LONDON:
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[N.B. The Authors are alone responsible for the contents of their respective papers.]

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Royal Geographical Society,
1874.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL,
Read at the Anniversary Meeting on the 22nd June.

The Council beg leave to submit to the Fellows the customary Annual Report on the financial and general condition of the Society:—

Members.—The number of new members elected during the year ending April 30, 1874, has reached the large total of 342 Ordinary, and 9 Honorary Corresponding Fellows, of the former of which 34 have paid Life Compositions. In the previous year, which was remarkable for a large increase over many preceding years, the number of Ordinary Fellows elected was 221. The losses of Ordinary Fellows have been, by death, 49, and by resignation, 28; besides 88 struck off the roll for arrears of subscription; making a total of 165. The net increase of the year has been, therefore, 177. In 1873, the net increase was 140; in 1872, 78; in 1871, 26.

Finances.—The balance-sheet for the financial year (January to December 1873), Appendix A, shows that the net income of the Society was £6752l. 4s. 4d. In 1872 it was £6119l. 7s. 9d., and in 1871, £5637l. 3s. 7d. The amount received from subscriptions of Members was £5643l. 19s. 6d.; in 1872 it was £5070l. 4s. 9d.; in 1871, £4633l. 14s.; in 1870, £4897l. 10s.; and in 1869, £4076l. 10s.
By the expenditure side of the balance-sheet it will be seen that the ordinary expenses of the Society, i.e. deducting the sums paid on account of the two African Expeditions, amounted to 4847l. 5s. 6d., which shows a decrease, as compared with the preceding year, when the expenditure was 5146l. 13s. 2d. On comparing the balance-sheets of the two years it will be observed that this decrease arose from lessened expenses on account of the Library and Map-Room, Office expenses, &c. The sums entered in the balance-sheet as expended on the two African Expeditions are not actually charged against the Society's funds, the 1432l. 19s. being met by Mr. J. Young's grant of 2000l., as per balance-sheet of 1872, and the 416l. having been subsequently credited to the Society, and debited to the Livingstone Search and Relief Fund.

The Finance Committee of Council have continued, as before, to hold their Monthly Meetings, supervising all accounts of receipt and expenditure.

The customary Annual Audit of the Society's accounts was held in the month of March,—Lord Cottesloe and Sir Charles Nicholson, Bart., acting as Auditors on the part of the Council; and General Sir George Balfour, M.P., and H. Jones Williams, Esq., on the part of the Fellows. The Council feel that the Society at large will join with them in expressing their sincere thanks to these experienced gentlemen for devoting so much of their valuable time to this important task.
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<th>Cash Amounts invested in Funds</th>
<th>Deducting Amounts Invested in Funds; actual Expenditure</th>
<th>End of the Year, Dec. 31</th>
<th>Cash Invested</th>
<th>Amount of Stock</th>
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<td>1857</td>
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In 1856 a Treasury Grant of 1000l. for the East African Expedition received.

In 1860 a Treasury Grant of 2500l. for the East African Expedition received.

In 1869 Legacy of Mr. Benjamin Oliveira, 1500l. 17s. 1d.

In 1870 Legacy of Mr. Alfred Davis, 1800l.

In 1871 Legacy of Sir Roderick Mchison, 1000l.

In 1872 Amount of Mr. James Young's Grant for the Livingstone Congo Expedition, 2000l.

---

**Asset Account.**

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<td>(exclusive of Map Collections and Library)</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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</table>
Livingstone Aid Expeditions.—The two Expeditions sent out by the Society to succour Dr. Livingstone—one on the Eastern and the other on the Western side of Africa—have not yet returned; both, however, were recalled soon after the Council had received assurance of the great traveller’s death. The expenses of the West Coast Expedition continue to be paid by Mr. James Young, of Kelly; those of the East Coast (under Lieutenant Cameron), up to the end of the financial year, were paid out of the Livingstone Search and Relief Fund. The last payment (416l. 8s.) exhausted that fund; and it has since been necessary to draw upon the general funds of the Society to meet the further expenses of the Expedition. The accounts of this will appear in the Report of the financial year, January to December, 1874.

Publications.—The 43rd volume of the ‘Journal’ appeared in the middle of May last, and is still being delivered to Members who call or send for their copies. The 17th volume of the ‘Proceedings’ has also been completed since the last Report, and three numbers of Volume XVIII. issued.

The Council have in contemplation a change in the mode of issue, and possibly in the form, of the ‘Proceedings,’ with a view to rendering the work more generally interesting, and, by publishing it more frequently, disseminating Geographical intelligence more quickly among the Members. The change will, doubtless, entail a considerable increase of expenditure.

Library.—246 volumes of books and pamphlets have been added to the library during the year: 20 of which were obtained by purchase, the rest being donations or exchanges. This number is exclusive of the numbers and parts of current periodicals and Transactions.

Among the more important accessions are:—a collection of 162 stereoscopic views of Canada, California, and the United States, presented by C. H. Wallroth, Esq.; Thomson’s ‘Illustrations of China and its People,’ four folio volumes of autotype plates; H. W. Elliott’s ‘Report on the Prybilow Group of the Seal Islands of Alaska;’ Overall and Francis’s facsimile of Ralph Agas’s ‘Civitas Londinum;’ Part IV. of the ‘Historical

The library continues to be largely consulted by private students, authors, and officers of the public departments. The Library Committee of Council has held its usual meetings, and superintended the Librarian's work. The New Catalogue for entering press-marks and additions is now in use, but only includes the titles of works acquired up to the end of 1870 (those only having been printed for that purpose); but the Committee trust that, in a short time, this important work will be posted up to the day; and in the mean time a provisional list, on the principle of the "Lists of Accessions" in the 'Journal,' is now in use in the Library.

The large increase of late years, especially in periodicals and Transactions of Societies, has compelled the Committee to add to the presses, and afford other means for the accommodation and classification of accessions; and it is intended that the various series of periodical issues should be, as far as practicable, made up to the day.

A donation of £200, to be applied in the purchase of books, has been recently received from an eminent geographer, and frequent contributor to our Transactions, who informs the Council that his gift is in recognition of the valuable assistance afforded to him by use of the library.

The Council have appointed, as successor to Mr. Lamprey in the office of Librarian, Mr. E. C. Rye, a gentleman in whose ability to bring into perfect working order the large collection of Geographical works now belonging to the Society they have full confidence.

