing some leaves, there being no water to be had in the place. Two of the negroes now returned, and the rest refused to proceed any farther; so that Mr. Anderson himself was obliged to abandon his enterprize for the present, and they all began to descend about half an hour after twelve; at sun-set they arrived at M. Gasco's, and, notwithstanding his extreme weariness, our author continued his journey to Mr. Maloune's, which is about a mile distant from the foot of the mountain.

Having refreshed himself till the 4th of March, in order to sustain the fatigues of his journey the better, our traveller set out, about four in the morning, in company with a Mr. Fraser, who had resolved to go with him. They met with little difficulty till they came to the place whence they had formerly returned. Here, however, they were obliged for a quarter of a mile to cut their way through the grass and ferns before mentioned; which being done, they met with no further obstruction. When they came within a quarter of a mile of the top, they found the climate suddenly altered, the air being extremely cold, and the whole summit of the mountain barren. On the confines of the barren region, however, our author found some beautiful plants, and he observes that this is the only place in the West-Indies where he ever found moss; but here it grew in such plenty that he frequently sunk in it up to his knees.

About noon they reached the summit, and were instantly surprised with the sight of a most extraordinary cavity. It is situated in the very centre of the mountain, at the place where all the ridges meet. Its diameter is somewhat more than a mile, and its circumference, to appearance, a perfect circle. Its depth from the surrounding margin is above a quarter of a mile, and it narrows a little, but very regularly, to the bottom. Its sides are very smooth, and for the most part covered with short moss, except towards the south, where there are a number of small holes and fissures. This is the only place where it is possible to go down to the bottom, and here the descent is very dangerous, on account of the numberless small chasms. On the west side is a section of a red rock, like granite, cut very smooth, and having the same declivity with the other parts. All the rest of the surrounding sides seem to be composed of sand which has undergone the action of an intense fire. It has a crust quite smooth, and about an inch thick, almost as hard as rock; on breaking through which, nothing appears but loose sand. In the centre stands a burning mountain, about a mile in circumference, and of a conic form, but quite level. Out of the middle of the summit rises a small eminence, eight or ten feet high, and perfectly conical; from the apex of which a column of smoke constantly issues. It is composed of large masses of red granite, like rock, of various shapes and sizes, which appear to have been split into their present forms by some terrible convulsion of nature.

Great quantities of smoke issue from most parts of the mountain, especially on the north side, which appears to be burning from top to bottom; and the heat is so intense, that it is impossible to ascend it. It is even dangerous to go round the base, as large masses of rock are constantly splitting with the heat, and tumbling down. At the bottom, on the north side, is a very large rock split asunder: each of the halves, which are rent in all directions, are separated to a considerable distance from each other, and the crevices have glossy efflorescences, tasting like vitriol. There are also some beautiful crystallizations of sulphur; and on all parts of the mountain are great quantities of sulphur, alum, vitriol, &c.

From the external appearance of this mountain, Mr. Anderson conjectures, that it had but lately began to burn;

as on several parts of it he saw small shrubs and grass, which seemed to have been but recently scorched and burnt: there were also several holes on the south, from which smoke issued, that appeared to have broken out but lately, the adjacent bushes being but recently burnt.

On two opposite sides of the burning mountain are two lakes of water, about a stone's throw in breadth: they appear to be deep in the middle, and have a bottom of a kind of clay. The water is a chalybeate, and has a pleasant taste. These lakes probably derive their existence in a great measure, if not totally, from the rain-water running down the sides of the crater. On the north side, our author observed the traces of great torrents, which, to appearance, had conveyed vast quantities of water to these lakes; and by the stones at the bottom he could perceive that absorption or evaporation, or both, went on very fast. The greater part of the bottom of the crater was remarkably level; and on the south side were some shrubs and small trees. Some pieces of pumice-stone were met with; and many stones, about the size of a man's fist, rough and blue upon one side, were scattered all over the mountain.

The motion of the clouds on the top of this mountain was very singular. Though there were several parts higher than the crater, yet the clouds seemed always to be attracted by the latter. After entering on its windward side, they sunk a considerable way into it; then mounting the opposite side, and whirling round toward the north-west, they ran along a ridge which tended nearly north-east, and afterwards sunk into a deep ravine, dividing this ridge from another on the north-west corner of the mountain, and the highest on it, lying in a direction nearly north and south. The clouds kept in this ridge to the south end, and then whirled off in their natural direction.

From the situation of these islands to each other, and to the continent of South-America, Mr. Anderson conjectures that there are submarine communications between the volcanoes in each of them; and from them to those in the high mountains of South-America. He observes, that the crater in this island lies nearly in a line with Souffriere in St. Lucia, and Morne Pelee in Martinico; and probably from thence to a place of the same kind in Dominica, and from thence to the other islands; there being something of the kind in each, Barbadoes and Tobago excepted.

When this island was ceded to Great Britain, by the treaty of Versailles, in 1763, there was a great number of a mixed breed of the ancient Caribbees, and of shipwrecked or runaway-negroes; but these have been all long since exterminated.

The most remarkable town in St. Vincent's is Kingstown, situated on a bay of the same name at the south-west end of the island. It is the residence of the governor, and the place where the assembly meet. About three miles from Kingstown, towards the south-east, is the town of Calliagna, whose harbour is the most considerable in the whole island.

SECTION VIII.

GRENADA, AND THE GRENADINES.

Grenada is situated in twelve degrees of north latitude, and sixty-two degrees of west longitude, about thirty leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of the Spanish Main. This island is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad. The climate is good, and the soil rich and fertile, and particularly adapted for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo. A lake, on the top of a hill in the middle of the island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island. St. George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, one hundred large vessels may be moored with perfect safety.

Near Grenada is a cluster of small islands, called the Grenadines. These islands produce very fine timber, sugar, indigo, tobacco, peas, millet; but the cocoa-tree does not thrive so well in them as in the other islands. These islands were all discovered by Columbus, but never settled by the Spaniards. The French first established a colony here, but were disturbed by the natives, who carried on a long and sanguinary war with their invaders. At length, however, they were compelled to submit to superior force, and then the settlements of the French rapidly increased.

When Grenada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the Grenadines, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain, by the treaty of peace in 1763. But, in July, 1779, the French made themselves masters of it; though it was restored by the treaty of 1783.

SECTION IX.

MONTSERRAT.

Montserrat was discovered by Columbus in 1493. It lies in sixteen degrees thirty-seven minutes of north latitude, and sixty-two degrees thirteen minutes of west longitude. It is about twenty-five miles south-south-east from Nevis, twenty west-south-west from Antigua, forty north-

west from Guadaloupe, and two hundred and forty from Barbadoes. It is of an oval figure, about three leagues in length, the same in breadth, and eighteen in compass. The Spaniards gave it the name of Montserrat, from a fancied resemblance it bore to a mountain of that name near Barcelona in Old Spain. It was settled in 1632, by Sir Thomas Warner, and taken in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. by the French, who restored it to England at the peace of Breda. The first settlers were Irishmen, and the present white inhabitants are principally composed either of their descendants, or natives of Ireland. The whole of the inhabitants amount to thirteen hundred whites, and about ten thousand negroes.

The climate, soil, and produce, of Montserrat, are much the same as those of the other English Caribbee Islands. The mountains yield cedars, the cypress-tree, the iron-tree, with other woods, and some odoriferous shrubs. It is well watered and fruitful, and the planters formerly raised a great deal of indigo. The surrounding seas produce some hideous monsters, particularly two, which, from their remarkable ugliness, as well as the poisonous quality of their flesh, are called sea-devils. The lamantine, by some called the sea-cow, is found in this island, and generally at the entrance of fresh-water rivers.

In the month of June, 1733, a hurricane happened here, which blew down three-fifths of the houses in the island. A few days previous, there were thirty-four wind-mills going, many of which were entirely destroyed. A large copper, that held two hundred and forty gallons, was carried over a high wall, and beat close together by the fall. An empty sugar hogshead was lifted off the ground by the wind, and carried thirty or forty yards over a dwelling-house. But, what is most surprising of all, a cattle-mill-house, weighing at least twenty thousand pounds, was carried some distance from its situation, and, by the force of the fall, was broken into innumerable pieces. Such havock was made among the sugar-canes, that some planters, who had a prospect of making two or three hundred hogsheads the next year, would gladly have compounded for sixty or eighty. In a word, the whole damage, exclusive of the shipping, was reckoned not less than fifty thousand pounds of their currency.

SECTION X.

ANGUILLA

Is situated in nineteen degrees north latitude, and sixty-two degrees fifty-seven minutes west longitude, about seventy-five miles north-west of St. Christopher's. It is very long and narrow, which induced the Spaniards to give it the name of Anguilla, or "The Eel." It is so low and flat, that the French, who were there first, did not think it worth cultivating, or even keeping. The English adopted the same opinion, when they took possession of it, and the island was a long time in their hands before they perceived the contrary. Within a few years, however, the indefatigable labours of the planters of Anguilla demonstrated that the island produces not only all the necessaries of life, but, besides, many provisions, which they sell to their neighbours, as well as sugar and cotton. The climate is salubrious, and the inhabitants are strong and vigorous. Their principal exports are sugar, rum, and cotton.

SECTION XI.

DOMINICA.

This island was discovered by Columbus, who called it Dominica, because he first saw it on a Sunday. It is situated in sixteen degrees of north latitude, and sixty-two degrees of west longitude, about half-way between Guadaloupe and Martinico, and is about twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth. The soil is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West-Indies, and the whole island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. Here, as in some other of the Caribbees, is a sulphur-mountain, and a hot spring, equal, in salubrity, to those of Bath, in England. At the north-west end of the island is a deep and spacious bay, called Prince Rupert's, which is sheltered from the winds, by mountains on all sides.

The principal place in this island is the town of Rosseau, situated on a spacious harbour. The houses are low and irregularly placed, and the town is sheltered by the circumjacent mountains, some of which rise to a considerable height. The most advantageous view of the town is from the bay or harbour, where ships of considerable burthen ride at anchor with the greatest safety.

SECTION XII.

BARBUDA, AND THE ADJACENT ISLES.

BARBUDA lies in eighteen degrees north latitude, and sixty-one degrees thirty-five minutes west longitude, fifteen miles north-east of Montserrat; its length being about twenty miles, and its breadth twelve. It is the property of the Codrington family, who have the appointment of the governor. Part of the estate arising from it, amounting, as it is said, to two thousand pounds a year, with two plantations in Barbadoes, were bequeathed, in 1710, by Christopher Codrington, Esq. governor and captain-general of Barbadoes, to the society for propagating the gospel, towards the instruction of the negroes in the Ca-

ribbee Islands in the Christian religion, and the erection of a college at Barbadoes for teaching the liberal arts.

The land of this island lies low, but is fertile: the inhabitants apply themselves chiefly to the breeding of cattle and raising provisions, with which they supply the neighbouring islands. There are some large serpents on the island, but they are so far from being poisonous or noxious, that they destroy rats, toads, and frogs; though the sting or bite of others is mortal, unless an antidote be quickly applied. On the west side of the island is a well-sheltered road, clear from rocks and sands.

To the north of Barbuda are several small uninhabited islands. The most remarkable of them lies at six leagues distance, and is about a league long. It consists of an eminence, in which the Spanish discoverers finding some resemblance to a hat, they gave it the name of Sombrero, which it has always preserved.

To the west of Barbuda and Sombrero, after having crossed a channel of eight leagues, begin the Virgin Islands. These occupy a space, from east to west, of about twenty-four leagues in length, quite to the eastern coast of Porto-Rico, with a breadth of about sixteen leagues. They are composed of a great number of isles, whose coasts, rent throughout, and sprinkled with rocks, are famous for shipwrecks, and particularly of the Spanish galleons. Happily for the trade and navigation of these islands, Nature has placed in the middle of them a large basin, of three or four leagues broad, and six or seven long, the finest that can be imagined, and in which ships may anchor land-locked, and sheltered from all winds.

One of these islands is called the Tropic Keys, from the astonishing quantity of tropic-birds which breed there. These birds are about the size of a pigeon, but round and plump like a partridge, and very good to eat. Their plumage is white, except two or three feathers in each wing, which are of a clear grey. Their beaks are short, thick, and of a pale yellow: they have a long quill, about seven inches long, which comes out of their rump, and is all the tail they have; they obtained their name from not having been ever seen but between the tropics.

The Virgin Islands are all of them small, and the greatest part uninhabited.

SECTION XIII.

THE BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.

Having described the British Islands in the West-Indies, we shall advert to a group, which, though they cannot be considered under the denomination of the former, come under the class of North-American Islands, appertaining to Great Britain.

These are a cluster of very small islands, and were discovered by John Bermudez, a Spaniard, from whom they received their first name, as they did their second from Sir George Summer, who was cast away upon them in 1609, since which they have belonged to Great Britain. They are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, in thirty-two degrees of north latitude. They have a clear temperate air, with plenty of flesh, fish, poultry, fruits, herbs, roots, &c. The climate, however, of late years, is altered for the worse. Cedars grow here; ambergris is found on the shores; and whales and turtles are caught on the coast. Here is a breed of black hogs, which are much valued. White chalk-stones and tobacco are exported. Oranges and palmettos abound; and many things are found in great plenty, water excepted; for the inhabitants have none but what falls from the clouds.

The chief island is St. George, which is sixteen miles in length, and three in breadth, and contains some handsome buildings. The chief employment of the inhabitants is building small vessels.

Having thus described the various American Islands which belong to *Great Britain*, we shall present our readers with the general character of the white residents in this part of the world, extracted from the second volume of Edward's Civil and Commercial History of the British Colonies in the West-Indies.

"It appears to me," says our author, "that the leading feature in the character of these people is an independent spirit, and a display of conscious equality, throughout all ranks and conditions. The poorest white person seems to consider himself nearly on a level with the richest, and, emboldened by this idea, approaches his employer with an extended hand, and a freedom which, in the countries of Europe, is seldom displayed by men in the lower orders of life towards their superiors. It is not difficult to trace the origin of this principle. It arises, without doubt, from the pre-eminence and distinction which are necessarily attached even to the complexion of a white man, in a country where the complexion, generally speaking, distinguishes freedom from slavery. Of the two great classes of people in most of these colonies, the blacks outnumber the whites in the proportion of seven to one. As a sense of common safety, therefore, unites the latter in closer ties than are necessary among men who are differently situated, so the same circumstance necessarily gives birth among them to reciprocal dependence and respect. Other causes contribute to the same end. 'Where slavery,' says a great writer, 'is established in any part of the world, those who are free, are by far the most proud and jealous of their freedom. Freedom is to them not only an enjoyment, but a kind of rank and privilege. Not

seeing there that freedom, as in countries where it is a common blessing, may be united with much abject toil, with great misery, and with all the exterior of servitude, liberty looks among them like something that is more noble and liberal. Thus the people of the southern colonies of America are much more strongly, and with a higher and more stubborn spirit, attached to liberty than those to the northward. Such were all the ancient commonwealths; such were our Gothic ancestors: such, in our days, are the Poles; and such will be all masters of slaves, who are not slaves themselves.'

"Possibly, too, the climate itself, by increasing sensibility, contributes to create an impatience of subordination. But, whatever may be the cause of this consciousness of self-importance in the West-Indian character, the consequences resulting from it are, on the whole, beneficial. If it sometimes produces an ostentatious pride, and a ridiculous affectation of splendour, it more frequently awakens the laudable propensities of our nature—frankness, sociability, benevolence, and generosity. In no part of the globe is the virtue of hospitality more generally prevalent than in the British sugar-islands. The gates of the planter are always open to the reception of his guests. To be a stranger is of itself a sufficient introduction. This species of hospitality is indeed carried so far, that, as Mr. Long has remarked, there is not one tolerable inn throughout all the West-Indies.

"To the same cause may, perhaps, be ascribed, on the other hand, that eagerness for litigation and juridical controversy, which so remarkably predominates in most of these islands. From this unfortunate passion, ruinous as it frequently proves to individuals, this advantage, however, results to the community at large; that the lower orders of men, from their frequent attendance on the courts of law, acquire a degree of knowledge, and a clearness and precision of reasoning, which are not generally to be found in men of the same rank in England. Thus the petty juries in the West-Indies are commonly far more intelligent and respectable than those in Great Britain. Every candid person, who has attended the courts of criminal jurisdiction in both countries, must confirm this observation.

"But it is to the Creoles, or natives, that we must look for the original and peculiar cast of character impressed by the climate, if, indeed, the influence of climate be such as many writers imagine. For my own part, I am of opinion, that the climate of the West-Indies displays itself more strongly on the persons of the natives than on their manners, or on the faculties of their minds. They are obviously a taller race, on the whole, than the Europeans; but I think, in general, not proportionably robust. I have known several who were full six feet four inches in height; but they wanted bulk, to meet our ideas of masculine beauty. All of them, however, are distinguished for the freedom and suppleness of their joints, which enable them to move with great ease and agility, as well as gracefulness, in dancing. From the same cause, they excel in penmanship and the use of the small sword. It has been truly observed, that the effect of climate is likewise obvious in the structure of the eye, the socket being considerably deeper than among the natives of Europe. By this conformation, they are guarded from those ill effects which an almost continual strong glare of sunshine might otherwise produce; and it is a curious circumstance, that their skin feels considerably colder than that of a European; a proof, I think, that nature has contrived some peculiar means of protecting them from the heat, which she has denied to the nations of temperate regions, as unnecessary. Accordingly, though their mode of living differs in no respect from that of the European residents, they are rarely obnoxious to those inflammatory disorders, which frequently prove fatal to the latter.

"The ladies of these islands have indeed greater cause to boast of this fortunate exemption than the men; a preeminence undoubtedly acquired by the calm and even tenor of their lives, and by an habitual temperance and self-denial. Except the exercise of dancing, in which they delight and excel, they have no amusement or avocation to impel them to much exertion of either body or mind. Those midnight assemblies and gambling conventions, wherein health, fortune, and beauty, are so frequently sacrificed in the cities of Europe, are here happily unknown. In their diet, the Creole women are, I think, abstemious even to a fault. Simple water, or lemonade, is the strongest beverage in which they indulge; and a vegetable mess at noon, seasoned with cayenne pepper, constitutes their principal repast. The effects of this mode of life, in a hot and oppressive atmosphere, are lax fibres, and a complexion in which the lily predominates rather than the rose. To a stranger newly arrived, the ladies appear as just risen from the bed of sickness. Their voice is soft and spiritless, and every step betrays languor and lassitude. With the finest persons, they certainly want that glow of health in the countenance, that delicious crimson which, in colder countries, enlivens the coarsest set of features, and renders a beautiful one irresistible.

> Youth's orient bloom, the blush of chaste desire,
> The sprightly converse, and the smile divine,
> (Love's gentler train) to milder climes retire,
> And full in Albion's matchless daughters shine.

"In one of the principal features of beauty, however, few ladies surpass the Creoles; for they have, in general, the finest eyes in the world; large, languishing, and expressive; sometimes beaming with animation, and sometimes melting with tenderness; a sure index to that native

goodness of heart and gentleness of disposition for which they are eminently and deservedly applauded, and to which, combined with their system of life and manners, (sequestered, domestic, and unobtrusive,) it is doubtless owing, that no women on earth make better wives, or better mothers.

"Perhaps, the circumstance most distinguishable in the character of the natives to which the climate seems to contribute, is the early display of the mental powers in young children; whose quick perception, and rapid advances in knowledge, exceed those of European infants of the same age, in a degree that is perfectly unaccountable and astonishing. This circumstance is, indeed, too striking to have escaped the notice of any one writer who has visited the tropical parts of America; and the fact being too well established to be denied, the philosophers of Europe have consoled themselves with an idea that, as the genius of the young West-Indians attains sooner to maturity, it declines more rapidly than that of Europeans. Nature is supposed to act in this case in a manner analogous to her operations in the vegetable kingdom, where the trees that come soonest to perfection are at the same time less firm and durable than those which require more time for the completion of their growth. It is, indeed, certain, that the subsequent acquirements of the mind of the natives do not always keep pace with its early progress; but the chief cause (as Ulloa has observed) of the short duration of such promising beginnings seems to be the want of proper objects for exercising the faculties. The propensity, also, which the climate undoubtedly encourages to early and habitual licentiousness, induces a turn of mind and disposition unfriendly to mental improvement. Among such of the natives as have happily escaped the contagion and enervating effects of youthful excesses, men are found of capacities as strong and permanent as among any people whatever.

"As I cannot, therefore, admit that the Creoles, in general, possess less capacity and stability of mind than the natives of Europe, much less can I allow that they fall short of them in those qualities of the heart which render man a blessing to all around him. Generosity to each other, and a high degree of compassion and kindness towards their inferiors and dependents, distinguish the Creoles in a very honourable manner. If they are proud, their pride is allied to no meanness. Instructed from their infancy to entertain a very high opinion of their own consequence, they are cautious of doing any act which may lessen the consciousness of their proper dignity. From the same cause they scorn every species of concealment. They have a frankness of disposition beyond any people on earth. Their confidence is unlimited and entire. Superior to falsehood themselves, they suspect it not in others.

How far this nobleness of disposition may be ascribed to the influence of a genial climate, and how far to education and example, I presume not to discriminate. The effects of heat on the body are sufficiently visible; but, perhaps, philosophers have relied too much on a supposed sympathy between the body and mind. 'The natives of hot climates (says one writer) are slothful and timid;' but timidity is by no means the necessary consequence of indolence. The mind may require great force to rouse it to due exertion; but, being properly urged, may display qualities very opposite to those of a timid disposition. At least, timidity constitutes no part of the character of the natives of the British West-Indies. Indolence, I will admit, is too predominant among them; but that they are deficient in personal courage, no man, who has the smallest acquaintance with them, will allow for a moment. Even the indolence of which they are accused is rather an aversion to serious thought and deep reflection than a slothfulness and sluggishness of nature. Both sexes, when the springs of the mind are once set in motion, are remarkable for a warm imagination and a high flow of spirits. There seems, indeed, universally to reign among them a promptitude for pleasure. This effect has been ascribed, and perhaps justly, to the levity of the atmosphere. To the same cause is commonly imputed the propensity observable in most of the West-Indians to indulge extravagant ideas of their riches; to view their circumstances through a magnifying medium, and to feast their fancies on what another year will effect. This anticipation of imaginary wealth is so prevalent, as to become justly ridiculous; yet I am inclined to think it is a propensity that exists independent of the climate and atmosphere, and that it arises principally from the peculiar situation of the West-Indian planters as land-holders. Not having, like the proprietors of landed estates in Great Britain, frequent opportunities of letting their plantations to substantial tenants, they are, for the most part, compelled to become practical farmers on their own lands, of which the returns are, in the highest degree, fluctuating and uncertain. Under these circumstances, a West-Indian property is a species of lottery. As such, it gives birth to a spirit of adventure and enterprise, and awakens extravagant hopes and expectations, too frequently terminating in perplexity and disappointment."

To these remarks we shall append those of the same writer on the manners, dispositions, and customs, of the *Caribbees*, the ancient inhabitants of the islands which have been described:—

"Enquiries into the origin of a remote and unlettered race can be prosecuted with success only by comparing their ancient manners, laws, language, and religious ceremonies, with those of other nations. Unfortunately, in all or most of those particulars respecting the Caribbees,

our knowledge is limited within a narrow circle. Of a people engaged in a perpetual warfare, hunted from island to island by revenge and rapacity, few opportunities could have offered, even to those who might have been qualified for such researches, of investigating their natural dispositions and habitual customs with minuteness and precision. Neither indeed could a just estimate have been formed of their national character, from the manners of such of them as were at length subjugated to the European yoke; for they lost, together with their freedom, many of their original characteristics; and, at last, even the desire of acting from the impulse of their own minds. 'We discern,' says Rochefort, 'a wonderful change in the dispositions and habits of the Caribbees. In some respects, we have enlightened, in others (to our shame be it spoken,) we have corrupted them.' An old Caribbee thus addressed one of our planters on this subject:—'Our people,' he complained, 'are become almost as bad as yours. We are so much altered since you came among us, that we hardly know ourselves, and we think it is owing to so melancholy a change, that hurricanes are more frequent than they were formerly. It is the evil spirit who has done all this—who has taken our best lands from us, and given us up to the dominion of the Christians.'

"My present investigation must, therefore, be necessarily defective. Nevertheless, by selecting and combining such memorials as are least controverted, I shall hope to exhibit a few striking particulars of this ill-fated people, which, if I mistake not, will lead to some important conclusions in the study of human nature.

"Their fierce spirit and warlike disposition have already been mentioned. Historians have not failed to notice these among the most distinguishable of their qualities. Restless, enterprising, and ardent, it would seem they considered war as the chief end of their creation, and the rest of the human race as their natural prey; for they devoured without remorse the bodies of such of their enemies (the men, at least,) as fell into their hands. The custom is so repugnant to our feelings, that for a century past, until the late discoveries of a similar practice in the Pacific Ocean, the philosophers of Europe had boldly impeached the veracity of the most eminent ancient voyagers who had first recorded the existence of it. Even Labat, who resided in the West-Indies at a period when some of the islands still remained in the possession of the Caribbees, declares it to be his opinion, that instances of this abominable practice among them were at all times extremely rare;—the effect only of a sudden impulse of revenge, arising from extraordinary and unprovoked injury; but that they ever made premeditated excursions to the larger islands for the purpose of devouring any of the inhabitants, or of seizing them to be eaten at a future time, he confidently denies. Yet there is no circumstance in the history of mankind better attested than the universal prevalence of these practices among them.

"Thus far, it must be confessed, the disposition of the Caribbees leaves no favourable impression on the mind of the reader; by whom it is probable they will be considered rather as beasts of prey, than as human beings; and he will think, perhaps, that it was nearly as justifiable to exterminate them from the earth, as it would be to destroy the fiercest monsters of the wilderness; since they who shew no mercy are entitled to no pity.

"But, among themselves, they were peaceable; and, towards each other, faithful, friendly, and affectionate. They considered all strangers, indeed, as enemies; and of the people of Europe they formed a right estimation. The antipathy which they manifested towards the unoffending natives of the larger islands appears extraordinary; but it is said to have descended to them from their ancestors of Guiana: they considered those islanders as a colony of Arrowauks, a nation of South-America, with whom the Caribbees of that continent are continually at war. We can assign no cause for such hereditary and irreconcileable hostility. It is allowed that, with regard to the people of Europe, whenever any of them had acquired their confidence, it was given without reserve. Their friendship was as warm as their enmity was implacable. The Caribbees of Guiana still fondly cherish the tradition of Raleigh's alliance, and to this day preserve the English colours, which he left with them at parting.

"Of the loftiness of their sentiments, and their abhorrence of slavery, a writer, not very partial towards them, gives the following illustration: 'There is not a nation on earth,' says Labat, 'more jealous of their independency than the Caribbees. They are impatient under the least infringement of it; and when, at any time, they are witnesses to the respect and deference which the natives of Europe observe towards their superiors, they despise us as abject slaves, wondering how any man can be so base as to crouch before his equal.' Rochefort, who confirms this account, relates, also, that when kidnapped and carried from their native islands into slavery, as they frequently were, the miserable captives commonly sunk under a sense of their condition, and, finding resistance or escape hopeless, sought refuge in death from the calamities of it.

"To this principle of conscious equality and native dignity, must be imputed the contempt which they manifested for the inventions and improvements of civilized life. Of our fire-arms they soon learnt, by fatal experience, the superiority to their own weapons, and those, therefore, they valued: but our arts and manufactures they regarded as we regard the amusements and baubles of children: hence the propensity to theft, so common among other savage nations, was altogether unknown to the Caribbees.

"The ardour which has been noticed in them for military enterprise, had a powerful influence on their whole conduct. Engaged in continual warfare abroad, they seldom appeared cheerful at home. Reflections on past miscarriage, or anxious schemes of future achievement, seemed to fill up many of their hours, and rendered them habitually thoughtful, pensive, and silent. Love itself, which exerts its influence in the frozen deserts of Iceland, maintained but a feeble dominion over this people. Their insensibility towards their women, although they allowed a plurality of wives, has been remarked by many writers; and it must have arisen from extrinsic causes; from the predominance of passions strong enough to counteract the effects of a climate which powerfully disposes to voluptuousness, and awakens the instincts of nature much sooner than in colder regions. The prevailing bias of their minds was distinguishable even in their persons. Though not so tall as the generality of Europeans, their frame was robust and muscular; their limbs flexible and active, and there was a penetrating quickness, and a wildness in their eyes, that seemed an emanation from a fierce and martial spirit. But, not satisfied with the workmanship of nature, they called in the assistance of art, to make themselves more formidable. They painted their faces and bodies so extravagantly, that it was with difficulty their natural complexion, which was nearly that of a Spanish olive, was discoverable under the surface of crimson. However, as this mode of painting themselves was practised by both sexes, perhaps it was at first introduced as a defence against the venomous insects so common in tropical climates, or possibly they considered the brilliancy of the colour as highly ornamental; but the men had other methods of deforming their persons, which mere perversion of taste alone would not, I think, have induced them to adopt. They disfigured their cheeks with deep incisions and hideous scars, which they stained with black, and they painted white and black circles round their eyes. Some of them perforated the cartilage of the nostrils, and inserted the bone of some fish, a parrot's feather, or a fragment of tortoise-shell; a frightful custom, practised also by the natives of New Holland; and they strung together the teeth of such of their enemies as they had slain in battle, and wore them on their legs and arms, as trophies of successful cruelty.

"To draw the bow with unerring skill, to wield the club with dexterity and strength, to swim with agility and boldness, to catch fish, and to build a cottage, were acquirements of indispensible necessity; and the education of their children was well suited to the attainment of them. One method of making their boys skilful, even in infancy, in the exercise of the bow, was to suspend their food on the branch of a tree, compelling the hardy urchins to pierce it with their arrows, before they could obtain permission to eat: but these were subordinate objects:—the Caribbees instructed their youth, at the same time, in lessons of patience and fortitude; they endeavoured to inspire them with courage in war, and a contempt of danger and death; above all things, to instil into their minds an hereditary hatred, and implacable thirst of revenge, towards the Arrowauks. The means which they adopted for these purposes were in some respects superstitious, in others cruel and detestable.

"As soon as a male child was brought into the world, he was sprinkled with some drops of his father's blood. The ceremonies used on this occasion were sufficiently painful to the father, but he submitted without emotion or complaint; fondly believing that the same degree of courage which he had himself displayed, was by these means transmitted to his son. As the boy grew, he was soon made familiar with scenes of barbarity; he partook of the horrid repasts of his nation, and he was frequently anointed with the fat of a slaughtered Arrowauk; but he was not allowed to participate in the toils of the warrior, and to share the glories of conquest, until his fortitude had been brought to the test. The dawn of manhood ushered in the hour of severe trial. He was now to exchange the name he had received in his infancy for one more sounding and significant;—a ceremony of high importance in the life of a Caribbee, but always accompanied by a scene of ferocious festivity and unnatural cruelty.

"The severities inflicted on such occasions by the hands of fathers on their own children, exhibit a melancholy proof of the influence of superstition in suppressing the most powerful feelings of nature; but the practice was not without example. Plutarch records the prevalence of a similar custom among the Lacedemonians: 'At Sparta,' says the historian, 'boys are whipped for a whole day, oftentimes to death, before the altar of Diana, and there is a wonderful emulation among them who best can sustain the greatest number of stripes.' Nor did the Caribbee youth yield in fortitude to the Spartan. If the severities he sustained extorted the least symptom of weakness from the young sufferer, he was disgraced for ever; but if he rose superior to pain, and baffled the rage of his persecutors, by perseverance and serenity, he received the highest applause. He was thenceforth numbered among the defenders of his country, and it was pronounced by his relations and countrymen, *that he was now a man like one of themselves.*

"A penance still more severe, and torments more excruciating—stripes, burning, and suffocation, constituted a test for him who aspired to the honour of leading forth his countrymen to war; for in times of peace the Caribbees admitted of no supremacy but that of nature. Having no laws, they needed no magistrates. To their old

men, indeed, they allowed some kind of authority, but it was at best ill-defined, and must at all times have been insufficient to protect the weak against the strong. In war, however, experience had taught them that subordination was as requisite as courage; they therefore elected their captains in their general assemblies with great solemnity; but they put their pretensions to the test with circumstances of outrageous barbarity.

"If it appear strange that, where so little was to be gained by pre-eminence, so much should be so willingly endured to obtain it, it must be considered that, in the estimation of the candidate, the reward was doubtless more than adequate to the cost of the purchase. If success attended his measures, the feast of the triumph awaited his return. He exchanged his name a second time; assuming in future that of the most formidable Arrowauk that had fallen by his hand. He was permitted to appropriate to himself as many of the captives as he thought fit, and his countrymen presented to his choice the most beautiful of their daughters in reward of his valour.

"It was probably this last-mentioned testimony of public esteem and gratitude, that gave rise in these islands to the institution of polygamy, which prevailed universally among them, and still prevails among the Caribbees of South-America; an institution the more excusable, as their women, from religious motives, carefully avoided the nuptial intercourse after pregnancy. I am sorry to add, that the condition of these poor creatures was at the same time truly wretched. Though frequently bestowed as the prize of successful courage, the wife thus honourably obtained was soon considered of as little value as the captive. Deficient in those qualities which alone were estimable among the Caribbees, the females were treated rather as slaves than companions. They sustained every species of drudgery: they ground the maize, prepared the cassavi, gathered in the cotton, and wove the hammocks; nor were they allowed even the privilege of eating in presence of their husbands. Under all these cruel circumstances, it is not wonderful that they were far less prolific than the women of Europe. But brutality towards their wives was not peculiar to the Caribbees. It has prevailed in all ages and countries among the uncivilized part of mankind; and the first visible proof that a nation is emerging from savage manners, is a display of tenderness towards the female sex.

"Perhaps a more intimate knowledge (not now to be obtained) would have softened many of the shades which thus darkened the character of these islanders, and have discovered some latent properties in their principles and conduct, tending to lessen, though not wholly to remove, the disgust we naturally feel in beholding human nature so debased and degraded; but of many particulars wherein curiosity would desire to be gratified, we have not sufficient materials to enable us to form a full and correct idea. We know but little, for instance, concerning their domestic economy, their arts, manufactures, and agriculture; their sense of filial and paternal obligations, or their religious rites and funeral-ceremonies. Such further information, however, in these and other respects, as authorities the least disputable afford, I have abridged in the following detached observations.

"Besides the ornaments which we have noticed to have been worn by both sexes, the women, on arriving at the age of puberty, were distinguished also by a sort of buskin, or half-boot, made of cotton, which surrounded the small of each leg: a distinction, however, which such of their females as had been taken in the chance of war dared not aspire to. In other respects, both male and female appeared as naked as our first parents before the fall.

"Their hair was uniformly of a shining black, straight, and coarse; but they dressed it with daily care, and adorned it with great art; the men, in particular, decorating their heads with feathers of various colours. As their hair thus constituted their chief pride, it was an unequivocal proof of the sincerity of their sorrow, when, on the death of a relation or friend, they cut it short, like their slaves and captives; to whom the privilege of wearing long hair was rigorously denied. Like most other nations of the new hemisphere, they eradicated, with great nicety, the incipient beard, and all superfluous hairs on their bodies; a circumstance which has given rise to a notion that all the aborigines of America were naturally beardless. This opinion is, indeed, countenanced by many respectable writers; but, after much enquiry, and some instances of ocular inspection, I am satisfied that it is groundless.

"The circumstance the most remarkable concerning their persons, was their strange practice of altering the natural configuration of the head. On the birth of a child, its tender and flexible skull was confined between two small pieces of wood, which, applied before and behind, and firmly bound together on each side, elevated the forehead, and occasioned it, and the back part of the skull, to resemble two sides of a square; an uncouth and frightful custom still observed, if I am rightly informed, by the miserable remnant of Caribbees in the island of St. Vincent.

"They resided in villages, which resembled an European encampment; for their cabins were built of poles fixed circularly in the ground, and drawn to a point at the top. They were then covered with leaves of the palm-tree. In the centre of each village was a building of superior magnitude to the rest. It was formed with great labour, and served as a public hall or state-house, wherein we are assured that the men (excluding the women) had their meals in common; 'observing that law,'

says the Earl of Cumberland, who visited these islands in 1569, 'which in Lycurgus's mouth was thought strange and needless.' These halls were also the theatres where their youth were animated to emulation, and trained to martial enterprise by the renown of their warriors, and the harangues of their orators.

"Their arts and manufactures, though few, displayed a degree of ingenuity which one would have scarcely expected to have found amongst a people so little removed from a state of mere animal nature, as to reject all dress as superfluous. Columbus observed an abundance of substantial cotton-cloth in all the islands which he visited, and the natives possessed the art of staining it with various colours, though the Caribbees delighted chiefly in red. Of this cloth they made hammocks, or hanging beds, such as are now used at sea; for Europe has not only copied the pattern, but preserved also the original name.

"They possessed likewise the art of making vessels of clay for domestic uses, which they baked in kilns like the potters in Europe. The ruins of many of these kilns were visible not long since in Barbadoes, where specimens of the manufacture are still frequently dug up; and Mr. Hughes, the historian of that island, observes, that they far surpass the earthen-ware made by the negroes, in thinness, smoothness, and beauty. Besides these, they invented various other utensils for economical purposes, which are enumerated by Labat. The baskets, which they composed of the fibres of the palmetto-leaves, were singularly neat and elegant; and we are told that their bows and arrows, and other weapons, displayed a neatness and polish, which the most skilful European artist would have found it difficult to have excelled, even with European tools.

"Of the nature and extent of their agriculture, the accounts are slender and unsatisfactory. We are told, on good authority, that, among the Caribbees on the continent, there was no division of land, every one cultivating in proportion to his exigencies. Where no criminal jurisdiction is established, the idea of private property must necessarily be unknown or imperfect; and in these islands, where land is scarce, it seems probable that, as among some of the tribes of South-America, cultivation was carried on by the joint labour of each separate community, and their harvests were deposited in public granaries, whence each family received its proportion of the public stock. Rochefort, indeed, observes, that all their interests were in common.

"Their food, both vegetable and animal, excepting in the circumstance of their eating human flesh, seems to have been the same, in most respects, as that of the natives of the larger islands. But, although their appetites were voracious, they rejected many of the best bounties of nature. Of some animals they held the flesh in abhorrence: these were the peccary, or Mexican hog, the manati, or sea-cow, and the turtle. Labat observes, that they scrupled likewise to eat the eel, which the rivers, in several of the islands, supply in great plenty.

"The striking conformity of these, and some other of their prejudices and customs, to the practices of the Jews, has not escaped the notice of historians. But whether the Caribbees were actuated by religious motives, in thus abstaining from those things which many nations account very wholesome and delicious food, we are no where sufficiently informed."

SECTION XIV.

CUBA.

Cuba is the largest of the West-India islands belonging to Spain, and was discovered by Columbus in 1492. He had but a slight view of it, yet it proved fatal to the natives; for having presented him with gold, some pieces of which he carried into Spain, it occasioned an immediate resolution to settle in it, which was accordingly effected in 1511.

The Island of Cuba extends in latitude from twenty degrees twenty minutes to the tropic of Cancer; and from seventy-four degrees to eighty-five degrees fifteen minutes west longitude. It is about seven hundred miles in length from east to west, but very narrow in proportion, not being above seventy in breadth. It lies sixty miles to the west of Hispaniola, twenty-five leagues to the north of Jamaica, one hundred miles to the east of Yucatan, and as many to the south of Cape Florida. It commands the entrance of both the Gulfs of Mexico and Florida, and the Windward Passage; so that the Spaniards, who are the only possessors of it, may, with a tolerable fleet, not only secure their own trade, but annoy their neighbours.

In Cuba there are no winters; but in the months of July and August, when the sun is vertical, the rains and storms are great, otherwise the climate would be intolerably hot. The fairest season is when the sun is farthest off, and then it is hottest in the morning; for towards noon a breeze springs up, which blows pretty brisk till the evening. The trade-winds in these seas blow from the north-east. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, there are brisk winds at north and north-west, which, in December and January, often turn to storms; though this is called the fair season.

The country is well watered, and agreeably diversified with woods, lawns, and valleys. The soil is capable of producing, in the greatest plenty, every thing that grows in the other American islands; but the Cuba (commonly called the Havanna) tobacco is thought to excel that of all

the world; and their sugar would equal their tobacco in goodness, had they industry to cultivate the canes. The other products are ginger, long pepper, and other spices; cassia, mastic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, large vines, fine cotton-trees, plantains, bananas, ananas, guavas, lemons, cocoas, and two sorts of fruit called camilor and guanavana; the first like a china-orange, and the other shaped like a heart, with a juice between sweet and acid.

The Spanish plantations are furnished by the mines of Cuba with a sufficiency of metal for all their brass-guns. Gold-dust is found in the sands of the rivers; but it is uncertain whether there are any gold or silver-mines, the hopes of which occasioned the massacre of all the ancient inhabitants, who were either unable or unwilling to discover them. If there be any, they are not worked. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island; but the land near the coast is generally a level champaign country. The interior parts lie quite uncultivated and uninhabited.

The ports and harbours here are of great advantage to ships for passing the gulf in safety; but there are scarcely any navigable rivers. Both the coasts and rivers abound with fish, and also with alligators. There are great conveniences for making salt; but the inhabitants avail themselves very little of them. The cattle brought hither by the Spaniards have multiplied exceedingly, great numbers now running wild in the woods, of which many are killed, chiefly for their hides and tallow, that are sent to Spain. Their flesh, also, being cut into pieces and dried in the sun, serves to victual ships. These cattle are often so fat, that they die through the burthen of their grease. Here are likewise abundance of mules, horses, sheep, wild boars, and hogs; together with wild and tame fowl, parrots, partridges, large tortoises, &c.

On the first conquest of this island, the following ludicrous circumstance occurred. Narvaez, a Spanish captain, being employed with thirty men to survey the country, had procured an ass, which, like the horse, was an animal totally unknown to the natives. Arriving at one of their villages, and lodging his ass in the same hovel with himself, he went to sleep. But in the meanwhile a number of warriors had assembled to surprise the party, having some suspicion of their designs. Hearing the tumult, Narvaez rose in his shirt, mounted his ass, and rode out to discover the cause. Upon the sight of this apparition, the warriors fled with the greatest confusion, and never ventured any further opposition against the Spaniards or their asses.

The number of sugar-mills exceeds six hundred; and, besides the home-consumption, more than two millions of arrobas of sugar are annually sent to Europe.

HAVANNAH, the capital town, is situated on the north-west coast of the island, fifty leagues from Cape Antonio, its westernmost point; four hundred and ninety miles west from St. Jago; and forty-one leagues south of the Cape of Florida, the gulf of which it commands, by being situated at its mouth.

This city was originally called the "Port of Carenas;" but afterwards, when it began to increase, it was called "St. Christopher of the Havannah." In 1536, it was so inconsiderable, that, being taken by a French pirate, he ransomed it for seven hundred dollars. Some time after, it was taken by the English, and a second time by the French; yet its value was not understood, nor any care taken to put it in a posture of defence, till the reign of Philip II. But since the accession of the house of Bourbon to the Spanish crown, it has been completely fortified.

This town is particularly famous for its harbour, which is, in every respect, one of the best in the West-Indies, and, perhaps, in the world. It is entered by a narrow passage, upwards of half a mile in length, which afterwards expands into a large basin, and is sufficient, in extent and depth, to contain a thousand sail of large vessels, having almost six fathoms water throughout, and being perfectly sheltered from every wind.

The city stands on the west side of the harbour, in a pleasant plain, and is the residence of the governor and other royal officers of Cuba. The buildings are chiefly of stone, and some of them superbly finished; among which are eleven churches and monasteries, and two handsome hospitals. The churches are remarkably rich and magnificent; the lamps, candlesticks, and ornaments for the altars, being of gold and silver, and some of the lamps weighing near a hundred pounds. The Recollect's church has twelve beautiful chapels in it, and in the monastery are cells for fifty monks. The church of St. Clara has seven altars, adorned with a profusion of plate, and the nunnery contains a hundred women and servants, clothed in blue. The church of the Augustines has thirteen altars; and that of St. Juan de Dios nine; with an hospital for soldiers, of twelve thousand dollars revenue.

The city is supplied with water by the Lagida, which runs through it by two streams. The entrance to the harbour is defended, on the east side, by a strong castle, called *El Moro*, situated on a high rock; and on the walls and bastions are mounted forty pieces of cannon. Under the faces of the south-west bastions of the Moro, and within the entrance of the harbour, is a stone battery, called the *Twelve Apostles*, almost level with the water; and the guns carry each a ball of thirty-six pounds. A little higher, and opposite to the Point-gate, is the *Divina Pastora*, or Shepherd's Battery, of fourteen guns, level with the water. On the west side of the entrance, at the Point, is a square fort, called the *Punta*, with four bas-

tions well mounted with cannon. On the bastions of the town, next the harbour, are a number of cannon; and about the middle of the city is the *Fuerte*, a square fort with four bastions, mounted with twenty-two pieces of cannon. In this last the governor resides, and his Catholic majesty's treasures are deposited till the arrival of the galleons.

On the land-side, from the Punta-gate to the dock-yard, there is a rampart with bastions, faced with stone, and earthen parapets, with a ditch, which, in several places, is fallen in, and is almost filled up, particularly behind the Punta and land-gates, near the stone quarries, which, if joined to one another, might be of great detriment to the place in case of a siege, as a lodgment might be made in them. The ground here rises with an easy ascent to the land-gate; and is either open pasture or garden ground, well stocked with cabbage-trees. Before the land-gate is a ravelin. The hill on a rising ground from this gate, (which is the highest part of the town,) to the dock-yard, is steeper than on the other side.

The fortifications of the Havannah, though strong, have many defects; and, from the situation of the town and forts, are commanded by many eminences, of which an enemy might take advantage. On the east side of the harbour, the Cavannas, on a part of which the Moro is built, commands, in a great measure, that fort, and absolutely commands the Punta, the Fuerte, and the whole north-east part of the city, which is the best fortified. On the west runs a suburb called Guadaloupe, whose church is situated on an eminence about half a mile from the land-gate, with which it is on a level, and higher than any other part of the fortifications. From the north side of this rising ground, the Punta-gate may be flanked; and from the south-east side the dock-yard is commanded. Along the north side runs an aqueduct, which, falling into the ditch at the land-gate, runs down to the dock-yard, both for watering the ships and turning a saw-mill. About half a mile from the church is a bridge, thrown across a rivulet that runs into the bay about a hundred yards. From this bridge to the Lazaretto is about two miles, with a rising ground between them; and, if a trench were thrown up betwixt these two places, it would cut off the communication with the town by land. From these observations, therefore, it plainly appears, that the Havannah is not impregnable.

The Havannah has greatly contributed to the maritime strength of Spain, many ships having been built there within these few years, from sixty to eighty guns; the island furnishing the finest materials, such as oak, pine, cedar, and mahogany. The only defect of the harbour is the narrowness of its entrance; for, though free from bars and shoals, yet only one ship at a time can enter it; from which circumstance the galleons have sometimes been insulted, and even captured, at the mouth of the harbour, the forts being unable to afford them any assistance.

Upon the rupture with Spain, in 1762, the British ministry sent a squadron and army against this place, under Admiral Pocock and Lord Albemarle. The Spaniards had in the harbour at that time a fleet of twelve sail of the line, two of them but just launched, two more on the stocks nearly finished, and several merchant-ships. The men of war were almost ready for sea; but the governor had received no intimation of the projected attack. The place, however, was gallantly defended, and sustained a siege of two months and eight days before it could be reduced; but, at the expiration of that time, a capitulation was signed, and a district of a hundred and eighty miles was yielded up along with the city. This conquest was the most considerable, and, in its consequences, the most decisive, of any the English had made since the beginning of the war; and in no operation were the courage and perseverance of the British troops and the conduct of their leaders more conspicuous. The acquisition of this place united in itself all the advantages which can be acquired in war. It was a military achievement of the highest class; by its effect on the Spanish marine, it was equal to the greatest naval victory; and, in the plunder, it equalled the produce of a national subsidy. Nine line-of-battle ships were taken; three capital ships had been sunk by the Spaniards at the beginning of the siege; and two more were afterwards destroyed by the captors. The Spaniards on this occasion lost a whole fleet of ships of war, besides a considerable number of merchant-ships; and in ready money, tobacco, and other valuable merchandise, the sum lost did not fall short of three millions sterling. Havannah was restored by the peace of 1763; and is of the greatest importance to Spain, being the rendezvous for all her fleets to return from America to Europe, lying at the mouth of the Gulf of Florida, through which they are all obliged to pass. Here the Spanish navy stationed in the West-Indies rides; and here the galleons, flota, and merchant-ships from other ports, meet in September, to take in provisions and water, with great part of their lading, and likewise for the convenience of returning to Spain in a body.

The male inhabitants of this city use the Spanish cloak, sometimes so richly laced as to cost five hundred dollars; the hair generally in a net. The women rarely wear gowns, being contented with a petticoat and corset, with an apron of gauze or muslin; their hair plaited, or rolled up under their head-dress, with some sprigs of rue or wormwood over the ear. With other ornaments they wear massy bracelets of gold, and are fond of displaying a beautiful arm. Two round patches are worn on the temples, changed at night for bits of white linen, like little plaisters, and in the morning for leaves of the orange-flower.

The manner of living is as objectionable as in New Spain. In the morning, with chocolate, coffee, or milk, is taken a savoury dish, called *chuleta*, or ribs of pork, which they have fresh throughout the year, or some other animal-food, fried in lard: at mid-day, the usual dish is *agiaco*, a kind of fruit of so hot a taste, that it causes tears to run down the cheeks of the guests. In the evening, there is a regular supper of rice, seasoned with salt and lard, broiled flesh, salads, and other dishes. At the two last meals, the usual dessert is sweetmeats, or sugar pressed from the cane, the consumption of which is incredible.

St. Jago stands at the bottom of a large bay, about two leagues from the sea, on the south-east side of the island. It is distinguished from St. Jago, in Chili, by the addition of di Cuba, as the other is by that of di Chili. Since the unsuccessful attempt made by the English, under Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth, the fortifications have been repaired, and the town has recovered some degree of its former splendour, carrying on a good trade with Old and New Spain, and, above all, with the Canaries. The other towns of note are Santa Cruz, which has a tolerable harbour, and stands about one hundred and sixty-three miles east of the Havannah; Porto del Principe, situated on the coast, about three hundred miles south-east of the Havannah; and Baracoa, situated on the north-east part, which has a small harbour.

SECTION XV.

PORTO-RICO.

Porto-Rico is situated between sixty-four and sixty-seven degrees of west longitude, and in eighteen degrees of north latitude, lying between St. Domingo and St. Christopher's. It is about one hundred miles in length, and forty in breadth. The chief part of the country is diversified with woods, valleys, and plains; and it is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the air is excessively hot, and, during the rainy season, very unwholesome. The north part of the island, which is the most barren, contains several mines, some of which formerly produced great quantities of silver and gold. It was on account of the latter that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity found in it. In the woods are parrots, wild pigeons, and other fowl. European poultry is found here in plenty, and the coast abounds with fish. A breed of dogs, which the Spaniards brought over to hunt the defenceless natives, are said to run wild in the woods, and subsist upon land-crabs that burrow in the ground.

The principal commodities here are sugar, ginger, hides, cotton, thread, cassia, mastic, &c. Their pork is excellent, as is likewise the flesh of their kids; but their mutton is very indifferent. They have good ship-timber and fruit-trees.

This island was taken from the Spaniards by Sir Francis Drake. It was afterwards conquered by the Earl of Cumberland, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; but he was obliged to abandon it, having lost most of his men by sickness, in the latter end of the summer, when this and all other places in these latitudes are very unhealthy.

Porto-Rico, the capital town, is situated on a small island on the north coast. This island forms a very convenient harbour, and is joined to the chief island by a causeway. It is defended by forts and batteries, which render the place almost inacessible. The town is well-built, and populous, and the seat of a governor, as well as a bishop's see. The only place worthy of notice in this island, exclusive of the capital, are Port del Agnada, where the flota provide themselves with water, and other necessaries, in their voyage to Old Spain; and Boroba de Infernes, which is remarkable for having an excellent turtle fishery.

SECTION XVI.

ST. DOMINGO, or HISPANIOLA.

Situation, Productions, &c.] This island, the second in the American archipelago, is situated between seventeen and twenty-one degrees of north latitude, and sixty-seven and seventy-four degrees of west longitude, lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is four hundred and fifty miles long, and one hundred and fifty broad. When first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be, at least, a million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, that they were reduced, in the space of fifteen years, to sixty thousand. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava-root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South-America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they formerly discovered silver and gold. The mines, however, are not now worked. The north-west parts, which were in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This, indeed, is the best and most fertile island in the West-Indies.

The species of dog called the *blood-hound*, so often used by the Spaniards to hunt down the negroes, were formerly bred in St. Domingo. The following was the mode of rearing and exercising them by the chasseurs.

"The moment the blood-hounds were taken from the dam, they were confined in kennels, with iron bars in front, like the dens used by showmen for confining wild beasts, where they were sparingly fed on the blood and entrails of animals. As they grew up, their keepers frequently exposed in the front of their cage a figure resembling a negro, male or female, and of the same colour and dress, the body of which contained the blood and entrails of beasts, which being occasionally suffered to gush out, the figure attracted the attention of the dogs as the source of their food. They were then gradually reduced in their meals, till they were almost famished, when the image was more frequently exposed to their view; and when they struggled with redoubled ferocity against their confinement to come to their prey, the image was brought nearer at intervals, till at last it was abandoned to their hunger, and, being of wicker-work, was in an instant torn to pieces, and thus they arrived at a copious meal. While satiating themselves with this, the keeper and his colleagues caressed and encouraged them. By this execrable artifice, the white people at once ingratiated themselves with the dogs, and taught them to regard a negro as their proper prey. As soon as the young dogs were thus well initiated, they were taken out to be exercised on living objects, and were trained with great care till they arrived at the necessary exactness in the pursuit of the poor wretches they were doomed to destroy. The common use of the dogs in the Spanish islands was in chase of runaway negroes in the mountains. When once they got scent of the object, they speedily ran him down, and devoured him, unless he could evade the pursuit by climbing a tree, in which case the dogs remained at the foot of the tree, yelping in the most hideous manner till their keepers arrived. If the victim were to be preserved for a public exhibition of a cruel punishment, the dogs were then muzzled, and the prisoner loaded with chains. On his neck was placed a collar, with spikes inward, and hooks outward, the latter for the purpose of entangling him in the bushes, if he attempted to escape. If the unhappy being proceeded faster than his guard, it was construed into an attempt to run from them, and he was given to the dogs, who instantly devoured him. Not seldom, on a journey of considerable length, these causes were feigned by the keepers, to relieve them of their prisoners, and the inhuman monster who perpetrated the act received the reward of ten dollars from the colony, on making oath of his having destroyed his fellow-creature! The keepers, in general, acquired an absolute command over these dogs; but when the French army used them in their war against St. Domingo, while they had possession of the Cape, the dogs frequently broke loose in the neighbourhood, and children were devoured in the public way; sometimes they surprised a harmless family of labourers at their simple meal, tore the babe from the breast of its mother, and involved the whole party in one common and cruel death. Even the defenceless huts of the negroes have been broken into by these dreadful animals, and the sleeping inhabitants have shared in a like miserable fate!"

Commerce, &c.] In 1788, the trade of this island employed five hundred and eighty large ships, carrying one hundred and eighty-nine thousand six hundred and seventy-nine tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce. The Spanish ships exported, in French goods or money, one million four hundred thousand dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony; ninety-eight French ships, carrying forty thousand one hundred and thirty tons, imported twenty-six thousand five hundred and six negroes, who sold for eight millions of dollars.

Principal Towns.] The most ancient town in this island, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo, situated on the west bank of the Ozama, three miles below the mouth of Isabella River, where it is twenty-four feet deep, having a bottom of mud or soft sand, and banks twenty feet in perpendicular height. The port is extremely magnificent; being a real natural basin, with a great number of careenings for the vessels tha can get at them. There is a rock at the entrance, which will only admit vessels drawing eighteen or twenty feet water, which, it is said, might be easily removed. But the road before the Ozama is very indifferent, and lies so much exposed, that it is impossible to anchor in it during the south winds, and the north winds drive the vessels from their moorings out into the sea, which here runs exceedingly high.

The city was originally founded on the east side of the Ozama, by Bartholomew Columbus, who gave it the name of "New Isabella." But Christopher Columbus gave it the name of his father, and the inhabitants of Isabella on the north coast of the island removed to New Isabella, in 1496. In the year 1502, a hurricane destroyed most of its buildings, which induced Orando to remove the inhabitants to the west side of the river. The new city was soon built, with a grandeur of design not unworthy of the first metropolis of the new world. The plan of it is a trapezium of about five hundred and forty fathoms on the east side, along the Ozama; near five hundred fathoms on the south, bordering upon the sea; and about eighteen hundred fathoms in circumference. On the west and north, the land is rough and rocky, for about half a league; but after that it becomes good, and the country delightful. Towards the sea, the site of the city lies very high, and forms an insurmountable dyke against the fury of the waves. It is also surrounded with a rampart eigh-

feet in diameter, and about ten feet high. There is a great deal of ordnance at St. Domingo, but the fortifications are not strong; and the height of the Ileignes commands it entirely.

The streets of St. Domingo are spacious, and straight as a line, which gives the city a pleasing appearance. The greatest part of the houses first built are of a sort of marble, found in the vicinity, and in the style of the ancient towns of Spain and Italy: those of a more recent construction are of a sort of *pise* called *tapia*. To erect these buildings, a case is made of planks between pillars of masonry; and this case is gradually filled with a reddish clay, which is rammed down as it is thrown in, until it forms a solid wall between the pillars. The clay thus pressed together acquires an amazing hardness, and the walls are sometimes so solid and strong, that the pillars are useless. The houses of St. Domingo are tolerably handsome, in a simple style, and nearly uniform. A considerable part of them, built within these forty years, are of wood, covered with the leaves of taches of palm-trees. The roofs are generally platformed, being shaped so as to conduct the rain-water to the cisterns.

Among many public edifices that are worthy of attention, we may reckon the ruins of the house that Diego, son of Christopher Columbus, had begun, entirely of hewn stone. The walls are yet remaining, and some of the sculpture round the windows. The roof and ceilings, however, are fallen in; the lower floor is become a pen for cattle; and a Latin inscription over the portal is now hidden by the hut of a herdsman.

The cathedral is a noble gothic pile, begun in 1512, and finished in 1540, after the model of a church at Rome. It particularly merits admiration on account of the boldness of its vault, which, notwithstanding the ravages of earthquakes in its vicinity, has never till within these forty years had a single flaw. Opposite to this pile is a spacious square, at the south-west end of which is the town-house. Here also are three hospitals, a college, and a gaol. The convent of the Cordeliers was built by Ovanno, in 1503, on a little hill, containing a mine of mercury. All the three parochial churches of this city are superbly adorned with pictures, statues of marble and of metal, vases of gold and silver, set with precious stones, &c.; but the cathedral surpasses the others in every respect.

The French towns are Cape François, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. Before its destruction, in 1793, it contained about eight thousand inhabitants, whites, people of colour, and slaves. It is the governor's residence in time of war, as Port-au-Prince is in time of peace. The Mole, though inferior to these in other respects, is the first port in the island for safety in time of war, being by nature and art strongly fortified. The other towns and forts of any note are Fort Dauphin, St. Mark, Leogane, Petit Goave, Jeremie, Les Cayes, St. Louis, and Jacmel.

History.] Since the French revolution, in consequence of some injudicious decrees of the National Assembly, this island has been a scene of confusion and bloodshed. On the night of the 22d of August, 1791, a most alarming insurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations on this island, and a scene of the most horrid cruelties ensued. In a little time, no less than one hundred thousand negroes were in rebellion, and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were deluged with blood. In this dreadful conflict, which has been of long continuance, the white colonists of St. Domingo have been extirpated or expelled, and the whole power of the island consequently vested in the mulattoes, the negroes, and the lower classes of the French inhabitants. The sovereign authority fell into the hands of some of the people of colour: and the negroes, who were slaves, have been subsequently emancipated from their chains, and the majority of them trained to arms. This was the origin of all those scenes of desolation and horror which have succeeded in that devoted island.

In the month of October, 1793, the English effected a landing on this island, and made themselves masters of Jeremie, Cape Tiburon, the Mole, and several other places on the coast. The troops, however, suffered greatly by the insalubrity of the climate; several of the places they had gained possession of were soon retaken; nor could they have retained the others, had it not been for the contests and mutual jealousies of the whites and people of colour. An expedition was afterwards undertaken by the English government against St. Domingo, in which a regiment of hussars was reduced, in little more than two months, from one thousand to three hundred, through the climate, and another regiment perished entirely. About the end of the year 1797, of fifteen thousand British and foreign troops, not more than three thousand were left alive, and fit for service; the loss of seamen being computed at five thousand. The negro troops in St. Domingo offered to join the English, on condition of cutting off all the mulattoes. Toussaint, the black chief of St. Domingo, had an army at his command, computed at eighteen thousand infantry and one thousand cavalry: he was opposed by the mulattoes under Rigaud, to the amount of about twelve thousand. In October, 1798, St. Domingo was abandoned by the British troops. The French then waged war against the blacks, which was prosecuted by the contending parties with various success. In 1802,

the negro-general was taken prisoner, and conducted to France, where he was thrown into a dungeon, and was put to death, by order of Buonaparte. The blacks, however, took a dreadful revenge: they put to death, in the most horrid manner, all the French prisoners who fell into their hands, and in a short time the whole army, which, with the reinforcements sent at different times, amounted to, at least, forty thousand men, was annihilated by disease and the sword. The commander-in-chief, General Leclerc, who married a sister of Buonaparte, fell a victim to the former; and, after all his threats of extirpation, the French chief was obliged to abandon his intentions. Dessalines, the black commander of the native army, was then invested with unlimited power by his desperate companions, and he effected a horrid retaliation, by causing all the white inhabitants in the French part of the island to be massacred, without regard to age or sex.

But the most ludicrous part of his conduct was the affectation with which he imitated the measures of his brother-usurper in Europe. As soon as it was known in St. Domingo that Buonaparte had caused himself to be raised to the dignity of Emperor, Dessalines erected his island into an *Empire*, declared himself *Emperor*, appointed his body-guard, his members of a *legion of honour*, and adopted all the absurd regulations of his ambitious prototype; concluding with an oath of eternal enmity to France, and of his determination to defend with his blood the system which he had established. He kept his word; but his reign was short. A part of his army, disgusted with his numerous acts of cruelty and despotism, secretly revolted, and placed themselves under Christophe, who was, to him, as Moreau stood with respect to Buonaparte:—a general high in command, of equal abilities, and more moderation. On the 12th of January, 1807, Christophe's party seized Dessalines, and put him to death, declaring their chief his successor; on which the greatest part of the army came over to his standard. Christophe, soon after being declared Emperor, thought proper to change the government of the island again to a *republic*, and published a new constitution, offering to the people of all nations protection and liberty of commerce. Since that time, some changes have been effected; but the sovereign power still remains in the hands of the blacks; nor is it probable that the island will ever be reduced by any European power, without a massacre of the inhabitants, bordering upon extermination.

SECTION XVII.

MARTINICO.

The Island of Martinico is situated between the fourteenth and fifteenth degrees of north latitude, and in the sixty-first degree of west longitude. It lies about forty leagues north-west of Barbadoes, and is about sixty miles in length, and thirty in breadth. The climate is not esteemed unwholesome, though there is a dampness in the air, which, at times, must be disagreeable. The inland parts are mountainous, and the interior abounds with hills, whence issue many rivulets, which, in their course towards the sea, at once adorn and fertilize the country. The productions of this island consist of sugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, indigo, aloes, pimento, cocoas, plantains, and other tropical fruits.

In the year 1700, the French settled upon this island were computed to be one thousand five hundred, besides the negroes whom they employed, and great numbers of Caribbees, who were re-admitted into the island, but were obliged to work as slaves, and to live among the French, that they might have no opportunity to form conspiracies or plots with their countrymen, or to associate together. Before it was subdued by the English, in 1756, it contained ten thousand white inhabitants fit to carry arms, and above forty thousand negroes or slaves. Besides this force, some companies of regulars were always quartered in the island; so that nothing but the most notorious misconduct could have rendered the British troops masters of it with so little loss as they suffered on that occasion.

Martinico is not only the residence of the governor-general and intendant, but likewise of a sovereign council, which superintends all their other islands, and even the settlements of St. Domingo and Tortuga. The island owes its flourishing state to the old French government having transported thither great numbers of its protestant subjects, some of whom voluntarily settled there.

The two principal towns in this island are Fort-Royal and St. Pierre, or St. Peter's. The first is the seat of government: its streets are regular, the houses agreeable, and the inhabitants much addicted to all kinds of luxury: they are the Parisians of the West-Indies. To the east of the town, on a neck of land, is an irregular fort, badly built, and worse designed, which gives name to the town which it poorly defends. Fort Royal, as well as the rest of the island, fell under the power of the English in the year 1756; but they restored it at the peace of 1763. The French have since built a citadel upon Morne Carnier, an eminence higher than the most elevated points of Mornes Patate, Tartanson, and Cartouche, all of which command Fort Royal. It was again taken by the English in 1794, but given up at the peace of 1802. It was again captured by the British in 1809, and restored by the peace of Paris, in 1814.

The harbour of Fort Royal, where the men of war anchor in winter, is one of the best of the Windward Islands, and its security against the hurricanes generally acknowledged. It is supposed that the inner part has

been spoiled by sinking the hulks of several ships, to make a fence against the English in the war of 1759.

The Fort of St. Pierre is five leagues to the leeward of Fort Royal, in a round bay on the western coast. The town, the first built in the island, is the place of communication between the colony and the mother-country. It is the residence of merchants, and the centre of business. That port, situated along the sea-side, on the strand itself, called Le Mouillage, (the anchoring-place,) is very unhealthy. The other port, separated from this by a river, is built upon a low hill; and they call it the Fort, from a small fortress which defends the shipping. The road is very convenient for loading and unloading the vessels, and the facility of coming in or going out; but they are obliged in winter-time to take shelter at Fort Royal. The town of St. Pierre suffered great damage by a dreadful hurricane, which happened in the month of October, 1780, in which two hundred houses were blown into the sea, and great injury was done among the shipping that lay in the harbour. The chief export of Martinico is sugar, of which vast quantities are annually shipped for Europe.

SECTION XVIII.

GUADALOUPE.

This island is situated about thirty leagues north-west of Martinico, in sixteen degrees of north latitude. It is about forty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth, and is divided by a deep gulf or bay, and a channel called the Salt River. The air of Guadaloupe is preferable to that of Martinico, being more salubrious and less sultry; and the soil is very fertile. Its products are sugar, coffee, cotton, bastard cinnamon, indigo, ginger, and many other vegetables, besides the capua-tree, from which is extracted a most excellent balm; the milk-shrub, so called from its yielding a substance like milk, when pressed, which falls little short of the capua-balsam; the moubine-tree, which bears a yellow plum, with which the natives fatten their hogs; and the corbary-tree, the gum of which, when hardened in the sun, becomes so translucent, that the Caribbees wear it formed into beads and bracelets. Many of the mountains, with which Guadaloupe abounds, are covered with wood, and nothing can be more verdant, or more beautifully variegated, than the large plains which lie beneath them. One of the mountains, called La Soufriere, or the Brimstone Mountain, emits a continual smoke, and communicates a sulphureous taste to the neighbouring streams.

Labat visited this mountain, the top of which he found bare of vegetable productions, except the fern and stunted shrubs already mentioned, which he ascribed partly to the cold of so high a situation, and partly to the sulphureous exhalations. He walked round the hill for three hours and a half, among burnt stones and whitish ashes, which, in some places, were above his ankles, and smelt strongly of brimstone. On the east side of the mountain he saw two chasms, one of which was an oval hole, about a hundred feet in diameter; but he could not venture near enough to fathom the depth of it, because it frequently sent out black clouds of smoke, mingled with sparks of fire. A little below the least of these chasms, there are three little basins of hot water, one of which is dark coloured, and smells like the water in a smith's forge; the second is whitish, and has the taste of alum; and the third is blue, and seems impregnated with vitriol.

From all the neighbouring hills flow numberless springs, which fertilize the plains below, and moderate the burning heat of the climate, by a refreshing stream, so celebrated, that the galleons, which formerly used to touch at the Windward Islands, had orders to renew their provision with this pure and salubrious water.

The most remarkable bird on this island is that called the Devil's Bird, which is peculiar to this island and Dominica: it is a bird of passage, of the size of a pullet, and all its plumage coal-black. These birds live on fish, which they catch in the sea at night, being unable to bear the light in the day-time when flying, so that they often run against interposing objects and fall down. After their fish-hunting in the night, they repair to a mountain called the Devil's Mountain, where they lodge by pairs in holes, like rabbits. Here they lay their eggs, and hatch their young, which are ready to fly about the end of May, and are very tender food, but their fat resembles oil. The flesh of the old ones is blackish, and has a fishy taste, but otherwise it is very good and nourishing. The negroes and poor people have scarcely any other sustenance than these birds during the season; and it may be deemed a great providence that they harbour in places so difficult of access, otherwise the French would long ago have destroyed the species.

Labat tells us, that he once indulged his curiosity to accompany four negroes in this kind of fowling, not without great fatigue and danger. It took them up six hours to get to the summit of the mountain, where they lay all night; and next morning, when the birds were returned from their fishery, the negroes repaired to their holes, with dogs trained to the sport. Each negro carried a switch in his hand, seven or eight feet long, with a crook at the end of it; and as soon as the dogs, which smelt at every hole, had discovered one with a devil-bird in it, they barked, and began to scratch up the ground at the entrance, but they were prevented from doing this by the fowlers, who thrust their switches into the holes, on which the birds either fasten with their beak, and suffer themselves to be dragged out rather than quit their hold, or else the crook is turned round the hole till one of the wings is en-

tangled by it, and so the bird drawn out by force. Our author adds, that by noon they had taken a hundred and ninety-eight of these birds, and acknowledges that he fed on them very heartily.

It is observable that the bees of Guadaloupe differ considerably from those of Europe in size and colour, as well as in the structure of their honey-combs, and the quality of their wax and honey. These insects are blacker and rounder than ours, but much smaller; nor do they seem to have any sting, or, if they have, it is too weak to pierce the skin. Their nests are in hollow trees, and their combs consist of little bladders of wax, of the form and size of pigeons' eggs, but more pointed, and almost like the bladder of a carp. They deposit their honey in these bladders, which, though they may be easily separated from one another, are so artfully disposed and ranged, that there seems to be no vacuity between them. Most of the bladders are filled with honey, but in some of them there is a yellow matter, seeded like the eggs of a fish, glutinous, and smelling like honey. The honey is always liquid, of the consistence of olive-oil, and never settles. The wax is black, or at least of a deep purple colour; and Labat says, that all the art of his countrymen could not make it either white or yellow, so as to be fit for candles; besides that, it is too soft for that purpose, and is scarcely used for any thing but to cement the corks of bottles after it is thoroughly purified.

The island is troubled with an insect, called a ravet, shaped like a cock-chaffer, of a stinking smell, which destroys both books and furniture, and whatever it does not gnaw is discoloured by its ordure; but great numbers of them are destroyed by a kind of spider, found on the island, some of which are as large as a man's fist. The Cul de Sacs, as the French call them, or gulfs, about this island, abound with turtle, sharks, land-crabs, &c.

One of the two divisions of this island is called Grande-Terre; and the other is divided into Cape Terre, or Cable's Terre, and Basse-Terre, which last is also the name of the capital, a very considerable town, situated on both sides of Bailiff River, and well fortified.

Like Martinico, this island was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt: but, in 1759, it was reduced by the English arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763. It was reduced by the English in 1794, and evacuated a few months after. On the 5th of February, 1810, however, it once more capitulated to the British forces under the command of the gallant Beckwith, and was given up by the treaty of Paris.

SECTION XIX.

ST. LUCIA.

St. Lucia is situated in fourteen degrees north latitude, and in sixty-one degrees west longitude, eighty miles north-west of Barbadoes, and is twenty-three miles in length and twelve in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr, St. Lucia. The English first settled on the island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes, from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on, between the latter and the English, that the island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle on these islands, which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and St. Lucia to France. The soil of this island, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers and well-situated harbours, and has been declared a free port, under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783. It was taken by the English in 1794, surrendered again to the French in 1795, re-captured by Great Britain in 1796, and restored to the French in 1802. It was again taken by the British soon after the commencement of hostilities in 1803, and given up at the restoration of the house of Bourbon.

St. Lucia sustained considerable damage by a dreadful hurricane, which happened in the month of October, 1780. Great numbers of houses were levelled with the ground; and the ships in the harbour being driven out to sea, many were lost.

SECTION XX.

ST. EUSTATIA.

This island is situated in seventeen degrees twenty-nine minutes of north latitude, and sixty-three degrees ten minutes of west longitude, three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's. It rises out of the sea like a pyramid, and is about twenty-nine miles in circumference. But though small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch has made it turn to very good account, and it is said to contain five thousand whites and fifteen thousand negroes. The sides of the mountain are disposed in decent settlements; but they are destitute of springs and rivers.

The air is wholesome, but it is subject to terrible thunder-claps, earthquakes, and hurricanes; and there is a scarcity of fresh-water. Before a hurricane, it is said, the birds lay themselves flat on the ground; and the rain that precedes it is always salt and bitter. This island, as well as Curaçoa, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, and it has drawn the same advantage from its neutrality. But when hostilities were commenced by Great Britain against Holland, Admiral Rodney and General Vaugham were sent with a considerable land and sea force against St. Eustatia, which, being incapable of defence, surrendered

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at discretion, on the 3d of February, 1781: but on the 27th of November, the same year, it was retaken by the French, under the Marquis de Bouillé, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about three hundred men. This island sustained considerable damage by the dreadful hurricane which happened in October, 1780.

Besides tobacco, the inhabitants have of late years raised and exported great quantities of sugar. They also breed hogs, rabbits, goats, and most sorts of poultry.

SECTION XXI

ST. THOMAS, ST. JOHN'S, AND SANTA CRUZ.

The Island of St. Thomas is situated to the east of Porto-Rico. It is about fifteen miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour, which, by being open to traders of all nations, enriches the inhabitants. It is greatly infested with mosquettoes; and the soil is, in general, very sandy; but it produces most of the West-Indian commodities.

The principal advantage of this island consists in an excellent harbour on the south side, where fifty ships may lie in safety. It is defended by a fort, whose batteries, at the same time, protect the small town built round the shore. This harbour is much frequented by merchant-ships: when they are chased; in time of war, they find here a safe protection; and, in time of peace, a market for their goods, by the clandestine trade which the boats of St. Thomas continually carry on with the Spanish coasts.

Two leagues to the south of St. Thomas is another island, about the same size, called St. John's. Its harbour is said to be superior to that of St. Thomas, and is accounted the best to the leeward of Antigua. But, notwithstanding these advantages, there is so little good land in the island, that its exportations form only a very trifling object. This island has suffered the most destructive ravages, in late years, from accidental fires. In 1801, upwards of four-fifths of the houses were destroyed by an event of this kind; and, in the autumn of 1806, a similar calamity occurred, which was equally disastrous in its consequences, and from which the unfortunate inhabitants will not recover for many years.

Santa Cruz is a small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, while they remained in the hands of the Danish West-India Company, were ill-managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but the late king of Denmark purchased the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the Island of St. Thomas has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of three thousand hogsheads of sugar, of one thousand weight each, and other West-India commodities in tolerable plenty.

CHAPTER IX.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH-AMERICA.

SECTION I.

TERRA FIRMA.

TERRA FIRMA, or Castile del Oro, is situated between the equator and twelve degrees of north latitude, and between sixty and eighty-two degrees of west longitude, being about one thousand four hundred miles in length, and seven hundred in breadth. It is bounded by part of the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by Guiana, on the east; by Peru and the country of the Amazons, on the south; and by New Spain and the Pacific Ocean, on the west. It derived the name of Castile del Oro, or the Golden Coast, from the great quantity of gold it contained. The northern division of Terra Firma contains the provinces of Terra Firma Proper, or Darien, Carthagena, St. Martha, Rio de la Hacha and New Andalusia, or Paria. The southern division contains the provinces of New Granada and Popayan.

The isthmus of Darien joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto-Bello, in the North, to Panama, in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two places, is the proper limit between North and South America; and here the isthmus is only sixty miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oroonoko.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are the Bay of Panama and the Bay of St. Michael's, in the South Sea; the Bay of Porto Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Sino Bay, Carthagena Bay and Harbour, the Gulf of Venezuela, the Bay of Maracaibo, the Gulf of Triesto, the Bay of Guaira, the Bay of Curiaco, and the Gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North Sea. The chief capes are, Samblas Point,

Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart Point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north side of Terra Firma.

Terra Firma is a very mountainous country. Terra Firma Proper, in particular, consists of prodigious high mountains and deep valleys, which are flooded more than half the year. The mountains in the province of Carthagena and St. Martha, according to Dampier, are the highest in the world, being seen at sea at a distance of two hundred miles. From these run a chain of hills, of almost equal height, quite through South-America, as far as the Straits of Magellan, called the Cordilleros des Andes. The province of Venezuela, and the district of the Caraccas, are likewise very mountainous; but these will be described under another section. Some of the mountains in the province of Popayan contain volcanos; but towards the shore of the Pacific Ocean the country is low and marshy.

As the mountains of South-America constitute some of the grandest objects in natural geography, being not only the most lofty on the face of the globe, but intermixed with volcanos of the most sublime and terrific description, some account of the principal ones shall be here inserted. The extent of some of the chains is prodigious, the Andes stretching in one line from the capes of Isidro and Pilares, in the southern extremity of the continent, to the Caribbean Sea, a space not less than four thousand six hundred miles, as they generally follow the windings of the coast, at the medial distance of about one hundred miles. The breadth is from ninety to a hundred and fifty miles; so that, as Ulloa observes, entire kingdoms are situated in the mountains. The principal summits are near the equator, not far from the city of Quito.

The best account of these celebrated mountains is that given by Bouguer, one of the French mathematicians, who, between the years 1735 and 1743, measured a degree near the equator. Chimborazo, the highest of these mountains, about one hundred British miles to the south of Quito, and about ten miles to the north of Riobamba, was computed by these mathematicians to be three thousand two hundred and seventeen French toises above the level of the sea, or twenty thousand two hundred and eighty feet; about one quarter higher than Mont Blanc. That part of Chimborazo which is covered with perpetual snow is about two thousand four hundred feet from the summit. But these mountains stand on the high plain of Quito, which constitutes more than one-third of the computed height.

The next in height is supposed to be the volcano called Cotopaxi, estimated at about eighteen thousand six hundred feet, and situated about twenty-five miles to the south-east of Quito. Other grand summits are Pichincha, a few miles to the north-west of Quito; the Altar and Sanga, to the south-east of Chimborazo. In general, the Andes here proceed in a double chain, the interval being the plain of Quito: to the western ridge belong Pichincha, Illinissa, Chimborazo, &c.; while the eastern is crowned by Cotopaxi, the Altar, Sanga, &c., and this form continues at least for about five hundred miles from the south of Cuenca to the north of Popayan.

The highest deserts of the Andes are in the north called *Paramos*, and in Peru, *Punas;* and the air is often of so peculiar a cold, as rather to strike to the lungs than to affect the exterior feelings. Travellers have frequently perished from the cold in these regions; and, when their bodies are found, there is an appearance of laughter in the face, owing to the contraction of the muscles. Ulloa observes, that while the high mountains may have a medial height of fourteen thousand feet, the table land has from eight to ten thousand; so that this prodigious belt is of itself more surprising than the lofty summits which crown it. The Spaniards consider the mountains under two appellations, the *Sierres* and the *Andes*, from which it would appear, that the Sierra is a name applied to the exterior ridges, while the Andes are the high central mountains. At some distance from the Andes, on either side, one ridge only being observable, the vast upland plains, with their rivers, valleys, and mountains, would never be supposed to exist; nor would the spectator expect to find those precipices of amazing depth, called *quebradas*, or breaks, which appal the firmest spectator, as if the globe were gradually bursting into ruin. Yet, in general, they seem the work of the waters, as a stream commonly runs in the midst.

Climate.] In these high regions the winter generally commences in December, and continues till April; but in the northern provinces of the viceroyalty of La Plata, and in the Andes of Chili, the order of the seasons is reversed, the heat of the summer being in December, January, and February. In the summer the heat is excessive; and affects the more, as the air itself is at the same time so cold, as to prevent perspiration. A distance of two feet makes summer or winter; in the sun it burns, while in the shade it freezes. Ulloa asserts, that the seasons contradict the course of the sun, being solely determined by the circumstances and the force of reproduction; yet as the central rivers of the viceroyalty of La Plata, descending from the Andes on the west, are in a state of inundation in January and February, owing to the melting of the alpine snows, this remark seems capable of refutation. In the quebradas the air is far more dense and warm than on the heights; Humboldt and Bonpland, indeed, found it so rare, that the blood burst from their eyes and mouths.

The climate at Terra Firma, particularly in the north-

ern parts, is extremely hot; and as the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual in Carthagena, the excessive heats raise the vapours of the sea, which are precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces it is extremely unwholesome.

Soil and Vegetable Productions.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South-America, is extremely rich and fertile. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the interior of the country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam-tree. The manchineel-tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter: this kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous serpents, which are very common all over this country. Those who frequent the woods, therefore, usually take a little of this kernel, fasting, and then repair to their work without any apprehension of danger. The other vegetable productions are Indian corn, balms, gums, and drugs, several sorts of fruit, sugar, tobacco, and various sorts of dying woods.

Animals.] Among the animals peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth. It bears some resemblance to a monkey in shape and size; but its bare hams and feet, and a wrinkled skin, give it a most wretched appearance. It stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and it is said to be several minutes in moving one of its legs, nor will blows make it mend its pace. When it moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive and disagreeable cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal; for on the first hostile approach it is natural for it to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgustful howlings, so that the pursuer flies in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, it looks out for a tree well loaded, which it ascends with great uneasiness, moving, crying, and stopping, by turns. At length, having mounted, it plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save itself such another troublesome journey; and, rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, it gathers itself up, and, with a shriek, drops to the ground.

The monkeys in this country are very numerous: they keep together, twenty or thirty in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree; and, if they meet with a single person, they chatter and make a frightful noise, throw things at him, hang themselves by the tail on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away. Their flesh is highly esteemed by the negroes and creoles, who make no scruple of eating them.

Many birds are found in this country, whose plumage is particularly beautiful and brilliant; but the most remarkable is the toucan, or preacher. The bill of this bird is variegated with all those bright colours which adorn the plumage of others. It is called the preacher, from its custom of perching on the top of a tree, and making a noise resembling ill-articulated sounds. The rivers, sea, and lakes, abound with a variety of fish.

The Isthmus of Darien swarms with reptiles and insects of various species; many of which are baneful to the inhabitants, and others are objects of philosophical speculation.

Minerals.] There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper, mines have been since opened; and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

Provinces, Towns, &c.] Terra Firma Proper, which lies in the form of a crescent round the Bay of Panama, is three hundred miles in length, but only sixty in breadth, where the isthmus which joins South and North America is narrowest. It is tolerably fruitful, and abounds in gold and pearls.

The city of Panama, which, in 1737 and 1756, was entirely consumed by fire, has since been rebuilt in a neat, though not magnificent, manner. It is strongly fortified and garrisoned, and the walls mounted with large cannon. Here is the residence of the governor of the province, and it was the seat of a royal audiency; but the latter was abandoned in 1752. It has a convenient harbour, well secured against storms by a number of surrounding islands.

The dangers of the road between Panama and Porto-Bello, occasioned by mountains, precipices, marshes, continual rains, horrible storms, deep fords, and, above all, the infinite number of venomous serpents, can scarcely be conceived; yet the mulattoes frequent it on foot, and even regard the passage as a kind of amusement. Some huts are found, where they sleep on straw and the leaves of trees, taking care to clean the floor, and stop up all passages for the snakes. The journey commonly occupies three days. The only remaining trade of Panama is

with the villages in its jurisdiction, and with the province of Veragua, the goods being received by Porto-Bello, mostly from Carthagena; the vessels from Peru commonly return empty. The neighbouring mountains produce excellent wood, especially the most esteemed mahogany and cedar, with many precious balsams. Some excellent gold is found in the mines, or rather lavaderos, of Santa Rita; but the pearl-fishery is almost abandoned. The following is the manner in which it is performed:—At the bottom of the sea are found numbers of pearls, and the oysters which contain them are exceedingly delicious. This fishery was formerly very beneficial to the inhabitants of all the islands in the bay; and there were few persons of property about Panama who did not employ a part of their slaves in it. The slaves thus employed must be expert swimmers, and capable of holding their breath a long time. During the season, eight, ten, or twenty, of them set out, under the command of an officer, in a boat, from the islands, where they have huts built for their lodgings, to such parts of the bay as are known to produce pearls, and where the depth of the water is not above ten, twelve, or fifteen, fathoms: here they come to an anchor, and the negroes, having a rope fastened round their bodies, and the other end to the side of the boat, take with them a small weight, to accelerate their sinking, and plunge into the water. On reaching the bottom, they take up an oyster, which they put under the left arm; the second they hold in their left hand, and the third in their right. With these three oysters, and sometimes another in their mouth, they rise to breathe, and put them in a bag. After a short rest, they dive a second time; and thus continue till they have either completed the task, or their strength fails them. Every one of these negro-divers is obliged daily to deliver to his master a certain number of pearls; so that when they have got a sufficient number of oysters in their bag, they begin to open them, and deliver the pearls to the officer, till they have made up the number due to their master; and, if the pearl be but formed, it is sufficient, without regard to its being small or faulty. The remainder, however large or beautiful, are the negroes' own property; nor has the master the least claim to them, the slaves being allowed to sell them to whom they please; though the master generally purchases them himself at a low price.

Besides the toil of this fishery, from the oysters adhering strongly to the rocks, the negroes are exposed to imminent danger from some kinds of fish, which either seize them, or run against them so violently, as to crush them against the bottom. Every negro, to defend himself against these animals, carries with him a sharp knife, with which the fish being struck, immediately flies off. The officers keep a watchful eye on these voracious creatures, and, on discovering them, shake the ropes fastened to the bodies of the negroes, that they may be upon their guard. Many, on the diver's being in danger, have thrown themselves into the water, with the like weapon, to assist in his defence: but all their dexterity and precaution have frequently been insufficient to protect the diver from being devoured by sharks, or losing a leg or an arm by their bite.

The following is an account of the expedition to Panama, made by the celebrated Buccaneer Captain Morgan.

"This enterprising genius, who was of a good family in Wales, set sail from Jamaica, on this expedition, with nine ships and sloops, well manned. Arriving on the coast of Terra Firma, he informed his people that his first design was against Porto Bello: some of them objecting that his force was too small to reduce so important a fortress, he boldly replied, 'If our numbers are small, our hearts are great; and the fewer we are, the greater will be our share of the plunder.' He soon made himself master of a castle which defended the harbour, and this capture was succeeded by the surrender of the city; but the governor, and many of the principal inhabitants, having retired into another castle with their treasure and effects, kept up a brisk fire on the Buccaneers. This occasioned Morgan to use the following stratagem. He seized all the friars and nuns in the town, and compelling them to march before him up to the very wall, he obliged them to fix the scaling ladders; in doing which many were killed by the fire of their friends, as well as enemies, crying for mercy in vain: at length the Buccaneers scaled the walls, took the place by storm, and afterwards employed fifteen days in removing the immense treasures on board his ship. He then obliged the governor to give up one hundred thousand pieces of eight, which had been carried off, in order to ransom the town from being laid in ruins.

"Having received intelligence that the governor of Panama was in full march against him, Morgan possessed himself of a difficult passage, and there totally defeated him. He then dismantled the forts, took some of the best artillery on board his ships, and returned to Jamaica, it being computed that the Buccaneers brought back with them two hundred and fifty thousand pieces of eight, besides other rich effects; but the seamen soon squandered every shilling that came to their share, and made money more plentiful in that island than ever it had been before.

"The captain, having gained great reputation by the Porto Bello expedition, the seamen crowded to be admitted to serve under him. Having assembled five hundred of them, he sailed to Tortuga, a little island near the northern coast of Cuba, where he was joined by two thousand additional seamen, whom he employed in hunting, and salting beef, in the island of St. Domingo, to victual his fleet; and being now ready to sail, he divided his fleet, consisting of thirty-seven ships, into two squadrons, constituting admirals and other officers, to whom

he gave commissions to commit hostilities against the Spaniards, declaring them enemies to the crown of England, and caused articles to be signed by his officers, wherein every man's share of the prizes which should be taken was specified, reserving an hundredth part of them only to himself.

"Their first enterprise was against the island of Providence, which they retook from the Spaniards; and while the fleet lay here, he sent Brodley, his vice-admiral, with four ships and four hundred men, to take the castle of Chagre, at the mouth of the river of that name, which they reduced, though it was very obstinately defended. Morgan received advice of the success of his squadron at Chagre, followed them with the rest of his fleet, and, leaving a garrison in the castle, selected one thousand two hundred men, with whom he marched over the isthmus towards Panama, and the country being destroyed before him, his men underwent incredible hardships, as well for want of provisions, as from the badness of the roads, which lay over rocks, mountains, and morasses, almost impassable; and at length was obliged to fight his way through an army, which the governor of Panama had assembled to oppose him. Ascending a mountain on the ninth day, they obtained a view of the South Sea, and the Bay of Panama, at which they were so overjoyed, that they seemed to despise all danger, threw up their caps, sounded their drums and trumpets, and shouted as if they had been already masters of the city, and halted in view of the town, designing to attack the place the next morning; but they were prevented by the governor's marching out against them at the head of four regiments of foot and two squadrons of horse, whom Morgan engaged, and defeated; when they fled, leaving six hundred of their men dead upon the field of battle, and the loss on the side of the Buccaneers was very considerable; however, they scaled the walls, and became masters of the place that day. Morgan, apprehending that his men would be so elated with success that they would get intoxicated, now they were come into plentiful quarters, gave out that all the wine was poisoned, and proceeded to place guards at all the avenues of the city, to secure his conquest, when on a sudden the whole city appeared in flames, having been set on fire in several places at the same instant, probably, to prevent the treasures from falling into the hands of the Buccaneers. The city continued burning several days, and very few houses were left standing. It was said that two thousand of the houses, inhabited by the principal people, were built with cedar; and that there were five thousand more belonging to the tradesmen, with several beautiful churches and monasteries, in the place before this accident, it being the magazine of all the treasures of Chili and Peru, which were annually deposited there, in order to be transported to various parts of Europe.