Map-Room.—The total accessions to the Map Collection since the last anniversary is 838 Maps on 3001 sheets (of these 24 maps on 226 sheets are by purchase); also 6 Atlases, containing 57 Maps and 10 Diagrams.
The Maps by purchase are chiefly those on large scales, published in Austria, Belgium, Germany, and Holland.

The following are the principal accessions:—

1956 Ordnance Sheets of the Survey of Great Britain and Ireland. Presented by the Secretary of State for War, through Sir H. James, R.E., Director.


94 Sheets of Admiralty Charts. Presented by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, through their Hydrographer, Captain F. J. Evans, C.B., F.R.S.

179 Sheets of French Charts. Presented by the Dépôt de la Marine.


5 Sheets of the Topographical Survey of Sweden; in duplicate.


4 Sheets of the Topographical Surveys of Switzerland.


11 Sheets of the Map of Lower Austria.

Map of Turkestan, by Colonel J. T. Walker, on 4 sheets. Atlas, illustrating the principal public works executed in Egypt, by Linant de Bellefonds.

Parts Nos. 3 and 4 of the 'Biblical and Classical Atlas,' by Dr. W. Smith and G. Grove, Esq. Presented by Mr. John Murray.

Map of California and Nevada, by J. D. Whitney, on 2 sheets.

Numerous Maps by Dr. A. Petermann, from the 'Mittheilungen.'
Grants to Travellers.—No grant of money has been made out of the Funds of the Society this year in aid of Geographical Expeditions; but instruments to the value of 60l. 8s. have been lent to various travellers, viz., 30l. 1s. 6d. to Dr. Beke for his journey to the head of the Gulf of Akaba (instruments since returned); 21l. 17s. 6d. to Mr. Hegan, for his Expedition, in company with Captain Musters, r.n., through the interior of Bolivia, and 8l. 10s. to Mr. Ney Elias, who is contemplating a journey to Thibet.
## APPENDIX A.—BALANCE:

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R. T. COCKS,  
Treasurer.
### Sheet for the Year 1873

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<td>Library and Map-Room</td>
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<td>Publications, Illustrations, &amp;c.</td>
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<td>1509</td>
<td>16</td>
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**Expenditure:**

- Amount expended on account of Lieut. Grandy’s Congo Expedition: 1432 19 0
- Do. Lieut. Cameron’s East Coast Expedition: 416 8 0
- Instruments for Mr. Ney Elias: 8 10 0
- Do. Mr. Hegan: 21 17 6
- Do. Dr. C. T. Beke: 30 1 6

**Furniture and Repairs:**

- 1909 16 0
- Service of Plate to Dr. John Kirk, H.M. Consul at Zanzibar: 105 1 6
- Miscellaneous: 36 1 6

**Investments:**

- Purchase of 1000l. Exchequer Bills: 1012 14 8
- Do. 900l. Great Indian Peninsula Railway 5 per Cent. Stock: 1002 7 0
- Balance in Bankers’ hands 31st Dec. 1873: 4 11 6
- Do. Accountant’s Do.: 3 4 11

**Total Expenditure:** 8720 10 7

---

*Audited 25th March, 1874.*

 Auditors:

- COTTESLOE,
- CHAS. NICHOLSON,
- G. BALFOUR,
- H. JONES WILLIAMS.
### APPENDIX B.

**ESTIMATE FOR THE YEAR 1874.**

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<th>Description</th>
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<td>Royal Premium</td>
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<td>58530</td>
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<td>5</td>
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</table>
ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

Patron.
HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN.

Vice-Patron.
H.R.H. THE PRINCE OF WALES.

COUNCIL.
(ELECTED 22ND JUNE, 1874.)

President.

Vice-Presidents.

Treasurer.
COX, Reginald T., Esq.

Trustees.

Secretaries.

Foreign Secretary.—RUSSELL, Lord Arthur, M.P.

Members of Council.
BAKER, Sir Samuel White, F.R.S., &c. HALL, Vice-Admiral Sir W. H., K.C.B.
BRODRICK, Hon. George C. LORNE, The Marquis of, K.T., M.P.
CAMPBELL, Sir George, K.C.S.I., &c. MURRAY, John, Esq.
COTTESLOE, Right Hon. Lord. NICHOLSON, Sir Chas., Bart., D.C.L.
FERGUSSON, James, Esq., F.R.S. RIGBY, General C. P.
FINDLAY, A. G., Esq. SKYMOUR, H. Danby, Esq.
GOLDSMID, Major-Gen. Sir Frederic John, Silver, S. W., Esq.
K.C.S.I., C.B. SMYTH, Warington, Esq., F.R.S.
GRANT-DUFF, M. E., Esq., M.P. WILSON, Major C. W., R.E.

Bankers.—Messrs. COCKS, BIDDULPH, and Co., 43, Charing Cross.

Assistant Secretary and Editor of Transactions.—H. W. BATES, Esq.
HONORARY AND HONORARY CORRESPONDING MEMBERS.

FEBRUARY, 1875.

HONORARY.

H. I. M. Dom Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil.
H. M. Victor Emmanuel II., King of Italy.
H. M. Leopold II., King of the Belgians.
H. I. H. the Grand Duke Constantine, President of the Imperial Geographical Society of St. Petersburg.

H. I. H. Ismail Pasha, Viceroy of Egypt.
H. M. Oscar II., King of Sweden and Norway.

HONORARY CORRESPONDING.

Alich, Dr. Wm. Hermann, St. Petersburg.
Almeida, Dr. Candido Mendes, de.
Baer, Chev. K. von, Mem., Imp. Acad. of Science.
St. Petersburg.
Balbi, M. Eugène de.
Bastian, Dr. Adolph.
Barghaus, Prof. Heinrich.
Berlin.
Bürmeister, Dr. Hermann, Buenos Ayres.
Chaix, Prof. Paul.
Geneva.
Colo, Don Francisco.
Madrid.
Colo, Signor Guido, 17 Via Providenza, Turin.
Corvo, His Excellency Senhor José de Andrade.
Lisbon.
Dana, Professor James D., New Haven, Connecticut.
Dufour, Gen., Director of the Topo. Depart., Switzerland.
Geneva.
Duyvriër, M. Henri.
Paris.
Erman, Prof. Adolph.
Berlin.
Faivre, Général L.
France.
Figuériére, Commandeur Jorge César.
Lisbon.
Forchhammer, Prof. P. W.
Kiel.
Frement, General.
New York.
Guyot, Prof., LL.D., Princeton, New Jersey.
Hausold, General.
Vienna.
Helmersen, Gen. P. von, St. Petersburg.
Hochstetter, Dr. Ferdinand von, Pres. of the Imperial Geographical Soc. of Vienna.
Horner, Le Père.
Irminger, Rear-Admiral C. L. C., R.D.N.
Copenhagen.
Jochmus, Field Marshal Lieutenant Baron.
Vienna.
Kennelly, J. Esq., F.R.A.S.
Khaniyof, F. M. N.
Paris.
Kiepert, Dr. H.
Berlin.
Kiew, Jos. da Silva Mendes, Minister of the Colonies.
Lisbon.
Linant Pasha.
Alexandria.
Lütke, Admiral Count F. B., Pres. of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, St. Petersburg.
Madoz, Don Pascual.
Madrid.
Mirza Maloom Khan, His Excellency, (Persian Minister).
Münzinger, Werner, Esq., C.B.
Nardi, Monsignor Francesco.
Rome.
Negri, Chevalier Cristoforo, Contrada San Francesco di Pietra 11.
Torino.
New, Rev. Charles, Missionary, Free Methodist Church.
Ribe, East Africa.
Noury, Vice-Admiral Baron de la Roncière, Pres. of the French Geogr. Soc.
Paris.
Osten Sacken, Baron Fr. von der Oben.
St. Petersburg.
Pardo, His Excellency Don Manuel (Pres. of the Republic of Peru).
Lima.
Petermann, Dr. Augustus.
Gotha.
Philippe, Dr. Rodolfo Armando.
Chili.
Platen, His Excellency Count.
Raimond, Don Antonio.
Lima.
Ranzuelli, Count Annibale.
Bologna.
71 Steglitzer Strasse, Berlin.
Ruppell, Dr. E., For. M.L.S.
Frankfort.
Sa' da Bandeira, The Marquez de, Lisbon.
Salas, Don Saturnino, Pres. Topo. Depart. of the Argentine Republic.
Buenos Ayres.
Scheda, Herr von, Director of the Imperial Inst. of Military Geogr.
Vienna.
Scherzer, Dr. Karl von.
Vienna.
Soldan, Don Mariano Felipe Paz.
Lima.
Sonkla!, Lient.-Col. the Chev. de, Wiener Neustadt, Vienna.
Struve, Prof. Otto, Imp. Observ. of Pulkova.
St. Petersburg.
Tchatchef, M. Pierre de, I Piazza dell' Zavate.
Florence.
Tschudi, Herr T. T. von.
Vienna.
Vámeery, Professor Arminius.
Puth.
Vanconcellos e Silva, Dr. Alfredo Castiglione.
Rio de Janeiro.
Villavicencio, Don Manuel Guayquil.
Whitney, J. D., Esq. (State Geologist for California), Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S.
Wilczek, Count.
Vienna.
Wrangel, Adm. Baron.
St. Petersburg.
Ziegler, M. J. M.
Winterthur.
FELLows.

(FEBRUARY, 1875.)