"The soldiers afterwards found great quantities of plate and money melted down among the ruins, and more hid in wells, or buried; and took two hundred thousand pieces of eight out of a ship that lay at anchor in the harbour.

"Morgan, having remained near a month at Panama, and collected the ransom which his prisoners had agreed to pay, loaded two hundred beasts with the treasure he had obtained, and returned to Venta de Cruz, where he put it into boats, and sent it down the River Chagre to the castle of that name; but the Buccaneers of the French and Dutch nations murmured that not more than two hundred pieces of eight fell to the share of each private man, and charged their admiral with concealing the most valuable part of the prizes; the foreigners, in consequence, left him, and sailed to the islands of Tortuga and St. Domingo, to join their countrymen; and Morgan, after he had blown up the castle of Chagre, and the fortifications about it, returned to Jamaica with the rest of his fleet."

Porto Bello is situated close to the sea, on the declivity of a mountain, which surrounds the harbour. This harbour is so large, deep, and safe, that Columbus gave it the name of Porto Bello, or Fine Harbour. The governor is always a military officer, subordinate to the president of Panama. The town is but thinly inhabited, owing to the insalubrity of the air, and contains not more than two hundred wooden houses. At the east end of the town there is a quarter called Guinea, where all the negroes and many of the mulattoes reside. The extinction of the galleons, after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, also contributed to ruin this, and most of the other towns in Terra Firma. In the year 1739, the gallant Admiral Vernon, with six ships only, took this place, demolished the forts, and dismantled the fortifications.

The circumjacent country is full of forests and mountains. One of the latter, named Capira, which is extremely high, serves as a barometer to the people; for, by the appearance of the clouds on its summit, they can prognosticate what weather will ensue, the changes of which are very sudden and frequent. The heat here is excessive, the torrents of rain impetuous, and the storms of thunder and lightning dreadful; so that not only the people die very fast, but the cattle brought from distant places soon lose their flesh.

In 1695, a Scotch company, having obtained from the English government permission to trade to Africa and the East and West Indies, planted a colony on the Isthmus of Darien, near the north-west point of the Gulf. Here a fortress was erected, called New Edinburgh, and the surrounding district was termed Caledonia. The Indian princes were pleased at this, as they thought, by the help of the Scotch, to expel the Spaniards. For some time the colony flourished; but at last the company was ruined,

by the jealousy of the English East-India Company, and the remonstrances of the court of Madrid.

The province of Carthagena produces some valuable gums, balms, and drugs, but no mines of gold or silver, nor any great quantity of corn or cattle. Carthagena, the metropolis, is not only a fine opulent city, but a strong fortress, situated on a sandy island. The harbour lies between the island and the main, and the entrance is at the south-east end; the other passage, called Bocchachica, having been filled up by an order from the court of Spain, since the attack made upon the town, in 1741, by Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth. To the eastward, the town has a communication, by means of a wooden bridge, with a large suburb, called Xexemani, built on another island, which is joined to the continent by a bridge of the same materials. The fortifications, both of the city and suburbs, are constructed in the modern fashion, and built with free-stone: and, in times of peace, the garrison consists of ten companies, besides the militia. The city and suburbs are well laid out, and the streets are broad, uniform, and well-paved. The houses are built of stone or brick, with balconies and lattices of wood, which is more durable in this climate than iron, the latter being sooner corroded by the acrimonious quality of the nitrous atmosphere. The city is populous, though most of the inhabitants are descendants of the Indian tribes; but it is by no means opulent, compared with many other cities in South-America, the country producing no mines. At a small distance from the suburb of Xexemani, on a hill, is a fort called Lazaro, commanding both the city and suburbs, and affording a very extensive and agreeable prospect over the sea and land.

The government of Carthagena was independent of any other till the year 1739, when the viceroy of New Grenada was appointed. It extends about fifty-three leagues from west to east, and eighty-five from south to north, containing several fruitful valleys, called, by the natives, savannahs, in which are many settlements of Europeans, Spanish Creoles, and Indians. The Bay of Carthagena is the first place in America at which the galleons touch. The climate is hot and unhealthy, and, among other diseases, the black vomit and leprosy are particularly fatal to Europeans. The Guinea-worm is very troublesome, as it occasions painful tumours in the muscles of the legs and thighs; and another insect, peculiar to this country and Peru, is still more dreadful; it is called *higue*, and, being extremely small, is scarce visible to the naked eye. It breeds in the dust, and insinuates itself into the soles of the feet, giving exquisite pain, and the puncture frequently attended with imminent danger.

The province of Santa Martha is two hundred miles long, and one hundred and forty broad, very mountainous; but produces gold, jewels, marble, salt, &c. The capital, of the same name, on a branch of the Rio Grande, is the see of a bishop, and residence of a governor.

Rio de la Hacha is a pleasant and fertile province. It has a pearl-fishery, and mines of jasper and chalcedony. The capital, which gives name to the province, contains nothing remarkable.

Inhabitants, &c.] Besides the Indians in this part of the country, who fall under the general description of Americans, there is another species, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions, too, are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moonlight, and from which they are, therefore, called Moon-eyed Indians.

It has already been mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants, therefore, do not materially differ from those of Mexico; but the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater part of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes; next to these are the tercerones, produced from a white and a mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites arise the quarterones, who, though still near the former, are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood; but the produce of these and the whites are the quinterones, who, it is said, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, except by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed, in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and, besides these, there are many others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves.

The inhabitants are differently dressed, according to the Spanish fashion. The men wear a cassock without folds, descending to the knees, a large cape, and sleeves open at both sides. It has button-holes, and two rows of buttons. The habits of the better sort are made of embroidered stuffs. Mechanics wear a blue stuff, of the manufacture of the country, but in make it differs not from the other. The Indians of distinction are singular in wearing a kind of trowsers of white cotton, which descend from the waist to the middle of the leg. The barbers here are distinguished by the fineness of their linen, and elegancy of their dress in general. They have shirts without sleeves; about the neck they wear a kind of black collar, with a lace of four fingers' breadth, which forms a sort of fringe that falls on the stomach and shoulders; and wear shoes, with gold or silver buckles, but no stockings.

The women wear the faldelin, a species of stays, or rather jumps; a shift, which descends only to the waist, a mantle, which encloses the upper part of the body, consisting of about an ell and a half of stuff; and their whole dress is ornamented with rich laces. The dress of the labouring women is not distinguishable from that of the ladies, except by its inferiority, the fashion being the same. A mongrel, or creole, is known by the superiority of his habit, and his ingenuity. The Indian peasant wears a mantle, and the common native Indian a piece of sackcloth, fastened over the shoulders by two pins.

SECTION II.

THE CARACCAS.

The government of the Caraccas is so denominated from the chief town, Leon de Caraccas; but was properly the indigenal appellation of a tribe in that quarter. Estalla says, that four districts were disjoined from Venezuela to constitute the new province of Varinas; namely Apuri, Meta, Nutrias, and San Jayme. The largest province was originally called Venezuela, or Little Venice, from a village of the savages in the Lake of Maracaibo; but the government now comprises the adjacent provinces of Varinas, Maracaibo, Cumana, including Spanish Guiana, and the Isle of Margarita. The government, in this extent, has existed since 1730, and the governor acknowledges no superior except the king. The province of Merida is merged in that of Varinas; and the name of New Andalusia has been properly exchanged for that of Spanish Guiana; while that part of Brazil which is to the north of the Oroonoko has assumed the name of Portuguese Guiana. The establishment of the Royal Audiency of the Caraccas, when the Spanish part of Hispaniola was resigned to the French, farther ascertained the clear jurisdiction and boundaries of the Caraccas.

In 1498, Columbus inspected that part of the coast called Paria, on the west of the strait called by him the Dragon's Mouth; but little progress was made in the settlement till Charles V. sold the country to the Welsers of Augsburg, who were dispossessed about the year 1550. The chief conqueror was Losado, who founded the city of Caraccas in 1567.

The following statement of the population of the Caraccas is given by Depons:

Venezuela, including Varinas, five hundred thousand; Maracaibo, one hundred thousand; Cumana, eighty thousand; Spanish Guiana, thirty-four thousand; and the Isle of Margarita, fourteen thousand: total, seven hundred and twenty-eight thousand souls.

Of this population, the whites form about two-tenths, the slaves three, the freed men or their descendants four, and the Indians the remainder. The Spaniards do not easily pass to the colonies, a permission from the king being required, which is commonly limited to two years; and Spain watches over the innocence of her colonies by requiring a certificate of good morals. Strangers encounter still greater difficulties; and, by a royal ordinance of the 3d of August, 1801, a considerable sum is required for their residence.

Lakes.] As the description of a country necessarily includes every thing that can tend to convey a just idea respecting it, we must not omit to notice the lakes, which are produced by a collection of rain-water, and by the reservoirs of rivers. Many of the first species are met with in the low lands, in the vicinity of the Oroonoko; the most magnificent of the second kind are those of Maracaibo and Valencia, which appear to merit a particular description.

The Lake of Maracaibo, according to Oviedo, is about fifty leagues in length, nearly thirty in its greatest breadth, and rather more than one hundred and fifty in circumference. It seems to have owed its formation to the slow and successive excavation produced in the land by the numerous rivers which flow into it from the east, the west, and the south. It is navigable for ships of the greatest burden; and, by means of the rivers which disembogue themselves into it, the town of Maracaibo is supplied with provisions of all kinds, either for its own consumption or for exportation. Storms seldom occur on this lake; but it is continually subject to a kind of undulatory motion, which appears to be in proportion to the action of the winds on its surface; and, during sudden squalls, canoes and other small vessels are frequently overset and lost. At such times only the water of the lake becomes brackish; for in general it is perfectly fresh and potable.

To the north-east of this lake, on the most sterile parts of its banks, near a place called Mena, there are several inexhaustible pits of mineral tar, which seem in all respects the same as the asphaltus of the ancients. This bituminous matter, mingled with fat, is employed for paying the sides of ships, and various other purposes. The exhalations which arise from these bituminous minerals so readily take fire in coming into contact with atmospheric air, that they throw out a pretty vivid light during the whole night. It has been remarked, that this phenomenon is more constant during great heats than when the weather is less sultry. These lights are styled by the inhabitants *the lantern of Maracaibo,* because they serve as a pharos to the Spaniards and Indians, who navigate this lake without a compass or instrument of any kind.

"The sterility, and still more the insalubrity, of the banks of this lake," says a modern geographer, "have hitherto prevented them from being inhabited. Even the Indians prefer living in a sort of floating huts upon the

lake itself, which they construct of a durable species of wood, similar to the iron-wood. According to the testimony of Oviedo, which is confirmed by that of the inhabitants themselves, every portion of this wood which is under the water becomes petrified in a very few years.

"The Spaniards, on finding many of these aquatic villages, constructed without order, but with a considerable degree of solidity, gave to them the name of Venezuela, which is the diminutive of Venice; an appellation that has since been transferred to the province. It was long supposed that these habitations had been constructed as a place of security against the wild animals with which the country abounded; but this is now discovered to be an error, as the Indians refuse to abandon them for others ashore, although every idea of danger from the approach of wild beasts is at an end.

"Since 1529, when Alfinger carried devastation and death among the peaceable inhabitants of the lake, these numerous villages have disappeared, except four, which are situated on its eastern extremity, at unequal distances from each other. They are named Lagunillas, Misou, Tumoporo, and Moporo. There is a church upon the water, in which a pastor performs service, and distributes spiritual aid to these aquatic Indians; but it is far from being a desirable situation, since seldom a few days elapse before his health begins to suffer; and scarcely a single instance can be recollected, in which the life of any of their clergymen was prolonged beyond six months.

"These Indians sometimes come ashore, in search of provisions; but their chief subsistence is on fish. They also find a considerable resource in the wild ducks, which abound on this lake, and which they take in a very singular and ingenious manner. For this purpose, they constantly allow empty calabashes to float on the lake around their habitations; in order that these birds, by being habituated to see them, may not be intimidated. When an Indian wishes to procure any of these fowls, he puts on his head a calabash, perforated so as to permit him to see without being seen. In this manner he goes into the lake, keeping always his head above the surface of the water, but taking care that no part of his body shall be visible; he proceeds thus swimming to the spot where the wild ducks are collected in the greatest number, then seizing them by the feet, he immediately drags them below the water, so that they have neither time to cry out, nor to make any motion that can warn the others of the impending danger. As fast as they are taken, he fastens them to his girdle; and never thinks of retiring till his wants be fully satisfied. Such a mode of entrapping these animals is attended with this advantage, that it does not frighten them, and may always be renewed at pleasure, and without expence. The fertility of the soil, on the west side of the lake, has induced a few Spaniards to brave the inclemency of the air, and raise a few plantations of cocoa and other provisions. In the centre of these scattered habitations stands a chapel, in which a pastor performs divine service, and administers the sacrament."

The Lake of Valencia is less extensive, but it displays a more pleasing aspect than that of Maracaibo: its shores are also more fertile, and the climate of a milder temperature. This lake is upwards of thirteen leagues in length, and about four in its greatest breadth. Its form is that of an oblong square. It is situated about a league from the town of Valencia, and in a valley hemmed in by mountains on all sides, except on the western, towards the interior of the country. It is about six leagues distant from the sea; and the intermediate space is occupied by almost inaccessible mountains. It is very difficult to conceive how this lake should have no visible outlet, while rivers flow into it in all directions; a circumstance which seems to prove that it is merely a basin. But how then, on this supposition, can we explain why it has remained of the same dimensions for a succession of ages? Can it be supposed that evaporation alone, however great it may be between the tropics, is equivalent to carry off the water which so many rivers pour into it? The supposition is altogether incongruous, when we consider the small extent of the lake's surface. "Hence," says M. Depons, "it should seem that there must be some subterraneous vent, by means of which a quantity of water, equal to that which is poured into it, continually escapes. This opinion, though only conjectural, is yet supported by such strong probabilities, as to give it every appearance of truth."

Face of the Country, Productions, &c.] While the line of mountains along the coast presents granite, and other barren rocks, with the singular circumstance of rivers that rise near the sea and flow inward; in the interior the cultivable soil of the plains, exposed to the solar heat, only presents pasturage for oxen, horses, and mules; and the vales are of all other parts the most fertile. The cacao, or chocolate-tree, which cannot withstand the rays of the sun, is protected by trees of taller growth. To this main article of cultivation, indigo was added in 1774, and cotton in 1782. The sugar-cane of Otaheite was tried in 1796, but is found of little advantage; as, though larger, the juice is not of equal strength. Tobacco forms another article of culture; but, with all these rich products, few planters are worth more than five thousand dollars a year.

No mines are explored in these provinces, except one of copper at Aroa, which is little worked: but a good revenue arises from cock-fighting, and from the monopoly of guarapo, an intoxicating liquor, made from the fermentation of coarse sugar and water, of universal use in the Caraccas, as the pulque is in New Spain. The papal

bulls form a lucrative branch; and the purchaser of two is entitled to double favour, and the repeated pardon of his sins! They are sold, according to the rank of the purchaser; and, if bought at an inferior price, are of no avail. They cost from fifteen dollars to a quarter of a dollar, and are printed on coarse paper, with the neccessary forms. Since 1779, tobacco had become a royal monopoly, and in 1802 the product was considerable.

Among the various species of fish found in the River Oroonoko, there are two, to which the Spaniards give the name of *curbinata* and *caraïbe*, highly deserving of notice, as they are not mentioned in any book of natural history. The first, which never exceeds two pounds in weight, is of an excellent flavour; but it is not so much as an article of subsistence that it is valued, as on account of two stones situated in its head, exactly in the place which is usually occupied by the brain. These stones, which are regarded as a specific in cases of retention of urine, sell for their weight in gold. The dose is three grains of this stone, well pulverized, mingled in a cupfull of water or wine: this is said to produce an instantaneous effect. These stones are of the shape of an almond, and resemble in colour mother-of-pearl. The second, which is smaller than the curbinata, attacks with great ferocity every animal, whether dead or alive, which falls within its reach. It even wounds the legs of any who may happen to proceed a short way into the river; and these injuries are supposed to be attended with serious consequences. The name caraïbe has been given to this fish on account of its ferocious habits. Caymans are numerous and dangerous in this great river. The cayman is of the lizard form, and from fifteen to eighteen feet in length. Its mouth, which is extremely large, is furnished with a double range of sharp teeth, a little separated from each other. Its eyes are prominent, and the animal usually keeps on a level with the surface of the water: it is thus enabled to view every object without being oberved in its turn. Its skin is covered with strong sharp scales, impenetrable by a musket-ball: it devours vast numbers of fishes, and is regarded with great terror by the inhabitants. The Indians eat its flesh, which is white, but of an insipid taste: it is caught by means of large iron hooks. Its teeth are employed by the Indians as an ornament for the neck and arms; they are also regarded as an antidote to certain poisons, and as an alexipharmic in general. The teeth, and other parts of its body, are exhibited in a pulverized state, in a dose of twelve grains of either the one or the other, or six grains of each, as an antispasmodic, and repeated according to the necessity of the case. A drop of the gall, insinuated into the inner angle of the eye, is regarded as a powerful remedy in cases of cataract and dimness of sight. It produces at first a sensation of heat, which soon, however, abates.

The guana is very common in the Oroonoko. It is of the lizard tribe, about two feet and a half long, and of a green colour; it is furnished with a row of sharp points along its back, like the cayman, which gives it a horrible aspect. It frequently remains on trees ashore, but retreats into the water on the slightest appearance of danger. The Indians, as well as the Spaniards, regard the flesh of this animal as equal to that of the finest chicken. The female lays nearly thirty eggs, about the size of a nut, which are of a yellow colour, and covered with a sort of membrane, instead of a shell: they are usually eaten roasted, in the same manner as the eggs of domestic fowls.

Another animal, which abounds in the Oroonoko and the neighbouring rivers, is termed, by the Indians, *chiquire*, and, by the Spaniards, *quardatinajas*. Its muzzle resembles that of a sheep; its skin is red, and the tail so short, as scarcely to be perceptible. These animals are eaten by the inhabitants on fast-days, from the idea that they partake more of the nature of fish than of land-animals. They always swim in shoals, and occasionally raise their heads above the water, in order to respire. They feed upon the herbs which grow on the banks of the lakes and rivers, and are regarded by the Indians as a delicious morsel.

The lapa, which is another amphibious animal, common to Spanish Guiana and most parts of the Caraccas, is called by the Indians *tamenu*. It is about the size of a terrier-dog; its hair is red, and variegated with whitish spots; its flesh is extemely tender, and resembles that of a sucking pig. It feeds upon the herbage and fruits growing on the banks of the rivers which it inhabits, but, on the least noise, retires to the waters. It is esteemed a great delicacy by the South-Americans. An animal, to which the Spaniards have given the appellation of *water-dog*, is also found in the Oroonoko. Its head is about the size of that of a common dog, and its ears are exactly similar to those of the beaver; its tail is long, and the fore-feet of the same shape as, but somewhat larger than, those of a fox; its hind-feet are flat and membranous, and the skin soft, and of a whitish colour. It inhabits holes, which it scoops out on the banks of rivers, from which, however, it frequently proceeds a considerable distance into the country. This animal does not live solely upon herbs and fruits, but devours a considerable number of fishes, which it catches with inconceivable dexterity.

A small amphibious animal, known by the name of the *liron*, is also frequently met with in the rivers and marshes of South-America. It is covered with thick soft white hair, with black bands, so disposed as greatly to add to the beauty of its appearance. Its head is small, like that of the dormouse, and is furnished with whiskers, like a cat. Its feet are membranous, and its tail prehensile,

and destitute of hair from the middle to the extremity. This animal is provided with a pouch under its belly, into which its young ones occasionally retire.

Principal Towns.] CARACCAS, the capital, is a considerable town, on the little river of Guayra. Its elevation of four hundred and sixty fathoms above the sea, cools the temperature, so that spring may be said to be perpetual. During winter, the thermometer of Fahrenheit marks from fifty-two to seventy-six degrees, and in summer, from sixty-nine to eighty-five degrees. It is built among the mountains of the great chain which runs along the sea from Coro to Cumana. The site is steep and irregular, from the northern heights to the river Guayra, which bounds the city on the south. Water is also amply supplied from three rivulets which join the Guayra. The streets are straight, paved, directed towards the four points of the compass, and at the usual distance of three hundred feet from each other. The principal square occupies the same extent. It is well paved, and is the general market; while the cathedral decorates the eastern side. There are five or six other churches, all accompanied with the usual squares. The houses are large and handsome, some of brick, but generally of masonry laid in monkis, after the Roman manner, as revived by Tardiff, in 1757, for constructions in marshes, the sea, &c. The houses built in this manner have all the appearance of stone: they are decorated with handsome mirrors, curtains of crimson damask, antique gilt chairs and sofas, gilded bedsteads, silk counterpanes, and pillows covered with fine muslin, adorned with lace. The archbishopric of Venezuela was erected in 1803, extending from the River Unari to Coro: on the east, it is bounded by Cumana; on the south, by the Oroonoko; on the west, by the bishopric of Merida: the income may be about sixty thousand dollars. Festivals and processions abound, as in all Spanish America. The theatre is miserable; the admission costs six-pence; and the declamation resembles the monotonous chaunt of a child of ten years, repeating a lesson. The other amusements are tennis and billiards. The population of this city, according to an enumeration made in 1802, is about forty-two thousand souls, of which the whites form about one quarter. Every white person regards himself as a noble, and a creole esteems nothing degrading except industry. The most industrious inhabitants are those from Biscay, Catalonia, and the Canaries. The women, though small, are of a beautiful complexion, with hair of a jet black. About two hundred unfortunate creatures draw from the vice of the evening a precarious sustenance, and are distinguished by a white petticoat and cloak, and a silk bonnet decorated with flowers. The university of Caraccas was founded in 1682, and improved in 1727. In 1802, the students amounted to four hundred and sixty-six. The Spanish phlegmatic character renders quarrels very rare. Silence reigns in the streets of Caraccas, and three or four thousand persons will issue from a church without making more noise than tortoises walking on the sand.

CUMANA is the most ancient town in the Caraccas, having been founded in 1520, on a sandy soil, about a league from the sea. Here is only one parish-church, which stands on the south-east side of the city, near to a dilapidated fort; but there are two convents, one of which belongs to the order of St. Dominic, and the other to that of St. Francis. The inhabitants are reckoned at twenty-four thousand; and their augmentation has been so rapid, that they have of late been forced to build on the left bank of the River Mansanares, to the west of the village Guayqueris. These new buildings already constitute a populous village, which communicates with the city by means of a bridge. To the first street the inhabitants gave the name of Emparan, in honour of the governor who contributed so much to promote their interest.

All the houses in Cumana are low, and superficially built. The frequent earthquakes which it has experienced for ten years have constrained the inhabitants to attend more to their personal safety, than to elegance and beauty, in the construction of their houses. The violent shocks which occurred during the month of December, 1797, overturned nearly all the houses built with stone, and rendered uninhabitable those which remained. The earthquake which was felt in the month of November, 1799, occasioned a variation of the needle of forty-five minutes.

MARACAIBO is the principal town in the province of that name, situated at the distance of six leagues from the sea, on a sandy spot, and in a hot and dry climate, chiefly felt from March to October; but in July and August the air seems to proceed from an oven. The only antidote is to bathe in the lake; and endemial disorders are unknown. The thunder-storms are terrible; and, if they fail, earthquakes are sure to follow. Most of the houses are meanly covered with reeds; and there is no water but that derived from the lake, which is healthy, though not pleasant, especially in March and April, when the strong breezes impregnate it with sea-spray. According to an enumeration in 1801, there were about twenty-two thousand inhabitants; and they were increased by the Spanish refugees from St. Domingo: the slaves do not exceed five thousand. The habit of sailing on the lake encourages the spirit of navigation, and many of the natives become seamen. Even in the dry savannas they contrive to feed numerous herds; and the youth are celebrated for intelligence and ingenuity; but many of the inhabitants are noted for want of probity. There is only one church, and a convent of Franciscans.

TRUXILLO was a flourishing town, till it was ravaged by the buccaneers in 1678; since which event the popu

lation has greatly declined, and Truxillo is chiefly noted for sweetmeats and confections made by the women. In 1787, the town of Varinas was detached from the government of Maracaibo, and chosen for the seat of a separate government. A militia was appointed for its defence in 1803. The tobacco of Varinas is highly celebrated, though not equal to that of some parts of Cumana; nevertheless, the opinion of its superiority is so prevalent, that every cargo of tobacco imported into Amsterdam or Hamburgh, under any other name than that of Varinas, is sold at twenty-five per cent. less, whatever may be its quality. The Spaniards, availing themselves of this prejudice, ship for the European market most of their tobacco, in whatever province it may have been raised, under this denomination. The town of Varinas has a population of ten thousand.

Porto Cavello has a commodious harbour, and the population may be seven thousand five hundred; but the situation is unhealthy, and extremely dangerous to the crews of foreign vessels.

Valencia contains about eight thousand inhabitants, and its advantageous situation may lead to great future advantages.

There are several other towns, which contain from four to eight thousand inhabitants: they are Tulmera, Victoria, Coro, Carora, Tocuyo, Guanara, Calaboso, Pao, and San Filippe.

San Filippe is a regular town, with about six thousand eight hundred inhabitants. Nirgua, built in the expectation of mines, has been abandoned to the Zambos, or offspring of negroes and Indians; a race so remarkable for crimes, that of ten which are committed, eight may be ascribed to them. This mixture is radically bad; while the children of a white by an Indian woman, who are of a pale complexion, are always delicate, lively, good-tempered, and docile.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The Spaniards in the Caraccas marry very early; the girls at twelve or thirteen, and the boys at fifteen. If not destined for the church, an unmarried youth of twenty is regarded as an old bachelor: this proceeds, in a great degree, from the authority of the parents being restricted; for a girl who wished to marry might demand her deliverance from their power; and a public assertion of a boy and girl, that they took each other for husband and wife, was considered as a legal marriage. This freedom probably arose from a wish to increase the population; but, by an ordinance of 1803, his catholic majesty has declared, that young men under twenty-five, and girls under twenty-three, cannot marry, without the consent of their father: and the penalty on the clergyman, who shall join such persons, is banishment and confiscation of goods. The old Spanish etiquet maintains its ascendancy in these provinces; and a religious spirit is so prevalent, that, in 1792, there were more than seventy Spanish lawyers in the city of Havannah. There are also such numerous retainers, that the annual law-expences incurred in the Audiency of the Caraccas have been computed at one million five hundred thousand dollars.

The Spanish Americans are more frequently engaged in processes before the different tribunals for some contested point respecting prerogative, than on account of mercantile and pecuniary concerns. They are passionately fond of attacking each other with the pen; and this disposition, which frequently terminates in the ruin of both parties, administers to the subsistence and rapacity of a set of lawyers, whose reputation augments in proportion to their talents at fomenting discord.

The laws of civility are supposed to be violated by an individual leaving his residence without intimating his departure to his friends and neighbours by a circular letter, which is answered by a personal visit, unless the families have been not only strangers but enemies. Visits are also paid by their friends and acquaintances to every new-married couple; and the same ceremony on the birth of each child, or after the recovery of any of the members of a family from a fit of sickness.

All the Spaniards receive their friends on the anniversary of their patron-saint; and a neglect to comply with this custom would be considered as a gross offence against the laws of good breeding. On entering a house, a Spaniard generally makes a noise, in order to warn the family of his approach, and waits for permission to enter. If any one were silently to enter the dwelling of another, it would be supposed he either meant to surprise them, when off their guard, or to listen to their discourse. The Spanish ladies always receive company seated on a sofa; and this custom is never deviated from, whatever may be the rank, age, sex, or intimacy, of the visitor. When they intend going abroad, they send in the morning a message, intimating this intention; and these visits are always paid between five and eight o'clock in the evening. Husbands seldom accompany their wives on such occasions: they go without any retinue, merely followed by two or three servants, in a black petticoat and a white veil. If you praise the sword, the cane, the watch, or even the house, of a Spaniard, he replies, with the most ridiculous grimace, "they are at your disposal!"

The dress on days of ceremony consists of a coat and breeches of taffety, satin, or velvet; the Spaniards never wear cloth, except they be in mourning, or when it is richly embroidered. The waistcoat is either of gold or silver stuff, or, at least, covered with embroidery: they wear a cocked hat: but their dress, after all, would be deemed incomplete, without the accompaniment of a gold or silver-hilted sword.

We must now turn our attention to the *Indians* of Terra Firma; and our observations on the natives of this division of South-America will apply, with little variation, to all the tribes in that part of the continent.

Very few physical or moral distinctions of character are discoverable among the different Indian tribes. The structure of body common to the whole of them is, a straight forehead, eyes of a middle size, long and soft black hair, a pointed nose, wide mouth, large visage, and the head very big: they are, in general, of a copper colour, which varies according to the temperature of the province they inhabit: their ordinary height is from four and a half to five feet; but a few tribes are from five and a half to six feet. They have very little beard; but it is not true, as some writers have affirmed, that they are wholly beardless. Their limbs are large and muscular, which would seem to indicate that they are extremely robust: this appearance is, however, deceitful, as they are wholly incapable of any labour which requires much strength or exertion.

Indolence, taciturnity, a paucity of ideas, and a strong propensity to falsehood, may be ranked among the characteristic traits of the South-American Indians. It has been justly observed, that those who live in the interior of the country are less cruel than the inhabitants of the coast.

There appeared to be among these tribes no other mode of terminating any differences that might arise, but by an appeal to arms. Vindictive and ferocious, their contests were carried on with a rage more resembling the fury of a wild animal than the valour of an honourable warrior. Deceit and treachery were ranked by them among the first of military virtues. Poisoned arrows were in general use; they murdered the prisoners taken in battle, and not unfrequently devoured them. From the poverty of the different tribes, the love of plunder never animated them to the attack; their object in going to war was to devastate rather than conquer, to destroy rather than possess. But, notwithstanding their thirst for blood, two Indian armies were never observed to meet on the open plains. In Terra Firma, the Caribbees, who inhabited the banks of the Oroonoko, alone openly attacked their enemies; hence they enjoyed a reputation which made them the terror of all the surrounding tribes. They owed to their courage the peaceable possession of a vast tract of country, on which no other nation durst attempt an establishment.

According to the creed of all the civilized Indians, and even of some of the Spaniards themselves, diseases were supposed to proceed from witchcraft. They even sometimes accused the physicians of this practice; but they never reproached them on that account, because, according to them, they only could counteract or destroy it.

It was an universal opinion among all the Indians of Terra Firma, that the soul, when emancipated from the body, could not exist without food. They mourned much at the funerals of their friends, and chaunted the exploits of the deceased. They sometimes interred their dead, but more frequently converted the body into a kind of mummy, by means of heat, and afterwards hung it up in their habitations. When they adopted the former mode, they uniformly buried provisions along with it. If the deceased belonged to a superior class, his friends regularly assembled, and celebrated his anniversary. These ceremonies were performed during the night. They disinterred the body, if it had been buried, and spent the whole night in dancing, drinking, and howling.

Such was the mental darkness of the Indians of Terra Firma, that it never entered into their minds to enquire into the cause of the wonderful harmony of Nature. Insensible to her benefits, they never offered her any homage; she never excited in their minds either admiration or gratitude. They resembled man in nothing but the figure; their organization indicated the most wretched degradation.

The Indians of the Oroonoko, who were not much less ignorant, believed, however, in an author of all things, to whom they addressed their prayers and adoration. Some tribes considered the sun as the supreme Being and the first cause: it was to him that they attributed the productions of the earth, scanty or copious rains, and all other temporal blessings; others, on the contrary, believed that every thing depended on the influence of the moon, and conceived, when she suffered an eclipse, that she was angry with them. When such a phenomenon occurred, these Indians practised the most ridiculous ceremonies, in order to prevent the chastisements with which they believed themselves to be menaced on account of their indolence and ingratitude. They played on warlike instruments, or took arms in their hands, to evince their valour, felled wood, or undertook other laborious exercises, to prove that they could not be charged with effeminacy, and punished for it, without injustice. The women left their huts, threw maize and other grains into the air, sending forth, at the same time, the most dolorous cries, promising to amend what was amiss in their conduct, and to be more laborious for the future. No sooner, however, was the eclipse over, than they congratulated each other on having averted the moon's wrath by specious promises; they afterwards gave themselves up to dancing, which terminated, like all their other festivals, in drinking and other acts of brutality. The Indians, who have not yet been subjugated, still preserve all these customs; and even several of the civilized tribes retain a few of them.

Some other tribes of Indians, who likewise dwelt upon the banks of the river Oroonoko, paid to toads the honours due to the divinity. Far from injuring these animals, they

carefully kept them under pots, in order to obtain rain or fine weather; and so fully persuaded were they of their power in this respect, that they scourged them as often as their prayers were not answered. The only religious rite performed by some other of these tribes, was that of dancing, to the sound of noisy instruments, before two small idols, to which they paid reverence by chanting extemporaneous couplets.

All the Indians seem to agree respecting the immortality of the soul, but they do not concur as to what becomes of it after death. Some are of opinion that the soul takes up its abode in the same fields which the individual, to whom it belonged, cultivated during life. Others suppose that it retires to certain lakes, and is swallowed by monstrous serpents, which transport it to a paradise, where its time is occupied in constant dancing and drinking. When an Indian slays a wild beast, he opens its mouth, and pours down its throat some intoxicating liquor, in order that its soul may inform others of a similar species, of the kind reception it received, and that they may be encouraged to come and share the same favour.

Drinking and indolence constitute the supreme felicity of the Indians. The most intoxicating liquors are considered as preferable to all others. Their women formerly prepared a species of vinous liquor from fruits, such as ananas, &c., which possessed very inebriating qualities; but since the introduction of tafia, and other similar liquors, it is seldom prepared. The Indians never leave their hammocks unless when imperious necessity forces them to go a hunting or fishing; on which occasions they take their measures so well, that, by a single day's exertion, they generally secure subsistence and repose for a whole week.

The Otomaques, who occupy the upper parts of the Oroonoko, constitute an exception to this rule; possessing greater intelligence and activity than the other Indians, they spent almost their whole time, before the entrance of the missionaries among them, in constant action and sport, except those moments which were dedicated to sleep and lamentations over the dead.

On the rising of the sun, all of them, who were capable of labour, repaired to their respective chiefs, who assigned to each individual his task for the day. In seed-time, and harvest, a certain number of persons also applied themselves to the labours of the field, the products of which were lodged in public granaries, and shared out by the chiefs.

Annually, on the decrease of the waters of the Oroonoko, which occurs during February, incredible numbers of turtle repair to the banks of that river to deposit their eggs in the sand, and remain till they are sufficiently grown to procure subsistence for themselves. At this period, all the Indian tribes, who live near the borders of the Oroonoko, resort with their families to the shores of that river, to lay in a supply of turtle, which, after drying, they store up for use; they also preserve the eggs, except those from which they extract an oil, that is no ways inferior to the best olive-oil. With these articles, independent of home-consumption, they carry on a considerable traffic with the Indians who live at a distance from the Oroonoko.

Marriage is established among all the Indian tribes throughout America. This institution is not considered by them as a religious rite; on the contrary, its sanctity is profaned by the universal practice of polygamy. But though there be no code prohibiting alliances between near relations, incestuous unions are never sanctioned by the form of marriage.

Fathers possess no control over the inclinations of their male children, but they exercise the most unlimited sway over those of the females of their family. They must implicitly submit to give their hand to the man of their parent's choice. Instead of giving a portion with his daughter, the father receives one from his son-in-law, who pays it under the form of labour, in game, fish, or other articles. Dancing and drinking constitute the whole ceremony of marriage.

On these occasions, the relatives of the bridegroom and bride are invited. The men bring along with them materials to build a hut for the young pair, and the females present them with fish, fruit, bread, and drink; the former chaunt couplets to the bridegroom, and the latter to the bride. As soon as it becomes dark, the young wife is presented to her husband, which concludes the ceremony. In order to render a female worthy of the hand of a chief, it is necessary she should be descended from a family distinguished by military exploits, or should have had one ancestor, at least, a great warrior.

Similar ceremonies prevail among all the tribes inhabiting the banks of the Oroonoko; they merely differ with respect to the kind of couplets chaunted by the old women to the bride.

The Otomaques are the only Indians who admit their women to participate in their diversions: among them, as elsewhere, the females are doomed to sustain the whole weight of domestic labour; but they are allowed occasionally to associate in the public amusements. This is also the only tribe among whom the practice of polygamy is not admitted. A singular custom prevails among these Otomaques, of always uniting a young man to an old woman, or a young woman to an old man: the reason assigned by them for establishing such alliances is, that the elder party is thus enabled to guide and instruct the younger. The other Indians marry as many wives as they please; but they are all, without distinction, equally oppressed, and equally unfortunate.

From the practice of polygamy, we may naturally infer

the frequency of divorces; and, in fact, a single word from a discontented husband is sufficient to effect a separation from a wife, who is, by this mean, condemned to perpetual infamy.

It has been asserted that jealousy cannot exist independently of love; notwithstanding, by a kind of fatality attached to the Indian women, the same man who never regards them with an eye of affection, punishes with the greatest severity their slightest infidelities. Among the Caribbees, adulterers are put to death by the people, in the public streets; but, among the greatest part of the other tribes, the husband himself takes vengeance upon the offending wife, and his vengeance is always commensurate to the offence.

From the manners of the Indians, we may readily conceive what kind of education they bestow upon their children; it is sufficient to have seen them as husbands, to be convinced how ill they must perform the duty of parents. From the tenderness they sometimes bestow upon their young children, they have been pronounced not wholly destitute of parental affection; but these demonstrations of kindness proceed from a different source. As soon as the children are able to procure sustenance for themselves, the father never thinks more of them, but to give them lessons of indolence, drunkenness, falsehood, and deceit. On the contrary, there are no children more unnatural than those of the Indians. Far from respecting the author of their being, they bear towards him the most implacable hatred, and frequently wait, with impatience, until their own increasing strength, and his weakness, enable them to lift their hand against his life; and this species of outrage is always committed with impunity. The Indian children bear not, however, the same hatred towards their mother: witnesses of her sufferings, and the companions of her unfortunate life, until they arrive at a state of adolescence, they feel for her sentiments of pity, which ripen into affection.

An Indian never believes himself in a proper costume, unless his whole body be covered with red paint. Even infants at the breast are bedaubed in the same manner, twice a day. It is a law of hospitality among these tribes, when a stranger arrives at their dwelling, to cause the women to remove the paint from their bodies, and apply it anew. On the occasion of any public festival, in addition to the red paint, they ornament the body with designs of different colours; and the men appear with plumes of feathers on their head, and bits of gold or silver suspended from the ears and nose.

Such were the men with whom the Spaniards found it necessary to dispute the possession of Terra Firma; and such, at this day, are those tribes who have still preserved their independence, notwithstanding the arms of the conquerors, and the religion of the missionaries.

SECTION III.

PERU.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, &c.] This viceroyalty is situated between the equator and twenty-five degrees of south latitude, and extends from sixty to seventy-five degrees of west longitude, being about fifteen hundred miles in length, and five hundred in breadth. It is bounded by Terra Firma, on the north; by the Andes, on the east; by Chili, on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the west. It is said, that the Spaniards who discovered it, meeting with one of the natives on the coast, and demanding what country it was, the Indian answered Peru, or Beru, that is, What do you say? The Spaniards, apprehending he understood them right, concluded the name of the country was Peru, by which it has been called from that time to the present. The northern division contains the province of Quito. The middle division that of Lima, or Los Royes; and the third division that of Los Charcos.

The limits of Peru were greatly restricted during the course of the last century; as, in 1718, the provinces of Quito in the north, as far as the river Tumbez, were annexed to the viceroyalty of New Grenada, which has an easy intercourse with Europe, by the harbour of Carthagena, and the intermediate station of Havannah; and in 1778, a number of opulent provinces in the south of Peru were allotted to the new viceroyalty of La Plata. Modern Peru, therefore, extends north and south from the river Tumbez to the chain of Vilcanota, being, by the computation of Estalla, two hundred and eighty-nine geographical leagues; but along the coast to the river Loa, the length may be four hundred and twenty-three leagues. The irregularity of its breadth offers a medium of about eighty leagues, so that the contents may be thirty-three thousand six hundred and thirty square leagues.

Seas, Bays, Rivers, &c.] The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, Ylo, and Arica. The rivers Granada, Oroonoko, and Amazon, or Plata, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight degrees of south latitude. There are some waters in this country which have such a petrifying quality, that, in their course, they cover whatever they pass over with stone; and there are springs of liquid matter, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

Soil and Climate.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one side the South-Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so hot as other tropical countries. The sky, too, which is generally cloudy, defends it from the direct rays of the sun; but, what is extremely singular, it never rains. This defect,

however, is sufficiently supplied by a gentle dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. Along the sea-coast is generally a dry barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

Minerals.] Peru contains mines of gold and silver, and one which produces quicksilver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this metal is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling brick ill burned. The substance is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses, by means of a little water, at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru, likewise, is found the new substance called *platina*, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and, from its superior qualities, may almost vie with gold itself.

Vegetable Productions.] A considerable article in the produce and commerce of this country is the Peruvian bark, better known by the name of Jesuit's bark. The tree which produces this drug grows chiefly in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced on the high and rocky grounds: the tree which bears it is about the size of a cherry-tree, and produces a kind of fruit resembling the almond; but it is only the bark which has those excellent qualities that render it useful in fevers, and other disorders. Cayenne pepper is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Arica, a district in the southern parts of Peru, whence they export it annually to the value of six hundred thousand crowns. Peru also produces the opuntia, or prickly pear, the fruit of which nourishes the cochineal, an insect which constitutes one of the most valuable articles of the commerce of this country. A very useful tree here is called *maguey*, which at once supplies a delicious drink, honey, vinegar, timber, hemp, and thread; the two last being made from the leaves, stalk, &c. Needles are made of the prickles, and the fruit is converted into a kind of soap. Rhubarb, tamarinds, sarsaparilla, dragon's blood, storax, guiacum, bananas, melons, &c. are other vegetable productions of Peru. Here are European corn and fruits in plenty, but the principal part of the bread is made of cassava-root: but most of that balsam which bears the name of Peru comes, in fact, from Mexico.

Animals.] The most remarkable animals of this country are the Peruvian sheep, called pacos or huancu. They are about the size of a stag, and resemble a camel. The body is covered with a coarse kind of wool: they are very tractable, and were formerly the only beasts of burden among the Indians. Their flesh is very palatable, as white as veal, and easy of digestion. Their height is from four feet to four and a half. They walk with wonderful gravity and majesty, and at so regular a pace, that no beating will make them alter it. At night it is impossible to make them move with their burden; they lie down till it is taken off, and then go to graze. Their common food is a sort of grass, somewhat like a rush, with which all the mountains are covered. These sheep eat little, and never drink; so that they are very easily kept. The Spaniards use them in the mines to carry the ore to the mills. The vicunas (another species of sheep) are shaped like the pacos, only they are smaller and lighter. The Spaniards call them Indian goats, because they resemble that animal. Their wool is very fine, and much valued; the bezoar stone, which is said to perform many great cures, is found in them. The lama has a small head, resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice. The flesh of the lama, however, is agreeable and wholesome, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of sixty or seventy pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The deer are much less than ours. They have not many wild beasts, and such as they have are neither very fierce nor dangerous. The cattle imported from Europe are much increased; and most of them run wild, and are hunted, like other game. The Peruvians have no tame fowl, except the nuana, which somewhat resembles the duck, but is considerably larger.

Antiquities.] The antiquities of Peru are deserving of notice. A high road is mentioned, said to pass for not less than four hundred leagues to the northern and southern provinces. The ruins of the temple of the Sun at Cuzco are formed of stones fifteen or sixteen feet square, and which, though of the most irregular shapes, are so exactly adjusted, that no void is perceivable. This is similar to the Pelasgian style of building, which is found in the most ancient monuments of Greece and Italy. Many ruins are also found of the edifices called *tambos*, where the Incas lodged when they travelled. Bouguer says that the walls are often of a kind of granite, and the joints very perfect; there are sometimes even moveable rings hewn out of the stone itself. Subterranean passages appear leading from the fortresses. The tombs, like those of other ancient nations, were barrows resembling natural hillocks; and in a space fenced off with stakes was placed the body, with various dresses, little images of gold, silver, copper, or clay, and various weapons and utensils: the treasures found in these tombs have some-

times been immense. In those of the women were found round mirrors, made of marcasite or compact pyrites, thence called the mirror of the Incas; and figures of quadrupeds, birds, and reptiles, have also been found, as in Egypt.

Government.] The authority of the viceroy extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has recently been detached from it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain. All officers are appointed, and places filled up, by him. For the security of his person he has two corps of guards, one of horse, and the other of halberdiers. The horse-guards consist of one hundred and sixty, under the command of a captain and lieutenant; and their uniforms are blue, laced with silver. The halberdiers, fifty in number, are clad in crimson velvet waistcoats, deeply laced with gold, and do duty in rooms leading to the royal audience-chamber. Besides these, there is another guard within the palace, of one hundred men, being a detachment from the garrison of Callao. All officers are occasionally employed in executing the orders of the viceroy, and enforcing the decrees of the tribunals, after they have received the royal assent, for such the concurrence of the viceroy is esteemed; who, besides assisting at the courts of justice and councils, gives daily audience to all ranks of persons. The supreme tribunal of Lima, called Audiencia, is held in the viceroy's palace, and consists of eight auditors, and a fiscal, for civil affairs. Here are also a chamber of accounts, a board of treasury, a court for the effects of persons dying intestate and without lawful heirs, a council of commerce, and a tribunal of the inquisition. The government of the viceroy is triennial, though at the expiration of that term the sovereign may renew his commission.