N.B.—Those having * preceding their names have compounded for life.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Place, Club, Address</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>Abbott, Wm. S. D., Esq.</td>
<td>28, Pembridge-crescent, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>Abd-Ell-Rassak Bey.</td>
<td>Naval College, Alexandria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>Abdy, Rev. Albert, M.A.</td>
<td>Broad-st., Stamford; and United University Club, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td>Aberdare, Hy. A. Bruce, Lord.</td>
<td>1, Queen's-gate, S.W.; and Dufrym, Aberdare, Glamorganshire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1851</td>
<td>Abinger, W. F. Scarlett, Lord.</td>
<td>Guards' Club, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1865</td>
<td>Acheson, Frederick, Esq., C.E.</td>
<td>Wooden Bridge, Co. Wicklow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>Acland, Sir Thos. Dyke, Bart., M.P.</td>
<td>Killerton, Exeter; and Athenaeum Club.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>Adams, Fras. O., Esq. (Secretary of Embassy)</td>
<td>Berlin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>Adams, W. J., Esq.</td>
<td>The Cedars, Mortlake-road, Richmond.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>Addison, Colonel Hy. R. (Portuguese V.-Consul)</td>
<td>39, Westbourne-park-villas, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>Addison, Colonel Thomas, C.B.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Adkins, Thomas, Esq.</td>
<td>H.M. Consul at Nanking; China.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td>Ainslie, Colonel H. Francis.</td>
<td>Burlington-chambers, 180, Piccadilly, W.; and United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td>Airlie, David Graham, Earl of.</td>
<td>Holly-lodge, Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Aitchison, David, Esq.</td>
<td>5, Pembridge-square, Baywater, W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>Aitken, Russell, Esq.</td>
<td>36, Great George-street, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>Albemarle, George Thomas, Earl of.</td>
<td>11, Grosvenor-square, W.; Quiddenden-hall, Lorchingford, Norfolk; and Evedon-hall, Suffolk.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Acock, Sir Rutherford, K.C.M., D.C.L.</td>
<td>14, Great Queen-street, Westminster, S.W.; and Athenaeum Club, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1838</td>
<td>Aldam, William, Esq.</td>
<td>Frickley-hall, near Doncaster.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Aldrich, Captain Robert D., R.N.</td>
<td>Windmill-road, Croydon, Surrey, S.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Alford, Lewis, Esq.</td>
<td>2, Little Love-lane, E.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Alforth, C. E., Esq.</td>
<td>4, Elgin-road, Notting-hill, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1864</td>
<td>Allan, C. H., Esq.</td>
<td>104, Albion-road, Stoke Newington, N.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VOL. XLIV.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election | Name                      | Address/Position                                                                 |
---------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
1857           | Allan, G. W., Esq.       | Moss Park, Toronto, Canada. Care of Major Aylmer, 59, Jermyn-street, W.          |
1875           | Allen, James Pearce, Esq. | 13, Waterloo-place, S.W.                                                         |
1874           | Allen, James, Esq.       | Warrington-house, Duppas-hill, Croydon.                                           |
1873           | Allen, John Seymour, Esq. | Crepely, Pembroke; and Balliol-college, Oxford.                                    |
1873           | Allen, Thos. B., Esq.    | 40, Regent's-park-road, N.W.                                                      |
1874           | Alt, W. J., Esq.         | Woburn-park, Weybridge; and Thatched-house Club, St. James's-street, S.W.         |
1874           | Altschul, Dr., M.A., M.S.A., M. Philol. Soc., &c. | 9, Old Bond-street, W. |
1872           | Amstel, Jonkheer J. W. Ploos Van, Esq. (Knight of the Order of the Netherland Lion, and His Netherland Majesty's Con.-Gen. for the Australian Colonies and New Zealand). Keizersgracht, No. 163, Amsterdam. Care of Messrs. Hickie, Borman & Co., 127, Leadenhall-street, E.C. |
1854           | Ancona, J. S., Esq.      | 8, John-street, Adelphi, W.C.                                                     |
1874           | Anderson, Alex. Dunlop, Esq. | Ardsheal, Ballycastle, Argyllshire.                                               |
1874           | Anderson, Geo., Esq., Deputy Inspector-General of Army Hospitals. Care of Sir Charles Mc Gregor and Co., Charles-street, S.W. |
1871           | Anderson, Sir Henry L., K.C.S.I. | India-office, S.W. |
1871           | Anderson, Sir James.     | 16, Warrington-crescent, W.                                                        |
1882           | Anderson, James, Esq.    | 1, Buiitler-court, City, E.C.                                                      |
1881           | Anderson, John, Esq.     | Reform Club, Pall-mall, S.W.                                                       |
1871           | Anderson, Sir Wm. Geo., K.C.B. | 1, Buckingham-gate, S.W. |
1873           | Anderson, Colonel W. W.  |                                                                                   |
1856           | Andrew, William P., Esq. | 29, Bryanston-square, W.                                                          |
1866           | Andrews, John R., Esq.   | 14, Bryanston-square, W.                                                           |
1868           | Angas, George F., Esq.   | 48, Norland-square, Holland-park, W.                                              |
1861           | Ansell, Maurice, Esq.    | 15, George-street, Hanover-square, W.                                             |
1855           | Ansted, Prof. D. T., M.A., F.R.S., &c. | 33, Brunswick-square, W.C.; Athenæum Club, S.W.; and Château Vieux, St. Léonard, Boulogne-sur-Mer. |
1873           | Anstey, George A., Esq.  | Windham Club, S.W.                                                                 |
1857           | Anstruther, Major-General Philip, C.B., Madras Artillery. | Airth-castle, by Falkirk, N.B. |
1864           | Anstruther, Capt. R. L., Rifle Brigade. | Blue Gate, Ipswich. |
1888           | Arbuthnot, George, Esq.  | 23, Hyde-park-gardens, W.                                                          |
Arbuthnot, Major George, R.H.A. Coworth, Sunningdale.
Archibald, Wm. Freld. A., Esq. 3, Aneresham-road, Putney, S.W.
Ardagh, Capt. John C., R.E. Staff College, Farnborou' Station, Hants.
Armistead, Rev. Charles John, M.A., F.S.A. United University Club, S.W.
Armitage, Edward, Esq. 3, Hall-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.
*Armistead, George, Esq., M.P. Errol-park, Errol, N.B.
Armstrong, Sir Alexander, K.C.B., L.L.D., F.R.S., Director-General of the Navy Medical Department. Admiralty, Somerset-house, W.C.; and Junior United Service Club, S.W.
Arnold, Edwin, Esq. 'Daily Telegraph,' Fleet-street, E.C.
Arrow, Sir Fred. Trinity-house, Tower-hill, E.C.; and Pilgrims' hall, Brentwood, Essex.
Arthur, Colonel Sir Frederick, Bart. 24, Queen's-gate, South Kensington, W.
Arthur, Captain William, R.N.
Ashbee, Edmund Wm., Esq., F.G.S. 17, Mornington-crescent, Regent's-park, N.W.
*Ashton, Captain Samuel Tudor. 7, Palmira-square, Brighton.
Ashton, R. J., Esq. Hatton-court, Threadneedle-street, E.C.
Ashwell, James, Esq., M.A., F.G.S.
*Atkins, John Pelly, Esq., F.S.A. Holsteld-place, near Sevenoaks.
Atlee, Charies, Esq. The Park, Ealing, W.
Attwell, Professor Henry. Barnes, S.W.
Austen, Major Henry H. Godwin, 24th Foot, Bengal Staff Corps. Junior United Service Club, S.W.; and Shelford-house, near Guildford, Surrey.
Austin, John G., Esq. Care of the Colonial Company, 16, Leadenhall-street, E.C.
Ayrton, Right Hon. Acton S. 11, Bolton-street, Piccadilly.

Baber, Colborne, Esq. 7, Bloomsbury-place, Bloomsbury-square, W.C.; and Foreign-office, S.W.
*Babington, William, Esq., St. Kilda, Buckhurst-hill, Essex; and Benyon River, West Coast of Africa.
*Back, Admiral Sir Geo., D.C.L., F.R.S. 109, Gloucester-place, Portman-sq., W.
Bacon, Geo. Washington, Esq. 127, Strand, W.C.
Baden-Powell, Henry W. S., Esq. 1, Hyde-park-gate South, S.W.
Bagge, Sir William, Bt., M.P. Strandsett-hall, Market Downham, Norfolk.
Bagot, Christopher N., Esq. Oriental Club, W.
Bagot, Capt. L. H. Care of C. S. Bagot, Esq., 40, Chancery-lane, W.C.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election.  

1839  
Bailey, L. C., Esq., Staff Commander, R.N. Topographical Department, Adair-house, St. James's-square, S.W.

1872  
Baillie, Capt. Wm. Hunter. 43, Norfolk-square, W.

1857  
Baillie, Lieut.-Col. John (Bengal Staff Corps.) 17, Palace-gardens-terrace, Kensington, W.

1874  
Bainbridge, Jno. Hugh, Esq. 115, Eaton-square, S.W.

1857  
Baines, Thomas, Esq. Care of E. L. King, Esq., 35, Austin-street, King's Lynn, Norfolk.

1873  

1860  
*Baker, John, Esq.