Cities and Towns.] LIMA, the capital of Peru, is situated in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley; and is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, may be said to command a stream. There are many magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and, besides, it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are very frequent all over this province. The population amounts to nearly sixty thousand inhabitants, of whom the whites constitute a sixth part.

All travellers unite in stating that the churches are profusely decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged, at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are here bartered for each other. What there is no immediate sale for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find a market for them; since, by one channel or other, they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. Some of the barks, or vessels, are made like double canoes, joined together with poles which pass cross-ways, and, being covered with a skin, serve the boatmen to sit upon. Others are constructed in the form of rafts, with a large sail made of matting, and a rudder at one end, near which there is a fire-place, or hearth, and a fire always alight. Between the two masts there is a kind of a cabin on the deck, and the masts themselves join at the top, and support not only the sail, but a little pennant.

The place of bridges is supplied by contrivances called *tarabites:* these are ropes, or thongs of leather, extended from one side of the river to the other, and fastened to piles of wood fixed in the earth. A hammock, with two loops, hangs to these, in which a man may lie at his ease. Those who attend on the side from whence he sets off, give him a push, which carries him into the middle with great velocity: from the middle, those on the opposite side pull the hammock by ropes fastened to it, and the person thus gets over in a few seconds. For the passage of horses or mules, there are two ropes, at a small distance from each other. The animal being tightly girded, is suspended upon a flat piece of wood, between the two ropes, to which he is fastened by grooves, and drawn over by ropes. Some beasts will go over very quietly, but others are forced to have their legs tied. In many places the tarabites are made of skins spread all the way over the river, for people to walk upon, who hold by a rope on each side, which secures them in the manner of a railing, and enables them to pass the unsteady bridge without any danger.

All the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen, them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of the city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete; not more than *one* of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable. This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived, in one minute, the inhabitants running from their houses, in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming

with the violence of the agitation, and buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom; immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, in which he threw himself, and was saved.

The public entrance of the viceroy is a solemnity the most splendid, in which the amazing pomp of Lima is particularly displayed. Nothing is seen but rich coaches, calashes, and other splendid equipages, in which the nobility carry their emulation to an astonishing height.

On the landing of the viceroy at Paita, two hundred and four leagues from Lima, he sends a person of distinction (generally some officer of his retinue) to Lima, with the character of an ambassador, and, by a memoir, informs his predecessor of his arrival, in conformity to his majesty's orders, who had been pleased to confer on him the government of that kingdom. On this ambassador reaching Lima, the late viceroy sends a messenger to compliment him on his safe arrival; and, on dismissing the ambassador, presents him with some jewel of considerable value, and a jurisdiction or two, which happen at that time to be vacant, together with an indulgence of officiating by deputy, if most agreeable to him. The corregidor of Piura receives the new viceroy at Paita, and provides litters, mules, and every other necessary, for him and his retinue, as far as the next jurisdiction. He also orders booths to be built at the halting-places in the deserts; attends him in person, and defrays all the expences, till relieved by the next corregidor. Being at length arrived at Lima, the viceroy proceeds, as it were, incognito, through the city to Callao, about two leagues and a half distant. In this place he is received and acknowledged by one of the ordinary alcades of Lima, appointed for that purpose, and also by the military officers. He is lodged in the viceroy's palace, which, on this occasion, is adorned with astonishing magnificence. The next day all the courts, secular and ecclesiastical, wait on him from Lima, and he receives them under a canopy.

The second day after his arrival at Callao, he goes in a magnificent equipage, provided for him by the city, to the chapel de la Legua, so called from its being about half-way between Callao and Lima, where he is met by the late viceroy, and, both alighting from their coaches, the latter delivers to him a truncheon, as the ensign of the government of the kingdom. After this, and the usual compliments, they separate.

If the new viceroy intend to make his public entry into Lima in a few days, he returns to Callao, where he stays till the day appointed; but, as a longer space is generally allowed for the preparations necessary to such a ceremony, he continues his journey to Lima, and takes up his residence in his palace; the fitting up of which, on this occasion, is committed to the junior auditor and the ordinary alcade.

On the day of public entry, the streets are cleaned, and hung with tapestry; and magnificent triumphal arches are erected at proper distances. At two in the afternoon, the viceroy goes privately to the church belonging to the monastery of Montserrat, which is separated by an arch and a gate from the street, where the cavalcade is to begin. As soon as all who are to assist in the procession are assembled, the viceroy and his retinue mount on horses, provided by the city for this ceremony, and, the gates being thrown open, the procession begins in the following order:—

The militia; the colleges, the university, with the professors in their proper habits; the chamber of accompts; the audiencia, on horses with trappings; the magistracy, in crimson velvet robes, lined with brocade of the same colour, and a particular kind of caps on their heads, a dress only used on this occasion. Some members of the corporation, who walk on foot, support the canopy over the viceroy; and the two ordinary alcades, who are in the same dress, and walk in the procession, act as equerries, holding the bridle of his horse.

This procession is of considerable length, the viceroy passing through several streets till he comes to the great square, in which the whole company draw up facing the cathedral, where he alights, and is received by the archbishop and chapter. *Te Deum* is then sung, and the officers are placed in their respective seats; after which the viceroy again mounts his horse, and proceeds to the palace-gate, where he is received by the audiencia, and conducted to an apartment, in which a splendid collation is provided, as are also others for the nobility, in the antichambers.

The next morning the viceroy returns to the cathedral in his coach, with the retinue and pomp usual in public ceremonies. He is preceded by the whole troop of horse-guards, the members of the several tribunals, in their coaches; and after them the viceroy himself, with his family, the company of halberdiers bringing up the rear. On this occasion all the ornaments of the church are displayed; the archbishop celebrates, in his pontifical robes, the mass of thanksgiving; and the sermon is preached by one of the best orators of the chapel. From hence the viceroy returns to the palace, attended by all the nobility, who omit nothing to make a splendid figure on the occasion. In the evening of this, and the two following days, the collations are repeated. And, to increase the festivity, all women of credit have free access to the halls, galleries, and gardens, of the palace, where they are fond of shewing the dispositions of their genius, either by the vivacity of their repartees, or their spirited conversations.

This ceremony is succeeded by bull-feasts, at the city's

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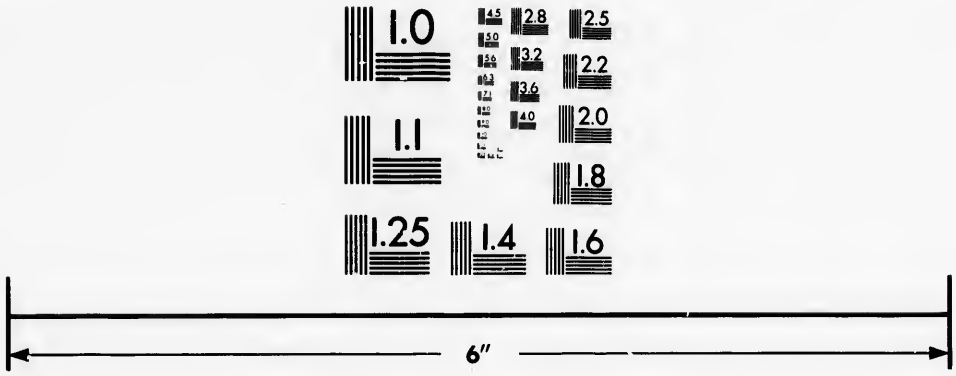

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expence, which continue five days; the three first for the viceroy, and the two latter in compliment to the ambassador, who brought advice of his arrival, and the great honour conferred on him by the sovereign in the government of this viceroyalty.

This ambassador, who is always a person of eminence, makes a public entrance into Lima, on horseback, on the day of his arrival; and the nobility, being informed of his approach, go out to receive and conduct him to the palace, whence they carry him to the lodgings prepared for his reception.

Cuzco, the capital of the empire of Peru, before the arrival of the Spaniards, and the seat of the incas, is situated about three hundred and twenty-six miles to the east of Lima. It was then very large, magnificent, and populous. Here stood the famous temple of the Sun, which was called Curiachanci, and contained immense riches. The Incas resided in a part of the citadel, the walls of which were incrusted with gold and silver, and the whole fortress was built of stones, so large that several oxen could hardly draw one of them. It is still a considerable town, containing great numbers of Spaniards, Creoles, and Indians. The air is pure and wholesome, and the neighbouring country very fertile and pleasant. Here are some manufactures of baize and cotton cloth, and also of leather; and in the adjacent countries are gold and silver mines.

Truxillo, two hundred and fifty miles north-west of Lima, contains only low houses, on account of the frequent earthquakes. Guamchaco is its port, and the inhabitants carry on a great trade in wine, brandy, flax, marmalade, and particularly sugar, as they cultivate abundance of sugar-canes in the neighbourhood. In 1686, Truxillo was fortified against the Buccaneers, constituting, with Lima, the only two fortified cities in the viceroyalty.

Potosi, so famous on account of the rich silver-mines in its vicinity, is nearly two leagues in circumference, and consequently the largest town in Peru. The Spaniards and Creoles here are possessed of immense riches. All their clothes are of gold and silver stuffs, and their plates and culinary utensils of silver; which is not to be wondered at in a country where that metal is as common as copper and iron are elsewhere. They have great frosts and snows here in May, June, and July; and the neighbouring country is barren and uncouth, especially in the mountains that contain the mines. The town, however, is well provided with every necessary, some provinces sending the best of their grain and fruit, others their cattle, and others their manufactures. Those who trade in European commodities resort to Potosi, as to a market where they are sure of converting their merchandise into silver. Another species of commerce, carried on by a set of people called Aviadores, consists in exchanging coins, towards paying the necessary expences of the workmen, for ingots and pinnos.

It is said, that the discovery of the silver mines in this neighbourhood was owing to the following accident:—"Hualpa, an Indian, pursuing some wild goats, came to a steep place, and seizing a shrub to aid his ascent, it gave way, when he beheld a mass of silver beneath the roots. He hastened home with the first fruits of his discovery, washed the silver, and made use of it; repairing, when his stock was exhausted, to the mountain for a new supply. In the course of time, an intimate friend observing the extraordinary change in his circumstances, was desirous of knowing the cause, and, urging him closely, obtained an ample discovery of the secret. For some time they maintained a kind of partnership; but Hualpa, refusing to disclose his method of purifying the metal, so offended his comrade, that he immediately revealed the whole to his master, a Spaniard, who resided at Porco." The famous mountain of Potosi may be said to consist of one mass of silver, which the avarice and labours of more than three hundred years have by no means exhausted. The coinage of Potosi is about four millions of dollars a year.

Besides the silver-mines near Potosi, there are many others in the audiency; and at a small distance from the town are hot medicinal baths, to which, as in other countries, some resort for health, and others for diversion.

La Paz is a considerable town, situated near the source of a river, about two hundred and twenty miles from La Plata, to the north-west. The mountains of the adjacent country abound in gold, and the plains and valleys in grain, fruit-trees, and fields of maize. About thirty miles to the north-west of this town lies the lake of Titicaca, which is eighty miles in circumference, and has a communication with the lake of Paria.

Quito, the capital of the province of that name, is seated in a pleasant valley, between two chains of high mountains. It is about a mile in length, and three-quarters of a mile in breadth, and is an episcopal see. There are several religious communities, and two colleges, which are a sort of universities, under the direction of the Dominicans. It contains about thirty-five thousand inhabitants, of which one-third are original Spaniards. All sorts of merchandise and commodities are exceeding dear, chiefly on account of the difficulty of bringing them thither. It is the seat of the treasurer of the kingdom. The Creoles of Quito are docile, humane, courteous, liberal, hospitable, and of considerable capacity. Even the Indians are celebrated for their skill in painting and sculpture. The temperature being uniform, the same clothing is worn throughout the year; but this advantage is balanced by the frequent earthquakes: that of 1775 was very destructive.

The high plain to the south of this city, crowned with

numerous volcanos, and the high mountain of Catopaxi, has been frequently described as a terrestrial paradise. But on the 4th of February, 1797, a quarter before eight o'clock in the morning, the most terrible earthquake commenced that had been known since the conquest. At Quito little damage was sustained, but the subterraneous thunder, and the shocks repeated every six hours, occasioned unceasing horrors and dismay. On the 5th, in the evening, it was known that Latacunga, and all the adjacent hamlets, were utterly destroyed, not one stone remaining upon another. Many persons perished, and the stench of the dead bodies infected the survivors. Near Ambato many mountains split, and by their sudden fall occasioned still greater destruction among the human race. Quero, with all its inhabitants, were buried, in one instant, by a cliff which fell on the town. Pelileo was overwhelmed by a stream of water and mud; the circumjacent lands were all transposed; and a deadly silence marked the general ruin.

The elegant town of Riobamba became one heap of ruins and desolation, and soon totally disappeared; for the peak of Sicalpa falling on the town, and stopping the two rivers which pass by it, formed a lake, so that even the ruins were not visible. Of nine thousand inhabitants, only about four hundred escaped destruction.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spanish dominions. Pride and indolence are the two predominant passions. It is said, by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinction, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true-born Castilian could not think of but with detestation. This, no doubt, in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies; mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima, the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents, and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce.

The Peruvians possess a quickness of wit, and strength of judgment. Such of them as have had the advantage of masters, since the arrival of the Spaniards, have generally made an extraordinary proficiency. When the Spaniards first appeared among them, they acknowledged one Almighty Being, maker of heaven and earth, whom they called *Pacha Camac*, or The Soul of the Universe. The next object of adoration was the sun; the priests of which, who officiated at Cuzco, were of the blood-royal. Besides their festivals, celebrated every month, they had four other grand ones, the principal of which was celebrated in June, in honour of their first Inca, Mango Capac.

The meanest of the Europeans assume a degree of pomp, as soon as they find themselves transported among the Indians, blacks, mulattoes, mestizoes, &c. Any good or generous actions, performed by them, are the effects of their vanity and imaginary nobility. The Creoles bear a great antipathy to the native Spaniards, of which one reason is supposed to be, because they see those strangers in possession of the prime places of the state. In their outward behaviour they affect great gravity, like the European Spaniards, to whom they are not inferior in wit and genius, acuteness, and understanding, but less active and hardy. Effeminacy and sloth seem to be peculiar to the inhabitants of this country; for it is observed, that those who have been bred to labour in Spain, grow idle here in a short time, like the Creoles. They are sober as to wine, but eat a great deal, and in an indecent manner, sometimes all out of the same dish, and without forks.

The Creoles freely sacrifice to their passions. Illegitimate are as much regarded here as lawful children, provided they are owned by the father, and there is no disgrace inherent to that birth. The Creole females, though not under the restrictions of the Spanish women, seldom go abroad in the day-time; but at night they pursue their pleasures with great freedom, and are fond of intriguing, though they usually conduct their gallantries under the shade of their veils.

History.] The empire of the Incas is supposed to have lasted between three and four hundred years. There were seventeen of these sovereigns:—*Manco*, the first Inca, is supposed to have reigned in the twelfth century: he declared himself and his sister, Oello, children of the sun, and married her; and, after many laws and institutes to reclair a savage race, received from his people the title of *Capac*, or *rich in virtue*. He founded the temple of the Sun at Cuzco, the capital of his empire, and appointed virgins of the royal blood to serve that divinity. *Sayri Tupac*, the last of the Incas, resigned the sovereignty to Philip II. of Spain, and died a Christian, leaving only one daughter, who married Onez de Loyola, a Spanish knight, from whom have descended the marquisses of Orepesa and Alcanises.

The monarchy of the Incas extended from the river Tumbez in three and a half degrees, (not to speak of the subjection of Quito,) to the river Mauli in Chili, in thirty-five degrees, that is, nearly one thousand nine hundred geographical miles, while the Mexican princes only ruled a country of about one third of the extent. The comparative magnificence of the Peruvian monarchs is not, therefore, a matter of surprise. The Peruvians were also far above the Mexicans in civilization. The former had advanced beyond the latter in the necessary arts of life. Manures and irrigation were known to them. Their edifices were sometimes of bricks hardened in the sun: but others were

constructed of large stones, the walls, however, never exceeding twelve feet in height. Their weapons and ornaments also displayed a great degree of skill, and they were expert in cutting and piercing emeralds: nevertheless superstition led them to sacrifice numerous victims on the death of a chief; and a favourite monarch was sometimes followed to the tomb by a thousand servants intended for slaughter. At present, however, it is impossible to discover in the manners of the Peruvian natives any marks of their ancient advancement.

The language of the Peruvians was called the Quechua, and it is still cultivated by the Spanish clergy, who consider it indispensable in the conversion of the natives.

SECTION IV.

LA PLATA, OR BUENOS AYRES.

This viceroyalty was erected in the year 1778, and is not only the most important of all the divisions, but that by which the chief opulence of the Spanish dominions in South-America passes to the parent country, and is interwoven with the commerce and interests of Europe. Including the savage Chiquitos and Mojos, in the north, and extending to the southern limits of Tuyu and the plains called the Pampas, its length from the chain of Vilcanota to near the river Negro may be twenty-four degrees, or one thousand six hundred and sixty-eight British miles. The breadth, which is pretty equal, may be estimated at twelve degrees, or eight hundred and thirty-four British miles. Estalla computes the extent at one thousand American leagues, but includes Chili in a vague manner, and the greatest breadth at three hundred and fifty, forming a triangle of one thousand leagues in height, on a base of three hundred and fifty, equal to one hundred and seventy-five thousand square leagues; which might, he adds, support fifty millions of persons, while it in fact contains scarcely one million of civilized inhabitants, and a few hordes of savages.

Provinces.] Before the erection of this viceroyalty, most of the jurisdiction belonged to that of Peru, although the three provinces of Buenos Ayres, Paraguay, and Tucuman, were considered as *Capitanias Generales*, that is, the governors had an authority independent of the viceroys of Peru, except in instances of great importance and difficulty. The part of Peru now annexed to La Plata, was divided into several provinces or districts; and the missions of the Chiquitos, Mojos, and Guaranis, formed three distinct governments. When this new viceroyalty was proclaimed, the form of government remained the same, the title alone being changed. The ordinance of his Catholic majesty, for the subdivision of the viceroyalty, was issued in 1782, and appointed nine Intendencies. But, in a geographical description, an account of the *principal* provinces will be the clearest method

The province of Buenos Ayres, in the lower part of the viceroyalty, comprehends three other cities besides the capital, namely, Monte-Video, Corrientes, and Santa Fé. The chief products of this province are oxen and mules. Cordova is celebrated for woollen manufactories, being seated on the eastern side of a grand branch of the Andes. The rivers in these parts are mostly torrents, which swell with the rains, but at other times they are left nearly dry. Several are lost in lakes and marshes, in the wide plains of Chaco.

The name of Tucuman has become obsolete, and that town is now in the intendency of Salta. The province of Cuyo lies amidst the mountains which extend from the great chain towards Cordova, but there are many fertile valleys: being separated from Chili by the Andes, the administration is annexed to that of Cordova. Cuyo produces, in great abundance, grapes, figs, pears, apples, and most kinds of European fruits, which form the chief articles of its trade. Wines, brandy, and dried fruits, are also carried to Buenos Ayres, Cordova, and other parts. The wines differ considerably from those of Europe, but are preferred for daily use. Mendoza and San Juan de la Frontera are said to have exported, in one year, more than twenty thousand barrels of wine, which produced two hundred thousand dollars, besides brandy. The mountains of Cuyo and Rioja also abound in metals; but the passes being more difficult than that of Mendoza, there is no inducement to work them. There are many flocks of vicunas in the northern part of the same chain, whose wool is sometimes used in the country, but it is chiefly sent to Europe, where it is celebrated as the best for making broad cloths, uniting the gloss of silk with the firmness and warmth of wool; while the native fawn-colour can scarcely be exceeded in beauty.

The villages of the Guaranis, which compose a government called that of the Missions, amount to thirty, from the river Tebiqueri, in Paraguay, to the frontiers of Buenos Ayres, being mostly to the east of the river Parana; the eastern borders of the Guaranis extend along Brasil, while on the west they border on Paraguay, Corrientes, and Santa Fé:

Although the fertile province of Paraguay produces none of the precious metals, it is one of the most opulent in the new viceroyalty, from its vegetable productions, and from the prodigious herds of horses, mules, cattle, and sheep, which cover its extensive plains. The northern parts of Paraguay have, however, been little explored, as the settlements of the Jesuits were chiefly in the southern skirts, and among the adjacent Abipons and Guaranis.

Paraguay produces cotton in great quantities, and the

valuable drug called by the name of the country. This is an excellent emetic, and of itself might form a considerable article of commerce. There is a variety of fruit, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that, it is said, the hides of the beasts are all that is really bought, the carcases being, in a manner, given into the bargain. A horse, some years ago, might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price of a bullock, chosen out of the herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary, to the general nature of America, the country is destitute of woods.

The whole of this province abounds with bees, which make their hives in the hollow trees. There are ten different species of these useful insects. The most esteemed, for the whiteness of its wax, and the delicacy of its honey, is called *opemus*, but this is very scarce. The cotton-tree is a native of this country. The Spaniards sow and use hemp in large quantities.

Venomous herbs, with which some Indians poison their arrows, abound here; but the antidotes are no less common.

Here are vast numbers of all kinds of serpents, and the rattle-snake, in particular, is a very formidable creature. This reptile suffers greatly when its gums are too much distended with venom; to get rid of which, it falls upon every thing in its way, with two crooked fangs, terminating in a point; and, by means of a hollow in these fangs, pours into the wound it makes all the venomous matter which tormented it. The effects of the bite are sudden, and the consequences dreadful, unless antidotes are speedily applied. The chief antidote is a stone, to which they have given the name of St. Paul Bezoar, and a poultice of chewed garlick. The surest method, however, is to make an incision directly in the part that has been stung, and then apply brimstone to it; it is even said that this drug alone has been frequently found to make a perfect cure.

Bays, Lakes, &c.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of the bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Casacoroes, is one hundred miles long.

Rivers.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paraguay, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

Manners, Customs, &c.] The natives of this country are, in general, of a moderate stature, and well made. They have flat round faces, olive complexions, and long black hair. Their garments were formerly the skins of beasts, but now, in most things, they conform in dress to the Spanish fashions. Previous to their embracing Christianity, they worshipped the sun, moon, stars, thunder, lightning, groves, rivers, animals, &c. The women are allowed to propose matches, as well as the men. When an Indian woman wishes to be united to a man, she acquaints one of the missionaries with it, who immediately sends for the young man: if he does not like her, the priest persuades the woman to overcome her passion; but, on the contrary, if the man be inclined to return her affection, the priest immediately marries them, and gives his blessing. The wives of the petty princes wear a kind of triple crown, made of straw, and their lords hang doe-skins over their shoulders. The boys and girls go entirely naked. They wrap up their infants, as soon as born, in a tiger's skin, and give them the breast for a little while, and then a piece of half-raw meat to suck. Their beds are the hides of oxen, or tigers, spread on the ground; but people of rank use hammocks of net-work.

The uncultivated inhabitants of Paraguay, especially the Chaconese and the Guaranis, are of an extraordinary stature; and there have been found men among them near seven feet high. Their features differ greatly from those of the inhabitants of Europe; and the colours with which they paint themselves give them a terrifying aspect. Most of the men go naked, except a parcel of feathers, of different colours, hanging to a string about the waist. But at their public solemnities they wear caps, made of the same feathers. In very cold weather they wrap themselves up in a kind of cap and cloak, made of skins, adorned with figures. Among some tribes, the women are not better covered than the men. The bad qualities common to all these people are, ferocity, inconstancy, perfidy, and drunkenness. There is, properly speaking, no form of government among them. Every town, indeed, has its cacique; but these chiefs have no authority, but in proportion to the esteem they have acquired. Many of them do nothing but rove from place to place with their furniture, which consists of a mat, a hammock, and a calabash. The cabins of those who live in towns are no better than wretched hovels, made with branches of trees, and covered with straw, or rather grass. Those who live nearest to Tucuman are better lodged and clothed.

Their favourite beverage is chica. They assemble to drink it, and to dance and sing; and in these exercises they persist till they are all intoxicated. They then quarrel, and from words soon proceed to blows; so that their merry-makings seldom terminate without bloodshed. These exercises are almost peculiar to the men. The women generally withdraw the moment they perceive the men to be inebriated, and carry off with them all the weapons they can lay their hands on.

Their arms are bows, arrows, and lances, which they use with equal strength and dexterity. They fasten a rope to the latter, by which they can, as the end is barbed, draw the wounded person to them. Besides sawing the necks of their prisoners with the jaw-bone of a fish, they scalp them, and preserve the scalps as tokens of victory. They are admirable horsemen, and tame and manage wild horses with great address, which has made the Spaniards repent ever having stocked the country with those useful animals.

The Chaconese women have a custom of pricking their faces, breasts, and arms, in order to mark them. They are strong and robust, and bathe themselves and their children immediately after delivery. They are very jealous of their husbands, yet entertain but little affection for their offspring.

These people usually bury their dead on the spot where they expire; plant a javelin, and the skull of an enemy, (if they can get one,) over the grave; and then remove to a distance from the place.

When the Spaniards first arrived in this country, the people lived in populous towns, and were governed by caciques, who were hereditary, and independent of each other. But if the succession failed, the election of a new cacique usually fell upon one famed either for his valour or eloquence. At the death of a cacique, it was lawful for one of his brothers to marry the widow; but this seldom happened. In general, these Indians did not approve of such marriages between near relations; and the men among them, who have embraced the Christian religion, never marry any of their relations, even within those degrees with which the church dispenses.

A number of forms and customs, some ridiculous, and others barbarous, were observed amongst them. The ceremonies they observed in giving names to their new-born children, will best serve to give a just idea of the savageness of this nation. Thinking it unlawful to perform the ceremony without the death of a prisoner of war, they deferred it till they could take one. After entertaining him plentifully for several days, they cut his throat, on the day appointed for that purpose, with great solemnity. As soon as he was dead, every one touched his body, or struck it with a stick; and during this operation they gave names to all the children that had not as yet received any. This done, the body was cut up, and every family took home a piece of it to make into broth, of which every one took a mouthful, not excepting children at the breast, whom their mothers took care to make partakers of this dreadful repast.

Their manner of receiving persons returning from a long journey, was very singular. The traveller, on entering his cabin, immediately seated himself, without uttering a syllable; and the next moment the women began to walk round him, observing the same silence all the time, till at last they suddenly burst out into exclamations, which were followed by a long relation of all the disagreeable events that had happened in his family during his absence. The men, covering their faces, repeated the same things in a low tone of voice. This ceremony lasted a longer or shorter time, in proportion to the esteem they had for the traveller. At last they all congratulated him on his happy arrival, and entertained him in the best manner they were able.

Previous to marriage, the intended bride was placed under the care of a woman appointed for that purpose, for the space of eight days. It was the business of the latter, during the whole time, to make the former work hard, to teaze and thwart her, and in fine not permit her to have any peace. If she went patiently through this severe trial, her hair was cut off, and she was declared marriageable. Physicians and fortune-tellers were formerly in great repute here. They were, however, only jugglers, pretending to prophecy from the singing of birds, and to cure diseases by sucking the part affected.

Cities, &c.] BUENOS AYRES was founded by the Spaniards in 1515, and received its name from the excellence of the air on the south side of the river La Plata. This is one of the most considerable cities in South-America, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spanish America; two, or at most three, register-ships, make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns, however, are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now chiefly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brazil as lie near this country.

Buenos Ayres, by the latest observations, is situated in thirty-four degrees forty-six minutes of south latitude, and in fifty-two degrees sixteen minutes of west longitude, from the royal observatory at Cadiz. The streets are broad and straight, but they are rather incommodious in the rainy season, having little or no declivity, while, during drought, the dust is rather troublesome. As stone is rare, the houses are built of brick, the lime being procured from banks of shells; nor is there any edifice that deserves the epithet of magnificent: but the agreeable regularity of the buildings gives it the air of an English city. The houses of the rich have generally a vestibule, and a court surrounded by the apartments. The cathedral is in the square, being a new structure on the site of the former, which became ruinous in the middle of the last century. The

present has three naves, besides several chapels; in 1798, it had cost half a million of dollars, and would cost as much more to complete it, which is probably now accomplished.

The population of this city, which is rapidly augmenting, is supposed to be about forty thousand souls, of whom the Spaniards compose one half, the other half consisting of negroes, mulattoes, and some few Indians, who come from other parts. Of those called Spaniards, some are creoles, born in the country of white parents; and all are chiefly employed in commerce, the arts, and agriculture, while the people of colour are mostly servants. The merchants form a great part of the population, and the greater number are not natives. From Spain, and particularly from Cadiz, are imported most of the necessaries, as silks, woollens, cotton, linens, hats, &c. They are debarked at Monte-Video, and carried in boats to Buenos Ayres, whence they may pass to any part of the viceroyalty, paying four per cent. on the sale, if carried to the frontier provinces, and six per cent. in other cases. The merchants are esteemed men of character and good credit. The introduction of money into Peru is prohibited. But if Buenos Ayres were not the capital of the viceroyalty, and at present the grand mart of Peruvian commerce, its trade would be inconsiderable. The prodigious number of mules bred in the interior provinces of Cordova and Salta, is of great importance, as they are indispensably necessary in Peru, where many thousands are annually sold.

In manners and accent, the inhabitants greatly resemble the Andalusians. Though all are ambitious to shine, and the means of acquiring riches are more abundant than in Lima or Mexico, there is neither perceivable the excessive opulence, nor the contrast of misery and poverty, of those capitals. Female dress is rarely decorated with diamonds, but topazes are in general use.

The market of Buenos Ayres is abundantly supplied with all kinds of plants, fruits, meat, bread, fish, fowl, milk, &c. Nearly one thousand head of cattle are slaughtered in the neighbourhood for the daily use of the city, and are brought in carts to the market, where they are examined by a sworn proveditor. Fish is also abundant.

Monte-Video is celebrated for its harbour, the most considerable and advantageous in this viceroyalty. Struck with the situation, Don Bruno de Zabella, with fourteen or fifteen families, from the isle of Palma, one of the Canaries, established himself here in 1731; since which time the population has been gradually on the increase. Such is the abundance of the country, that it is a check to the industry of the poor, and there is a class of vagabonds, called *gauderios*, whose manner of life resembles that of the gipsies of Europe, excepting that they do not steal. These gauderios go meanly clothed, while the coverings of their horses serve them for a bed, and the saddle for a pillow. The guitar and amorous ditties form their sole occupation; and they thus delight the rustics, who, in recompense, lodge them, and give them abundance of food. If a horse be lost among them, another is given, or caught among the wild ones, which abound in the neighbourhood. The wild cows, or heifers, supply abundance of food, and are sometimes killed for the tongue, the marrow-bones, or other delicate parts. The marrow is eaten liquid, the bone itself serving as a pot. Sometimes, in their rude cookery, an ox is gutted, and all the tallow lodged within, which, being set on fire, serves to roast the remainder.

SECTION V.

CHILI.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.] This country is very extensive, reaching from the frontiers of Peru to the Straits of Magellan. It is situated between twenty-five and forty-five degrees of south latitude, being about one thousand two hundred miles in length, and five hundred in breadth. It is bounded, on the north, by Peru; on the east, by La Plata; on the south, by Patagonia; and, on the west, by the Pacific Ocean.

Provinces, Climate, and Productions.] Chili is divided into three provinces, St. Jago, Conception, and Chicuito; and, lying south of the equator, the seasons are almost opposite to those in the northern hemisphere; but the face of the country, except on the sea-coast, is beautiful, and the climate wholesome. On the east the country is screened by the Andes, while, from the west, the air is cooled by refreshing breezes. Along the coast of the Pacific Ocean they enjoy not only a fine temperate air, but a serene sky, most part of the year. Sometimes, indeed, the winds that blow from the mountains are exceedingly sharp in winter; but, in general, this is one of the most pleasant climates in the world, being a medium between the intense heats of the torrid, and the piercing winds of the frigid, zone.

This country abounds in gold, silver, copper, tin, quicksilver, iron, lead, &c. The soil produces Indian and European corn, hemp, and fruits, in great variety and abundance. Among several remarkable herbs produced in this country, some of which are medicinal, and others applied to various uses, is the panqua, which is of infinite service in tanning leather.

The animals are horses, mules, oxen, goats, and sheep, all excellent in their kind. Birds, tame and wild, are found in profusion; and the coast abounds with most sorts of fish. The country is not infested with venomous insects.

Lakes, Rivers, &c.] The principal lakes are those of

Tagatagua, near St. Jago, and that of Parena; besides which they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea part of the year. In stormy weather, the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but, in the hot season, the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt, a foot thick. The only sea that borders upon Chili is the Pacific Ocean, on the west. The principal rivers are the Salado, or Salt River, Guasco, Coquimo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all scarcely navigable, except at their mouths. The principal bays, or harbours, are Capiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valparaiso, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Castro, and Brewer's-haven.

Cities, Towns, &c.] St. Jago, the capital of the province of the same name, was founded in the year 1541, by Valdivia. It is situated on the river Mapocho, which gives name to a valley of great extent, and supplies the city with water. In the centre stands the grand piazza, which is square, with a beautiful fountain in the middle. Here are the apartments of the governor or president, the palace of the royal audience, the town-house, the public prison, the cathedral, and many other handsome public and private buildings. The Spaniards in St. Jago, and the suburb of Chimba, on the other side of the river, are reckoned to amount to eight thousand, and the other inhabitants to about thirty thousand. Those who have acquired fortunes at Valdivia, Valparaiso, and Conception, repair hither to spend their days in ease and enjoyment. In the neighbourhood are the gold-mines of Tiltil and the Lavaderos, by their concerns in which, many of the citizens amass considerable fortunes. The royal audience, residing in St. Jago, since its removal from Conception, is composed of a president, four auditors, and a fiscal, together with an officer, who bears the title of protector of the Indians. Though subordinate, in some respects, to the viceroy of Peru, the determinations of the court are without appeal, except to the council of the Indies. The president is also governor and captain-general of Chili, in which quality he resides one half the year in the capital, and the other at Conception. There is a tribunal of the inquisition in this city, and the see of a bishop, subordinate to the archbishop of Lima. Earthquakes have often done great damage here. That of 1647 was so violent that it almost overturned the whole town, and left such unwholesome vapours in the air, that all the inhabitants died, except about three or four hundred. Another dreadful shock, in 1730, laid the city in ruins.

VALPARAISO, a small town, is situated in thirty-two degrees fifteen minutes of south latitude. The bay, or harbour, though exposed in winter to the north winds, which then blow with great violence, is much frequented by ships from Callao and Panama.

CONCEPTION, the capital of the province of that name, is the oldest European settlement in Chili. The most modern and authentic account that we can lay before our readers, not only of this place, but of Chili in general, is that of M. de la Perouse, the French navigator, which we shall therefore give in his own words:—

"The Bay of Conception is one of the most commodious harbours to be found in any part of the world. The water is smooth, and there is scarcely any current, although the tide rises six feet three inches, the flood being at its height, at the full and change of the moon, at forty-five minutes after one o'clock. The bay is sheltered from all winds but the north, which, in these climates, only blow during the winter; that is, from the end of May to October, which is also the rainy season. The weather is constantly wet while that monsoon lasts; for the name of monsoons may, with propriety, be given to those steady gales that are followed by southerly winds, which blow all the rest of the year, and which are accompanied by the most delightful weather. The only anchorage sheltered from the north-east wind, that prevails during the winter, is off the village of Talcaguana, on the south-east shore, which is now the only Spanish settlement in the bay, the old city of Conception having been destroyed by an earthquake in 1751. It was situated at the mouth of the river St. Peter, to the eastward of Talcaguana, and its ruins are still to be seen. They will not exist, however, so long as those of Palmyra have done, all the houses in the country being either built of mud, or of bricks, dried in the sun. The roofs are covered with pantiles, the same as in several of the southern provinces of France.

"After the destruction of this city, which was rather swallowed up by the sea than overturned by an earthquake, the inhabitants dispersed, and encamped upon the neighbouring heights. It was not till 1763 that they made choice of a new site, at a quarter of a league from the river Biobio, and at three leagues distance from Old Conception, and the village of Talcaguana. The bishopric, the cathedral, and the religious houses, were transferred to the new city, which is of great extent, because the houses are built only one story high, that they may be the better able to resist the earthquakes that happen every year.

"The new town contains about ten thousand inhabitants. It is the residence of the bishop, and of the major-general, who is at the head of the military department. This bishopric borders on that of San Jago, the capital of Chili, where the governor-general resides. It is skirted to the eastward by the Cordilleros, and extends southward as far as the Straits of Magellan; but its true limits are the river of Biobio, at a quarter of a league distance from the city. All the country, south of that river, belongs to the Indians, except the island of Chiloe, and a small district round Baldivia. It is improper to give to those people the name

of subjects of the king of Spain, with whom they are almost always at war. The functions of the Spanish commandant are consequently of the greatest importance. He commands both the regular troops and the militia, which gives him great authority over all the citizens, who, in in their civil concerns, are governed by a corregidor. He is, besides, charged exclusively with the defence of the country, and obliged to fight and to negotiate incessantly.

"As most of the rivers in the adjacent country are auriferous, the inhabitant, by washing the earth, can earn, it is said, half a dollar a day; but, as provisions are very abundant, he has no real want to incite him to labour. Without communication with foreigners, and unacquainted with our luxury and arts, he can desire nothing with sufficient energy to overcome his sloth. The ground, therefore, lies waste, the most active of the natives being those who devote a few hours to the washing of the sand of their rivers, which exempts them from the necessity of learning any trade. The consequence is, that the houses, even of the richest inhabitants, are bare of furniture, and that all the workmen at Conception come from foreign parts.

"The dress of the women consists of a plaited petticoat of those old-fashioned gold and silver stuffs formerly manufactured at Lyons. These petticoats, which are reserved for gala-days, may, like diamonds, be entailed in a family, and descend from the grand-mother to the grand-daughter. Such dresses are, however, confined to a small number of females, the rest having hardly wherewithal to hide their nakedness.

"Sloth, still more than credulity and superstition, has peopled this place with nuns and monks, the latter of whom enjoy greater liberty than in any other country in the world. The misfortune of having nothing to do, the want of family-ties, the profession of celibacy, without being separated from the world, and their living in the convenient retirement of their cells, have rendered, and could not fail to render, them the greatest profligates in America. Their effrontery is inconceivable. I have seen some of them stay till midnight at a ball, aloof, indeed, from good company, and seated among the servants. These same monks gave our young folks more exact information than they could get elsewhere, concerning places with which priests ought only to have been acquainted, in order to interdict the entrance.

"The common people of Conception are much addicted to thieving, and the women are exceedingly easy of access. They are a degenerate and mongrel race. The peasants in the neighbourhood have great address in the use of the noose and lance. With these they will combat the fiercest bull, throwing the noose so artfully, as to lay certain hold of some part of the body. When a bull is haltered, they draw the knot; at the same time setting spurs to their horses, and ham-stringing him with their lances, so that the animal is taken and disabled at the same instant. This dexterity in throwing the noose, and ham-stringing the animal, while they ride at full speed, cannot fail of surprising Europeans. In private quarrels, also, they fight with the noose and lance; all attacks from which they are taught to parry with such dexterity, that, after a combat of an hour, it is no uncommon case to see the parties separate untouched, notwithstanding both have exerted the greatest alertness.

"The inhabitants of the first class, the true-bred Spaniards, are polite and obliging in the extreme. I should be wanting in gratitude, if I did not paint them in colours suitable to their character, which I shall endeavour to make known, while giving an account of our own transactions.

"I was scarcely at anchor when a dragoon brought me a letter from M. Quexada, commandant *pro tempore*, in which he told me, that we should be received like fellow-countrymen. He added, with great politeness, that the orders he had received in that respect were conformable to the sentiments of his heart, and to those of all the inhabitants of Conception. This letter was accompanied by refreshments of all sorts, which every one hastened to send on board. The quantity was so great, that we could neither consume them, nor know how to stow them away.

"Obliged to attend, in the first place, to the refitting of my ship, and to the depositing of our astronomical clocks and quadrants on shore, I could not go immediately to return my thanks to the governor. I was impatient for an opportunity of acquitting myself of that duty, but he was beforehand with me, and came on board, attended by the principal officers of his colony. The following day I returned his visit, accompanied by M. de Langle, and several of the officers and scientific men. We were preceded by a detachment of dragoons, the commanding officer of which had stationed half a troop at Talcaguana. Ever since our arrival, both they and their horses were at our command. M. Quexada, M. Sabatero, commandant of the artillery, and the town-major, came to meet us at a league's distance from Conception. We all alighted at the house of M. Sabatero, where an excellent dinner was put upon the table; and, at night, there was a splendid ball, to which the principal ladies of the place were invited.

"The dress of these ladies was very different from that to which our eyes had been accustomed. A plaited petticoat, which leaves half the leg exposed, and which is tied a great way below the waist; stockings, striped red, blue, and white; shoes so short, that the toes are bent double, which makes the foot appear nearly round; such

is the habit of the ladies of Chili. They wear their hair divided behind into small braids, which hang down their backs. Their corset, or bodice, is generally of gold or silver stuff, and is covered with two small cloaks, the first of muslin, and the second, which is worn over it, of wool of different colours, blue, yellow, or pink. With these woollen cloaks they cover their heads when they are in the streets, and the weather is cold; but, when in a room, they usually lay them on their knees; and there is a game played with the muslin cloak, by shifting it about incessantly, at which the ladies of Conception display a great deal of grace. They are in general pretty, and so polite, that there is certainly no maritime city in Europe, where foreign navigators are received with so much kindness and civility.

"About midnight the ball was at an end. As the houses of the commandant, and of M. Sabatero, could not contain all the French officers and passengers, the inhabitants pressed us to accept of beds; and in this manner we were quartered in the different parts of the town.

"Before dinner we had been to pay visits to the principal citizens, and to the bishop, a man of great sense, of agreeable manners, and of a liberality, of which the Spanish bishops afford frequent examples. He is a Creole, born in Peru, was never in Europe, and is solely indebted to his merit for his elevation. He talked to us of the regret which Major-General Higuins would feel at being detained upon the frontiers by the Indians during our short stay in his government. The favourable report made of that officer by every one, and the general esteem in which he was held, made me lament the circumstances that occasioned his absence. A courier had been despatched to him, and his answer, which was brought while we were still at Conception, announced his speedy return. He had just concluded a peace, that was highly necessary to the people of his government, their distant habitations being exposed to the ravages of savage nations, who massacre the men and children, and make the women prisoners."

Manners, Customs, &c.] The natives of Chili are of a middle stature, strong built, of a tawny complexion, and have long black hair on their heads, but pluck off that on their chins, and other parts of their bodies. They are tall, robust, active, and courageous; enduring fatigue, heat, and cold, to admiration. They have, in several instances, impeded the progress of the Spanish arms, and sometimes even been victorious: their history abounds with so many instances of bravery, as to have won for them, even from the proudest Spaniards, the honourable title of *Indios bravos;* nor have their present descendants lost the animating remembrance of the deeds of their ancestors. The Araucans, in particular, are highly deserving of notice, as having vigorously defended their country against the progress of the Spaniards. They inhabit a beautiful tract of country, extending from the river Bibio, on the north, to that of Valdivia, on the south; bounded on the east by the Andes, and on the west by the ocean. The name is derived from the province of Arauca, which, though the smallest of their state, has become the leading name of their country and nation; but they also voluntarily receive the appellation of *Aucas*, or Free Men. They are, in general, robust, well formed, and of a truly warlike aspect. Their complexion, though copper, is more clear than that of other Americans. The face is nearly round, the eyes, though small, lively and full of expression, the nose rather flat, but the mouth well made, with white and uniform teeth; the leg muscular and elegant, and the feet small and flat. The hair of the head is black and copious, and bound up in a knot; and, like the Franks, they esteem long hair a mark of honour. The women are often handsome, especially in Boroa. Possessing a strong constitution, and being free from sedentary operations, they seldom become grey before the age of sixty or seventy, or bald before that of eighty; and not a few exceed a hundred, whose teeth, sight, and memory, remain perfect.

These people seem to have a complete system in their warfare. Advancing with great shouts, they generally attack the centre of the enemy, their clubs often making terrible havoc. The booty is equally divided among the captors, no officer, not even the general, having any preference. The prisoners remain slaves till exchanged or ransomed. Sometimes one is sacrificed, to pacify the manes of the slain; but this very seldom occurs. Formerly the heart of the victim was handed to the general, who, sucking a little of the blood, presented it to the officers, who performed the same ceremony. The head was raised on a pike, amid the horrid sound of the war-song. A sheep's head was then fixed to the carcase; and a drunken festival was celebrated. If the scull had not been broken with a club, a cup was formed of it, to be used at solemn banquets.