1882  
Baker, Captain Robert B. Oriental Club, Hanover-square, W.

1885  
Baker, Sir Samuel White, Pasha, F.R.S. 19, Seymour-street, Portman-square, W.

1871  

1873  

1861  
Balfour, Colonel David. Balfour-castle, Kirkwall, N.B.

1847  

1870  
Balfour, Captain George M., R.N. 3, Surrey-elles, Upper Norwood.

1853  
Balfour, John, Esq. 13, Queen's-gate-place, S.W.

1860  
Ball, John, Esq., F.R.S. 10, Southwell-gardens, South Kensington.

1872  
Balls, W. H., Esq. 3, The Terrace, Kennington-park, S.E.

1852  
Bancroft, Col. W. C., 16th Regt. McGregor and Co., Charles-street, S.W.

1872  

1858  
Bannerman, Sir Alexander, Bart. 46, Grosvenor-place, S.W.

1872  
Barber, Wm. Cambridge, Esq. Crossley Orphan Home and School, Savile-park, Halifax.

1874  

1869  
Barbour, Francis, Esq. Horsted-place, Uckfield.

1874  
Barclay, Charles George, Esq. 30, Phillimore-gardens, Kensington, W.

1873  
Barclay, Hugh G., Esq. Monkham's, Woodford, Essex.

1870  
Barclay, Wm. L., Esq., R.A. Leyton, Essex.

1863  
Barford, A. H., Esq., M.A. 1, Cornwall-terrace, Regent's-park, N.W.

1870  
Baring, Capt. Evelyn, R.A. 11, Berkeley-square, W.

1835  
*Baring, John, Esq. Oakwood, Chichester.

1844  
*Baring, Thomas, Esq., M.P., F.R.S. 41, Upper Grosvenor-street, W.

1870  
Barkly, Sir Henry, K.C.B., Governor of the Cape.

1862  
Barlee, Frederick Palgrave, Esq. Perth, Western Australia. Care of G. Lawrence, Esq., 12, Marlboro-road, Lee, S.E.

1868  
Barlow, Frederick Thomas Pratt, Esq. 26, Rutland-gate, S.W.

1871  
Barnes, Robert, Esq., M.D. 31, Grosvenor-street, W.

1872  
Barnett, Edwd. Wm., Esq.

1864  
Barnett, H. C., Esq., J.P. York, West Australia.
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>*Barns, John W., Esq.</td>
<td>Bhawulpore, Punjaub, India; care of Messrs. Grindlay</td>
<td>55, Parliament-street, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>Barr, Edward G., Esq.</td>
<td>76, Holland-park, W.; and 39, Mark-lane, E.C.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>Barrett, Benjamin, Esq.</td>
<td>Licensed Victuallers' School, Kennington-lane, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>Barrett, Howard, Esq., M.R.C.S.</td>
<td>3, Tavistock-square, W.C.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td>Barrington, George, Viscount, M.P.</td>
<td>20, Cavendish-square, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>Barrington Ward, Mark J., Esq., B.A., F.R.S.</td>
<td>(Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools). Oakendale, Kenwood, Sheffield; and United University Club, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>1833</td>
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<td>9, Hyde-park-gate South, W.</td>
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<td>The Cedars, Horslemoor-green, Slough, Bucks.</td>
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<td>23, Park-street, Park-lane, W.</td>
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<td>180 Becbie, James, Esq. 2, East-India-avenue, Leadenhall-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>*Bell, C. Davidson, Esq., late Surveyor-General, Cape of Good Hope. 4, Danube-street, Edinburgh.</td>
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<td>Bell, H. Douglas, Esq. 64, Oakley-square, S.W.; and 13, Osborn-street, Great Grimsby, Lincolnshire.</td>
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<td>Benjamin, Horace B., Esq. 22, Glasshouse-street, Regent-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>*Bennett, J. Risdon, Esq., M.D. 15, Finsbury-square, E.C.</td>
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<td>Bennie, A., Esq. 7, Broad Sanctuary, Westminster, S.W.; and Oriental Club, W.</td>
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<td>Bernard, P. N., Esq. 16, Leadenhall-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>Berry, Josiah, Esq. 16, Regent-square, W.C.</td>
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<td>Berthon, Peter Hy., Esq. 20, Margaret-street, Cavendish-square, W.</td>
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<td>Best, William John, Esq. Franklin-street, Belfast.</td>
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List of Fellows of the

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<td>Blakiston, Matthew, Esq.</td>
<td>18, Wilton-crescent, S.W.</td>
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<td>Blanc, Henry, Esq., M.D., &amp;c.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. H. S. King and Co., 45, Pall-mall, S.W.</td>
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<td>Scientific Club, 7, Savile-row, W.</td>
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<td>4, Adelphi-terrace, Strand, W.C.</td>
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<td>Blore, Edward, Esq., D.C.L., F.G.S., P.S.A., &amp;c.</td>
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<td>Mansfield-house, Clifton-gardens, Maidstone, W.</td>
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<td>Blyth, Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>53, Wimpole-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>Blyth, Philip P., Esq. (J.P. for Middlesex)</td>
<td>53, Wimpole-street, W.</td>
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<td>Boileau, Colonel G. W.</td>
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<td>Bollard, William, Esq.</td>
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<td>Bolton, Major Francis John, 12th Regiment</td>
<td>2, Westminster-chambers, S.W.</td>
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<td>Bonpas, George Cox, Esq.</td>
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<td>Bonney, Charles, Esq.</td>
<td>Adelaide, Australia.</td>
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<td>Bonnor, George, Esq.</td>
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<td>Bonwick, James, Esq.</td>
<td>St. Kilda, Melbourne. Care of W. Becklow, Esq., 22, South Audley-street, W.</td>
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<td>1894</td>
<td>Booker, Samuel, Esq.</td>
<td>47, Albany, Old Hall-street, Liverpool; and Demerara.</td>
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<td>Booker, Wm. Lane, Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. F. O'Brien and Co., 43, Parliament-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1897</td>
<td>Booth, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Training College, Exeter.</td>
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<td>*Botcherby, Blackett, Esq., M.A.</td>
<td>174, Brompton-road, S.W.</td>
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<td>1900</td>
<td>Bourne, John, Esq., c.E.</td>
<td>21, Richmond-road, Bayswater, W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Bourne, Robert, Esq., J.P.</td>
<td>Grafton-manor, Bromsgrove.</td>
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</table>
Bousfield, William, Esq., B.A. 31, Stanhope-gardens, Queen's-gate, W.