They all admit the immortality of the soul, and that man is composed of a body called *anca*, and of a soul called *am*, or *pilli*. They think that after death the soul passes to the west, to a country called Galceman, where they believe that delights abound for the good, while the bad are punished by privation. They watch the dead all night; and on the third day carry the body to the cemetery of the family, which is commonly situated in a wood, or upon a hill. The bier is surrounded by women, who affect to weep; while others strew ashes behind, that the soul may not return to the house. The body being set down, the warlike weapons are placed around; or, if a female, her ornaments: plenty of food, and vases of liquor, are also prepared, that there may be no want on the journey to the other

world. Sometimes a horse is slain for provision. Taking leave of the dead with many lamentations, and wishing a happy journey, the body is covered with earth, or with stones, in the form of a pyramid, over which they pour cyder in abundance. They believe that an old woman soon arrives, in the form of a whale, to carry the soul across the ocean, where another old woman guards the Elysian Fields, and sometimes exacts an eye, when the passenger cannot satisfy her demands. The business and pleasures of another life remain the same: and the husband, if he choose, may have his wife again; but there are no children, because it is the abode of the dead. There are also wars and battles; and armies, which, meeting in the air, cause thunder and lightning. During every tempest, on the Andes or the ocean, they suppose an engagement is taking place between the souls of their countrymen and those of the Spaniards; the low sound in the clouds being the trampling of horses, the thunder the sound of double drums, and the lightning the discharge of artillery. If the storm bear towards the Spanish territory, they suppose that their souls are victorious, and exclaim, in triumph, "Follow, follow, friends, kill, kill." If the contrary, they are very sad, and exclaim, in consternation, "Halt; take courage." They have an idea of a great deluge, during which many were saved on the mountain Thegtheg, which can float on water. This idea, according to Ercilla, has arisen from the earthquakes and volcanos so common in their country; for, during a severe earthquake, they still run to the mountains, with provisions; in hopes they may escape, if the sea should overwhelm their country.

It is remarkable that these Indians, in their contests with the Spaniards, have generally spared the white women, carrying them to their huts, and intermarrying with them, which is the reason that many Indians of these parts have the complexion of Spaniards born in that country.

The ordinary dress of the men is a kind of long frock, which reaches half-way down the legs. From the neck is suspended a chain of gold or copper rings. Women, of the common class, have a short covering, hardly reaching down to the knee: but the dress of the better sort is long, and they wear a petticoat under the outer garment. Their heads are ornamented with rings.

They have no gold nor silver, though these metals are so common in their country. All their bedding is some skins laid on the ground; and they eat on the ground, or else on a little bench, and wipe their hands on a broom, instead of a napkin. Their food consists of maize, fruits, herbs, and what they catch by hunting and fishing. Their furniture consists of four or five dishes, and some wooden spoons or shells, a calabash or gourd, to drink out of, and a leaf of a tree for a salt-cellar. When they make bread, they set great earthen platters, full of sand, upon the fire, and, when hot enough, take them off, put the grains of maize into the hot sand, stir them about till they be toasted enough for the purpose, and then grind them between two stones. They let blood with a sharp flint, fixed in a little piece of wood, and just long enough to open a vein. Though they cannot read or write, yet they have a peculiar way of registering events, and keeping accounts of things committed to their charge, by strings of different sizes, in which they make knots of several colours, called quipos. A French writer tells us, that the knowledge of these knots is a secret science, which fathers do not reveal to their children till they find themselves at the point of death.

SECTION VI.

ISLANDS IN SOUTH-AMERICA,

BELONGING TO THE SPANIARDS.

JUAN FERNANDES.

The island of Juan Fernandes, situate in thirty-three degrees of south latitude, and eighty-three degrees of west longitude, is of an irregular figure, about fifteen miles long, and six broad; and is remarkable for its beauty. The face of the country, at least of the north part of the island, is extremely singular: the woods that cover most of the hills, being free from bushes and underwood, afford an easy passage through every part of them; and the irregularity of the hills and precipices trace out, by their various combinations, a great number of romantic valleys, most of which have a stream of clear water running through them, that falls in cascades from rock to rock; as the bottom of the valley, by the course of the neighbouring hills, is broken into a sudden sharp descent. In these valleys, are some particular spots, where the shade and fragrance of the contiguous woods, the loftiness of the overhanging rocks, and the transparency and frequent falls of the neighbouring streams, exhibit scenes of such elegance and dignity as would with difficulty be rivalled in any other part of the globe; for here the simple productions of unassisted nature may be said to excel all the fictitious descriptions of the most animated imagination.

This island was very propitious to the remains of Commodore Anson's squadron, in 1741; after they had been buffeted with tempests, and debilitated by an inveterate scurvy. The piece of ground, on which the Commodore pitched his tent, was a small lawn, that lay on a little ascent, at the distance of about half a mile from the sea. In the front of his tent was a large avenue cut through the woods to the sea-side, which, sloping to the water with

a gentle descent, opened a prospect of the bay and the ships at anchor. This lawn was screened behind by a tall wood of myrtle, sweeping round it in form of an amphitheatre; the slope, on which it stood, rising with a much sharper ascent than the lawn itself; though not so much but that the hills and precipices within land towered up considerably above the tops of the trees, and added to the grandeur of the view. There were likewise two streams of crystal water, which ran to the right and left of the tent within a hundred yards distance; and were shaded by the trees, which bordered the lawns on either side, and completed the symmetry of the whole.

The island of Juan Fernandes formerly abounded with goats; but their number is now greatly diminished; for the Spaniards, being informed of the advantages which the Buccaneers and privateers derived from the goats' flesh, with which they were here furnished, endeavoured to deprive their enemies of this relief, by setting on shore a number of large dogs, which have increased so fast, that they have destroyed all the goats in the accessible part of the country, only a few remaining among the crags and precipices, where the dogs cannot follow them. These are divided into separate herds, which inhabit distinct fastnesses, and never mingle with each other. A respectable writer mentions an extraordinary dispute between a herd of these animals, and a number of dogs. Some men, going in a boat into the eastern bay, perceived the dogs running very eagerly; and, being willing to discover what game they were pursuing, they lay upon their oars to view them, and at last saw them take to a hill, where, looking a little farther, they observed, upon the ridge of it, a herd of goats, that seemed drawn up for their reception. There was a very narrow pass, skirted on each side by precipices, on which the master of the herd posted himself fronting the enemy, the rest of the goats being all behind, where the ground was more open. As this spot was inaccessible by any other path, except where this champion had placed himself, the dogs, though they ran up the hill with great alacrity, yet, when they came within about twenty yards of him, did not dare to encounter him, as he would infallibly have driven them down the precipice. They therefore desisted, and, giving over the chace, quietly laid themselves down, panting for breath. There are but few birds, and those chiefly hawks, blackbirds, owls, and humming-birds.

Upon this island are great numbers of seals and sea-lions: the latter has some resemblance to a seal, but is much larger, and its flesh has some resemblance to that of beef. When full-grown, they are from twelve to twenty feet in length, and from eight to fifteen in circumference: and so extremely fat, that, having cut through the skin, which is about an inch in thickness, there is at least a foot of fat, before you come at either lean or bones. They are also very full of blood; for, if they are deeply wounded in a dozen places, there will instantly gush out as many fountains of blood, spouting to a considerable distance. Their skins are covered with short hair, of a light dun-colour; but their tails and their fins, which on shore serve them for feet, are almost black; these fins are divided at the ends like fingers, the web which joins them not reaching to the extremities; and each of these fingers is furnished with a nail. The head, which is small, in proportion to the rest of the body, terminates in a snout, and they have whiskers like those of a cat, with small eyes and ears; and the nostrils, which are also very small, are the only parts destitute of hair. In each jaw they have a row of large pointed teeth. The males have a large snout or trunk hanging down five feet six inches below the end of the upper jaw, which the females have not; and this renders it easy to distinguish the sexes; and, besides, the males are much the largest. These animals divide their time equally between the sea and land, continuing at sea all the summer, and coming on shore at the setting in of winter, where they reside during that whole season. In this interval they bring forth their young, having generally two at a birth, which they suckle with their milk, they being at first about the size of a full-grown seal. While the sea-lions continue on shore, they feed on the grass and verdure that grows near the banks of the fresh-water streams; and, when not employed in feeding, sleep in herds, in the most miry places they can find. As they are of a lethargic disposition, and not easily awakened, each herd places some of the males at a distance, which never fail to alarm them, when any one attempts to molest, or even to approach, them; which they do by making a very loud noise, sometimes grunting like hogs, and at others snorting like horses in full vigour. The males have often furious battles, when they gore each other with their teeth, and cover one another with blood. The author of Lord Anson's voyage takes notice of one, whom, he says, they named the bashaw, he generally lying surrounded with a number of females, which no other male dared approach; but he had not acquired that envied pre-eminence without many sanguinary contests, as appeared from the numerous scars visible in every part of his body.

The bay is plentifully stored with the greatest variety of fish, particularly cod, of a prodigious size, which are no less numerous than on the banks of Newfoundland; also large bream, silver-fish, cavallies, gropers, maids, a black fish, called by some the chimney-sweeper, in shape resembling a carp; excellent cray-fish, that generally weigh eight or nine pounds, and are of an exquisite taste; besides congers, of a peculiar kind, large sharks, and dog-fish.

There are instances of two men living, at different times, alone, on this island for many years; the one a

Mosquito Indian, the other Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who was, after five years, taken on board an English ship, and brought back to Europe.

This extraordinary man was born in the county of Fife, about the year 1676, and was bred a seaman. He went from England, in 1703, in the capacity of sailing-master of a small vessel, called the Cinque Ports Galley, Charles Pickering captain; and, in September the same year, he sailed from Cork, in company with another ship, called the St. George, commanded by William Dampier, intending to cruise on the Spaniards in the South Sea. On the coast of Brazil, Pickering died, and was succeeded in his command by Lieutenant Stradling. They proceeded on their voyage round Cape Horn to the island of Juan Fernandes, whence they were driven by the appearance of two French ships of thirty-six guns each, and left five of Stradling's men there on shore, who were taken off by the French. From hence they sailed to the coast of America, where Dampier and Stradling quarrelled, and separated by agreement, on the 19th of May, 1704. In September following, Stradling came again to the island of Juan Fernandes, where Selkirk and his captain had a difference, which, with the circumstance of the ship's being very leaky, induced him to determine on staying there alone. When his companions were about to depart, his resolution was shaken, and he desired to be taken on board; but the captain positively refused to admit him, and he was consequently obliged to remain, having nothing but his clothes, bedding, a gun, and a small quantity of powder and ball; a hatchet, knife, and kettle; and his books, and mathematical and nautical instruments. He kept up his spirits tolerably well, till he saw the vessel put off; but then (as he afterwards related) his heart yearned within him, and melted at the thought of parting with his comrades and all human society at once.

> "Such is the rooted love we bear mankind,
> "All ruffians as they were, I never heard
> "A sound so dismal as their parting oars."
>
> *Thomson's Agamemnon.*

Thus left sole monarch of the island, with plenty of the necessaries of life, he found himself in a situation hardly supportable. He had fish, goats' flesh, turnips, and other vegetables; yet he grew dejected, languid, and melancholy, to such a degree as to be scarcely able to refrain from putting a period to his existence. Eighteen months passed before he could, by reasoning, reading his bible, and meditation, be thoroughly reconciled to his situation. At length, however, he grew happy, employing himself in decorating his hut, and chasing the goats, which he seldom failed of catching. He also tamed young kids, laming them, to prevent their running away; and he constantly kept a guard of tame cats about him, to defend him from the rats, which were exceedingly troublesome. When his clothes were worn out, he made others of goats' skins, but could not succeed in making shoes, with the use of which, however, he was, in time, enabled to dispense. He computed that he had caught a thousand goats, during his abode in the island, of which he had released five hundred, after marking them by slitting their horns. He made companions of his tame goats and cats, often dancing and singing with them. He also frequently read aloud, and performed his devotions at stated hours; yet, when he was taken off the island, his language, from disuse of conversation, was become scarcely intelligible.

In this solitude Selkirk continued nearly five years; during which time only two incidents happened which he thought worth relating, the occurrences of every day being, in his circumstances, nearly similar. The one was, that, pursuing a goat eagerly, he caught it just on the edge of a precipice, which was covered with bushes, so that he did not perceive it, and he fell over to the bottom, where, he supposed, by the alteration of the moon, that he had lain three days. When he came to himself, he found the goat lying under him dead, and it was with great difficulty that he could crawl to his habitation, whence he was unable to stir for ten days. The other event was the arrival of a ship, which he supposed to be French; and, so strong was the love of society in his mind, that he was eager to abandon his solitary felicity, and surrender himself to them, although enemies; but, upon their landing, he found them to be Spaniards, of whom he had too great a dread to trust himself in their hands. They were by this time so near, that it required all his agility to escape, which he effected by climbing into a thick tree, being shot at several times as he ran off.

His enemies having departed, Selkirk returned to his situation, and reconciled himself as much as possible to his solitary life, till the 2d of February, 1709, where Captains Rogers and Courtney arrived in two privateers from Bristol, and, after a fortnight's stay at Juan Fernandes, appointed him master's mate of one of their vessels. In October, 1711, he arrived in England, where the public curiosity was so strongly excited concerning him, that he was persuaded to put his papers into the hands of Daniel De Foe, to arrange and form them into a regular narrative. From this account De Foe took the idea of writing the romance of Robinson Crusoe, and basely robbed Selkirk of both the honour and profits of his manuscripts.

FUERA, OR MASA-FUERO.

This island lies in thirty-three degrees forty-five minutes south longitude, and in eighty degrees forty-six minutes west from Greenwich. It is very high and mountainous, and, at a distance, appears as one hill, or rock. It is of

a triangular form, and seven or eight leagues in circumference. Here is such a plenty of fish, that a boat, with a few hooks and lines, may presently catch as much as will serve one hundred people. Here are coal-fish, cavilliers, cod, halibut, and cray-fish. The sharks here are so ravenous, that, in taking soundings, one of them swallowed the lead, by which he was hauled above water; but he regained his liberty by disgorging his prey. Seals are so numerous here, that, Captain Carteret says, if many thousands were killed in a night, they would not be missed the next morning. These animals yield excellent train-oil, and their hearts and plucks are very good food, having a taste something like those of a hog. Their skins are covered with very fine fur. There are many birds here, and some very large hawks. Of the pintado-bird, the crew of the Swallow caught seven hundred in one night.

Commodore Byron anchored off this island in 1765, and sent out his boats to endeavour to get wood and water; but as the shore was rocky, and a surf broke with great violence upon it, he ordered the men to put on cork-jackets, by the help of which they brought off a considerable quantity of both. Here they found plenty of goats, which proved to be as good food as venison in England. In this expedition, the gunner, and a seaman who could not swim, went on shore with the waterers, and, when the business was completed, the violence of the surf, which beat against the shore, made them afraid to venture off to the boat: they were, therefore, left behind on the island. The next day the commodore sent out a boat to bring them back. The gunner swam through the surf, and got on board; but the seaman had so thorough a presage of being drowned in the attempt to reach the boat, that, preferring life to social intercourse, he chose to remain on the island at all events. Having formed this resolution, he took an affectionate leave of the people in the boat. A midshipman, however, just as they were about to return without him, taking one end of a rope in his hand, jumped into the sea, and swam through the surf to the beach, where the poor isolated despondent sat ruminating on his situation. The young man remonstrated with him on the absurdity of the resolution he had formed, and, having made a running noose in the rope, suddenly threw it over the sailor, and fixing it round his body, the people in the boat began to drag him through the surf, and thus brought him on board; but he had swallowed so great a quantity of water on his passage, that he was to all appearance dead; but proper means being used, he soon recovered, and was, no doubt, abundantly thankful for the friendly violence that had forced him from the dreary solitude which his fears had before courted.

CHILOE.

Chiloe, a considerable island on the coast of Chili, lies in forty-two degrees of south latitude, and is above one hundred and twelve miles long, and twenty-one broad. The south part of it is divided from the continent by a narrow sea, and the continent there makes a bay. This coast is subject to tempestuous weather, especially in March, when winter begins. The Spaniards have but one little fort in this island, called Chacao, always ill-provided with warlike stores. With the exception of wine, this island produces all necessary refreshments and provisions; and a great deal of ambergris is found here. Around this island are forty more, all taking name from it.

These islands of Chiloe are reputed barren; but their soil is not really so, only the excessive rains choke the seed, and let no corn thrive; so that they are without wheat, wine, or oil, and other plants which need much sun.

The nature of the climate of this cluster of islands is such, that it rains almost all the year; so that only maize, or other such grain, can ripen, that want not so much sun. The diet of the natives is mostly of a root called papas, which grows bigger here than in any other place. The manufactures are clothing for the Indians, who have a kind of vest, which they call macun, without sleeves, over which is a kind of cloak. They have vast woods of cedar-trees, of a prodigious size, so as hardly to be encompassed by a rope six yards long. The principal town is called Castro.

CHAPTER X.

PORTUGUESE DOMINIONS IN SOUTH-AMERICA.

SECTION I.

BRAZIL.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.

THIS country is situated between the equator and thirty-five degrees of south latitude. Its length is about two thousand five hundred miles, and its breadth about seven hundred. It is bounded, on the north, by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east, by the same ocean; on the south, by the mouth of the river Plata; and, on the west, by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay.

Provinces.] According to the most recent authorities, Brazil is divided into the capitanias of Rio de Janeiro, St. Paul, Rio Grande, Minas Geraes, Bahia, Goyaz, Matto Grosso, Pernambuco, Seara, Maranham, and Para.

Of the first of these provinces we have no particular account; but the others have been described by that intelligent traveller, Mr. Mawe, to whose interesting travels we are indebted for the substance of the following particulars.

Rio Grande, one of the most important capitanias in Brazil, is of considerable extent, and is bounded by the capitania of St. Paul, on the north; by Matto Grosso, on the west; and by the Spanish territories, between it and the Rio de la Plata, on the south.

The climate is very fine, and the soil so productive, that this province may be called the granary of Brazil: the wheat grown here is shipped to all the ports on the coast where bread is used. Farming, however, is carried on in so slovenly a manner, that the grain is always rough, badly skinned, and very foul. Being packed in raw hides, which are sewed up like sacks, it swells and heats on the passage from Rio Grande to the more northerly ports; and frequently, after being landed at Rio de Janeiro, it is left on the quay, exposed for several days to the rain.

In a circuit of twenty leagues around the capital of this province, the inhabitants, including the troops, are estimated at one hundred thousand. Their chief occupations are, the breeding of cattle, for which their immense tracts of pasture-land are well calculated; the drying and preparing of hides; and the making of *charque*, or jug-beef. The preparation of this article of commerce is as follows:—After the ox is skinned, the flesh is stripped from the bones in as large flakes as possible, and put into hot brine, where it remains from twelve to forty hours, according to the thickness. It is then taken out, drained, and dried in the sun, afterwards made up into packages, and shipped to all parts of Brazil. This forms a considerable article of food among the negroes and lower classes, and is frequently seen at respectable tables, being in taste somewhat similar to hung-beef. It forms part of every cargo sent out from this port, and has found its way to the West-Indies, where it is in great request.

The quantity of hides exported from hence is very considerable: they furnish many vessels with complete cargoes, which are carried to the northern ports, and thence embarked for Europe. The annual average may be computed at not less than three hundred thousand.

Another considerable article of commerce is tallow, which is generally shipped in the crude state, and not refined, as in the river Plata. The greater part is consumed in Brazil, and the dealers find it preferable to refine the article on the spot where they manufacture it into candles. Horns and horse-hair are also shipped from hence in great quantities.

The above are the staple productions of Rio Grande, which give employment to about a hundred sail of coasters, some of which make two or three voyages in a year, carrying thither rum, sugar, tobacco, rice, cotton, mandioca, sweetmeats, &c.

Of European merchandise, they bring wine, oil, olives, glass, and a variety of English commodities, particularly iron, baizes, stout woollen-cloths, velverets, printed cottons, calicoes, muslins, handkerchiefs, hosiery, flannels, hats, &c. To these may be added sail-cloth, cordage, anchors, tar, paints, fowling-pieces, ammunition, hardware of every description, and fancy articles. A great part of the goods are conveyed upon horses into the interior, where they are carried from house to house for sale or barter.

The large river Uruguay rises in this capitania, and disembogues itself into the river Plata, a little above Buenos Ayres; there are several others of less consequence, the banks of which are well stored with wood. Of the geology of this province very little is known.

Jaguars, and other beasts of prey, are here very common. Among the granivorous animals are capivaras, of a large size, deer in great numbers, and armadillos, which are considered excellent food, when roasted. Of birds,

there are dark-coloured ostriches, which go about in flocks in great numbers. There are eagles, hawks, and other birds of prey, particularly a species of crow, of the vulture kind. Cranes, storks, wild turkeys, ducks, partridges, horned plovers, goat-suckers, horned owls, small parrots, cardinals, humming-birds, &c. are also very numerous.

It appears singular to Europeans, that, in this fine climate, where the thermometer is frequently below forty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and where are bred as fine cows as any in the world, and every convenience is at hand for dairies, neither butter nor cheese is made, except on particular occasions; nor is milk even for coffee to be procured at all times.

Several years ago, some hemp was grown here, by order of government, and it proved excellent; but, as it was troublesome to dress, the cultivation of it was abandoned.

The capitania of *Minas Geraes*, from north to south, extends from six hundred to seven hundred miles; and, from east to west, the distance is nearly the same. It is bounded, on the north, by the capitania of Bahia; on the west, by that of Goyaz; and on the south, by the river Paraibuna, which divides it from the capitania of Rio de Janeiro. It is separated from the district of Espiritu Santo and the coast by an immense chain of mountains, which country, being inhabited by the Anthropophagi, remains unexplored.

This province is supposed to contain three hundred and sixty thousand inhabitants, of whom two hundred thousand are negroes, or their immediate offspring. The population of Indians is not included in this estimate, nor can it be ascertained: they are considered as by no means numerous, as they never make any opposition against an armed force, however small.

The military establishment of this capitania consists of one thousand four hundred cavalry, which number is prescribed by law, and cannot be increased. Their principal station is at Villa Rica, where the general resides, who, jointly with the governor, issues all orders respecting them. They form a disposeable force for the general service of the capitania; they are appointed to guard certain places known to contain valuable products; also to receive tolls, collect tithes, patrole the roads, and search suspicious persons; for which purposes parties of them are stationed at the various guard-houses and registers. They go in quest of felons, guard the prisons, and likewise impress men for service in Rio de Janeiro. They are employed exclusively in the mining country, which they never quit, except when they escort treasure to the capital, or are despatched on any particular service. The regiment enjoys so high a reputation, that numbers are continually offering to enlist in it; and, whilst our author was at Villa Rica, nearly two hundred volunteers were serving, without any remuneration, waiting to be placed on the establishment, according to their seniority, as vacancies should occur. This affords the general an opportunity of choosing the most soldier-like men, and those of best character, in which respects, it is said, that the corps is unrivalled. The officers enter very young, and serve as cadets for a certain period, during which they perform the duty, and receive the pay, of privates; from whom, however, they are distinguished by a star on the right shoulder. Besides this force, there is a militia, in which all the male inhabitants of the capitania are enrolled, and are liable to be called out upon any emergency.

Great quantities of gold, precious stones, iron, &c. are produced in this country. Galena, or sulphuret of lead, is found only in the neighbourhood of Abaitè. Antimony abounds in the vicinity of Sabara; native bismuth is found near Villa Rica; arsenical and martial pyrites are very common; titanium is found in octaedral crystals, also in beautiful prisms and tender spiculæ, finely grouped in rock-crystal. Platina may be obtained at Largos, in tolerable quantities, but the place which produces it has been abandoned, from want of a market. Copper can scarcely be said to exist in this province; the only place at present known to produce it is a mountain, about twenty leagues from Tejuco, where small particles appear in a rock of quartz and hornblende: but even there the matrix is so hard, and the quantity of copper so trivial, as to afford no encouragement to work it. No mines of silver have been discovered in the capitania, but the gold is generally found to contain that metal, sometimes in a considerable proportion. The finest clays are here found in great plenty, fit for porcelain and earthenware of every description, which are entirely neglected. Conglomerate masses, of recent formation, enveloping diamonds and grains of gold, are sometimes, though rarely, met with; also a silicious substance, of a fine dark blue colour, which seems to have been hitherto unknown.

In the immense woods of Minas Geraes, the finest trees are frequently destroyed by the creeping plants, which cannot grow without adhering to some support. When they attach themselves to a tree, they shoot up rapidly, encircling it with numerous fibres, and, in a few years, become so strong as entirely to stop the growth of the tree, and at length destroy it. When in a young state, they are so flexible, that the negroes make their bridles of them, and ride with them for a day together.

As these forests remain unexplored, many of the trees are, consequently, unknown. However, the barks of some of them are used by the inhabitants in dying yellow; and some are said to yield a black colour, which cannot be washed out.

Gum tragacanth is plentiful, and of a very good quality. There are immense quantities of aromatic shrubs;

and, in many places, upon the bark of trees, and more particularly upon old wood, is found a lichen, which gives to water a most beautiful crimson colour. Jointed canes grow spontaneously, and, in many places, form arcades over the road.

Ferns grow so large in this capitania, that our author states he has seen them of the height of twelve feet. These, and other succulent plants, when reduced to ashes, serve to make soap, of which almost every negro understands the process, and most families make it for their own consumption. It is very sharp, and washes white articles uncommonly well.

The *palma Christi* grows spontaneously, and great quantities of castor-oil may be extracted from its seeds. Beans, peas, and pulse in general, are very fine; pumpkins, also, and cabbages, grow to a great size. The roses are peculiarly fragrant, and are in bloom all the year. Pinks and carnations grow in great profusion, and varieties of the passion-flower are found in all parts.

The capitania of *Bahia*, to the northward of Minas Geraes, extends a considerable distance along the coast; being bounded, on the north, by the great river St. Francisco, which runs into the sea in eleven degrees of south latitude, and separated from the district of Ilheos by the river Das Contas, in fourteen degrees of south latitude. The soil of this capitania is esteemed the best in Brazil for the growth of the sugar-cane. This advantage, and the convenience arising from the numerous rivers that flow from the interior into the bay, have occasioned the establishment of several sugar-plantations, which have produced immense quantities of that article. The soil most adapted to the plant is a black greasy loam, apparently a deposition from the rivers, containing a considerable quantity of vegetable matter.

If the cane be planted in new soil, it is fit for cutting in fourteen months, but in old and poorer land it requires from eighteen to twenty months. When ripe, the canes are cut and dressed, by taking off the top leaves, &c., which afford excellent provender for cattle; they are then brought to the mill, which consists of three cylinders, moving on their axes in a perpendicular position, and between them the canes are repeatedly passed, until all the juice is expressed.

The liquor is conducted through spouts to a large boiler, where a certain quantity of alkaline matter, called *temper*, is added to it. Afterwards it is conducted to the largest of a range of boilers, consisting of three, or sometimes four, one smaller than another. Here the syrup boils for a limited time, and is continually skimmed; it is then laded into the next vessel, where it continues to boil until more of the aqueous fluid has evaporated; after which it is laded into the third boiler, and is there sometimes sufficiently boiled without removing it into the fourth. They judge of its consistency by the touch; a little of the syrup is taken between the thumb and finger, and, if it form into threads, and break on being drawn about an inch, it is supposed to be sufficiently boiled. It is then gently laded into earthen pots, of the form of a sugar-loaf, about two feet deep, and ten inches in diameter at the open end, where, on cooling, it becomes concrete. In the lower end of each pot is a small hole, which at first is nearly closed; but, after the sugar begins to cool, it is unstopped, and a piece of cane is put in, to admit the molasses to pass through. Soon after the moulds are filled, they are removed into an airy room, where they are placed so that the molasses may drain into a cistern, from which they are conveyed into the fermenting vats.

Most of the sugars made here are clayed, by a very simple operation, which consists merely in covering the sugar with very moist clay, the water from which penetrates the mass, and carries with it the remaining molasses. When the earthy matter becomes dry, more is applied, until the sugar is nearly white. After remaining in the drying-house about six weeks, the moulds are placed with the large end downwards, and the sugar-loaves leave them; they are then beaten down to powder in large strong cases, holding from fifteen to sixteen hundred weight. The cases, when filled, are nailed down, and are ready for exportation.

More sugar is shipped from Bahia than from all the other ports of Brazil united, and, in general, it is superior in quality. It is not, however, esteemed of so strong a body as the best produced in the West-Indies.

The tobacco of this capitania is peculiar to it; and the mode of growing and manufacturing it is as follows:—First, a good piece of ground is prepared, the finer dressed the better; the seed is sown broad-cast, and, when the plants have grown about six weeks or two months, they are transplanted into ground prepared as before. In eight or ten months they arrive at their full growth, and, when ripe, the leaves are taken from the stem, which varies in height from four to seven feet. They are laid upon the ground, or upon any support which will preserve them from absorbing moisture, and admit a free circulation of air underneath. When they become slightly withered, they are twisted with a strong winch, the end of one leaf uniting with the other, and the twist is coiled into a roll, weighing from thirty to forty pounds. By this operation the viscid juice of the leaf is expressed, and, when oxidated, becomes of a black colour, like molasses. The tobacco, after this last operation, is fit for sale.

Cotton has of late years been grown here in great quantities, and has been sent to England at nearly the same price with that grown in Pernambuco, and the plantations are daily increasing.

Rice is produced in tolerable quantity, and its quality

is superior: but the husk is so difficult to separate from the grain, that a great part is bruised in the operation, and is thus rendered of little value. The only method of cleansing it that has hitherto been practised, is by wooden pestles, worked in wooden mortars, either by hand or machinery. Coffee is also grown in considerable quantities, but is not esteemed so fine as that from Rio de Janeiro.

The beautiful dye-wood, called Brazil-wood, is one of the articles prohibited from general commerce, being the property of the royal household. Fustic, in small quantities, is brought from the interior.

Produce, to a considerable amount, was formerly exported from hence to the River Plata, whence a great quantity of hides and tallow were returned; but the trade has never been so favourable as it appeared, on account of the difficulty attending the payments. It is considered that the Spaniards in the River Plata are much indebted to the Portuguese.

Respecting the mineralogy of this capitania, our author has not given any particular account. It is well known, however, to have produced the largest piece of native copper that has ever appeared, being in weight upwards of two thousand pounds. The piece was discovered, several years ago, by some persons who were preparing to wash for gold; but, contrary to the general laws of nature, it was found perfectly insulated, and not the slightest appearance of a vein of that metal was to be traced.

The capitania of *Goyaz* is bounded chiefly by Minas Geraes, on the east; by Matto Grosso, on the west; and by Para, on the north. Its greatest extent in length is from six to twenty-one degrees of south latitude. Here are many gold-mines, some of which produce gold of a very fine quality. Diamonds have been found in some parts, which are different in their appearance from those found in Cerro do Frio, having more brilliancy on their exterior; but they are, in general, not of so pure a water, though of a very desirable size. As this district lies at a distance from the coast, it has very little commerce in any of its productions, except the valuable substances above mentioned, and cattle, which are bred on the frontiers; also some cotton, and occasionally a few peculiar articles, which are sent to Rio de Janeiro. The mules, on the return-journey, are all loaded with salt, iron, cheap cotton-prints, baizes, hats, fire-arms, powder and shot, and a variety of artificers' tools. When any of the inhabitants have any thing peculiarly valuable to dispose of, they generally take it to Rio de Janeiro, and lay out the proceeds in the purchase of negroes, iron, salt, and other commodities. The population is very inferior to the extent of the district, but is likely to be increased by new settlers.

This capitania communicates with Matto Grosso, St. Paul's, and Para, by rivers which are navigable, though frequently interrupted by falls.

The extensive capitania of *Matto Grosso* is separated from the neighbouring territory belonging to Spain by the intervening channels of the rivers Paraguay, Madeira, Mamoré, and Guaporé, which form a natural trench around it of five hundred leagues in circuit, by means of which, and by upwards of thirty rivers that disembogue into it, a communication is opened, through many and distant points, with the interior of Brazil. This capitania, from its geographical position, has ever been considered as the grand outwork of Brazil, not only because it covers the interior divisions of this vast portion of the new continent, which is the cradle of its greatest rivers, branching in innumerable channels, and enriched with great and untouched treasures; but also because, by this extensive channel, the Portuguese are enabled to penetrate to the establishments of Spain in Peru.

Pernambuco is situated on the north of Bahia, nearly in the latitude of eight degrees. It produces vanilla, cocoa, and a considerable quantity of sugar; but the chief article of its trade is cotton, which for many years had the reputation of being superior to any other; but, of late, it has much deteriorated, from neglect, either in the cultivation, or in the gathering the pods and cleaning it from the seeds, or probably from general inattention to the whole management of it. In delicacy of colour and staple, it has been surpassed by the cotton called South-Sea-Island Georgia, of which great quantities have been imported, and for which great prices have been given. The cotton is pressed into raw hides, so hard as to form very heavy packages. This operation is superintended by an officer authorised by government, who puts a stamp upon it, describing its quality, which enables the shipper to pass it through the custom-house, where it pays a small duty on exportation.

The district of *Seara* is little known, and enjoys but a trifling trade. *Maranham*, though a very small district, has of late raised itself considerably into notice, by its excellent productions, which are the same as those of Pernambuco. Cotton is the staple article, with some sugar and rice, several cargoes of which are exported every year.

The dye-wood of these districts is excellent, and is sometimes shipped from this coast. The tree which produces the annatto is very common, and the seeds from which it is washed are of the best quality, and might be obtained in great abundance. Cocoa may be grown in any quantity: capsicum, pimento, ginger, &c. are also very plentiful.

The capitania of *Para* is considered the largest in Brazil; but its extent is imperfectly known. The land is low and unhealthy; the great river, or port, is much interrupted by shoals and currents. It is a dangerous coast, and exposed to a continual swell, so as to render it hazardous for ships to anchor upon it.

Rivers.] The River *Grande*, or *Araguaya*, which has received the latter appellation from the numerous nations inhabiting its banks, has its remotest source in latitude nineteen degrees, and running north and south, intersected at various points by the meridian of fifty-two degrees thirty minutes, flows in latitude six degrees into the Tocantines, where it loses its name; and both, thus united in one ample stream, continue their course for about three hundred and seventy leagues, and fall into the southern estuary of the River Amazons, in latitude one degree forty minutes, opposite to the great island of Joannes, or Murajo, and twenty leagues west of the city of Pará.

The banks of this river are peopled by many tribes of savages: they abound in all the productions peculiar to the state of Pará, and afford an uninterrupted communication from the city of that name, and, by the river, with the centre of Brazil and the capitania of Matto Grosso. The same is practicable by the River Das Mortes, and other western branches which enter the Rio Grande below. These branches, in all probability, contain unexplored mines; for there is no physical reason why gold should be found in the rivers that enter the Araguaya on the eastern side, and not likewise in the branches on the opposite side.

The River *Chingu* is the clearest, and one of the largest, branches of the Amazon, which it enters on the south side, after a course of three hundred leagues, in latitude one degree, forty-two minutes, and longitude fifty-three degrees, one hundred west of the city of Pará.

Its remote sources supply, not only the lands in which rise also the rivers forming to the east and north the upper part of the river Cuiaba; but also that large space north of the river Das Mortes, intersected by the great road from Goiaz, extending as far as the river Porrudos. There is a tradition among the Indians established on the banks of this river, that, after ascending the first large falls, much gold was found in it, of which the Jesuits obtained a large quantity. Mr. Mawe thinks it probable that the now unknown mines of Dos Martirios, famous as the first discovery made by Bart. Bueno, of which he heard repeated mention in St. Paul's, exist only on some of the numerous branches that form the river Chingu.

The River *Tapajos* is the third which derives its copious sources, flowing through numerous large branches, from the capitania of Matto Grosso. It runs north between the Madeira and the Chingu for three hundred leagues, flowing into the Amazons in about two degrees twenty-four minutes of latitude, and fifty-five degrees of longitude, which is the geographical position of the town of Santarem, situated at its mouth, one hundred and eighteen leagues from the city of Pará. This river rises in the plains of the Parexis, which occupy a vast space, not level, but formed by undulating heaps of sand and light earth, resembling large waves. "The spectator," says our author, "who is in the midst of these plains, ever sees before him a distant and extended mount; he advances towards it by a gentle and long declivity, traverses the plain, and advances by an ascent equally gentle until he gains imperceptibly the heights he saw; another eminence then presents itself, and he proceeds with the same recurring circumstances. The soil of these wide plains is sandy, and so light, that loaded beasts in passing sink into it so much as to impede their progress. The pasturage is poor, consisting of a grass composed of wiry stalks a foot high, and small rough lancet-shaped leaves; the animals in grazing pluck them up with the roots covered with sand; on this account the passage by land is difficult and tedious; though, on finding any of the streams, which abound in these plains, there is grass and other mild herbage, which afford tolerable pasturage." The plains of Parexis form, to a considerable extent, the summit of those high mountains of the same name, and are situated on some of the most elevated land in Brazil; for from them descend the two greatest rivers of South-America, the Paraguay, and the Madeira.

From its geographical position, it is evident that the Tapajos facilitates navigation and commerce, from the maritime city of Pará to the mines of Matto Grosso and Cuiaba, by means of its large branches, the Juruena and Arinos; if the short passages overland should be found troublesome to drag canoes, the goods may be forwarded immediately on mules. This navigation to Matto Grosso is at least two hundred leagues shorter than that performed through the Madeira and Guapore; it is consequently less tedious and equally advantageous to the mines of Cuiaba.

The River *Jauru*, which disembogues into the Paraguay, in latitude sixteen degrees twenty-four minutes, is remarkable for the boundary-mark erected at its mouth in 1754, as well as for being entirely Portuguese, together with the lands on its south bank, and bordering on the Spanish possessions. It rises in the plains of the Parexis in latitude fourteen degrees forty-two minutes, and longitude fifty-eight degrees thirty minutes, and running south to latitude fifteen degrees forty-five minutes, the situation of the Register of the same name, it there turns to the south-east for thirty-four leagues, till, by a course of sixty leagues, it reaches its junction with the Paraguay.

The mark placed at the mouth of the Jauru is a beautiful pyramid of marble, brought to this spot from Lisbon. It bears inscriptions commemorative of the treaty between the courts of Spain and Portugal, by which the respective territories, of which it stands as the boundary, were defined.

The River *Parana* is of great breadth, and is navigated

against its current up to the mouth of the Tieté. Five leagues above the island of Manuel Homem, the Rio Verde falls into the Parana, by a mouth of forty-two fathoms; on its western bank, and at an equal distance above, on the opposite eastern side, the river Aguapehy enters, by a mouth apparently above sixty feet wide. Eight leagues above this river, and on the west side of the Parana, the large river Sucuriu has its mouth, at least fifty fathoms wide, and, after four leagues of navigation further, on the same side of the Parana, is found the mouth of the large and interesting river, called the Tieté. The distance between the rivers Tieté and Pardo, according to the windings of the Parana, may be computed at thirty-five leagues.

Climate, Soil, &c.] To the northward of Brazil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world enjoys a more serene and wholesome air. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains, from whence issue many noble streams. The soil, in general, is extremely fertile.

Vegetables.] The whole country contains abundance of timber, but that which is termed Brazil wood, is the principal species. This wood has a red colour, grows to a great height and considerable thickness, and thrives best among the rocks. The flowers are of a bright red, and have a strong agreeable aromatic scent. The wood is red, hard, and dry, and is used in dyeing. It is, likewise, used medicinally, both as a stomachic and an astringent. The palm-trees of Brazil are of five different kinds, besides which there are woods of ebony, mastic, cotton-trees, citron, and many others, which produce admirable fruits and balsams, and diffuse around a most delicious fragrancy.

Toward the north there are woods of fine large pines, exceedingly hard, tough, and full of resin. The boughs branch off from the upper part of the tree only, and have tufts of leaves at each extremity. A tree eighty feet high, for instance, will appear without branches to the height of about fifty-five feet; the branches there extend horizontally in every direction, with leaves at their extremities, the lowest and largest to a distance of fourteen or fifteen feet from the stem, and the higher ones gradually diminishing in length towards the top, which ends in a tuft of leaves, as a crown for the whole. These trees are very picturesque and beautiful.

Among the esculent plants there is a favourite bulbous root, called the *cara*, which is equal to the best potatoe, and even more farinaceous; it grows to about five inches in diameter, and affords excellent food, either boiled or roasted. Here are fine cabbages, salad-herbs, turnips, cauliflowers, artichokes, and potatoes; the latter, however, though very good, are little used.

Animals.] The north and south parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides, and of which twenty thousand are annually exported to Europe. Here are ant-bears, tigers, or madilloes, porcupines, janonveras, a very fierce ravenous animal, somewhat like a greyhound, various sorts of monkeys, and the topirassou, a creature between a bull and an ass, but without horns, and very harmless. The flesh of the topirassou is good, and tastes like beef. Brazil abounds with birds, some of which are remarkable for their beauty, and others for their taste. Of the first sort is the humming-bird, so called from the noise he makes with his wings, when he sucks the juice of flowers. A naturalist, who calls it colubri, says, it is not much larger than a large beetle. Their feathers, which way soever you turn them, appear of a different colour, like those of the sun-beams, on which account it is not unfitly called, by the natives, the sun-beam. The anhima has a horn two or three inches long, growing out of its forehead, and, on that account, is called, by Europeans, the unicorn-bird. The toucan is of the size of a wood-pigeon, and of a perfect jet black all over, except under the breast and belly, which is of a fine yellow, and a small circle of red about the neck; but what is most extraordinary in this bird is, that its bill is larger than its body, yellow without, red within, and about a span long. The guiara, called, by Europeans, the sea-curlew, is remarkable for often changing its native colour, being at first black, then ash-coloured, next white, afterwards scarlet, and last of all crimson, which last grows richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Paroquets, parrots, cockatoos, macaws, and a variety of others, are common here.

Among the poultry, fowls, turkeys, geese, and ducks, are abundant, and reasonable in price; the latter are of the Muscovy breed, enormously large, some weighing ten or fourteen pounds. In the district of St. Paul there is a singular breed of cocks; they resemble the common English in plumage and shape, but they crow very loud, and continue their last note for a minute or two. When their voice is good, they are much esteemed, and are sent for as curiosities from all parts of Brazil.

The sea-coasts, lakes, and rivers, are stored with great plenty and variety of fish, among which is the globe-fish, called, by the Latins, *orbis minor*, from its orbicular form, which is so completely armed with sharp spikes, like those of a hedge-hog, that it bids defiance to all fishes of prey. But of all the living creatures in this sea, the most remarkable is the sea-bladder, so called, because it greatly resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves. Th

inside is only filled with air, except about a spoonful of water, that seems to poise it. The skin is thin and transparent, and, like a bubble raised in the water, reflects a great number of colours.

A great variety of serpents and venomous creatures infest this country; among which are the Indian salamander, a four-legged insect, whose sting is mortal; the ibibaboka, a kind of serpent, about seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whose poison is instantaneously fatal to the human race; the rattle-snake, which grows here to an enormous size; the liboya, or boa constrictor, which is between twenty and thirty feet in length, and two or three yards in circumference; scorpions, one sort of which are between four and five feet long; lizards, of three or four feet long; venomous millipedes, and many others.

Minerals.] There are mines of gold and silver in Brazil, inland, to a great extent. There are, also, many diamond-mines of topazes and diamonds; but the latter are not so brilliant as those of Hindoostan, being of a brownish obscure hue.

The mode of working the gold-mines, or rather of obtaining that precious metal, by washing, is thus familiarly explained by Mr. Mawe:—

"Suppose a loose gravel-like stratum of rounded quartzose pebbles and adventitious matter, incumbent on granite, and covered by earthy matter of variable thickness. Where water of sufficiently high level can be commanded, the ground is cut in steps, each twenty or thirty feet wide, two or three broad, and about one deep. Near the bottom a trench is cut to the depth of two or three feet. On each step stand six or eight negroes, who, as the water flows gently from above, keep the earth continually in motion with shovels, until the whole is reduced to liquid mud, and washed below. The particles of gold contained in this earth descend to the trench, where, by reason of their specific gravity, they quickly precipitate. Workmen are continually employed at the trench to remove the stones, and clear away the surface, which operation is much assisted by the current of water which falls into it. After five days' washing, the precipitation in the trench is carried to some convenient stream, to undergo a second clearance. For this purpose wooden bowls, called *gamellos*, are provided, in the shape of funnels, about two feet wide at the mouth, and five or six inches deep. Each workman, standing in the stream, takes into his bowl five or six pounds weight of the sediment, which generally consists of heavy matter, such as oxide of iron, pyrites, ferruginous quartz, &c. of a dark carbonaceous hue. They admit certain quantities of water into the bowls, which they move about so dexterously, that the gold, separating from the inferior and lighter substances, settles to the bottom and sides of the vessel. They then rinse their bowls in a larger vessel of clean water, leaving the gold in it; and begin again. The washing of each bowlful occupies from five to eight or nine minutes; the gold produced is extremely variable in quantity, and in the size of its particles, some of which are so minute that they float, while others are found as large as peas, and sometimes much larger. This operation is superintended by overseers, as the result is of considerable importance. When the whole is finished, the gold is carried home to be dried, and, at a convenient time, is taken to the permutation office, where it is weighed, and a fifth is reserved for the prince. The remainder is smelted by fusion with muriate of mercury, cast into ingots, assayed, and stamped according to its intrinsic value, a certificate of which is given with it. After a copy of that instrument has been duly entered at the mint-office, the ingots circulate as specie."

The following is an account of the greatest of the diamond works in Brazil, situated on the river Jigitonhenha, which affords employment to about a thousand negroes.

"This rich river, formed by the junction of a number of streams, is as wide as the Thames at Windsor, and varies in depth from three to nine feet. The part now in working is a curve, from which the current is diverted into a canal cut across the tongue of land round which it winds, the river being stopped, just below the head of the canal, by an embankment formed of several thousand bags of sand. This is a work of considerable magnitude, and requires the co-operation of all the negroes to complete it; for, the river being wide, and occasionally subject to overflows, they have to make the embankment sufficiently strong to resist the pressure of the water, admitting it to rise to the height of four or five feet.

"The deeper parts of the channel of the river are laid dry by means of large chain-pumps, worked by a water-wheel. The mud is then carried off, and the cascalhão is dug up, and removed to a convenient place for washing. This labour was, until lately, performed by the negroes, who carried the cascalhão in gamellas on their heads, but recently two inclined planes have been formed, about one hundred yards in length, along which carts are drawn by a large water-wheel, divided into two parts, the ladles or buckets of which are so constructed, that the rotatory motion may be altered by changing the current of water from one side to the other; this wheel, by means of a rope made of untanned leather, works two carts, one of which descends empty on one inclined plane, while the other, loaded with cascalhão, is drawn to the top of the other, where it empties itself into a cradle, and descends in its turn.

"The stratum of cascalhão consists of the same materials with that in the gold district. On many parts, by the edge of the river, are large conglomerate masses of rounded

pebbles, cemented by oxide of iron, in which gold and diamonds are sometimes enveloped. They calculate on obtaining as much cascalhão in the dry season as will occupy all their hands during the months which are more subject to rain. When carried from the bed of the river whence it is dug, it is laid in heaps, each containing apparently from five to fifteen tons.

"Water is conveyed from a distance, and is distributed to the various parts of the works by means of aqueducts, ingeniously constructed. The method of washing for diamonds at this place is as follows:—A shed is erected in the form of a parallelogram, seventy-five or ninety feet long, and about forty-five wide, consisting of upright posts, which support a roof, thatched with long grass. Down the middle of the area of this shed a current of water is conveyed through a canal, covered with strong planks, on which the cascalhão is laid two or three feet thick. On the other side of the area is a flooring of planks, from twelve to fifteen feet long, imbedded in clay, extending the whole length of the shed, and having a slope from the canal, of about an inch to a foot. This flooring is divided into about twenty troughs, each about three feet wide, by means of planks placed on their edge. The upper ends of all these troughs (here called canoes) communicate with the canal, and are so formed that water is admitted into them between two planks, that are about an inch separate. Through this opening the current falls about six inches into the trough, and may be directed to any part of it, or stopped at pleasure, by means of a small quantity of clay. For instance, sometimes water is required only from one corner of the aperture, then the remaining part is stopped; sometimes it is wanted from the centre, then the extremities are stopped; and sometimes only a gentle rill is wanted, then the clay is applied accordingly. Along the lower ends of the troughs a small channel is dug, to carry off the water.

"On the heap of cascalhão, at equal distances, are placed three high chairs, without backs, for the officers or overseers. After they are seated, the negroes enter the troughs, each provided with a rake, of a peculiar form, and short handle, with which he rakes into the trough about fifty or eighty pounds weight of cavalhão. The water being then let in upon it, the cascalhão is spread abroad, and continually raked up to the head of the trough, so as to be kept in constant motion. This operation is performed for the space of a quarter of an hour; the water then begins to run clearer, having washed the earthy particles away, the gravel-like matter is raked up to the end of the trough; after the current flows away quite clear, the largest stones are thrown out, and afterwards those of inferior size; then the whole is carefully examined for diamonds. When a negro finds one, he immediately stands upright and claps his hands, then extends them, holding the gem between his fore-finger and thumb; an overseer receives it from him, and deposits it in a gamella, suspended from the centre of the structure, half full of water. In this vessel all the diamonds found in the course of the day are placed, and, at the close of the work, they are taken out, and delivered to the principal officer, who, after they have been weighed, registers the particulars in a book kept for that purpose.

"When a negro is so fortunate as to find a diamond of the weight of seventeen carats and a half, he is crowned with a wreath of flowers, and carried in procession to the administrator, who purchases his freedom, gives him a new suit of clothes, and permits him to work on his own account. When a stone of eight or ten carats is found, the negro receives two new shirts, a complete new suit, with a hat, and a handsome knife. For smaller stones, of trivial amount, proportionate premiums are given. During my stay at Tejuco, a stone of sixteen carats and a half was found: it was pleasing to see the anxious desire manifested by the officers that it might prove heavy enough to entitle the poor negro to his freedom; and when, on being delivered and weighed, it proved only a carat short of the requisite weight, all seemed to sympathise in his disappointment.

"Various precautions are taken to prevent the negroes from embezzling diamonds. Although they work in an inclined position, and consequently never know whether the overseers are watching them or not, yet it is easy for them to omit gathering any which they see, and to place them in a corner of the trough for the purpose of secreting them at leisure hours, to prevent which they are frequently changed while the operation is going on. A word of command being given by the overseers, they instantly move into each other's troughs, so that no opportunity of collusion can take place. If a negro be suspected of having swallowed a diamond, he is confined in a strong room until the fact can be ascertained. Formerly the punishment inflicted on a negro for smuggling diamonds was confiscation of his person to the state: but, it being thought unjust for the owner to suffer for the offence of his servant, the penalty has been commuted for personal imprisonment and chastisement.

"There is no particular regulation respecting the dress of the negroes: they work in the clothes most suitable to the nature of their employment, generally in a waistcoat and a pair of drawers, and not naked, as some travellers have stated. Their hours of labour are from a little before sun-rise until sun-set, half an hour being allowed for breakfast, and two hours at noon. While washing, they change their posture as often as they please, which is very necessary, as the work requires them to place their feet on the edges of the trough, and to stoop considerably. This posture is particularly prejudicial to young growing

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NEGROES WASHING FOR DIAMONDS IN BRAZIL.

London Published by Thomas Kelly, Paternoster row, July 29 1815.

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negroes, as it renders them in-kneed. Four or five times during the day they all rest, when they are regaled with snuff, of which they are very fond.

The negroes are formed into working parties, called troops, containing two hundred each, under the direction of an administrator, and inferior officers. Each troop has a clergyman and a surgeon to attend it. With respect to the subsistence of the negroes, although the present governor has in some degree improved it, by allowing a daily portion of fresh beef, which was not allowed by his predecessors, yet it is still poor and scanty."

The following relation of an occurrence, which transpired during Mr. Mawe's residence at Rio de Janeiro, is particularly interesting, and may possibly induce the reader to refer for more ample information to the original work of that gentleman.

"A free negro of Villa do Principe, about nine hundred miles distant, had the assurance to write a letter to the Prince Regent, announcing that he possessed an amazingly large diamond, which he had received from a deceased friend some years ago, and which he begged he might have the honour to present to his Royal Highness in person. As the magnitude which this poor fellow ascribed to his diamond was such as to raise imagination to its highest pitch, the commander of Villa do Principe was ordered to send him forthwith to Rio de Janeiro, accommodated with a conveyance, and escorted by two soldiers. As he passed along the road, all who had heard the report considered him as already honoured with a cross of the order of St. Bento, and as certain of being rewarded with the pay of a general of brigade. The soldiers also anticipated great promotion; and all persons envied the fortunate negro. At length, after a journey which occupied about twenty-eight days, he arrived at the capital, and was straightway conveyed to the palace. His happiness was now about to be consummated; in a few moments the hopes which he had for many years indulged would be realized, and he would be exalted from a low and obscure condition to a state of affluence and distinction; such, no doubt, were the thoughts which agitated him during the moments of suspense. At length he was admitted into the presence; he threw himself at the prince's feet, and delivered his gem; his highness was astonished at its magnitude; a pause ensued; the attendants waited to hear the prince's opinion, and what he said they seconded. A round diamond, nearly a pound in weight, filled them all with wonder; some ready calculators reckoned the millions it was worth; others found it difficult to enumerate the sum at which it would be valued; but the general opinion was, that the treasury was many millions of crowns the richer. The noise which this occurrence created among the higher circles may be easily conceived; the general topic of remark and surprise was the negro's offering. It was shewn to the ministers, among whom an apprehension was expressed that a substance so large and round might not prove a real diamond; they, however, sent it to the treasury, under a guard, and it was reposited in the jewel-room.

"On the next day, the Condé de Linhares sent for me, and related all the circumstances which had come to his knowledge respecting this famous jewel; adding, in a low tone of voice, that he had his doubts about its proving a genuine diamond. His Excellency then directed me to attend at his office in a few hours, when letters from himself and the other ministers to the Treasury should be given me, for permission to view this wonderful gem, in order to determine what it really was. I accordingly prepared myself, and attended at the hour appointed, when I received the letters, which I presented at the Treasury to an officer in waiting. I was led through several apartments, in which much business seemed to be transacting, to the grand chamber, where presided the treasurer, attended by his secretaries. Having my letters in his hand, he entered into some conversation with me relative to the subject: I was then shewn through other grand apartments, hung with scarlet and gold, and ornamented with figures as large as life, representing justice holding the balance. In the inner room, to which we were conducted, were several strong chests, with three locks each, the keys of which were kept by three different officers, who were all required to be present at the opening. One of these chests being unlocked, an elegant little cabinet was taken out, from which the treasurer took the gem, and in great form presented it to me. Its value sunk at the first sight, for before I touched it I was convinced that it was a rounded piece of crystal. On examining it, I told the governor it was *not* a diamond, and, to convince him, I took a diamond of five or six carats, and with it cut a very deep nick in the stone. This was proof positive; a certificate was accordingly made out, stating that it was an inferior substance, of little or no value, which I signed.

"Other boxes were now unlocked, from one of which they shewed me two large slabs of diamond, each a full inch on the superficies, and about the eighth of an inch in thickness, of a very bad brown colour. When found, they formed one entire piece, which, being amorphous, was not known to be a diamond, until the administrator, or chief of the working party, after keeping it by him many days, had recourse to the old experiment of placing it on a hard stone, and striking it with a hammer. The result of this experiment is, that if the substance resist the blow, or separate in laminæ, it must be a diamond: the latter was the case in the present instance, and the man, having thus made two diamonds from one, transmitted them to the intendant.

"The river Abaité, from whence these pieces came,

has produced one, of an octaëdral form, which weighs seven-eighths of an ounce troy, and is perhaps the largest diamond in the world. It was found, about twelve years ago, by three men, who were under sentence of banishment for high crimes; but, on presenting this valuable gem to the then viceroy, they were pardoned and rewarded. It is now in the private possession of the Prince Regent.

"I was afterwards favoured with a sight of the remaining diamonds in the Treasury: they appeared to be in quantity about four or five thousand carats. The largest did not generally exceed eight carats, except one, of a fine octaëdral form, full seventeen. Among the few coloured diamonds, one of the smallest was a beautiful pink, one a fine blue, and several of a green tinge: the yellow were the most common, and least esteemed."

Revenue.] The revenue of Brazil, which is, perhaps, unequalled by that of any other country consisting of the same population, consists of the following branches:

1. A fifth upon all the gold obtained in any and every part of the country.

2. A duty of fifteen per cent. upon all merchandise entered at the custom-house and imported, except such articles as are imported in Portuguese vessels, which pay something less.

3. A small tax upon exports.

4. Tithes upon the productions of the land. This branch of revenue yields a large income to the state, to which it has belonged since the first settlement of the colony, when the reigning sovereign, by contract with the pope, agreed to pay the salaries of the clergy, in order to induce them to emigrate to that uncivilized country. It is also claimed by the state, in virtue of the order of Christ, of which the monarchs of Portugal are grand masters. It is portioned into distinct districts, each of which is either contracted for, or put up at auction separately, in the treasury, under such arrangements as to be allotted to those who have most interest. The several renters collect it by ascertaining the number of negroes upon each estate, or possessed by every housekeeper, and agree to receive a certain rate per head, instead of taking it in kind. The amount for which the various tithes are sold it is not easy to calculate, but it must be very considerable.

5. Indulgencies, which are disposed of under the same regulations as the tithes, the contractor of the district appointing agents in every parish to sell them for him.

6. A duty upon every thing that enters the mining district. This tax is about six shillings the arroba, or rather more than two-pence per pound, for all commodities indiscriminately. New negroes pay ten milreis each; and oxen, going to Rio de Janeiro, pay two milreis per head.

A considerable sum arises from the tolls paid on passing the various rivers. Two milreis for each mule, unless with cargo.

A new tax of five reis per pound has been imposed on all butchers' meat sold in the principal towns.

Spirituous liquors, transported to Rio de Janeiro, pay ten dollars per pipe.

A new tax has been laid upon the rents of houses, which, however, is levied very favourably.

The gold-dust that was formerly permitted to circulate in the mines, has been called in, and paper-money, peculiar to the district, has been issued, to the amount of a hundred thousand pounds sterling.

A considerable sum has been produced by the stamping of dollars, which were received at seven hundred and fifty reis, and re-issued, after being stamped, at nine hundred.

Cities.] Rio de Janeiro, or St. Sebastian, is now considered the capital of Brazil, and is the residence of the court of Portugal. The best view of the city is from the harbour, whence its lofty eminences, crowned with convents, and the hills in its environs, ornamented with villas and gardens, have a magnificent appearance. The royal palace skirts the beach, and is seen to great advantage from the principal landing-place, which is only sixty yards distant. This palace, though small, is the residence of the Prince Regent and the royal family: the mint and the chapel royal also form parts of the structure. Parallel with the beach runs the main street, consisting of noble buildings, from which the smaller streets diverge at right angles, and are intersected by others at regular distances.

The convents and churches are well built, and tolerably handsome; and the cathedral is in a superior style of architecture. The streets were formerly incommoded by latticed balconies, which had a very heavy appearance, and obstructed the circulation of the air; but these have been removed by order of government. The greatest nuisances now remaining are those which arise from the custom of equestrians of all ranks riding on the foot-paths, and from the absurd hanging of shop and house doors, so as to open outward into the street, to the great annoyance of foot-passengers. To these nuisances may be added the numerous pools of stagnant water, which, from the lowness of the situation, cannot, without much labour, be drained away, and which, through the heat of the weather, emit the most unpleasant exhalations. Water for the use of the city flows from the hills through aqueducts, and is distributed to several fountains in various public places; but it is to be regretted that there are not more of these for the supply of the inhabitants, numbers of whom live a mile distant from any of them, and are obliged to employ persons continually in carrying water. The fountains, in dry weather, are frequently so crowded, that the carriers have to wait for hours before they can be supplied. The water is good, and, when kept in large

jars, drinks cool and pleasant. The inns and public-houses are almost destitute of accommodations, and so very uncomfortable, that a stranger will not reside in them if he can possibly find a friend to take him in. House-rent is, in general, as high as in London, owing to the dearness of building materials, and the exorbitant price of masonry. Timber, in particular, is unaccountably scarce, considering the quantity which grows in almost every part of Brazil. Provisions are tolerably plentiful, but not very choice in quality: the beef is very indifferent; the pork is better, and, if the feeding were properly attended to, might be rendered fine; mutton is almost unknown, as the natives will not eat it; the poultry of every description are excellent, but they are very dear. Pulse and vegetables of all kinds are very abundant; and the fish-market is not ill supplied.

The police is pretty well regulated; and, from the attention which has been paid to it since the arrival of the court, there is reason to hope that it will be placed on a footing equally respectable with that of any European capital. The prisons are loathsome, and require the benevolent genius of a Howard to reform them altogether. One great step, however, in favour of humanity has been gained: the detestable inquisition has been abolished, and with it the spirit of persecution, so that no one can now be offended for his religious tenets, unless he openly insult the established religion.

Perhaps no colonial port in the world is so well situated for general commerce as Rio de Janeiro. It enjoys, in an eminent degree, a convenient intercourse with Europe, America, Africa, the East-Indies, and the South-Sea Islands, and seems formed by nature as a grand link to unite the trade of those great portions of the globe. Commanding, also, as the capital of a rich and extensive territory, resources of immense amount, it seemed to require only the presence of an efficient government to give it political importance; and this advantage it has now gained, by becoming the stated residence of the court of Portugal.

The articles imported from the River Plate, and from Rio Grande de St. Pedro, consist of immense quantities of dried beef, tallow, hides, and grain. Those from the United States are chiefly salt provisions, flour, pitch, tar, and household furniture. The North-Americans generally send cargoes of these articles on speculation, and, as the market for them is fluctuating, and not to be depended on, they frequently take them to other ports. Their provisions are commonly sent to the Cape of Good Hope. They bring European merchandise, which they exchange for specie, wherewith to trade to China, and also take in necessaries on their voyages to the South-Seas.

From the western coast of Africa, Rio de Janeiro imports wax, oil, sulphur, and some woods. The negro-trade has been restricted to the kingdom of Angola, by a decree of the Prince Regent, who has declared his intention of abolishing it altogether as soon as possible.

Before the Isle of France was taken by the British, the intercourse of Rio de Janeiro with India, in common with Mozambique, was much annoyed by the French privateers, but it will, in all probability, flourish by their suppression. A voyage thither and back is performed with great expedition: one large ship, of eight hundred tons, sailed, loaded at Surat, and returned within the space of seven months. A voyage to China seldom occupies a longer period. The trade thither will, no doubt, be revived; and it is not improbable that this port may, at a short distance of time, become an entrepôt for India goods destined for Europe.

Rio de Janeiro is conveniently situated for supplying a variety of necessaries to the Cape of Good Hope, and to New South-Wales; indeed, of late years, English manufactures have been sold here so cheap, that it has been found more advantageous to ship them hence for those colonies, than from home. Ships going on the South-Sea whale-fishery touch here, and lay in large stocks of spirituous liquors, wine, sugar, coffee, tobacco, soap, and live-stock. Iron is occasionally brought from Sweden; and the imports from the mother-country consist principally in wine and oil.

The principal exports are cotton, rum, sugar, ship-timber, cabinet-woods, hides, tallow, indigo, and coarse cotton-cloths, for clothing the Peons in the provinces of the River Plate. Among the more precious articles of export may be enumerated gold, diamonds, topazes of various colours, amethysts, tourmalines, aqua-marinas, chrysoberyls, and wrought jewelry.

This market has been overstocked with British manufactures, in consequence of the sanguine speculations excited by the emigration of the court from Portugal. The supply exceeded the demand in a tenfold degree, and the excess gave rise to auctions, where goods were sold at unprecedentedly reduced prices. In proportion as English merchandise lowered, that of Brazil rose in value; and so great was the demand for it, owing to the numerous vessels waiting for cargoes, that, within a year after the arrival of the Prince Regent, every article of produce was doubled. Gold quickly disappeared; for the monied Portuguese, perceiving the avidity and eagerness with which the English impolitely forced their goods upon them, cautiously withheld their specie, and, by the alternative of barter, got rid of their own produce at a very high price, and obtained the British merchandise almost at their own valuation. The losing party in this unequal traffic, though they had chiefly to blame their own imprudence in engaging in it, were loud in their complaints and remonstrances against the Portuguese merchants. A treaty of commerce was therefore concluded, by which the duties on English, and,

indeed, all foreign, merchandise, which had been twenty-five per cent., were reduced to fifteen per cent. *ad valorem:* and a judge was appointed to attend solely to the concerns of the English, and to see justice done them.

The harbour of Rio de Janeiro is generally easy of entrance and egress, as there is a daily alternation of land and sea breezes, the former blowing until about noon, and the latter from that hour until sun-set. Ships find here every conveniency for repairing, heaving down, &c.; but it is to be hoped that docks will soon be formed, which will render the latter operation unnecessary. An anchorage-duty is paid here, which forms an item in the bill of port-charges.

The Portuguese inhabitants are, in general, rather punctilious and reserved in admitting a foreigner to their family-parties; but, having once received him, they are open and hospitable.

The ladies are affable and courteous to strangers, extremely fond of dress, but less proud than those of other nations. In their mixed assemblies, the utmost gaiety prevails, and is seasoned by that politeness for which the Portuguese are generally distinguished. The conversation of the best-bred men, however, is more lively than instructive; for education is here at a low ebb, and comprises a very limited course of literature. Since the arrival of the court, however, measures have been adopted for effecting a reform in the seminaries, and other institutions for public instruction; and the Prince Regent has zealously patronised every attempt to diffuse among his subjects a taste for useful knowledge. Under his auspices, the college of St. Joaquim has undergone considerable improvement: a lectureship on chemistry has been instituted, to which a native of England, Dr. Gardner, has been nominated by his Royal Highness; and it is probable that from this appointment may be dated the introduction of experimental philosophy in that establishment.

St. Salvador, the capital of Bahia, was originally the seat of the supreme government of Brazil: it consists of two parts, one built on low ground, near the shore, where the commerce is carried on, and the other on a high hill, which, being considered the most salubrious, is the residence of all the people of fashion. Its population is said to be not less than seventy thousand souls. The houses are built with latticed windows and balconies. The churches are the public buildings most worthy of notice: they are said to be richly ornamented within. The government of the city is vested in a governor, who is nominated by the court, for three years. Here all law proceedings, civil and criminal, come before the respective magistrates, whose sentence is, in general, final, though appeals, in certain cases, may be made to the court at Rio de Janeiro.

Both the town and bay are as well defended as circumstances will permit. On the shore is a royal arsenal, and numerous houses for stores. The custom-house and wharfs are conveniently situated. Ships of war have been built here, also many large and fine vessels for the merchant-service. For these purposes a large supply of fine timber is readily obtained from the interior, from the number of fine rivers which flow into the bay.

The manners of the people differ little from those of the inhabitants of the capital; but it is said that, in the best societies here, more gaiety and refinement prevail, and the higher classes are more sociable, than in Rio de Janeiro. A taste for music is so general, that there are few houses without the guitar; and all the more respectable families have piano-fortes. The ladies dress in the English style, and ornament themselves with gold-chains, but wear very few diamonds. For dishabille at home they wear a kind of loose dress, over which they throw a veil, on the entrance of strangers. They are considered as far less industrious than the females of the southern districts. The domestic dress of the men consists of a jacket and loose trowsers, of printed cotton.

Religious processions take place here, as in Rio de Janeiro, on great festivals and rejoicing days; and these solemnities are attended by various amusements, which continue from morning to night. At these times, the Brazilians have a custom of covering the walls and balconies of their houses with beautiful silks, made and ornamented for the purpose.

One of the most memorable seasons of rejoicing, of late years, was when the Prince Regent touched at this city on his voyage to Rio de Janeiro, and remained several days. The inhabitants testified their loyalty by every public demonstration of joy, and by a display of all the magnificence which they could possibly furnish. As a more solid proof of their attachment, they unanimously voted to subscribe a sum equal to half a million sterling, to build a palace for the royal family, if the prince would condescend to fix his residence among them.

This city is plentifully supplied with provisions. Beef and pork are abundant; the former is decidedly bad, the latter tolerable. Fish are in great plenty and variety, and form a principal article in the diet of the inhabitants. Cold fish, with salad, is the general supper of almost all ranks. Numbers of retail shopkeepers, who sell wine, cheese, groceries, &c., buy fish and fry it, and afterwards retail it in small quantities. Poultry is plentiful, but not cheap; vegetables, and pulse of every description, are in very great profusion. The markets are well supplied with all the tropical fruits, many of which are said to be in great perfection, particularly the pine, the mango, and the banana; the latter is esteemed the best in America. Preserved fruits are in great abundance, owing to the cheapness of sugar; great varieties of them are sold in

the streets, and two or three preserved limes, in a cup of syrup, may be bought for a penny. Even the lower orders conclude the meanest dinner with this delicacy.

The inns and houses for the accommodation of strangers, are as bad, or worse, here than in any other part of Brazil. The owners are indifferent to the comfort of their guests, and, indeed, have no motive to be otherwise; for the Portuguese pay very poorly for bare necessaries, and generally go to the place where they can obtain them at the least expence.

St. Paul's, the chief town of the province of that name, is situated on a pleasing eminence, of about two miles in extent, surrounded on three sides by low meadow-land, and washed at the base by rivulets, which almost insulate it in rainy weather, and flow into a pretty large stream, called the Tieti, which runs within a mile of the town. Over them there are several bridges, some of stone, and others of wood, built by the late governor. The streets of St. Paul's, owing to its elevation, and the water which almost surrounds it, are, in general, very clean; the material with which they are paved, is a sort of grit-stone, cemented by oxide of iron, and containing large pebbles of rounded quartz. This pavement is an alluvial formation, containing gold, many particles of which metal are found in the chinks and hollows after heavy rains, and, at such seasons, are diligently sought for by the poorer class of the inhabitants.

Here are several squares, and about thirteen places of religious worship, viz. three monasteries, two convents, and eight churches, the greater part of which, as well as of the whole town, are built of earth. To erect the walls, a frame is constructed of six moveable planks, placed edge-wise, opposite each other, and secured in that position by cross-pieces, bolted with moveable pins. Earth is put in by small quantities, which the workmen beat with rammers, and occasionally moisten with water, to give it a consistency. Having filled the frame, they remove it, and continue the same operation till the whole shell of the house is completed, taking care to leave vacancies, and put in the window-frames, door-frames, and beams, as they proceed. The mass, in course of time, becomes hardened, the walls are pared perfectly smooth inside, and take any colour the owner chooses to give them: they are generally enriched with very ingenious devices. This species of structure is durable: I have seen some houses thus built that have lasted two hundred years; and most of them have several stories. The roofs are made to project two or three feet beyond the wall, in order to throw off the rain to a distance from the base; spouts might be a more effectual preservative against wet, but their use is little known here. The houses are covered with gutter-tiles; but, though the country affords excellent clay, and plenty of wood, very few bricks are burnt.

The population of this place is said to amount to nearly twenty thousand souls; the clergy, including all ranks of religious orders, may be reckoned at five hundred. They are, in general, free from that excessive bigotry and illiberality which is the reproach of the neighbouring colonies, and their example has a beneficial effect on the rest of the inhabitants.

Here are but few manufactures of importance; a little coarse cotton is spun by the hand, and woven into cloth, which serves for wearing apparel, sheets, &c. They make a beautiful kind of net-work for hammocks, which are fringed with lace, and form an elegant piece of furniture, being slung low, so as to answer the purpose of sofas. The ladies are particularly fond of using them, especially when the heat of the weather disposes them to indolence. The making of lace is a general employment for females, some of whom excel in it. The shop-keepers are a numerous class, who, as in most colonial towns, deal in a variety of articles, and sometimes make great fortunes. Here are few doctors of medicine, but many apothecaries; some silver-smiths, whose articles are equally indifferent, both in metal and workmanship; and tailors and shoemakers in great numbers. In the outskirts of the city live a number of Creolian Indians, who make earthen-ware for culinary purposes, large water-jars, and a variety of other utensils, tastefully ornamented. The greatest proportion of the inhabitants, however, consists in farmers and inferior husbandmen, who cultivate small portions of land, on which they breed large stocks of pigs and poultry for sale.

Tejuco, the capital of the diamond district, owing to its situation by the side of a hill, is very irregularly built; its streets are uneven, but the houses, in general, are well constructed, and in good condition, compared with those of other towns in the interior. Its name, which, in the Portuguese language, signifies a muddy place, is derived from places of that description in its neighbourhood, which are rendered passable by being covered with large pieces of wood.

Notwithstanding the idleness of a great number of the inhabitants, Tejuco may be called flourishing, on account of the circulation of property created by the diamond-works. The annual sum paid by government for the hire of negroes, salaries of officers, and various necessaries, such as nitre and iron, does not amount to less than thirty-five thousand pounds; and this, added to the demands of the inhabitants of the town and its vicinity, occasions a considerable trade. The shops are stocked with English cottons, baizes, and cloths, and other manufactured goods; also hams, cheese, butter, porter, and other articles of consumption, which are brought hither upon mules from St. Salvador and Rio de Janeiro.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of this coun-

try, which are very numerous, consist of Portuguese, negroes, Indians, and original natives. The portrait given of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in Brazil, by the majority of travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes; of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; indolent, proud, and cruel; in their diet, penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of show, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, or a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. From the accounts given by Mr. Mawe, however, these particulars appear to have been exaggerated. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes' shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour; they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains, so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down, or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtain aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

The Brazilian women, in the opinion of Lieutenant Tuckey, of the Calcutta, who was there in 1803, can seldom claim the epithet of pretty; though he observes, that their black eyes, large, full, and sparkling, give a degree of brilliancy to their dark complexions, and throw some expression into their countenances; but it is too generally the mere expression of animal vivacity, untempered by the soft chastising power of tender sensibility. Their eye-brows are finely arched; their eye-lashes long and silken; their hair is long, black, and coarsely luxuriant. In their persons, they are unacquainted with that delicate *propreté*, from which our countrywomen derive so large a portion of their power over the other sex, and for which they are conspicuous over all the nations of Europe.

It is not a little remarkable, that the young ladies, who are educated in the convents, are by no means subjected to such restraints as are imposed on them in similar institutions on the old continent. They are permitted to speak with strangers through the grating, and seem uncommonly partial to the conversation of Englishmen, who often, by ingenuity and the aid of bribery, contrive to carry them off. Mr. Tuckey contradicts the assertions of the gentlemen who accompanied Captain Cook, relative to the dropping of *bouquets* on the heads of passengers, as a signal for assignations; and asserts, that he found the manners of the unmarried ladies approaching near to the easy familiarity of those of England. On this subject Mr. Mawe, also, has the following remarks:—

"I may observe, that neither in St. Paul's, nor in any other place which I visited, did I witness any instance of that levity in the females of Brazil which some writers allege to be the leading trait in their character. I allude to the custom which has been said to prevail among them, of throwing flowers from the balconies on such of the passers-by as they take a fancy to, or of presenting a flower or a nosegay to their favourites, as a mark of partiality. The circumstance which seems to have given rise to such an ill-founded conjecture is this: Flowers are here considered an indispensable part of the female head-dress, and, when a stranger is introduced to a lady, it is nothing more than an act of common courtesy for her to take one from her hair to present to him. This elegant compliment he is expected to return in the course of the visit, by selecting a flower from the profuse variety which adorn the garden or the balcony, and presenting it to her.

"One singular custom I must not omit to notice, that of artificial fruit, such as lemons or oranges, made very delicately of wax, and filled with perfumed water. On the two first days of Lent, which are here celebrated with great festivity, persons of both sexes amuse themselves by throwing these balls at each other; the lady generally begins the game, the gentleman returns it with such spirit, that it seldom ceases until several dozens are thrown, and both parties are as wet as if they had been drawn through a river. Sometimes a lady will dexterously drop one into the bosom of a gentleman, which will infallibly oblige him to change his linen, as it usually contains three or four ounces of cold water. On these days of carnival, the inhabitants parade the streets in masks, and the diversion of throwing fruit is practised by persons of all ages. It is reckoned improper for men to throw at each other. The manufacture of these missiles, at such periods, affords no inconsiderable occupation to certain classes of the inhabitants: I have been informed, that, in the capital of Brazil, many hundreds of people derive a temporary subsistence from the sale of them. The practice, however, is very annoying to strangers, and not unfrequently engenders quarrels which terminate seriously."

We shall close this article with the account of Mr. Mawe's

entertainment at the house of Captain Rodrigo de Lima, in the village of Bordo do Campo:—

"While supper was preparing, we had some conversation with the captain respecting the agriculture and produce of the neighbourhood; in the course of which he paid much attention to our observations, and promised next day to shew us the system he pursued. At the repast, which was speedily announced, he introduced us to his wife and daughter, and a lady who was then on a visit to them. This was an unexpected act of politeness, and one which had never yet been exercised towards us by any master of a family in the whole course of our journey. The few females we occasionally saw at any former place generally secluded themselves on our arrival, and during our stay; and, when they came near us by chance, they commonly ran away, in as much apparent alarm as if they had been accustomed to be frightened at the name of an Englishman. The ladies appeared in very neat dresses, of English manufacture, with a profusion of gold chains about their necks, which are always worn on receiving or paying visits. Their conversation was gay and enlivening: they were very inquisitive respecting the costume of English women, and seemed astonished at hearing that they wore caps, it being never the custom among the Brazilian females to cover their heads, until advanced in years. They ornament their hair with combs, frequently of gold, and very richly wrought. Wine was introduced, of which the ladies could not be persuaded to partake; but they gave our healths, by putting the glass to their lips. After supper, the table was covered with delicious sweetmeats; when, being desirous of paying the lady of the house a compliment, I spoke highly of their excellence, and presumed that the fruits were preserved under her immediate direction: but she assured me to the contrary, and observed that her negro did all that sort of domestic work. I perceived, or imagined, that she was rather offended at my remark, and therefore apologised, by saying, that it was not uncommon for the ladies in England to interest themselves personally in the concerns of housewifery. The remainder of the evening passed off very agreeably.

"On looking out of my chamber-window, the following morning, I was surprised to see two small and very neat inclosures, in one of which flax was growing, and, in the other, wheat. The latter, which apparently had been sown about seven weeks, was very poor and unpromising: the ground had too much water, and seemed of late to have been flooded. Our host regaled us with a breakfast of stewed fowl, excellent coffee and milk, and a dish of feijoues, with mandioca, and buttered toast; after which he conducted us to his inclosures.

"The flax was very healthful and strong: he told us he cut it three or four times a year, and that it was dressed, spun, and woven, in his own house. He grew but little, having occasion for no more than what answered his domestic purposes. The wheat, he told us, was blighted. He shewed us a sample of last year's growth, which was very poor, coarse, and foul. The mills are of similar construction to those used at Canta Gallo, but I did not observe a pair of stones fit for the grinding of wheat.

"I now expressed a wish to see his dairy, which the good gentleman immediately complied with. Instead of an apartment, such as I expected to find, fitted up and kept in order for that sole purpose, I was shewn into a kind of dirty store-room, the smell of which was intolerable. The present, I was told, was not the time for making cheese, as the cows gave milk only in the rainy season. I begged to see the implements used in the process; and, on examining them, found, to my utter astonishment, that neither the vats nor cloths had been washed since they were last used, and the milk-pails, &c. were in the same condition. This sufficiently accounted for the offensive smell which I had perceived on entering the place. When I asked to see the utensil for making butter, an apology was made, by stating that it was not in the way: they had observed my disgust at the other vessels, and probably thought that this was equally unfit to be inspected. I did all in my power to inform our worthy host of the manner in which English dairies were conducted, and gave him several directions, which he wrote down, but seemed quite indifferent about adopting them. On enquiry, I found that no provision was made for the cows; there were no houses erected for milking, and that operation was frequently neglected, and at all times badly performed.

"The premises bore traces of the industry and taste of the former occupants: there was a mud-wall round them, encompassing about an acre of ground, which, when perfect, must have given the whole a retired and comfortable appearance; but it was now partly broken down and in ruins. The steps leading to the front-door of the dwelling were of pot-stone, of which substance there is a stratum in the vicinity.

"Our cattle being ready, we mounted about eleven in the forenoon, returning thanks to our host, and offering to pay for the accommodations we had met with; but the only compensation he required was, a promise on our part to pass a day or two with him on our return. The ladies, who had not appeared at breakfast, came out upon the gallery, and very pleasingly and politely wished us a good journey."

History.] Brazil was first discovered by Americus Vespuccio, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption, at first, from the court of Spain, who

considered the whole continent of South-America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length compromised by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French, also, made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very zenith of their prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa; and, by that event, the Portuguese lost their independence, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and being not satisfied with supporting their independence by a successful defensive war, being flushed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew powerful and opulent by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East-Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they took seven of the capitanias, and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1645, entirely driven out of Brazil; but their West-India Company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and, harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country, which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brazil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress, called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

The most recent event in the history of this country is the emigration of the royal family of Portugal, who were induced to seek in this part of America an asylum from the persecutions of Napoleon Buonaparte.

SECTION II

ISLANDS IN SOUTH-AMERICA,

BELONGING TO THE PORTUGUESE.

THE islands belonging to the Portuguese, in South-America, are Fernando Nohrono, St. Martin Vaz, Ascension, Trinidad, and St. Catharine. The three former are not worthy of notice, the two latter are described in the voyage of M. de la Perouse, as follows:—

TRINIDAD.

Trinidad is thus described by M. de Monneron, chief engineer in the expedition of M. de la Perouse.

"The island of Trinidad, situated in the southern hemisphere, a hundred and eighty leagues from the coast of Brazil, remained uninhabited till the war which terminated in 1783, when the English took possession of it, doubtless with a view of converting it into a station, whence they might cruise with success on the French, Spaniards, and Dutch. It was said, that they had abandoned the island at the peace: the intention of M. de la Perouse was to ascertain the truth of this. A little time after making the island, we saw a Portuguese flag on a rising ground, at the head of a small bay, on the south-east side of the island.

"M. de la Perouse, having hoisted out a boat, ordered me to go and endeavour to survey the coast. The officer commanding this expedition was forbidden to disembark, unless he could do it without running any hazard. We came very near the shore, but were unable to land; we had an opportunity, however, of examining, at a very little distance, this establishment. It is situate about a third of the way up a hill, facing a sand-bank, that forms a creek in the south-east of the isle. The western side of this little opening is bounded by bluffs of bare rock, which, like the rest of the island, are of volcanic origin. On the eastern side is a broad-based sugar-loaf hill, about three hundred feet high, which adjoins to a kind of table-hill, the diameter of which is much more considerable than that of the former, but, in height, it scarcely equals two-thirds of it. There is, on the sand-bank, from forty-five to sixty fathoms depth of water: hence the land rises into a steep and very regular, though natural, glacis, at the summit of which is a kind of platform, very sloping on the side next the sea, and which, to make use of a technical term, I call *terre plein*; the inclination of this is so considerable as hardly to afford a shelter from the fire of a ship at the anchorage. I saw no parapet, though there probably is one in barbet. I looked as narrowly as I could for cannon or batteries, but saw no traces of them. On the *terre plein* were five or six huts, resembling those of the negroes on the sugar-plantations; of these one was considerably larger than the rest, and situate near the salient angle of the *terre plein*. This fortification, if such it may be called, resembles a redan, one side of which is parallel to the sand-bank, and the other to a ravine, which is the boundary of the glacis in this direction.

"This establishment resembles rather a resort of banditti than a post occupied by a civilized nation. Except the natural obstacles, which render the approach to this island difficult and dangerous, there is nothing which can make a shadow of resistance: I can, also, confidently affirm, that there is not a single vessel there, of any de-

scription, which induces me to think that the Portuguese have but very lately arrived here, or are very negligent of their establishments.

"M. de Vaujuas, who landed on the island, brought back word to M. de la Perouse, that he estimated the number of persons there at two hundred. For my own part, I reckoned their numbers with great care, repeatedly counting those who came within sight, but I could not make out more than about thirty-three persons on the brow of the hill, and thirty-six who were observing us from the platform; so that the rest of the exiles to this rock had not curiosity enough to come within sight of us. They told M. de Vaujuas, that they were supplied every six months with provision from Rio de Janeiro, and were relieved annually.

"As the bottom of the bay is probably rocky, it might be difficult for ships or frigates to bring their broadsides to bear on the post; but if the place remain in its present situation, I should advise taking a safer anchorage to the south-west, whence, in all probability, it would be easy to turn the post, which is on the south-east side of the bay, by making a lodgment on the crest of the hill, at the bottom of which is the platform that has been already described."

ST. CATHERINE.

"The Island of St. Catherine," says M. de la Perouse, "extends from twenty-seven degrees nineteen minutes to twenty-seven degrees forty-nine minutes of south latitude. Its breadth, from east to west, is only two leagues, and it is only separated from the main by a channel two hundred toises over. On the point that forms this narrow passage is situated the city of Nostra-Senora del Destero, the capital of the government, and the place of residence of the governor. It contains, at most, three thousand inhabitants, and about four hundred houses. Its appearance is exceedingly pleasant. According to Frezier's account, this island served, in 1712, as a retreat to vagabonds, who made their escape from different parts of the Brazils, who were only nominal subjects of Portugal, and who acknowledged no authority whatever. The country is so fertile, that they were able to subsist without any succour from the neighbouring colonies; and they were so destitute of money, that they could neither tempt the cupidity of the governor-general of the Brazils, nor inspire him with any desire of subduing them. The ships that touched at the island gave them in exchange for their provisions nothing but clothes and shirts, of which they were in the utmost want. It was not till about 1740, that the court of Lisbon established a regular government in the island of St. Catherine, and the parts of the continent adjacent. This government extends sixty leagues north and south from the river San Francisco to Rio Grande, its population being about twenty thousand persons; but I saw so great a number of children in the different families, that I think it will soon be much more considerable. The soil is exceedingly fertile, and produces all sorts of fruit, vegetables, and corn, almost spontaneously. It is covered with trees of everlasting green, but they are so interwoven with briers and creeping plants, that it is impossible to get through the forests otherwise than by opening a path with a hatchet. Danger is besides to be apprehended from snakes, whose bite is mortal. The habitations, both on the island and the continent, are all close to the sea-side. The woods that surround them are delightfully fragrant, owing to the great number of orange-trees, and other odoriferous trees and shrubs that they contain. But, notwithstanding all these advantages, the country is very poor, and totally destitute of manufactured commodities, so that the peasants are almost naked, or else covered with rags. Their soil, which is very fit for the cultivation of sugar, remains unproductive for the want of slaves, whom they are not rich enough to purchase. The whale-fishery is very successful; but it is the property of the crown, and is farmed by a company at Lisbon, which has three considerable establishments upon the coast. Every year they kill about four hundred whales, the produce of which, as well oil as spermaceti, is sent to Lisbon by the way of Rio de Janeiro. The inhabitants are idle spectators of this fishery, from which they derive not the smallest advantage. If the government does not come forward to their assistance, and grant them such franchises and immunities as may invite commerce to their shores, one of the finest countries in the universe will remain everlastingly miserable, and will be utterly useless to the mother-country. It is very easy to make St. Catherine's. A muddy bottom is found in seventy fathoms water, at eighteen leagues distance in the offing, the water gradually shoaling till within four cables' length of the land, where there is still four fathoms.

"It appeared to me that our arrival spread great terror through the country. The different forts fired several alarm-guns, which induced me to anchor earlier than I should otherwise have done, and to send a boat on shore with an officer, to make known our pacific intentions, and our want of wood, water, and fresh provisions. The officer, whom I charged with this negotiation, found the little garrison of the citadel all under arms. It consisted of forty men, commanded by a captain, who immediately sent off an express to the city, where the governor, brigadier of infantry, resided. He had been informed of our expedition by means of the Lisbon Gazette; and a bronze medal I sent him, left him no doubt concerning the object of our visit. The most speedy and positive orders were given to sell us whatever we stood in need of, at the lowest price; an officer was appointed to attend on each frigate;

he was entirely at our command, and we sent him, with the purser's steward, to buy provisions of the inhabitants.

"Provisions of all kinds were in the greatest abundance; a large ox cost eight dollars; a hog, of one hundred and fifty pounds weight, four; two turkeys were to be had for a dollar; it was only necessary to cast the net, in order to haul it up again full of fish; five hundred oranges were brought on board, and sold to us for less than half a dollar; and vegetables were also at a very moderate price. The following fact will give an idea of the hospitality of these good people:—One of my boats having been overset by the surf, in a creek where I was cutting wood, the inhabitants, who assisted in saving it, forced our half-drowned sailors to sleep in their beds, and passed the night themselves upon mats spread on the ground, in the same room in which they exercised this noble hospitality. A few days afterwards they brought on board the Boussole, the masts, grapnel, and colours of the boat, articles truly valuable to them, and which would have been of the greatest use in their canoes. Their manners are mild: they are kind, polite, and obliging; but superstitious, and jealous of their wives, who never appear in public.

"Not having foreseen the obstacles that detained us twelve days in this road, we did not send our astronomical clocks on shore, thinking that we should only pass five or six days at anchor. We had, however, little reason for regret, as the sky was constantly cloudy. The longitude of the island was consequently determined by distances from the sun to the moon. According to our observations, the most northerly point of the island of St. Catherine may be fixed at forty-nine degrees forty-nine minutes west longitude, and twenty-seven degrees nineteen minutes south latitude."

To this account we shall subjoin the following particulars from the travels of our worthy countryman, Mr. Mawe:—

"Entering the port of St. Catherine's by the north, we passed several islands, on one of which, westward of the entrance, stood the respectable fort of Santa Cruz. After running a few miles in shoal water, we sailed into a narrow passage, guarded by two forts, which forms the harbour. From the anchorage, and more particularly from the landing-place, which is at the bottom of a verdant slope of about five hundred yards, the town has a beautiful appearance, and the perspective is nobly crowned by the cathedral. The green is interspersed with orange-trees, and forms an agreeable parade. The houses are well built, have two or three stories, with boarded floors, and are provided with neat gardens, well stocked with excellent vegetables and flowers. The town consists of several streets, and may contain from five thousand to six thousand inhabitants. It is a free port. The produce of the island consists in rice, maize, mandioca, excellent oranges, and a variety of other fruits. Sugar and indigo are likewise produced, but in small quantities.

"The surface of the island is diversified with mountains, plains, and, in some places, swamps; here is found a stratum of excellent red clay, which is manufactured into jars, culinary vessels, large water-pots, &c. which are exported in considerable quantities to the Plata and to Rio de Janeiro. The lands capable of cultivation are under considerable improvement; a great extent of them was formerly covered with large trees, but as great quantities have of late years been cut down and used for ship-building, good timber may now be considered scarce. They grow flax here of a tolerably good quality, of which the fishermen make their lines, nets, &c. The sea hereabouts produces an abundant variety of excellent fish, and some fine prawns; so large is the supply to the market, that a quantity of fish, sufficient to dine a dozen persons, may be had for a shilling. Meat is hard and lean; and its general price is about three halfpence per pound. Pigs, turkeys, ducks, poultry, and eggs, however, are plentiful and cheap.

"The climate is serene and wholesome, its solstitial heats being constantly moderated by fine breezes from the south-west and north-east, which are the winds that generally blow here; the latter prevails from September to March, and the former from April to August.