Bousted, John, Esq. 34, Craven-street, Strand, W.C.

*Boucher, Emanuel, Esq. 12, Oxford-square, Hyde-park, W.

Bouverie, P. P., Esq. 32, Hill-street, Berkeley-square, W.

Bowell, Wm., Esq., F.R.S. Chandos-house, Hereford; and Gate-house Grammar-school, Hereford.


*Bowen, Sir George Ferguson, K.C.M.G., M.A. Governor of New Zealand.


Bowes, John, Esq. Warrington, Lancashire.

Bowle, John, Esq. Conservative Club, S.W.


Bowly, William, Esq. Cirencester.

Bowman, John, Esq. 9, King William-street, E.C.

Bowring, John Charles, Esq.

Bowring, Samuel, Esq. 1, Westbourne-park, W.

Bowser, Alfred T., Esq. Cromwell-house, Hackney, E.


*Boyd, Edward Lennox, Esq., F.S.A. 35, Cleveland-square, Hyde-park, W.


Boyson, Ambrose P., Esq. East-hill, Wandsworth, S.W.

*Bragge, William, Esq., C.E. Shire's-hill, Sheffield.

Braithwaite, Isaac, Esq. 27, Austin-friars, E.C.

*Bramley-Moore, John, Esq. Langley-lodge, Gerrard's-cross, Bucks.

*Brand, James, Esq. 109, Fenchurch-street, E.C.

Brand, James Ainsworth, Esq. 50, Old Broad-street, E.C.


Brander, Captain William M., 24th Foot.

Brandle, Dr. D., F.L.S. Director of Forests, Calcutta. Care of W. H. Allen, Esq., 13, Waterloo-place, S.W.


Branson, W. Powell, Esq. 23, Rectory-grove, Clapham, S.W.; and 155, Fenchurch-street, E.C.

*Brasey, Thomas, Esq., M.P. 24, Park-lane, W.; and Normanhurst-court, Battle.

Bray, Joseph, Esq., C.E. 26, Queen's-gate-gardens, S.W.

Braybrooke, Philip Watson. Assistant Colonial Secretary, Ceylon. Messrs. Price and Co., Craven-street, W.C.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election:

1874 320 Brent, Algernon, Esq. Audit-office, Somerset-house, W.C.
1862 Brett, Charles, Esq.
1867 Bridge, John, Esq. Heatley-house, near Lymm, Cheshire.
1874 Bridgeman, Granville, Esq. 29, Thistle-grove, S.W.; and Junior Conservative Club, King-street, St. James’s.
1873 Bridger, Captain W. Milton, R.N. Army and Navy Club, S.W.
1858 Bridges, Nathaniel, Esq.
1852 *Brierly, Oswald W., Esq. 38, Ampthill-square, N.W.
1865 Briggs, Colonel J. P. Lantern Tower, Jedburgh.
1860 Bright, James, Esq., M.D. 12, Wellington-square, Cheltenham.
1856 Brine, Captain Lindsay, R.N. Boldre-house, Lymington, Hants; United Service Club, S.W.; and H.M.S. 'Briton,' East Indies.
1861 Bristowe, Henry Fox, Esq. 6, Chesham-place, S.W., and 22, Old-square, Lincoln’s-inn, W.C.
1861 Broadwater, Robert, Esq. 3, Biltmore-square, Fenchurch-street, E.C.
1861 Brodie, Walter, Esq. Orsett-house, Orsett-terrace, Hyde-park, W.
1861 Brodie, William, Esq. Eastbourne, Sussex.
1874 Brodribb, Wm. B., Esq. The Bank of Australasia, Threadneedle-street, E.C.
1863 340*Brodrick, The Hon. George C. 32a, Mount-street, W.
1874 Brooke, Cha.s., Esq. (Rajah of Sarawak). 15, Queen-street, Mayfair, W.
1872 Brookes, Clifford J., Esq. The Grange, Nightingale-lane, Clapham-common, S.E.