"The mountains of the interior, and the rocks on the coast, are of primitive granite. Close to the fort, on the left hand of the entrance to the harbour, is a vein of grünstein, in various states of decomposition, which ultimately migrates into clay, of a superior quality to that generally found in the valleys. The soil in the interior, being rather humid, is extremely fertile. It consists principally of a rich vegetable decomposition, on which shrubs and plants grow in great luxuriance. Myrtles appear in all parts, and a most beautiful variety of the passion-flower is found in equal abundance.

"The animals are chiefly opossums, monkeys, and armadillas. Of birds, there are cranes, hawks, parrots, of various species, humming-birds, and toucans, the latter, of every variety, in great numbers. There are also a variety of serpents.

"The island is divided into four parishes; viz. Noss Senhora de Dereito, St. Antonio, Lagumo, and Riberon. The divisions of the opposite part of the continent are likewise under the jurisdiction of the governor of St. Catherine's, who is subject, in certain cases, to the capitania of St. Paul's, and in others to the government of Rio de Janeiro.

"Of the fortresses which defend this island, the most considerable are Santa Cruz, already mentioned; Porto Groed, Ratones, Estreito, and Concepção. Off the

former there is safe anchorage for a fleet of men of war, and the harbour which it protects may be entered by ships of three hundred tons, if not of a heavy draught of water. Ships passing the channel are required to send a boat on shore at Santa Cruz before they proceed.

"The trade of this place is inconsiderable, as the produce does not much exceed the consumption of the inhabitants, who are, in general, far from rich. It affords an agreeable retirement to merchants who have discontinued business, masters of ships who have left off going to sea, and other persons, who, having secured an independence, seek only leisure to enjoy it. Few places are better calculated for such a purpose than this; it is enlivened by the numerous coasting-vessels from St. Salvador, Pernambuco, and other ports, bound for the Plata, which frequently touch here; and it is amply provided with artisans of all descriptions. The inhabitants, in general, are very civil and courteous to strangers: the ladies are handsome, and very lively: their chief employment is making of lace, in which they display great taste and ingenuity."

CHAPTER XI.

FRENCH AND DUTCH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH-AMERICA.

SECTION I.

FRENCH GUIANA.

THIS tract of country extends about two hundred and forty miles along the coast, from Cape Orange, in north latitude four degrees twenty-seven minutes, to the River Marani, in north latitude six degrees forty-six minutes. The settlements are not extended above twenty miles from the sea-coast, the interior being still inhabited by the native Indians. The land all along the coast is low and marshy, and the climate extremely insalubrious: but on the higher parts, where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is healthy, and the heats are considerably mitigated by the sea-breezes.

The principal settlements of the French in Guiana are situated in the Isle of Cayenne, which lies one hundred miles west of Cape Orange, at the mouth of the river of the same name. It is about forty-five miles in circumference, well wooded and watered, admirably cultivated, and extremely fertile in sugar, tobacco, Indian corn, plants, fruits, &c. This country produces the Cayenne-pepper, which the inhabitants use to excess. On the easternmost point of the island are the town and fort of St. Louis. The town contains about two hundred houses, occupied by mechanics and tradesmen, and the fort has a good garrison; but the fort, which stands at the bottom of the harbour, has no other fresh water than what is saved from rain in large cisterns.

The French first established themselves here in 1635: the place was afterwards possessed alternately by the English and French, to whom succeeded the Dutch, but the French finally prevailed, and still retain it.

SECTION II.

DUTCH GUIANA.

Situation, Climate, and Vegetable Productions.] That part of Guiana belonging to the Dutch is sometimes distinguished by the appellation of Surinam. It is situated between five and seven degrees of north latitude, extending a hundred miles along the coast, from the mouth of the River Omonoko, north, to the River Marani, or French Guiana, on the south.

The climate is by no means disagreeable, for the trade-winds by day, the land-breezes in the evening, and the invariable lengths of the nights, with refreshing dews, render the air temperate and salubrious.

Besides trees and plants common to other countries, the Simaruba-tree, peculiar to Guiana, is esteemed a pacific in dysenteries. The carunce is a pernicious root, the powder of which the Indians conceal under their nails, till they have an opportunity of putting it into the food or drink of those they wish to poison.

Animals.] Among the animals peculiar to the country there is an amphibious creature, called *haubba*, about the size of a small pig. The head and feet are like those of a pug-dog, but it is without a tail, and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat. The monkeys of this country are very numerous, and their species various. Here are bats, twice as large as owls, and without tails. Most people in Guiana sleep in hammocks, as being more secure from serpents and poisonous insects; but this does not secure them from the bats, which approach any part of the body that is uncovered, generally the feet, open a vein and suck the blood

till they are satisfied. There is also peculiar to Guiana a large venomous toad, called the pipa. Its young are bred in the back of the male, where the female deposits the eggs.

There is so great a variety of beautiful birds in Guiana, that several persons in the Dutch colony employ themselves and their slaves in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of Europe.

Most of the fishes of Guiana, also, are common with those of other countries. The torporific eel, when touched either by the hand or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock resembling that of electricity.

Guiana abounds in serpents of various kinds. There is one sort, not venomous, that measures sometimes above thirty feet in length, and three in circumference. It has a taper tail, armed with two claws, like those of a dunghill cock. Small deer have been found in their stomachs. There are also some of those called amphis bæna.

The insects of Guiana are innumerable, owing to the constant warmth and humidity of the climate.

Principal Town.] The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the same name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations thirty leagues above the mouth of this river. This was one of the richest and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than it was some years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become so numerous, having increased from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almost inaccessible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former masters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence, and make frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dyeing drugs. They trade with the North-American colonies, who bring hither horses, live cattle, and provisions, and take home a large quantity of molasses.

About twenty-five leagues from Surinam is the colony of Berbice, so called from a river of the same name. Fort Nassau is the seat of government. There are several settlements and plantations on the River Conya, which form a part of the colony of Berbice.

Inhabitants, Customs, Manners, &c.] The inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people has likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes. These are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse. The natives are divided into different tribes, more or less enlightened and polished, as they are more or less removed from the settlements of the Europeans. They allow polygamy, and have no division of lands. The men go to war, hunt, and fish; the women look after domestic affairs. Their arms are bows, arrows, clubs, and poisoned darts, blown through a reed. They go almost naked, excepting upon particular occasions, when they ornament their heads with feathers. They are cheerful, humane, and friendly; but timid, and addicted to drinking.

Their houses generally consist of four stakes, with cross-poles, covered with leaves. They set them up, pull them down, and carry the whole with them, at pleasure, as their dwellings are light, and their lives ambulatory. They bury their dead naked, and get drunk at the funeral, to drown their sorrows. When the body has been interred a sufficient time for the flesh to be rotten, they take up the bones, distribute them among the relations and friends of the defunct, and again get intoxicated, to testify their respect for the memory of the deceased. Their wants are easily supplied, and their vices are but few. Continence before marriage is not considered as a virtue, but no injury is so surely revenged as the infidelity of a wife.

Nothing is cultivated here by the natives but plantain, cassava, and yams, and one month's cultivation suffices for all these. The men are all hunters, and they can always find game or fish, if they prefer it, without danger or toil. They dress it by boiling, either in water or in the juice of cassava, and season it very high with Cayenne pepper. The only set time of eating is the evening, when they return from hunting: in general, they eat when they are hungry. They scarcely know salt, but sometimes preserve animal-food by smoke-drying it. Their drink is water, or a fermented liquor, prepared from the plantain, called pievoree: when they have plenty of this, they are continually inebriated; so that their indolence and improvidence, by preventing a constant supply, become public and private blessings.

As supplying the wants of nature, in so fertile and delightful a country, takes up but a small portion of their time, they fill up the intervals by various amusements: they bathe and swim in the rivers, in large companies, several times a day, without paying any regard to distinction of sex; and they swim so well, that they may be almost reckoned among amphibious animals. At other times, they visit each other, and are mutually entertained with the simple occurrences of their lives, and a great variety of fables, which are merry, significant, and moral.

Sometimes they dance, and frequently burst into immoderate laughter; and sometimes they recline indolently in their hammock, where they not only sleep, but eat, converse, and play, blow a kind of rustic flute, pluck out the hair of their beards, or admire themselves in looking-glasses

The women suffer nothing in parturition, which is attended neither with danger nor pain. The mother and child, immediately after delivery, are plunged into the water, and the next day she returns to her employment, as if nothing had happened. The children are fed, and, during their infancy, no other care is taken of them; none are sickly or deformed: the boys, as they grow up, attend their fathers in hunting, and the girls assist their mothers. In old age, they become wrinkled; but are never either bald or grey. As they have no method of computing time to any number of years, their age cannot be ascertained; but there is sufficient reason to conclude that their lives are long.

In all their traffic with each other, or with the Europeans, they estimate every thing by their present want of it: they will at one time demand a hatchet for that which, at another time, they will exchange for a fish-hook.

These happy people live together upon terms of perfect equality, having no distinction but of age, or personal merit; neither have they any division of property; each amicably participates the ample blessings of a delightful and extensive country: envy, fraud, and violence, are precluded, natural desires are immediately and innocently indulged, and government rendered wholly unnecessary.

CHAPTER XII.

COUNTRIES IN SOUTH-AMERICA IN POSSESSION OF THE NATIVES.

SECTION I.

AMAZONIA.

Boundaries, Extent, &c.

THIS extensive country, which derived its name from the Spaniards, under the command of Orellana, being opposed by troops of women, when they entered the river, is bounded, on the north, by Terra Firma; on the south, by Paraguay, or La Plata; on the east, by part of Brazil and the Atlantic Ocean; and, on the west, by Peru. It is about twelve hundred miles in length, and nine hundred and sixty in breadth.

No European nation has yet made any settlement in this country. Indeed, very little of it is known, except along the west banks of the river, and the west frontiers of the Portuguese colonies in Brazil.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The air is cooler here than might be expected so near the equator, which proceeds from the heavy rains, that occasion the rivers to overflow their banks one half of the year; and from the cloudy weather, and shortness of the days, which never exceed twelve hours. A brisk easterly wind also cools the air, which blows from the Atlantic Ocean quite through the country. Here are terrible storms of thunder and lightning, during the time of the rains.

The face of the country is extremely beautiful, and the soil fertile, producing cocoa-nuts, ananas, or pine-apples, guavas, bananas, and other tropical fruits; cedar, iron-wood, so called from its weight and density; red-wood, oak, ebony, logwood, and many other sorts of dying woods and drugs; together with cotton, tobacco, sugar, maize, cassava-root, yams, potatoes, sarsaparella, and canela, or spurious cinnamon.

The woods produce excellent honey, balm, wild-fowl, and venison. The honey is exquisite, and the balm good against all wounds. Parrots are as numerous here as pigeons in England. They have vast numbers of fish, of all sorts, in the rivers and lakes; and, among others, manatis, or sea-cows, that are amphibious, and feed on the banks; and tortoises, of a large size and delicate taste; but the fishers must be upon their guard against crocodiles, alligators, and water-serpents.

Customs, Manners, &c.] The natives are of a good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They have a taste for the imitative arts, especially sculpture and painting, and are good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the bark of trees, their sails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoise-shells, or hard stones; their chisels, plains, and wimbles, of the teeth and horns of wild beasts; and their canoes are hollowed trees. They spin and weave cotton-garments themselves; and their houses and huts are of wood, thatch, and clay. Their arms, in general, are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish-skins. They are such

good archers, that they kill fish in the water with their arrows, which they eat without bread or salt. The several tribes are governed by their chiefs or caciques; for, it is observable that, the monarchical form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among the ancient and modern barbarians, as requiring by far a much less refined policy than the republican system. The regalia, by which the chiefs are distinguished, are a crown of parrots' feathers, a chain of lions' teeth, or claws, about their middle, and a wooden sword in their hand. Both sexes sometimes wear mantles of the skins of beasts, or cotton, but generally go naked. In some districts the men thrust pieces of cane through their ears and under-lips, and hang glass-beads at the gristle of their noses; but in others they wear plates of gold at their ears and nostrils. They allow of polygamy; and the women here, as in the other American nations, do the most laborious work. They worship the images of their ancient heroes, or subordinate deities; but have no temples or orders of priests among them.

Here are a people, called Omaguas, who, to render their children *beautiful*, flatten the fore and hind parts of the head, which gives them a monstrous appearance. This practice is strictly kept up among them; and they make a jest of the other inhabitants of Amazonia, calling them *calabash-heads*.

The Aruacas, or Aruacs, are a most interesting tribe, and are regarded as the ancestors of those amiable West-Indians, whom Columbus found in Hispaniola, Cuba, and Jamaica, where their bitterest enemies were the Caribbees of the Windward Islands. Stedman, in his voyage to Surinam, mentions them as a happy and innocent race, without care or poverty, in a delicious country; and they even die with cheerfulness, in a certainty of passing to a yet more happy land. These Indians delight in personal cleanliness, and both sexes swim with great ease and agility. He saw a party of Aruacs enjoying this favourite recreation, and represents them as wholly different from the other tribes which he had seen. One girl was of extraordinary beauty, fairer than the usual copper-colour. She came out of the river, and her only dress was a little square apron, composed of small beads, while her hair was fastened up with a broad silver-bodkin. Her charming features, her nymph-like form, her health, and playful liveliness, surpassed description; while her physiognomy announced an amiable simplicity and innocence. Taking her bow, she killed a parrot with a round-headed arrow. The Aruacs often kill macaws and pigeons on their flight. They are attached to the Europeans; and are equally remarkable for probity and gratitude; but, when provoked to war, they assume the bow and a heavy club. Although the Aruacs are now considerably removed from the ocean, they descend the rivers in large canoes, sometimes forty feet in length. Their principal body lives still on the sea, between Cape Nassau and the mouth of the Oroonoko.

History.] Gonzalo Pizarro, brother to Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru, was the first who undertook to explore the climes of Amazonia; and the following account of his proceedings has been given by a respectable writer:—"Previously to the expedition, he raised an army, composed of some Spanish veterans, horse and foot, together with about four thousand Indians. The latter were principally employed in carrying the baggage, and driving a great number of Indian sheep, hogs, &c. before them, for the subsistence of the army by the way. Thus prepared, he set out from Quito, in Peru, about Christmas, in the year 1539. A dreadful earthquake, and a terrible storm, which lasted nearly fifty days, greatly impeded his march, and many of his Indians died through the severity of the weather. After surmounting innumerable difficulties, they arrived at a province called Cumaco, where they found plenty of provisions, a great number of cinnamon-trees, and many naked inhabitants. Here Gonzalo left the principal part of his people, taking with him only a few of the most active to search for a pass into the neighbouring country; for hitherto they had been enveloped with mountains and woods, through the latter of which they were forced to cut their way, and in the former they endured astonishing hardships.

"With inexpressible labour and suffering they came at length to a province, called Cuca, which was more populous than any they had formerly passed. Here provisions were plentiful, and the cacique, or king of the country, came in a peaceable manner to welcome them, and brought them provisions.

"In these parts they remained two months, in expectation of the arrival of those Spaniards whom they had left in Cumaco, and had directed to follow them by such traces and marks as they should find of the way they had taken before them. Their companions being come up and refreshed after their journey, they marched by the banks of a great river, for the space of fifty leagues, in all which way they neither found bridge or ford.

"At length they came to a place, where the whole river falls from the top of a rock, above two hundred fathoms high, which cataract makes a noise that is heard above six leagues from the place; at which, though the Spaniards were amazed, yet it was much more wonderful to see, above forty or fifty leagues lower, that immense quantity of water contracted and straitened within a channel made by one great rock. This channel is so narrow, that, from one side to the other, it is not above twenty feet wide, but so high, that the top, where the Spaniards made their bridge, was two hundred fathoms from the water. Gonzalo Pizarro, and his captains, considering there was no

other passage to be found on the river, and that it was necessary to pass to the other side, because the country was barren on that side where they were, agreed to make a bridge over the top of the rock.

"The Indians on the opposite side, though few in number, stoutly defended the pass, but were driven from it by the fire of the muskets. The pass being now clear, the Spaniards fell to work on the bridge of timber, which cost much labour before the first beam could be passed over to the opposite rock; by the help of which a second was more easily laid, and then other pieces of timber; so that by degrees they formed a bridge, over which both men and horses passed securely: after this they marched by the side of the river over mountains, covered so thick with wood, that they were forced to open their way again with hatchets. Through these difficulties they came at length to a country called Guema, where the Spaniards, and their Indian servants, were forced to sustain themselves with herbs and roots, and with tender sprouts of trees. Thus, with famine and perpetual rains, many of the Spaniards fell sick and died. They arrived afterwards at a country, where the natives were more civilized than in the former. These ate maize, or Indian corn, and clothed themselves with garments of cotton; but still the climate was subject to violent rains.

"While they staid in this place they sent out parties every way, to see if they could discover a better country, but they met with nothing but wild mountains, full of bogs, lakes, and moorish grounds, over which was no passage. Hereupon they resolved to build a brigantine, to ferry over from one side of the river to the other, which was become two leagues broad. In order to this, the first thing to be done was to set up a smith's forge, for nails and iron-work, which they made of the shoes of the horses they had killed for food, and some iron bars they had carried with them; but iron was now become more scarce than gold.

"Gonzalo Pizarro, though chief commander, was the first that laid his hand to the axe, to hew down the timber, and to make the charcoal, which was requisite to forge the iron; and always the most forward in every menial office, that, by thus giving a good example, none might take occasion to excuse himself. The rosin, which issued from certain trees, served them instead of pitch, and their old shirts and rags were made use of instead of oakum, to caulk the seams of their vessel, which, being in this manner finished, they launched into the water with great joy and triumph, imagining that hereby they should quickly escape out of all their dangers and difficulties. But it proved otherwise, for a few days shewed the contrary, and gave them cause to repent that they had ever made it.

"All the gold they had gathered, which amounted to above the value of one hundred thousand pieces of eign., with abundance of emeralds, some of which were of great value, as also their iron and iron-work, and whatsoever was of any esteem, they loaded in their vessel: and such as were weak and sick, and not able to travel, were also put on board. Then, after a journey of almost two hundred leagues, they departed from this place, taking their course down the stream, some by water and others by land, keeping such a convenient distance from each other, that at night they always joined and lodged together, which journey was performed with great difficulty; for those on the land were forced to open a great part of the way with hatchet and bill, and those on the water were put to hard labour, to keep the vessel from being forcibly carried down by the current from the company on shore. When at any time their passage was interrupted by some mountain, so that they could not keep near the river, they ferried to the other side, by help of their vessel, and four canoes they had made; but this was a great hinderance to them, and very grievous to men starving and perishing with hunger.

"Having in this manner travelled for the space of two months, they at length met with certain Indians, who, by signs, and some words, which were understood by their Indian servants, gave them intelligence, that about ten days' journey from thence they would find a country well peopled, stocked with provisions, and abounding with gold and other riches, of which they were in pursuit; and further signified to them, that this country was situated on the banks of another great river, which joined and fell into that wherein they now were. The Spaniards being encouraged with this news, Gonzalo Pizarro made Francisco de Orellana captain of his brigantine, and put fifty soldiers on board, giving them orders to pass down the stream to that place where the two rivers met, and that, there leaving the goods he had then on board, he should load his vessel with provisions, and return towards them with all speed imaginable, to relieve them in their distress; many of the Spaniards being already dead, and more Indians, who, from four thousand, were now reduced to half the number.

"According to these orders, Francisco de Orellana entered on the voyage, and, in the space of three days, without oars or sail, only by force of the current, was carried to the confluence of the two rivers, mentioned by the Indians, but found no provisions there; whereupon, Orellana, pretending that it was impossible to return to Pizarro against the stream, resolved to set up for himself; to continue his voyage to the mouth of the river, and then go over into Spain, and obtain the government of those countries for himself: but this cruel resolution was opposed by many of those who were then with him. They told him plainly, that he was not to exceed the orders of his

captain-general, and that it was inhuman to forsake his companions in their great distress, knowing how useful and necessary that brigantine was to them. In this point none was more zealous than friar Gaspar Carvajal, and a young native of Badajoz, named Hernando Sanchez de Vargas, whom those of the contrary opinion made their chief, and were so warm in their debates on this subject, that the quarrel had come to blows, had not Orellana, with fair words, appeased the tumult; however, he managed so artfully afterwards with those who had opposed his intentions, that he enticed them all over to his party; and then rudely treated the friar, whom he had exposed to the same famine and misery (had it not been for respect to his habit and profession) as he did Sanchez de Vargas, whom he left in that desert, encompassed with high mountains on the one side, and a great river on the other, to perish by famine.

"Francisco de Orellana afterwards found some provisions amongst the natives on the river below; but, because the women came out at first with their husbands to oppose his landing, he gave it the name of the River of Amazons. Proceeding yet farther down this river, they found these Indians more civil than the other, who received them amicably, admiring the brigantine, and men so strangely habited. These treated the Spaniards hospitably, and furnished them with as much provision as they had occasion for. Orellana remained here, therefore, several weeks, and built another brigantine (for they were very much straightened for room in the first); and, having fitted it up as well as they were able, they adventured out to sea, sailing along the coast of Caribbiana, about two hundred leagues to the northward, till they arrived at the island of the Holy Trinity, having escaped such dangers that they often gave themselves over for lost. At this island Orellana bought a ship, with which he sailed into Spain, where he requested his majesty's commission for the conquest and government of the country of the Amazons, as he thought proper to style it.

"To make this enterprise appear the more desirable, he alleged that it was a country abounding with gold, silver, and precious stones, and in testimony thereof produced the riches which he had brought with him; whereupon his majesty granted the request he made, for the government of what he should conquer there; and Orellana was joined by five hundred volunteers, the greatest part of them men of rank, with whom he embarked at St. Sucar, for the river Amazon, in the year 1554; but he lost one of his ships in his voyage thither, and met with so many difficulties and misfortunes before he had sailed one hundred leagues up the river, that he abandoned the enterprise, and died on his return home. Gonzalo Pizarro, who was left in such distress after Francisco de Orellana ran away with the brigantine, first built ten or twelve canoes, and then floats, to pass from one side of the river to the other, as often as his march was interrupted by impassible mountains or morasses, and proceeded in that manner down the river, in hopes to meet the brigantine they had despatched for provisions. At the end of two months they arrived at the point where two rivers met; but, instead of their brigantine, and the provisions they expected to meet with, they found only Hernan de Vargas, who, with constancy of mind becoming a man of honour, had endured, with great resolution, famine, and all the miseries to which he was exposed in that solitude. From him they received a particular account of the villany of the perfidious Orellana, which Pizarro could scarcely credit, having hitherto reposed an entire confidence in him.

"The general, however, cheered his men, and encouraged them with hopes of better fortune; telling them that they ought, like Spaniards, to bear with equality of mind these labours and disappointments; that the more danger, the more honour, and the greater their renown would be in history, which would transmit the fame of their adventures to future ages. The soldiers, observing the cheerfulness of their general, who had most cause to resent Orellana's usage, took heart, and continued their march by the banks of the river, sometimes on one side, and sometimes on the other.

"But the difficulty of carrying the horses over upon floats (for there still remained about fifty of them) cannot be expressed, any more than the famine they were exposed to. However, the Indians who remained alive served their masters with great faithfulness and affection in these extremities, bringing them herbs, roots, and wild fruit; with snakes, and other vermin, found in these mountains, all which went down with the Spaniards; nor could they have subsisted without such kind of food.

"Gonzalo Pizarro, being now resolved to return to Peru, left the river, and took his way more to the northward, which proved shorter by one hundred leagues than the way they came, but no less difficult, being forced frequently to cut their way through the woods; and, for want of other provisions, they now ate up all their remaining horses and dogs; for the four thousand Indians, who used to purvey for them, all died in this expedition; and there were but eighty Spaniards who returned to Quito alive, and these almost without clothes, and so sun-burnt and emaciated with fatigue and want of food, that their nearest friends scarcely knew them.

"With such insupportable hardships and hazards did the first Spanish adventurers struggle in search of gold, even when they had before acquired enough to have satisfied the most boundless avarice. Gonzalo Pizarro, who was one of the proprietors of the mines of Potosi, had not amassed less than one million of crowns before he entered upon this expedition.

"Peter de Orsua, who afterwards obtained a commission from the governor of Peru, in the year 1550, to subdue the provinces bordering on the River Amazon, embarked on the River Xauxa, in Peru, with seven hundred armed Spaniards, and two thousand Indians, and sailed down the stream two or three hundred leagues, till he came to the confluence of the two rivers, Amazon and Xauxa, and continuing his voyage afterwards two hundred leagues farther, was killed in a mutiny of his men, which put a period to that enterprise.

"Several other adventurers made the like attempts afterwards, but most of them proved unfortunate, till two monks, and some soldiers, who set out with John de Palacios, from Quito in Peru, in the year 1635, and embarking on the River Amazon, where it first becomes navigable, sailed the whole length of it, till they arrived in Paria in Brazil, which lies on the south side of the mouth of this great river: but their captain, John Palacios, was killed in a skirmish with the natives in their passage.

"The friars having given an account of their voyage to the governor of Brazil, he ordered sloops and boats to be provided, on which he embarked seventy Portuguese and two thousand Indians, and, in October, 1637, ordered them to sail up the river, under the command of Texeira, a mariner of great skill and experience, who, by the help of the easterly wind, which generally blows here, sailed up against the current, till he arrived at Les Reys, a town of Quito in Peru; but the river not being navigable higher for his vessels, he left them there, and went by land to the city of Quito, where he was kindly received by the Spanish governor, and furnished with whatever he wanted to facilitate his return to Brazil. The governor sent two Spanish jesuits down the river with him, ordering them to embark for Spain, when they arrived at Brazil, and communicate the observations they should make in this voyage to his Catholic Majesty; and embarking again at Les Reys, on the River Amazon, with the two jesuits, in the month of February, 1638, arrived at Paria, in Brazil, the December following; from whence the jesuits went over to Spain, and published a narrative of their voyage in 1640."

SECTION II.

PATAGONIA, OR TERRA MAGELLANICA.

This country derived its name from a tribe of its inhabitants, called *Patagons;* but the Spaniards called it Terra Magellanica, from Ferdinand Magellan, who discovered the adjacent straits, in the year 1520. It extends from Chili and Paraguay to the utmost extremity of South-America, being seven hundred miles long, and three hundred broad. The lofty mountains, called the Andes, traverse the whole country from north to south. The northern parts contain an almost inexhaustible stock of large timber; but, in the southern districts, there is scarcely a tree fit for any mechanical purpose.

Here is good pasturage, and incredible numbers of wild horned cattle and horses, which were brought hither by the Spaniards, and have increased amazingly. The east coast is chiefly low land, with few good harbours. One of the best is Port St. Julien.

Animals.] The most remarkable animal of this country is the Guanico, which, in size, form, and colour, resembles a deer; but it has a hump on its back, and no horns. They are very shy, and very swift. Some parts abound with seals, many of which are larger than a bullock. The tigers here are very ravenous. Part of a ship's crew being sent on shore to fetch some guanicos, which had been shot the night before, they found nothing left, except the bones, the tigers having devoured the flesh, and even cracked the bones, to come at the marrow. An officer, upon an excursion, shot a tiger-cat, a small but very fierce animal; for, though it was much wounded, it maintained a very sharp contest with a dog, for a considerable time, before it was killed. There are abundance of hares, the flesh of which is white and well flavoured. A great number of dogs are kept by the natives, for the purpose of chasing the wild animals, which serve them for food. The horses are well made and nimble, and in general fourteen hands high. These, as well as the dogs, seem to be of a Spanish breed. The horse-furniture consists of a saddle, stirrups, and bridle. The women ride astride, and, like the men, evince great resolution and dexterity in horsemanship.

In some parts of the country, birds are so numerous, that, when they rise, they literally darken the sky; and their eggs are so numerous, that a passenger is obliged to tread upon them. Among those seen by the Europeans was one very remarkable for its plumage and magnitude. The head resembled that of an eagle, except that it had a large comb upon it. Round the neck was a white ruff, exactly resembling a lady's tippet; the feathers on the back were as black as jet, and as bright as the finest polish could render that mineral. The legs were remarkably strong and large, the talons were like those of an eagle, except that they were not so sharp; and the wings, when extended, measured, from point to point, no less than eight feet. The ostrich is very large here, and constitutes part of the food of the natives.

The most accurate and interesting accounts of the inhabitants of this country are those of Commodore Byron and Captain Wallis, to whom we are indebted for the following particulars:—

Commodore Byron relates that, when he came to anchor on this coast, about two miles from the shore, he could

plainly see with his telescope a number of horsemen, riding to and fro, directly abreast of the ship, and waving something white, as an invitation to the people to come on shore. In consequence of this, the commodore, attended by some of his officers and seamen, advanced in his boat towards the beach, and, on a near approach, saw about five hundred people, some on foot, but the greater part on horseback. They drew up upon a stony spot, and kept waving and hallooing, which the strangers supposed were invitations to land.

Though no weapons were seen among the natives, the commodore deemed it prudent to make signs that they should retire to a little distance, with which they immediately complied. They continued to shout most vociferously; and the commodore having landed with his people, drew them up upon the beach, with his officers at their head, giving strict orders that none of them should quit their station till he should give the signal. He then advanced alone towards the Indians, and, perceiving that they retreated, made signs that one of them should come near. Accordingly a person, who afterwards appeared to be a chief, approached. He was of gigantic stature, and seemed to realise the tales of monsters in human shape. He was not measured; but the commodore judged, from the proportion of his stature to his own, that it could not be much less than seven feet.

When this prodigy came up, he and Commodore Byron muttered something to each other as a salutation. The commodore then walked with him towards his companions, to whom, as he advanced, he made signs to sit down, and they all readily complied. There were among them many women, who seemed to be proportionably large; and few of the men were less than the chief who came forward to meet the commodore. He had heard the voices of the savages very loud at a distance, and, when he came near, perceived a considerable number of old men, who were chanting some unintelligible words, in the most doleful cadence, with an air of solemnity, which inclined him to suppose that it was a religious ceremony.

Having looked round upon these enormous figures with no small astonishment, the commodore took out a quantity of yellow and white beads, which he distributed among them, and which they received with evident marks of pleasure. He then took out a whole piece of green silk-riband, and, giving the end of it into the hand of one of them, made the person that sat next take hold of it, and so on as far as it would reach. During this time, they sat very quietly; nor did any of those that held the riband attempt to pull it from the rest; though they were evidently more delighted with it than with the beads. While the riband was thus extended, Mr. Byron took out a pair of scissars, and cut it between each two of the Indians that held it, so that he left about a yard in the possession of every one, which he afterwards tied about their heads, where they suffered it to remain, without so much as touching it, while he was with them.

It appeared evident to the commodore, that the Indians, on whom he had conferred these presents, were not entirely unacquainted with European commodities; as, upon a closer observation, he remarked one woman who had bracelets, either of brass or very pale gold, upon her arms; and some beads of blue glass, strung upon two long queues of hair, which, being parted at the top, hung down over each shoulder before her. She was of an enormous size, and her face most hideously painted. The commodore endeavoured, by every possible means, to learn where she procured the beads and bracelets, but could not effect it, through want of being sufficiently understood.

One of the men produced the bowl of a tobacco-pipe, which was made of a red earth; but the commodore soon perceived they had no tobacco among them. He, therefore, beckoned to his people, who had remained upon the beach, drawn up in the order he had left them, and three or four of them ran forward, supposing that he wanted assistance. The Indians no sooner saw these men advance, than they all rose up with a great clamour, and were leaving the place, as imagined, to get their arms, which were probably left at a little distance. The commodore, therefore, ran to meet the people, who were advancing in consequence of his signal, and told them, as soon as he was got within hearing, that he would have only one of them come up with all the tobacco he could collect from the rest. When the Indians perceived this, they recovered from their surprise, and every one returned to his station, except a very old man, who came up to the commodore, and sung a song of considerable length.

After the commodore had distributed the tobacco, four or five of the chief men came up to him, and intimated by signs that they wished him to mount one of their horses, and go with them to their habitations; but as it would have been imprudent to comply, signs were made to them, that he must return to the ship, at which they expressed great concern, and sat down in their former stations.

During this dumb-show conference, an old man often laid his head down upon the stones, and, shutting his eyes for about half a minute, afterwards pointed first to his mouth, and then to the hills, meaning, as the commodore imagined, that if he would stay till the morning, they would furnish him with some provisions; but this offer he was obliged to decline. When he left them, not one of them offered to follow, but, as long as they could be seen, remained quiet in their stations.

Commodore Byron's description of his first interview with the natives of Patagonia, is, in general, confirmed by that of Captain Wallis, who visited this country two years

after him. That navigator relates, that when he approached Cape Virgin Mary, he saw several men riding upon the point of it, who made signals for the people on board to come ashore. Having anchored in a bay close under the south side of the cape, the natives continued abreast of the ship all night, making great fires, and frequently shouting very loud. At day-light great numbers of them were seen in motion, making signals for the Europeans to land.

Having taken the necessary precautions, and left particular orders on board to bring the ship's broadside to bear upon the landing-place, Captain Wallis went in his barge, attended by some officers and men, properly armed, and having reached the beach, made signs to the natives to return to some distance, with which they immediately complied. Having landed with several officers, and ordered the marines to be drawn up, he made signs to the natives to approach, and directed them to sit down in a semicircle, which they did with great order. The captain then distributed among them several knives, scissars, buttons, beads, combs, and ribands, which were received with evident pleasure.

After the distribution of these presents, the captain endeavoured to make them understand that he had other things to dispose of, but expected some articles in return. He then caused some hatchets and bill-hooks to be produced, and pointed to some guanicoes, that happened to be near, and some ostriches, which he saw dead among them, making signs that he wanted to eat; but they either could not, or would not, understand him: for, though they seemed very desirous of the hatchets and bill-hooks, they gave not the least intimation that they would give any provisions in return.

Captain Wallis, at his first interview with the natives, caused those that appeared to be the tallest among them to be measured. One of these was six feet seven inches high; and several of them were six feet five and six feet six inches. They were well-made, robust, and bony; but their hands and feet were remarkably small. Their complexion was a dark copper-colour, like that of the Indians in North-America. Their hair was straight, and nearly as harsh as hogs' bristles. It was tied back with a cotton-string, but neither sex wore any head-dress. Their teeth were very white, even, and well-set.

The chief, who first came up to Commodore Byron, had the skin of some wild beast thrown over his shoulders, as a Scotch Highlander wears his plaid, and was painted so as to make the most hideous appearance he had ever beheld. Round one eye was a large circle of white, a circle of black surrounded the other, and the rest of his face was streaked with paint of different colours. The whole group seen by the commodore were painted and clothed nearly in the same manner. The circles round the two eyes were in no instance of one colour; but they were not universally black and white; some being white and red, and some red and black.

The chief clothing of these people is composed of the skins of the guanico, sewed together into pieces about six feet long, and five wide. These are wrapped round the body, and fastened with a girdle, with the hairy side inwards. Some of them have a square piece of cloth, made of the downy hair of the guanico, through which a hole being cut for the head, the rest hang round them as low as the knee. They are described, by Captain Wallis, as wearing buskins, or boots, and painting themselves in the strange manner mentioned by Commodore Byron, with this difference only, that the eye-lids of all the young women were painted black.

The Patagonians commonly carry a missile weapon, of a singular kind, tucked into a girdle. It consists of two round stones, covered with leather, each weighing about a pound, which are fastened to the two ends of a string, about eight feet long. This is used as a sling, one stone being kept in the hand, and the other whirled round the head, till it is supposed to have acquired sufficient force, and then discharged at the object. They are so expert in the management of this double-headed shot, that they will hit a mark, not larger than a shilling, with both the stones, at the distance of fifteen yards. It is not, however, the custom to strike either the guanico or the ostrich with them in the chase; but they discharge them so as that the cord comes against the legs of the ostrich, or two of the legs of the guanico, and is twisted round them by the force and swing of the balls, so that the animal, being unable to run, becomes an easy prey to the hunter.

With respect to food, while the Europeans staid on shore, they observed the natives eat some of their flesh-meat raw, particularly the paunch of an ostrich, without any other preparation or cleaning, than just turning it inside out, and shaking it.

The disposition of these people will appear from the following account of their visit to Captain Wallis, on board his ship:—

"When a proposal was made to them by signs that the captain would take some of them on board, if they were desirous to go, about one hundred eagerly offered to visit the ship, but it was not deemed prudent to admit more than eight of the number. They jumped into the boat with the joy and alacrity of children going to a fair and, having no intention of mischief against our people, discovered no apprehension of harm from them. They sang several of their country songs while they were in the boat, and, when they came on board, did not express either the curiosity or wonder which the multiplicity of objects, to them equally strange and stupendous, which at once presented themselves, might be supposed to ex-

cite. When taken down into the cabin, they looked about with great indifference, till one of them happened to cast his eyes upon a looking-glass, which afforded them infinite diversion. They advanced, retreated, and played a thousand tricks before it, laughing excessively, and talking very earnestly to each other. Some beef, pork, biscuit, and other articles of the ship's provisions, being set before them, they ate of them indiscriminately; but would not drink any thing but water.

"When conducted through the ship, they looked at nothing with much attention, except the animals. They examined the hogs and sheep with some curiosity, and were highly delighted with the Guinea hens and turkeys. They did not seem to desire any thing except apparel, and only one of them, an old man, asked for that. Captain Wallis gratified him with a pair of shoes and buckles, and gave to each of the others a canvas bag, in which were put some needles ready threaded, a few slips of cloth, a knife, a pair of scissars, some twine, a few beads, a comb, and a looking-glass, with some new six-pences and half-pence, through which a hole had been drilled that was fitted with a riband to hang round the neck. They were offered some segars, and smoked a little, but did not seem to enjoy it. When they were shewn the great guns, they did not appear to have any notion of their use. When the marines were drawn up in order to go through part of their exercise, and the first volley was fired, they were struck with astonishment and terror. The old man, in particular, threw himself on the deck, pointed to the muskets, and then striking his breast with his hand, lay some time motionless with his eyes shut. By this it was supposed he meant to indicate that he was not unacquainted with fire-arms and their fatal effects. The rest, seeing the crew merry, and finding themselves unhurt, soon resumed their cheerfulness, and heard the second and third volley fired without much emotion; but the old man continued prostrate upon the deck some time, and did not recover his spirits till the firing was over.

"Being made to understand by signs that the ship was proceeding farther, and that they must go on shore, they discovered much reluctance to comply: all, however, except the old man and one more, were got into the boat without much difficulty; but these stopped at the gangway, where the old man turned about, went towards the stern, and stood some time without speaking. He then uttered what was supposed to be a prayer, as he frequently lifted up his hands and eyes, and spoke in a manner and tone different from what had been observed in their common conversation.

"When Captain Wallis intimated to him that it was expedient for him to go into the boat, he pointed to the sun, and then moving his hand round to the west, paused, looked in his face, laughed, and pointed to the shore By this it was easy to understand that he wished to stay on board till sun-set, and no little pains were taken to convince him of the necessity of his going into the boat. At length, however, he went over the ship's side with his companion, and when the boat put off they all began to sing, and continued their merriment till they got on shore."

SECTION III.

STRAITS OF MAGELLAN.

Commodore Byron observes, that on his departure from Patagonia, to pass through the Straits of Magellan, his course through the first narrow was very rapid, the tide being remarkably strong. The mariners saw a single Indian on the south shore, who kept waving to them as long as they were in sight. They also saw some guanicos on the hills, though it had been asserted by a former navigator that there were none on that shore.

The vessel coming to anchor off St. Bartholomew's Island, six Indians came down to the water-side, and continued waving and shouting for a long time; but as the seamen wanted rest, the commodore was unwilling to employ them in hoisting out a boat, and the Indians departed. The commodore going in his boat in search of Fresh-Water Bay, landed, with an officer, upon Sandy Point, where they found plenty of wood and good water, and for four or five miles the shore was very pleasant. Over the point there is a fine level country, with a soil that, to all appearance, is very rich, for the ground was covered with flowers of various kinds, that perfumed the air with their fragrance. The grass was very good, and intermixed with a great number of peas in full blossom.

Among this luxuriance of herbage were seen many hundreds of birds feeding, which, from their form, and the uncommon beauty of their plumage, the Europeans called painted geese.

In the course of their walk, during which the commodore and officer found great plenty of fine fresh-water, though not the bay they sought for, they saw great numbers of the huts of the Indians, which appeared to have been recently deserted, as in some of them the fires were hardly extinguished. They were situated in little recesses of the woods, and always close to fresh water. In many places were found plenty of wild celery, and a variety of plants, which might prove of great benefit to seamen after a long voyage. The keen air of this place made the people so hungry, that they could have eaten three times their allowance: the commodore was therefore pleased to find some of them employed in hauling the seine, and others on shore with their guns. Sixty large mullets were taken, and the gunners had good sport, for the place abounded with geese, teal, snipes, and other birds.

Captain Wallis, on his departure from Patagonia, turned into the Straits of Magellan with the flood-tide, between Cape Virgin Mary and Sandy Point. When the ship got abreast of this point, they stood close in to the shore, where they observed two guanicos, and several of the natives on horseback, who seemed to be in pursuit of them. When the horsemen approached, these animals ran up the country, and were pursued by the hunters, with their slings in their hands, ready for the cast, but neither of them was taken.

The ship having come to an anchor about three miles from the shore, the natives made several large fires; and at break of day about four hundred of them were seen encamped in a fine green valley, between two hills, with their horses feeding beside them.

Observing great numbers of the natives on horses abreast of the ship, and being given to understand, by an officer, that this was the place where Commodore Byron had the conference with the tall man, Captain Wallis sent two officers to the shore, but with orders not to land, as the ships were at too great a distance to protect them. The officers, on their return, reported that the boat having lain upon her oars very near the beach, the natives came down in great numbers, whom they knew to be the same persons they had seen before, with many others, particularly women and children; that when they perceived our people had no design to land, they seemed to be greatly disappointed; and those who had been on board the ship waded off to the boat, making signs for it to advance, and pronouncing the words they had been taught, "Englishmen come on shore;" that when they could not get the people to land, they were with great difficulty prevented from getting into the boat; that they presented them with some bread, tobacco, and a few toys, pointing, at the same time, to some guanicos and ostriches, and making signs that they wanted them as provisions, but that they could not make themselves understood; and, finally, that finding they could obtain no refreshment, they rowed along the shore in search of fresh-water, but, seeing no appearance of a rivulet, they returned on board.

At Port Famine, where both our navigators touched, the Spaniards, in the year 1581, built a town, which they called Philippeville, and left in it a colony, consisting of four hundred persons. When the English navigator, Cavendish, arrived here in 1587, he found one of these unhappy wretches (the only one that remained) upon the beach. They had all perished for want of subsistence, except twenty-four. Twenty-three of these set out for the River Plata, and were never afterwards heard of. This man, whose name was Hernando, was brought to England by Cavendish, who called the place where he had taken him up Port Famine. It is a very fine bay, and sufficiently capacious for many ships to moor in great safety. In this place there is very good wooding and watering, and such a quantity of drift-wood as, the commodore said, would furnish a thousand sail. Many small fish were taken with a hook and line off the ship's side, and the seine was successfully hauled, in a fine sandy bay, a little to the southward of Sedger River. A great number of birds, of various kinds, were shot, particularly geese, ducks, teal, snipes, plovers, and race-horses. The water of Sedger River is excellent, but the boats cannot get in till about the hour of flood, because it is very shallow at low water for about three-quarters of a mile. Commodore Byron went up it about four miles in his boat, but the fallen trees rendered it impossible to go farther.

On each side of this river are the finest trees ever seen. Commodore Byron was of opinion that they would supply the British navy with the best masts in the world. Some of them are of a great height, and more than eight feet in diameter. Among others were found the pepper-tree, in great plenty.

In the woods, notwithstanding the coldness of the climate, there are abundance of parrots and other birds, of most beautiful plumage. The commodore every day shot geese and ducks enough to serve his own table and several others, and every one on board might have done the same. There was, indeed, great plenty of fresh provisions of all sorts; for as much fish was caught every day as served the whole ship's company. The commodore tracked many wild beasts in the sand, but never saw one. Many huts, or wigwams, were found, but not an Indian was met with.

The country between Port Famine and Cape Forward, which is distant about four leagues, is very fine; the soil appears to be pretty good; and there are three large rivers in this part, besides several brooks.

The country along the shore to the northward is very pleasant, the ground being in many places covered with flowers, equally beautiful and fragrant. Commodore Byron gives it as his opinion, that, if it were not for the severity of the cold in winter, this country might, by [illegible] vation, be rendered one of the finest in the world.

Captain Wallis confirms the account of Com[illegible] Byron, with respect to the abundance of provisions [illegible] place. He says that, during his ship's stay there, they caught fish enough to furnish one meal a-day for all his men. Besides a profusion of celery, they gathered great quantities of fruit, that resembled the cranberry, and the leaves of a shrub, somewhat like the English thorn, which were remarkably sour. On the arrival of the ship, all the crew began to look pale and meagre; many had the scurvy to a great degree, and upon others there were manifest signs of its approach, yet in a fortnight there was not a scorbutic person on board. The recovery was effected by their being on shore, eating plenty of vegetables, being obliged

to wash their clothes, and to keep their persons clean, by daily bathing in the sea.

An officer, who was sent out in quest of anchoring-places, reported, on his return, that he had been on shore at several places, where he had found plenty of wood and water, close to the beach, with abundance of cranberries and wild celery. He had seen a great number of currant-bushes, full of unripe fruit, and a great variety of beautiful shrubs in blossom, bearing flowers of different colours, particularly red, purple, yellow, and white; besides great plenty of winter-bark, a grateful spice, well known to the botanists of Europe. He shot several wild ducks, geese, gulls, a hawk, and other birds.

Port Egmont, so called by Commodore Byron, in honour of the earl who was then First Lord of the Admiralty, is one of the finest harbours in the world, and so capacious, that the whole British navy might ride in it with security from all winds. In every part of this port there is plenty of fresh-water; but there is a deficiency of wood.

Here are muscles, clams, cockles, and limpets. The seals and penguins are innumerable; and the coast abounds with sea-lions, many of which are of an enormous size. The commodore was once attacked by one of these animals very unexpectedly, and it was with the utmost difficulty that he could disengage himself. The people, at other times, had many battles with them, and it has sometimes afforded a dozen of them an hour's work to despatch one of them. A bite of one of these creatures almost tore a very fine mastiff dog to pieces. Nor were these the only dangerous animals found here. An officer, having been sent out to sound the coast upon the south shore, reported, at his return, that four fierce creatures, resembling wolves, ran up to their bellies in water, to attack the people in his boat, and that, as they happened to have no fire-arms with them, they had immediately put the boat off into deep water. On the southern shore the officer afterwards found one of the largest sea-lions ever seen. As the boat's crew were well armed, they immediately engaged him, and, during the contest, one of the other animals was seen running towards them. He was fired at before he came up, and presently killed; though the commodore wished they had taken him alive, which, if they had been aware of his attack, might, he thought, easily have been done. When any of these creatures got sight of any of the crew, though at ever so great a distance, they ran directly at them; and no less than five of them were killed in one day. They were always called wolves by the ship's company, though, except in their size, and the shape of their tails, they had a nearer resemblance to foxes. They are as large as a middle-sized mastiff, and their fangs are remarkably long and sharp. There are great numbers of them upon the coast, though it is not easy to guess how they first came thither.

The commodore, in the course of his passage, observed, at the entrance of Jerome's Sound, on the north side, three or four fires, and soon afterwards saw two or three canoes paddling after the ship. At length the canoes came up, and one of them had the resolution to come on board. The canoe was of bark, badly constructed, and the people on board, consisting of four men and two women, were the most miserable wretches ever seen. They were all naked, except a stinking seal-skin that was thrown loosely over their shoulders. They were armed, however, with bows and arrows, which they readily bartered for a few beads, and other trifles. The arrows were made of reed, and pointed with a green stone. The cord of the bow was the dried gut of some animal.

Soon after the ship was at anchor abreast of Bachelor's River, several Indians came on board, and were presented with beads, ribands, and other trifles, with which they appeared highly delighted. Commodore Byron returned the visit by going ashore among them, taking only a few people with him in the boat, that the natives might not be alarmed. The visitors were received with great expressions of kindness, and, to make them welcome, the natives brought some berries, which they had gathered for that purpose, and which, with a few muscles, seemed to be the principal part of their subsistence.

An officer, who had been sent out to look for harbours on the southern shore, reported, on his return, that, being on shore to the westward of Cape Monday, he had fallen in with some Indians, who had with them a canoe of a construction very different from any that had been seen in the strait before. This vessel consisted of planks sewed together; but all the others were nothing more than the barks of large trees, tied together at the ends, and kept open; and short pieces of wood thrust in transversely between the two sides, like the boats which children make of a bean-shell. The people, he said, were the nearest to brutes, in their manner and appearance, of any he had ever seen. They were quite naked, notwithstanding the severity of the weather, except part of a seal-skin thrown over their shoulders. They had with them a large piece of whale-blubber, which stunk intolerably, and one of them tore it to pieces with his teeth, and distributed it to the rest, who devoured it with the voracity of wild beasts. They did not, however, look upon what they saw in the possession of the Europeans with indifference; for, while one of them was asleep, they cut off the hinder part of his jacket with a small flint, which they use as a knife.

While the ship lay at anchor in a bay, about a league to the eastward of Cape Upright, seven or eight Indians, in a canoe, came round the western point of the bay, and, having landed opposite to the ship, made a fire. The sailors invited them to come on board by all the signs they could devise, but without success: the commodore, there

fore, took a boat, and went on shore to them. He introduced himself by presenting them with several trifles, with which they seemed to be much gratified. Having sent on board for some bread, he divided it among them, and remarked, with surprise, that if a bit of the biscuit happened to fall, not one of them offered to touch it till he gave his consent. In the mean time some of the crew were cutting a little grass for two or three sheep still remaining on board. At length the inhabitants, perceiving what they were doing, ran immediately, and tearing up all the weeds they could get, carried them to the boat, which was loaded in a short time. They had, indeed, taken such a fancy to the Europeans, that, when they returned on board the boat, they all got into their canoe and followed them. When they approached the ship, however, they stopped, and gazed at her with an apparent mixture of astonishment and terror, till at length, with some difficulty, four or five of them were persuaded to venture on board. As soon as they entered the ship, they received several presents, and soon appeared to be perfectly at ease.

The commodore being desirous to entertain them, one of the petty officers played upon the violin, and some of the crew danced. At this they were so much delighted, and so impatient to shew their gratitude, that one of them went over the ship's side into the canoe, and fetched up a seal-skin bag of red paint, and immediately smeared the fiddler's face all over with it. He was very desirous to pay the commodore the same compliment, which, however, he thought fit to decline, though it was with some difficulty that he defended himself from receiving the honour designed him. After having entertained them for several hours, it was intimated to them that it would be proper for them to go on shore; but such was their attachment, that it was by no means an easy matter to get them out of the ship.

Captain Wallis represents the country about Cape Gallant as dreary and forlorn, and the mountains on each side the straits as of immense height. About one-fourth of the ascent is clothed with large trees; but, from thence to the middle of the mountain, nothing appears but withered shrubs. Above these are masses of snow, and fragments of broken rock. The summit is rude and naked, towering above the clouds in vast craggs, piled upon each other, and devoted to perpetual sterility.

The ship having anchored in Elizabeth Bay, which lies in fifty-three degrees forty-three minutes of south latitude, Captain Wallis sent the boats on shore for water; and, soon after his people landed, three canoes put off from the south shore, and landed sixteen of the natives on the east point of the bay. When they came within a hundred yards, they stopped, called out, and made signs of friendship. The Europeans did the same, shewing them some beads and other toys. At this they seemed pleased, and began to shout. On their shouts being returned, the Indians advanced, laughing very loud. When the parties met, they shook hands, and the Indians were presented with several of the toys which they had seen at a distance. They were covered with seal-skins, which stink abominably; and some of them were eating the raw flesh and blubber with a keen appetite. They were low of stature, the tallest of them not being more than five feet six inches. They appeared to be perishing with cold, and immediately kindled several fires. How they subsist in winter it is not easy to guess; for the weather was at this time so severe, that there were frequent falls of snow. They were armed with bows, arrows, and javelins. The arrows and javelins were pointed with flint, which was wrought into the shape of a serpent's tongue. They discharge both with great force and dexterity, seldom failing to hit a mark at a great distance. To kindle a fire, they strike a pebble against a piece of mundic, holding under it, to catch the sparks, some moss or down, mixed with a whitish earth, which takes fire like tinder. They then take some dry grass, and putting the lighted moss into it, wave it to and fro, and, in about a minute, a blaze will appear.

"Three of the natives," says our author, "came on board with the boat; but they seemed to regard nothing with any degree of curiosity except clothes and a looking-glass. The looking-glass afforded them as much diversion as it had done the Patagonians, and it seemed to surprise them more. When they first peeped into it, they started back, first looking at our people, and then at each other. They then took another peep, as it were by stealth, starting back as before, and then eagerly looking behind it. When, by degrees, they became more familiar with it, they smiled, and seeing the images smile in return, they were exceedingly delighted, and burst into fits of the most violent laughter. This, however, they left, and every thing else, with perfect indifference; the little they possessed being, to all appearance, equal to their desires. They ate whatever was given them, but would drink nothing but water.

"Captain Wallis went on shore with them when they left the ship, and by this time several of their wives and children were come to the watering-place. He distributed some trinkets among them, with which they seemed pleased for a moment, and gave some of their arms in return. They also gave several pieces of mundic, such as is found in the tin-mines of Cornwall. They gave our people to understand that they found it on the mountains, where there are probably mines of tin, and, perhaps, of more valuable metal.

"When they embarked in their canoes, they hoisted a seal-skin for a sail, and steered for the southern shore, where our people saw many of their hovels, and remarked, that not one of them looked behind; so little impression had

the wonders they had seen made upon their minds, and so much did they appear to be absorbed in the present, without any habitual exercise of power to reflect upon the past.

"About three miles up Bachelor's River, on the west side, between Mount Misery and another mountain of stupendous height, there is a cataract, which has a very striking appearance. It is precipitated from an elevation of above four hundred yards; half the way it rolls over a very steep declivity, and the other part is a perpendicular fall. The sound of this cataract is not less awful than the sight.

"The country to the southward of the Strait appeared horrid and dreary beyond description. It consisted of craggy mountains, much higher than the clouds, and altogether naked from the base to the summit, there not being a single shrub, nor even a blade of grass, to be seen upon them. The valleys between them were equally desolate, being entirely covered with a deep snow, except in a few places where it had been washed away, or converted into ice, by the torrents which were precipitated from the crags of the mountains above, where the snow had been dissolved; and even those valleys, in the parts that were free from snow, were as destitute of verdure as the rocks between which they lay.

"Having steered for Cape Upright, and anchored in the bay, while the people were employed in getting wood and water, and gathering celery and muscles, two canoes full of Indians came along-side the ship. They had much the same appearance as the deplorable wretches seen before in Elizabeth's Bay. They had on board some seals' flesh, blubber, and penguins, all of which they ate raw. Some of our people, who were fishing with a hook and line, gave one of them a fish, somewhat bigger than a herring, alive, just as it came out of the water. The Indian took it hastily, as a dog would take a bone, and instantly killed it, by giving it a bite near the gills. He then proceeded to eat it, beginning with the head, and going on to the tail, without rejecting either the bones, fins, scales, or entrails.

"They shivered with cold, yet had nothing to cover them but a seal-skin thrown loosely over their shoulders, which did not reach to their middle, and they were observed, when rowing, to throw even this aside, and sit naked. They had some javelins, rudely pointed with bone, with which they used to strike seals and penguins; and one of them was observed to have a piece of iron, about the size of a common chisel, fastened to a piece of wood, as if intended rather for a tool than a weapon.

Their canoes were about fifteen feet long, three broad, and nearly three deep. They were made of the bark of trees, sewed together, either with the sinews of some beast, or thongs cut out of a hide. Some kind of rush was laid into the seams, and the outside was smeared with a gum, which prevented the water from soaking into the bark. Fifteen slender branches, bent into an arch, were sewed transversely to the bottom and sides, and some straight pieces were placed across the top from gunwale to gunwale, and securely fastened at each end. On the whole, however, they were poorly made, nor had these people any thing among them in which there was the least appearance of ingenuity. An hatchet or two were given them, with some beads, and a few other toys, with which they went away to the northward, and were no more seen by any of our people.

"A party, sent out in search of anchoring-places, spent a night upon an island adjacent to Cape Upright, called Dolphin Bay. They there saw several small coves, which were all dangerous. While they were there, six canoes landed about thirty Indians, who ran to the boat, and were carrying away every thing they found in her, but our people discovered them just in time to prevent them. As soon as they found themselves opposed, they went to their canoes, and armed themselves with long poles and javelins, pointed with the bones of fish. They did not begin an attack, but stood in a threatening posture. Our people, who were twenty-two in number, acted only on the defensive, and, by distributing a few trifles among them, rendered them friends, and induced them to behave peaceably during their stay."

Captain Wallis, and those under his command, quitted this dreary region, on the 11th of April, 1767, after being exposed for nearly four months to the danger of shipwreck, and undergoing a series of fatigues and hardships.

That our readers may form a judgment of the persons and characters of the original inhabitants of South-America in general, we shall present them with the following description from a geographical work of respectability:—

"All the ancient natives of the country are tawny, of a colour somewhat reddish, and more or less clear. This variety of shades in their complexion is probably owing chiefly to the different temperature of the air in the several climates they inhabit, varying from the intense heat of the torrid zone, to the nipping cold caused by the vicinity of the snows.

"This diversity of climes, with that of woody countries, plains, mountains, and rivers, as also the difference of their diet, and the little correspondence which the neighbouring nations have with each other, with a thousand other causes, must necessarily have produced great variety in the occupations and customs of these people. Besides, it may easily be imagined, that a nation who have been Christians, and subject to the crowns of Spain and Portugal, must have learned some of the manners of their conquerors, and, consequently, that an Indian, who lives in a town or village of Peru, must differ from a savage in

the interior of the continent, and even from a new inhabitant of the missions on the banks of the Maranon. It might be needful, therefore, in order to give any one an exact idea of the Americans, to make almost as many descriptions as there are nations among them. Nevertheless, as all the European nations, though differing among themselves in language, manners, and customs, would still have somewhat in common to all of them in the eyes of an Asiatic, who should examine them attentively, so all the American Indians, of the several countries, have certain features of resemblance in common with each other; and, with some slight variations, all of them appear to be of one common temper, of which insensibility is the basis.

"This undoubtedly proceeds from the small number of their ideas, which extend no farther than their necessities. Gluttons, even to voracity, when they have wherewith to satisfy themselves; yet moderate when needs must, even to shifting without any thing. Pusillanimous and cowardly to the last degree; enemies to labour; unmoved by any incentive to glory, honour, or gratitude; wholly intent upon the object that is before them, and always determined thereby, without any regard to futurity. Incapable of foresight and reflection; giving themselves up, when not under restraint, to a childish joy, which they express by skipping about, and immoderate fits of laughter, without either meaning or design; they pass their lives without thought, and grow old without having taken leave of the failings and follies of infancy."

SECTION IV.

ISLANDS, CAPES, &c. IN THE SOUTHERN EXTREMITY OF AMERICA.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

These islands are situated near the Straits of Magellan, in the fifty-second degree of south latitude. They were first discovered in 1594, by Sir Richard Hawkins, who named the principal of them Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The present name of Falkland was given them by Captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received in our maps.

The admiralty having revived the scheme of a settlement in the South Seas, in the year 1764, Commodore Byron was sent to take possession of Falkland Islands, in the name of his Britannic Majesty, and, in his journal, he represents them as a valuable acquisition. But Captain Macbride, who, in 1766, succeeded that officer, represents them as the *outcasts of nature*. "We found," says he, "a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but a bog, with no better prospect than that of a barren mountain, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is summer; and, if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, those who lie but two cables' length from the shore, must pass weeks without having any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away: but the goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase. Geese, of a fishy taste, snipes, foxes, sea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the summer months, wild celery and sorrel, are the natural productions of these parts. They have occasioned some contest between Spain and Great Britain; but, being of little importance, they were silently abandoned by the latter in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spanish court.

TERRA DEL FUEGO, AND PLACES ADJACENT.

Terra del Fuego, or the Land of Fire, so called from a volcano in the island, is situated between fifty-three and fifty-five degrees of south latitude, and separated from the continent by the Straits of Magellan.

The most accurate description of this island is that of our illustrious navigator, Captain Cook, to whom we are indebted for the following interesting particulars:—

"On leaving the harbour of Rio de Janeiro, the capital of Brazil, in December, 1768, after passing Falkland Islands, we discovered, on the 11th of that month, the coast of Terra del Fuego, at the distance of about four leagues to the westward of the Strait of Le Maire. We ranged the coast till the 15th, when we anchored at the distance of about a mile and a half from the shore. Two of the natives came down to the beach, expecting us to land; but this spot afforded so little shelter, that I at length determined not to examine it, and therefore left it, and anchored in the Bay of Good Success.

"When the ship was brought to anchor, I went on shore, accompanied by Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, to look for a watering-place, and to confer with the Indians, several of whom had come in sight. We landed on the starboard side of the bay, near some rocks, which made smooth water and good landing; thirty or forty of the Indians soon made their appearance, at the end of a sandy beach, on the other side of the bay, but seeing our number, which amounted to ten or twelve, they retreated. Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander then advanced about one hundred yards before us, upon which two of the Indians returned, and, having advanced some paces towards them, sat down; as soon as they came up, the Indians rose, and each of them having a small stick in his hand, threw it away in a direction both from themselves and the strangers, which was considered as the renuncia-

tion of weapons, in token of peace. They then walked briskly towards their companions, who had halted at about fifty yards behind them, and beckoned the gentlemen to follow, which they did. The Europeans were received with many uncouth signs of friendship; and, in return, they distributed among them some beads and ribands, with which they were greatly delighted.

"A mutual confidence being thus effected, the parties joined, and the conversation, such as it was, became general, and three of them accompanied us back to the ship. When they came on board, one of them, supposed to be a priest, performed much the same ceremonies as are described by M. Bougainville, which, he is of opinion, were of a religious nature. When this person was introduced into a new part of the ship, or when any thing he had not seen before caught his attention, he shouted, with all his force, for some minutes, without directing his voice either to us or his companions. They ate some bread and beef, but not apparently with much pleasure, though such part of what was given them as they did not eat, they took away with them; but they would not swallow a drop of either wine or spirits: they put the glass to their lips, but, having tasted the liquor, they returned it with strong expressions of disgust. They appeared to have but little curiosity, as they went from one part of the ship to another, and looked at the great variety of new objects, that every moment presented themselves, without any expression of wonder or pleasure; for the vociferations of the supposed priest seemed to be neither.

"The natives, after having been on board two hours, expressed a desire to go on shore. Mr. Banks accompanied them, and conducted them to their companions, among whom he remarked the same vacant indifference as in those who had been on board; for as on one side there appeared no eagerness to relate, so on the other there seemed to be no curiosity to hear, how they had been received, or what they had seen. Soon after Mr. Banks returned to the ship, and the Indians retired from the shore.

"When Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and other gentlemen, with their attendants and servants, afterwards set out from the ship, with a few of the men, to penetrate as far as they could into the country, and return at night; the hills, when viewed at a distance, seemed to be partly a wood, partly a plain, and above them a bare rock. Mr. Banks hoped to get through the wood, and made no doubt but that beyond it he should, in a country which no botanist had ever yet visited, find alpine plants, which would abundantly compensate his labour.

"They entered the wood at a small sandy beach, a little to the westward of the watering-place, and continued to ascend the hill, through a trackless wilderness, for several hours, before they had a near view of the places they intended to visit. Soon after they reached what they had taken for a plain; but, to their great disappointment, they found it a swamp, covered with long bushes of birch, and so interwoven and stubborn, that it was necessary to lift the leg over them, which, at every step, was buried ankle deep in the soil. To increase the pain and difficulty of such travelling, the weather, which hitherto had been very fine, became gloomy and cold, with sudden blasts of a most piercing wind, accompanied with snow. They pushed forward, however, notwithstanding their fatigue; but when they had got about two-thirds over this woody swamp, Mr. Buchan, one of Mr. Banks's draughtsmen, was unhappily seized with a fit. This obliged the whole company to halt, and, as it was impossible he should go any further, a fire was kindled, and those who were most fatigued were left behind to take care of him. Mr. Banks, and the other gentlemen, went on, and in a short time reached the summit. As botanists, they were abundantly gratified by finding a variety of plants, which, with respect to the alpine plants in Europe, are exactly what those plants are, with respect to such as grow in the plain."

Climate, &c.] "The cold was now become more severe, and the snow-blasts more frequent; the day, also, was so far spent, that it was found impossible to get back to the ship before the next morning. To pass the night on such a mountain, in such a climate, was not only comfortless, but dreadful: it could not, however, be avoided, and they were to provide for it as well as possible. While Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander were gathering plants, two of the company went back to the draughtsman and the people that were with him, with directions to bring them to a hill, which, it was thought, lay in a better route for returning to the wood, and which was, therefore, appointed as a general rendezvous.

"Their whole company assembled at this rendezvous, and, though pinched with the cold, were in health and spirits. The draughtsman himself had recovered his strength in a greater degree than could have been expected. Though now near eight o'clock in the evening, it was still day-light, and they set forward for the nearest valley, Mr. Banks himself undertaking to bring up the rear, and see that no straggler was left behind; a caution which soon appeared to be of the utmost importance.

"Dr. Solander, who had more than once crossed the mountains which divide Sweden from Norway, well knew that extreme cold, especially when joined with fatigue, produces a sleepiness that is almost irresistible, and therefore conjured the company to keep moving, however painful it might be. His words were, "Whoever sits down will sleep, and whoever sleeps will wake no more."—Though thus admonished, the cold became suddenly so intense, as to produce the effects most dreaded. Dr. So-

lander himself was the first who felt the inclination, against which he had warned others, as irresistible, and insisted upon being suffered to lie down. Mr. Banks in vain remonstrated; Dr. Solander lay down upon the ground, though it was covered with snow, and it was with great difficulty his friend could keep him from sleeping. Richmond, also, one of the black servants, began to linger, having suffered from the cold in the same manner as the doctor. Mr. Banks, therefore, sent five of the company, among whom was Mr. Buchan, forward to prepare a fire at the first convenient place; while himself, with four others, remained with the doctor and Richmond, whom, partly by persuasion and entreaty, and partly by force, they brought forward; but, when they had got through the greatest part of the birch and swamp, they both declared they could go no farther. Mr. Banks again entreated and expostulated, but without effect. When Richmond was told that, if he did not go on, he would be frozen to death in a short time, he replied that he desired nothing but to lie down and die. Dr. Solander said, he was willing to go on, but that he must first take some sleep, notwithstanding his former declaration, that whoever slept would wake no more.

"As it was impossible to carry them, and there was no remedy, they were both suffered to sit down on the ground, and, in a few minutes, they fell into a profound sleep.

"Soon after, some of those who had been sent forward returned with the welcome news that a fire was kindled, about a quarter of a mile farther on. Mr. Banks then succeeded in awakening Dr. Solander, who, though he had not slept five minutes, had almost lost the use of his limbs; and the muscles were so shrunk, that his shoes fell from his feet. He consented to go forward with such assistance as could be given him: but all attempts to relieve poor Richmond were ineffectual. Mr. Banks, therefore, left his other black servant, and a seaman who seemed to have suffered least from the cold, to look after him, promising that, as soon as two others should be sufficiently warmed, they should be relieved. Mr. Banks, with great difficulty, got the doctor to the fire; and soon after sent two of the people who had been refreshed, hoping that, with the assistance of those who had been left behind, they would be able to bring Richmond, though it might still be impossible to awake him.

"In about half an hour they had the mortification to see the two men return alone. They stated, that, after the most minute search, they could neither find Richmond, nor those who had been left with him; and that though they had repeatedly shouted, no voice had replied. Whilst Mr. Banks was expressing his surprise at this circumstance, he missed a bottle of rum, the company's whole stock, which they concluded to be in the knapsack of one of the absentees. It was supposed that, by means of this, Richmond had been roused by the two men that had been left with him, and that, having drank too freely of it themselves, they had all rambled from the place where they had been left, in search of the fire, instead of waiting for guides and assistance.

"Another fall of snow came on, and continued incessantly for two hours; so that all hope of seeing them again, at least alive, was given up: but in some time, to the general joy of the company at the fire, a shouting was heard at a distance. Mr. Banks, with four others, immediately went out, and found the seaman with just strength enough left to stagger along, and call for assistance. Mr. Banks having sent him immediately to the fire, proceeded, by his directions, in search of the other two, whom he soon after found. Richmond was upon his legs, but unable to put one foot before the other. His companion was lying upon the ground, completely senseless.

"The whole company was now called from the fire, and an united attempt was made to carry these poor creatures to it, but without effect. The night was extremely dark, and the snow very deep; so that, finding it very difficult to make their way through the bushes and bogs themselves, the only alternative was, to make a fire on the spot; but the snow that had fallen, and was still falling, besides what was momentarily shaken in flakes from the trees, rendered it equally impracticable to kindle one there, or to bring any part of that which had been kindled in the wood thither. They were, therefore, reduced to the melancholy necessity of leaving the unhappy wretches to their fate, having previously made them a bed of boughs from the trees, and spread a covering of the same kind over them to a considerable height.

"After suffering in the region of the cold and snow nearly an hour and an half, some of the rest began to lose their feeling; and Briscoe, another of Mr. Banks's servants, was so ill, that it was apprehended he must die before he could get to the fire. However, at length they reached the fire, and passed the night in a situation dreadful in itself, and rendered more so by the remembrance of past severities, and the uncertainty of what was to follow.

"They were twelve in number, who had set out in health and spirits. Of these two were supposed to be already dead; a third was so bad, that it was doubtful whether he would be able to proceed in the morning; and a fourth (Mr. Buchan) was in danger of the return of his fits, from fresh fatigues after so uncomfortable a night. They were a long day's journey distant from the ship, through pathless woods, in which they might be bewildered till overtaken by the ensuing night; and not having prepared for a journey of more than eight or ten hours, their whole stock of remaining provision was a vulture, which they happened to shoot when they were out, and which, if

equally divided, would not afford each of them half a meal; and they knew not how much more they might suffer from the cold, as the snow still continued to fall; a dreadful proof of the rigour of the climate, as it was now the midst of summer in this part of the world; and every thing might be dreaded from a phenomenon which, in the corresponding season, is unknown even in Norway and Lapland.

"The only object visible at day-break was snow, which seemed to lie as thick upon the trees as upon the ground; and the blasts returned so frequently, and with such violence, that they found it impossible for them to set out. They knew not how long this might last, and had but too much reason to apprehend, that it would confine them in that desolate forest till they perished with hunger and cold.

"A dawn of hope, however, succeeded these terrific apprehensions; for, about six o'clock in the morning, they discovered the place of the sun, through the clouds, which were become thinner, and began to break away. Their first care was to ascertain whether the poor wretches they had been obliged to leave among the bushes were yet living: for this purpose they despatched three of the company, who soon after returned with the melancholy news of their death.

"Favourable as appearances had been, the snow continued to fall so thick as to prevent their setting out for the ship. But a small regular breeze soon sprang up, which, with the prevailing influence of the sun, at length cleared the air, and, to their great joy, they soon after saw the snow fall in large flakes from the trees; a certain sign of an approaching thaw.

"It was now deemed expedient to examine more minutely into the state of the invalids. Briscoe, though he remained very bad, said, he thought himself able to walk; and Mr. Buchan was much better than there was reason to expect. They were now, however, pressed by the calls of hunger, to which every other consideration must give way. They therefore came to an unanimous resolution, before they set forward, to eat their vulture, which was accordingly skinned; and it being thought best to divide it before it was fit to be eaten, it was cut into ten portions, and every man cooked his own as he thought proper.

"After this slender meal, which furnished about three mouthfuls each, they prepared to set out; but it was ten o'clock before the snow was so far dissolved as to render their progress practicable. Having proceeded about three hours, they were most agreeably surprised to find themselves upon the beach, and much nearer the ship than they had reason to expect. Upon reviewing their track from the vessel, they perceived that, instead of ascending the hill in a line, so as to penetrate into the country, they had almost made a circle round it. On their arrival on board, they congratulated each other, and were congratulated by the crew in general, with an ecstacy of joy that can only be conceived by such as have been exposed to equal danger; and, as I had suffered the greatest anxiety from their not returning in the evening of the day on which they set out, I participated in no small degree of the general joy."

Vegetable Productions.] The labour of the botanists was amply rewarded; for they found a vast variety of plants, the far greater part of which were wholly different from any they had seen or heard of before. One was found particularly beneficial: this was the wild celery, as it contained antiscorbutic qualities, which may be of great benefit to the crews of such ships as may hereafter visit this place. I ordered large quantities of this plant to be put into the seamen's soup, which, thus medicated, produced the same salutary effects which seamen generally derive from vegetable diet, after having been long confined to the use of salt provisions.

The tree which produces the winter-bark is known by its broad leaf, shaped like a laurel, of a light green colour without, and inclining to blue within. The bark is easily stripped with a bone or stick, and its virtues are well known. It may be used for culinary purposes as a spice. There is also a species of birch-tree, the stem of which is from thirty to forty feet high, and from two to three feet in diameter; so that, in case of necessity, they would supply a ship with topmasts. They are a light white wood, bear a small leaf, and cleave very straight. Cranberries grow here on a bushy plant, and have a bitterish taste, rather insipid, but may be eaten either raw or in tarts. They are sometimes eaten by the natives.

Animals.] No quadrupeds were seen in this country but sea-lions, seals, and dogs. It is remarkable that these dogs barked, which those that are originally bred in America do not. This is a further proof that the people seen here, either immediately, or remotely, communicated with the Europeans. There are, however, other quadrupeds in this country; for when Mr. Banks ascended the highest hill in his expedition through the woods, he saw the footsteps of a large beast imprinted upon the surface of a bog, though he could not, with any probability, guess of what kind it might be.

The wild fowl are sea-pies, shags, hawks, vultures, ducks, geese, and a large bird, called the Port Egmont hen. There were ducks, called by our people race-horses, on account of the great swiftness with which they run on the water; for they cannot fly, the wings being too short to support the body in the air. The geese here are much smaller than those of England, but in flavour equally agreeable. They have short black bills, and yellow feet. The gander is quite white; the female is spotted black and white, or grey, with a large spot on each wing. Here

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are several other aquatic birds, and some land ones, but not many of the latter.

"Scarcely any fish were seen, nor could our people catch any with their hooks that were fit to eat. The shell-fish were limpets, clams, and muscles, and were found in abundance.

"Among the insects, which were not numerous, there was neither gnat, mosquetto, nor any other species that was either hurtful or troublesome, which, in an uncleared country, was deemed extraordinary. During the snow-blasts, which happened every day while we were here, they hide themselves; and the moment it is fair weather appear again, as nimble and vigorous as the warmest weather could make them.

"The natives were, in appearance, an ugly, half-starved, beardless race. Their colour resembled that of the rust of iron, mixed with oil. They have long black hair. The men are disproportioned in their form. Their stature is from five feet eight, to five feet ten. The women are considerably less. Both sexes have, in general, horrid and dejected aspects. Their language is, in general, guttural, and they express some of their words by a sound exactly resembling that which we make to clear the throat, when any thing happens to obstruct it. Their clothing consists of the skins of the guanico, or seal, thrown over their shoulders, exactly in the same state in which it comes from the animal. A piece of the same skin is drawn over their feet, and gathered about the ankles like a purse; and two or three skins, sewed together, make a cloak, which reaches to their knees: but the major part have only one skin, hardly large enough to cover their shoulders; and the lower parts are quite naked. The women have a small flap, as a succedaneum for a fig-leaf. Their dress, in no other respect, differs from that of the men. The children go entirely naked, and are thus inured in their infancy to cold and hardships. But although they are content to be naked, they are very ambitious to be fine. Their faces are painted in various forms: the region of the eye was, in general, white; and the rest of the face adorned with horizontal streaks of red and black; yet scarcely any two were exactly alike. This decoration seems to be more profuse and elaborate upon particular occasions; for the two natives who introduced Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander into the town, were almost covered with streaks of black in all directions, so as to make a very striking appearance. Both sexes wore bracelets of such beads as they could make themselves of small shells or bones. The women had them both upon their wrists and ankles; the men upon their wrists only; but to compensate for the want of bracelets upon their legs, they wore a kind of fillet of brown worsted about their heads. They seemed to set a particular value upon any thing red, and to prefer beads even to a knife or hatchet.

"Their chief food is shell-fish and seals. The former are collected by the women, whose business it is to attend at low water, with a basket in one hand, a stick pointed and barbed in the other, and a satchel at their backs. They loosen the limpets, and other fish, that adhere to the rocks, with a stick, and put them into the basket, which, when full, they empty into the satchel. The muscles are of a very fine flavour. When they cannot procure a sufficient supply of these, and the other shell-fish, necessity urges them to seek other resources; but as, from their want of ingenuity, they have few implements, and those badly constructed, for the purposes of catching and destroying animals, they are frequently reduced to the utmost distress.

"Their habitations are of the most rude and artificial structure, consisting of nothing more than a few poles, set up so as to incline towards each other, and meet at the top, forming a kind of cone, which resembles some of our bee-hives. On the weather-side they are covered with a few boughs and a little grass; and on the lee-side, about one eighth of the circle is left open, both for a door and a fire-place. Of this kind were the huts seen in a contiguous place called St. Vincent's Bay, in one of which the embers of a fire were still remaining.

"The furniture seen was, if it may be so called, a little grass, which lay within-side of a hovel, and served for chairs and beds. And of all the utensils and implements, which necessity or ingenuity have concurred to produce amongst other savage nations, here were only seen a basket to carry in the hand, a satchel to hang at the back, and the bladder of some beast to hold water, which the natives drink through a hole that is made for that purpose.

"Their weapons consist of a bow and arrows. Their bows are indifferently formed, but the arrows are extremely neat, being made of wood, and polished to the highest degree. The point, which is of glass or flint, and barbed, is formed and fitted with wonderful dexterity. Some pieces of glass and flint, unwrought, were seen among them; besides rings, buttons, cloth, and canvas, with other European commodities. They must, therefore, sometimes travel to the northward, as it is many years since any vessel had been so far south as this part of Terra del Fuego. It was observed that they shewed no surprise at our fire-arms, with the use of which they appeared to be well acquainted; for they made signs to Mr. Banks to shoot a seal, which followed the boat as they were going on shore from the ship. They have likewise harpoons, made of bone, and fitted to a staff, with which they kill seals, whales, and other fish.

"Their canoes were made of bark, and in each was a fire, over which the poor frozen creatures huddled themselves together. I could not suppose they carried a fire

in their canoes for this purpose only, but rather that it may be always ready to remove on shore wherever they land; as, let their method of obtaining a fire be what it may, they could not always be sure of finding fuel that would kindle from a spark. They likewise carried in their canoes large seal-hides, which I judged were to shelter them when at sea, to serve as coverings to their huts on shore, and to be used occasionally as sails.

"The natives did not appear to have among them any government or subordination: no one was more respected than another, yet they seemed to live together in the utmost harmony and good fellowship. No appearance of religion was discovered among them, except the noises that have been mentioned, and which we supposed to be a superstitious ceremony, merely because it could be referred to nothing else. Upon the whole, these people appeared to be the most destitute and forlorn, as well as the most stupid, of all human beings; the very outcasts of nature, who spent their lives in wandering about the dreary wastes, where two of our people perished with cold in the midst of summer, with no dwelling but a wretched hovel of sticks and grass, which will not only admit the wind, but the snow and rain; almost naked, and destitute of every convenience that is furnished by the rudest art, having no utensil even to dress their food; yet they are contented. They seemed to have no wish for any thing more than they possessed; nor did any thing offered them by our voyagers appear acceptable, except beads, as an ornamental superfluity.

"It is surprising that these people do not clothe themselves better, since nature has certainly provided materials. They might line their seal-skin cloaks with the skins and feathers of aquatic birds; they might make their cloaks larger, and employ the same skins for other parts of clothing; for it cannot be supposed they are scarce with them. They were ready enough to part with those they had to our people, which they hardly would have done had they not known where to get more. These people appear doomed to live in one of the most inhospitable climates in the world, without having sagacity enough to provide themselves with such conveniences as may render life, in some measure, more comfortable; and, strange as it may appear, the clothing they wore, when we were here, in the summer, was scarcely sufficient to prevent their perishing with cold, even in that season. What, then, must they feel from the extreme rigour of their clime in the winter? In a word, they are, without exception, the most dejected, miserable, and uncouth, beings on the face of the earth."

In his second visit to Terra del Fuego, in December, 1774, Captain Cook drew up an account of several parts of the south-west coast, which materially differ from those he had formerly seen. This coast seemed entirely composed of rocky mountains, terminating in horrid precipices, whose craggy summits spire up to a vast height, so that hardly any thing in nature can appear with a more barren and savage aspect. The mountains in the interior were covered with snow, but those on the sea-coast were not.

"To a lofty promontory," says our author, "which terminated in two high towers, enclosing a hill, shaped like a sugar-loaf, I gave the name of York Minster. Leaving this spot, we arrived in Christmas Sound, and came to anchor in a harbour distinguished by the name of the Devil's Basin. It is a very secure place, but nothing could be more gloomy, for the vast height of the rocks which encompassed it deprived great part of the harbour of the meridian sun.

"On the shore to the westward we found other harbours, in all of which were fresh water and wood for fuel, but, excepting the little tufts of bushes, the whole country appeared as a barren rock, doomed by nature to perpetual sterility. The sea-coast is composed of a number of large and small islands. On one of the latter our people, in an expedition up the country, found several huts which had lately been inhabited: near them grew a good deal of celery, which was gathered and taken on board the ship.

"The island under which the ship was brought to anchor, I called Shag Island, from the shags breeding in great numbers in cliffs of the rocks. Our people shot some of the old ones, but could not come at the young ones, which are by far the best eating. They saw some geese, of which they killed three, which proved highly acceptable.

"One of the lieutenants I sent to explore the east side of the sound, having informed me that the land opposite the spot where the ship was stationed was an island, and that without the island lay a cove in which were many geese, two shooting parties went thither the next day. My party went by the south-west side. As soon as they got under the island, which obtained the name of Goose Island, they found plenty of shags in the cliffs, and on the south side many geese. It happened to be moulting time, and most of them were on shore, and unable to fly. There being a very great surf, the parties found much difficulty in landing, and very bad climbing over the rocks when they were landed; so that hundreds of the geese escaped them, some into the sea, and others up into the island. By some means, however, they got sixty-two, with which they returned on board, all completely tired; but the acquisition overbalanced every other consideration, and they sat down with a good appetite to supper, on part of what the preceding day had produced. The other party had before brought on board fourteen geese, so that I was able, the next day, to make a distribution to the whole crew, which was the more acceptable, on account

of the approaching festival, this being the 24th of December; and had not Providence thus singularly provided for us, our Christmas fare must have been salt provision.

"I now learned that a number of natives, in nine canoes, had been alongside the ship; and little address was required to persuade them to come on board; for they seemed well acquainted with Europeans, and had amongst them some of their knives.

"On the 25th, they made us another visit. I found them to be of the same nation I had formerly seen in Success Bay; and the same which M. de Bougainville distinguishes by the name of Pecharas; a word which these had, on every occasion, in their mouths. They are a little, ugly, half-starved, heardless race. I saw not a tall person amongst them. They were almost naked: their clothing was a seal-skin; some had two or three skins sewed together, so as to make a cloak which reached to the knees; but the greater part had only one skin, hardly large enough to cover their shoulders. The women, as well as the children, remained in the canoes. I saw two young children at the breast entirely naked; thus they are inured from their infancy to cold and hardships. They had with them bows and arrows, and harpoons, made of bone, and fitted to a staff. I suppose they were intended to kill seals and fish; they may also kill whales with them, as the Esquimaux do. I know not if they resemble them in their love of train-oil; but they, and every thing they had, smelt intolerably of it. I ordered them some biscuit, but they were much better pleased when I gave them some medals, knives, &c.

"They all retired before dinner, and did not wait to partake of our Christmas cheer. Indeed, I believe, no one invited them, for their dirty persons, and the stench they carried about them, were enough to spoil the appetite of any European; and that would have been a real disappointment, as we had not experienced such fare for some time. Roast and boiled geese, goose-pie, &c., was a treat little known to us; and we had yet some Madeira wine left, which was the only article of our provision that was improved by keeping. So that our friends in England did not, perhaps, celebrate Christmas more cheerfully than we did.

"On the 26th, in the evening, when it was cold, the natives made us another visit; and it being distressing to see them stand trembling and naked on the deck, I could do no less than give them some baize and old canvas to cover them.

"On the 27th, a party of us went in two boats to shoot geese, the weather being fine and pleasant. We proceeded round by the south side of Goose Island, and picked up, in all, thirty-one.

"The festival, which we celebrated at this place, occasioned my giving it the name of Christmas Sound. The entrance, which is three leagues wide, is situated in fifty-five degrees twenty-seven minutes south latitude, and in seventy degrees sixteen minutes west longitude. York Minster, which is the only remarkable land about it, will hardly be known by a stranger, from any description that can be given of it, because it alters its appearance according to the different situations it is viewed from. Besides the black rock, which lies off the end of Shag Island, there is another about midway between this and the east shore. A copious description of this sound is unnecessary.

"The refreshments to be got here are precarious, as they consist chiefly of wild fowl, and may probably never be found in such plenty as to supply the crew of a ship; and fish, so far as we can judge, are scarce. Indeed, the plenty of wild fowl made us pay less attention to fishing. Here are, however, plenty of muscles, and very good celery is to be met with where the natives have their habitations. The wild-fowl are geese, ducks, sea-pies, shags, and that kind of gull called the Port Egmont hen. Here is a kind of duck, called by our people race-horses, on account of the great swiftness with which they run on the water; for they cannot fly, the wings being too short to support the body in the air. The geese are much smaller than our English tame geese, but eat as well as any I ever tasted. They have short black bills and yellow feet. The gander is entirely white; the female is spotted black and white, or grey, with a large white spot on each wing. There are several other aquatic, and some land, birds, but the latter are not numerous.

"Barren as this country is, it abounds with a variety of unknown plants, and gave sufficient employment to the botanists. The tree which produces the winter-bark is found here in the woods, as is the holly-leaved barberry, and some other sorts, which I believe are common in the Straits of Magellan.

"Leaving Christmas Island, we steered for Cape Horn, which is known at a distance by a high round hill over it; a point to the west-north-west shews a surface not unlike this, but their situations alone will always distinguish the one from the other. It is the most southern extremity on a group of islands, of an equal extent, lying before Nassau Bay, known by the name of Hermite Islands, and is situated in fifty-five degrees fifty-eight minutes south latitude, and in seventy-six degrees sixty-nine minutes west longitude.

"As we had explored the south coast of Terra del Fuego, I resolved to do the same by Staten Land, which I believed to be as little known as the former. Accordingly we bore up for the east end of Staten Land, and as we advanced, we perceived several islands, of unequal extent, lying off the land. On the easternmost of these islands we saw abundance of seals and birds. This was

a temptation too great for people in our situation to withstand, to whom fresh provisions of any kind were acceptable, and determined me to anchor, in order that we might taste of what we now only saw at a distance, which we did in a spot about a mile from the island. We then landed with a large party of men, some to kill seals, others to catch or kill birds, fish, or what came in our way. As to seals, the whole shore was covered with them, and, by the noise they made, one would have thought the island was stocked with cows and calves: but, at length, we found they were a different animal from seals, but in shape and motion exactly resembling them. We called them lions, on account of the great resemblance the male has to that beast. Here were also the same kind of seals which we found in New Zealand, generally known by the name of sea-bears; at least we gave them that name. They were, in general, so tame, or rather so stupid, as to suffer us to come near enough to knock them down with sticks; but the large ones we shot, not thinking it safe to approach them. We also found on the island abundance of shags and penguins; there were also geese and ducks, but not many; birds of prey, and a few small birds.

"Finding, from these circumstances, that nothing was wanting, but a good harbour, to make this a tolerable place for ships to touch at, whom chance or design might bring hither, I sent an officer next day to Staten Land, to look for one. Appearances promised success in a place opposite the ship. I also sent two boats for the sea-lions, &c. which we had killed: and soon after I went myself, and observed the sun's meridian altitude at the north-east end of the island, which gave the latitude of fifty-four degrees forty minutes five seconds south. After shooting a few geese, some other birds, and plentifully supplying ourselves with young shags, we returned on board, laden with sea-lions, sea-bears, &c. The old lions and bears were killed chiefly for the sake of their fat, to make oil of; for, except their haslets, which were tolerable, their flesh was too rank to be eaten. But the young cubs were very palatable, and even the flesh of some of the old lionesses was not much amiss; but that of the old males was abominable. In the afternoon, I sent some people on shore to skin and cut off the fat of those which yet remained dead on shore; for we had already more carcases on board than necessary; and I went myself, in another boat, to collect birds. About ten o'clock, the officer returned from Staten Land, where he found a good port, situated three leagues to the westward of Cape St. John. It may be known by some small islands lying in the entrance. The harbour is almost two miles in length; in some places near a mile broad; and has in it from fifty to ten fathoms water, with a bottom of mud and sand. Its shores are covered with wood fit for fuel; and in it are several streams of fresh-water.

"On the islands were sea-lions, sea-bears, &c.; and such an innumerable quantity of gulls, as to darken the air when disturbed, and almost to suffocate our people with their dung, which was more offensive than assafœtida. The day on which this port was discovered, occasioned my calling it New Year's Harbour. It would be more convenient for ships bound to the west, or round Cape Horn, if its situation would permit them to put to sea with an easterly and northerly wind. This inconvenience, however, is of little consequence, since these winds are never known to be of long duration. The southerly and westerly are the prevailing winds; so that a ship can never be detained long in this port.

"As we could not sail in the morning of the second, for want of wind, I sent a party of men on shore to the island, on the same duty as before. Towards noon we got a fresh breeze at west; but it came too late, and I resolved to wait till the next morning, when, at four o'clock, we weighed, and stood for Cape St. John, which, being the eastern point of Staten Land, a description of it is unnecessary. After getting round the cape, I hauled up along the south coast, and, as soon as we had brought the wind to blow off the land, it came upon us in such heavy squalls, as obliged us to double-reef our top-sails. It afterwards fell, by little and little, and at noon ended in a calm. The calm was of very short duration, a breeze presently springing up at north-west; but it was too faint to make head against the current, and we drove with it back. Two hours after, the squalls and rain subsided, and the wind, returning back to the west, blew a gentle gale. All this time the current set us to the north. I now gave over plying, and steered south-east, with a resolution to leave the land; judging it to be sufficiently explored to answer the most general purposes of geography and navigation."

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