1862 Brookes, Thomas, Esq. Mattock-lane, Ealing, W.
1856 *Brooking, George Thomas, Esq. 33, Sussex-gardens, Hyde-park, W.
1856 *Brooking, Marmaduke Hart, Esq. 11, Montagu-place, Bryanston-square, W.
1863 *Broughall, William, Esq. Broadwater, Down, Tunbridge-wells.
1868 *Brown, Colonel David (Madras Staff Corps). India.
1856 350*Brown, Daniel, Esq. The Elms, Larkhall-rise, Clapham, S.
1864 Brown, Edwin, Esq., F.R.S. Burton-on-Trent.
1860 Brown, James, Esq. Rossington, Yorkshire.
1874 Brown, J. B. Esq. 90, Cannon-street, E.C.; and Bromley, Kent.
1865 *Brown, James R., Esq., F.R.S.A. Copenhagen. 84, Caversham-road, N.W.
<table>
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Brown, John Allen, Esq.</td>
<td>Dakhwell-lodge, Kent-gardens, Ealing, W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Brown, Rev. Dixon</td>
<td>23, Queen's-gate, S. Kensington.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Brown, Richard, Esq., C.E.</td>
<td>115, Lansdowne-road, Notting-hill, W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Brown, Robert, Esq.</td>
<td>4, Gladstone-terrace, Hope-park, Edinburgh.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Brown, Samuel, Esq.</td>
<td>11, Lombard-st., E.C.; and The Elms, Larkhall-rise, Clapham, S.W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Brown, Thomas, Esq.</td>
<td>8, Hyde-park-terrace, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>Brown, William, Esq.</td>
<td>Loat's-road, Clapham-park, S.W.</td>
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<td>Browne, H. H., Esq.</td>
<td>Moor-close, Binsfield, Bracknell.</td>
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<td>Browne, John H., Esq.</td>
<td>Montpellier-lawn, Cheltenham.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Browne, Samuel Woolcott, Esq.</td>
<td>58, Porchester-terrace, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Browne, Captain Wade</td>
<td>35, Charles-street, Berkeley-square, W.</td>
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<td>Browne, Walter Raleigh, Esq., C.E.</td>
<td>Savile Club, 15, Savile-row, W.</td>
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<td>Browne, Wm. A. Morgan, Esq.</td>
<td>Grove-house, The Glebe, Champion-hill, S.E.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Browning, G. F., Esq.</td>
<td>25, Longton-grove, Sydenham.</td>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Browning, H., Esq.</td>
<td>73, Grosvener-street, Grosvener-square, W.; and Old Warden-park, Biggleswade.</td>
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<td>Browning, Thomas, Esq.</td>
<td>6, Whitehall, S.W.</td>
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<td>Bruce, Alex, McCrae, Esq.</td>
<td>30, Oxford-road, Kilburn, W.</td>
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<td>Brunton, John, Esq., M.I.C.E., F.G.S.</td>
<td>13a, Great George-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Brunton, R. H., Esq., F.G.S., &amp;c.</td>
<td>1, Oxford-villas, Balham, S.W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Bryant, Walter, Esq., M.D., F.R.C.S.</td>
<td>28a, Sussex-square, Hyde-park-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>Buckleinch, His Grace the Duke of, K.G., F.R.S.</td>
<td>Dalkeith-palace, near Edinburgh; and Montagu-house, Whitehall, S.W.</td>
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<td>Buchanan, R. Dunlop, Esq.</td>
<td>16, Porchester-terrace, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Buchanan, Thos. Ryburn, Esq.</td>
<td>All Souls' College, Oxford.</td>
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<td>Budd, J. Palmer, Esq.</td>
<td>Ynisdaren, near Swansea.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Bulger, Major George Ernest, F.L.S., 10th Foot.</td>
<td>Colchester, Essex.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Bull, William, Esq., F.L.S.</td>
<td>King's-road, Chelsea, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Buller, Sir Edward M., Bart., M.P.</td>
<td>Old Palace-yard, S.W.; and Dilborn-hall, Cheadle, Staffordshire.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Buller, Walter L., Esq., F.L.S.</td>
<td>7, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-st., S.W.</td>
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<td>Bullock, Captain Charles J., R.N.</td>
<td>Hydrographic-office, S.W.</td>
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<td>Bunbury, Sir Charles James Fox, Bart., F.R.S.</td>
<td>Barton-hall, Bury St. Edmund's.</td>
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<td>1839</td>
<td>Bunbury, E. H., Esq., M.A.</td>
<td>35, St. James's-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>Bundock, F., Esq.</td>
<td>Windham Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Burch, Isaac Howe, Esq.</td>
<td>Burlington-chambers, 180, Piccadilly, W.</td>
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<td>Year of Election</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Burke, Samuel Constantine, Esq.</td>
<td>84, Harbour-street, Kingston, Jamaica.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Burn, Robert, Esq. 5,</td>
<td>Clifton-place, Sussex-square, W.</td>
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<td>Burke, Lieut.-Colonel O. F.</td>
<td>India-office, S.W.</td>
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<td>Burney, Commr. Chas., R.N., Superintendent Greenwich Hospital Schools, S.E.</td>
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<td>Burns, John, Esq. Castle Wemyss, by Greenock, N.B.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Burr, Higford, Esq. 23, Eaton-place, S.W.; and Aldermaston-court, Berkshire.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Burstall, Captain E., R.N. 9, Park-villas, Lower Norwood, S.E.</td>
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<td>400 Burt, Charles, Esq. Friars-Stile-lodge, Richmond-hill.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>*Burton, Alfred, Esq. 64, Marine, St. Leonard's.</td>
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<td>1833</td>
<td>*Burton, Decimus, Esq., F.R.S. 1, Gloucester-houses, Gloucester-crescent, W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Burton, William Samuel, Esq. South-villa, Regent's-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>Bury, William Coutts, Viscount. 48, Rutland-gate, S.W.</td>
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<td>Bush, Rev. Robert Wheler, M.A. 29, Milner-square, Islington, N.</td>
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<td>Bushell, Dr. Nathaniel, Prince's-park School, Liverpool.</td>
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<td>410 Busk, William, Esq., M.C.P., &amp;c. 28, Beauchamp-gardens, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Butler, Charles, Esq. 3, Connaught-place, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Butler, E. Dundas, Esq. Geographical Department, British Museum, W.C.</td>
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<td>Butler, Major W. F., 69th Regiment.</td>
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<td>Butter, Donald, Esq., M.D., &amp;c. Hazlewood, Church-road, Upper Norwood, S.E.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Buxton, Francis W., Esq., R.A. 15, Eaton-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Buxton, Henry Edmund, Esq., R.A. Bank-house, Great Yarmouth, Norfolk.</td>
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<td>Buxton, John H., Esq. Brewery, Spitalfields, E.C.</td>
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<td>*Buxton, Sir Thomas Fowell, Bart. 14, Grosvenor-crescent, W.; and Warlies, Waltham-abbey, Essex.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>420 Bykovski, Gryf Jazn, Esq. Gryf Park, Viesma Bojanov, near Bobruish, Russia.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Caldbeck, Captain J. B. (P. and O. Sup. at Aden). 122, Leadenhall-street, E.C. Care of Mrs. Caldbeck, Sunnieside, 21, Highbury-hill, N.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Calthorpe, The Hon. Augustus Gough. 33, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>*Calthorpe, F. H. Gough, Lord. 33, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Calvert, Frederic, Esq., Q.C. 33, Upper Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>*Cama, Dorabjee Pestronej, Esq. 3 and 4, Winchester-street-buildings, E.C.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Cameron, Donald, Esq., M.P. Auchmacarry, Inverness-shire.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Cameron, Capt. Donald R., R.A. 4, Campden-grove, Kensington, W.</td>
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</table>
Cameron, Major-General Sir Duncan Alexander, R.E., C.B. New Zealand.

Cameron, Henry Lovett, Esq. 25, Granville-place, Portman-square, W.

1864 430 Cameron, J., Esq. 32, Great St. Helen’s, E.C.

1866 Cameron, R. W., Esq. P.O. Box 1676, New York. Care of Messrs. Brooks and Co., St. Peter’s-chambers, Cornhill, E.C.

1871 *Campbell, Allan, Esq. Melbourne Club, Melbourne.

1873 Campbell, C. H., Esq. 10 Eaton-place, S.W.

1866 Campbell, Sir George, K.C.S.I., D.C.L. 60, St. George’s-square, S.W.; and Athenæum Club, S.W.

1844 *Campbell, James, Esq. Grove-house, Hendon, Middlesex; and 37, Seymour-street, W.

1857 Campbell, James, Esq., Surgeon R.N. The Grange, Chigwell-row, N.E.

1834 *Campbell, James, Esq., jun. Hampton-court-green, S.W.

1863 *Campbell, James Duncan, Esq. Peking. 8, Storey’s-gate, St. James’s-park, W.

1869 Campbell, Robert, Esq., J.P. 31, Lovelace-square, S.W.; and Buscot-park, Lechlade, Gloucestershire.

1872 440 Campbell, Robert, Esq. Lednock-bank, Comrie, Perthshire.

1872 Campbell, William, Esq. New Club, Glasgow.

1856 Campbell-Johnston, A. R., Esq., F.R.S. 84, St. George’s-square, S.W.

1871 Campos, Dr. J. B. Gonsalvez. Maranham, Brazil.


1864 Cannon, John Wm., Esq. Castle-grove, Twam.


1873 *Cardwell, Edward H., Esq. 11, Cromwell-place, S. Kensington, W.; Oxford and Cambridge and Garrick Clubs.

1853 *Cardwell, Viscount. 74, Eaton-square, S.W.

1863 *Carew, R. Russell, Esq., J.P. Carpenders-park, Watford, Herts; and Oriental Club, W.


1869 Carey, Rev. Tupper. Fifefield, Bampton, Salisbury; and 15, Hyde-park-gardens, W.

1872 Carfrae, John, Esq. 31, St. Swithin’s-lane, E.C.; and Junior Conservative Club, King-street, St. James’s.

1862 Cargill, John, Esq., Member of the Legislative Assembly of New Zealand and Legislative Council of Otago. Dunedin, Otago, New Zealand. Care of Messrs. Cargill, Jounchin and Co., 28, Cornhill, E.C.

1863 *Cargill, Wm. W., Esq. 4, Connaught-place, Hyde-park, W.


1870 Carleton, Colonel Dudley. 42, Berkeley-square, W.

1858 Carlingford, Lord. 7, Carlton-gardens, S.W.


1874 Carnegie, Patrick, Esq. Hazlewood, Upper Norwood; and Oriental Club, Hanover-square, W.


1863 Carnegie, Commander the Hon. J., R.N. 26, Pall-mall, S.W.
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Carr, William, Esq.</td>
<td>Denepark, near Tunbridge.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Carter, Lieut.-Colonel Hugh Bonham, Coldstream Guards</td>
<td>Guards' Club, S.W.; 1, Carlisle-place, Victoria-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Carter, Captain Thomas Tupper, R.E.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. H.S. King and Co., 45, Pall-mall.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Carter, Theodore, Esq.</td>
<td>10, Hanover-street, Rye-lane, S.E.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Cartwright, William, Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Office of Chinese Customs, 8, Storeys-gate, St. James's-park, S.W.</td>
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<td>1860 *</td>
<td>Carver, Rev. Alfred J., D.D., Master of Dulwich College</td>
<td>Dulwich, S.E.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Casber-Koteler, Commr. W. J., R.N.</td>
<td>The Elms, Toplow; and Naval and Military Club, Piccadilly, W.</td>
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<td>1878</td>
<td>Casella, Louis P., Esq.</td>
<td>147, Holborn-bars, E.C.; and South-grove, Highgate, N.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>Cassels, Andrew, Esq. (Member of Council of India)</td>
<td>51, Cleveland-square, Westbourne-terrace, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Cassiani, Chas. Joseph, Esq.</td>
<td>12, George-street, Portman-square, W.</td>
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<td>Cathcart, Major Andrew.</td>
<td>16, Grosvenor-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>Caton, R. Redmond, Esq., F.S.A.</td>
<td>Union Club; and Binbrook-house, Market-manor, Lincolnshire.</td>
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<td>Cattley, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>34, Woburn-square; and St. Petersburg.</td>
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<td>Cave, Amos, Esq.</td>
<td>Grove-house, Belvedere, Kent.</td>
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<td>Cave, Captain Laurence Trent.</td>
<td>75, Chester-square, W.</td>
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<td>35, Wilton-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>Chadwick, Jesse, Esq.</td>
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<td>Chadwick, Jno. O., Esq.</td>
<td>46, Bolton-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.</td>
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<td>Reform Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>Chalmer, Lieut. Reginald, 60th Royal Rifles</td>
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<td>Chambers, Charles Harcourt, Esq., M.A.</td>
<td>2, Chesham-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>Champain, Major J. U. Bateman, R.E.</td>
<td>Chiseldon-lodge, Queen's-road, Richmond.</td>
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<td>Champion, John Francis, Esq.</td>
<td>High-street, Shrewsbury.</td>
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<td>Chandless, William, Esq.</td>
<td>5, Portman-square, Oxford-square, W.</td>
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<td>Care of Mrs. Henry Chapman, Woodford, Essex.</td>
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<td>1863 *</td>
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<td>Roehampton, S.W.</td>
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<td>5, Wentworth-place, Bolton.</td>
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<td>Chaunterell, Fred Dundas, Esq.</td>
<td>63, Lincoln's-inn-fields, W.C.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Cheadle, Walter, Esq., R.A., M.D. Camb.</td>
<td>2, Hyde-park-place, Cumberland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Cheetham, Samuel, Esq.</td>
<td>11, Rumford-place, Liverpool.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1855</td>
<td>Cheshire, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>3, Vansbrugh-park, Blackheath, S.E.; and Conservative Club, S.W.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Royal Geographical Society.

Tour of Election.

1858
Chetwode, Augustus L., Esq. 3, Charles-street, Lowndes-square, S.W.; and Chilton-house, Thame, Oxfordshire.

1870
Chichester, Sir Bruce, Bart. Arlington-court, Burnstaple.

1858
Childers, Right Hon. Hugh C., M.P. 17, Prince's-gardens, W.; and Australia.

1856
Childers, John Walbanke, Esq. Cantley-hall, near Doncaster.

1857
*Chimoto, Comr. William, R.N. H.M.S. 'Nassau.' Care of the Hydrographic-office, S.W.

1872
Chinery, D., Esq., Consul-General for Liberia. 30, Gracechurch-street, E.C.

1869
Chinnock, Frederick George, Esq. 86, Cornwall-gardens, Queen's-gate, W.

1874
*Cholmley, Harry Walter, Esq. Hoxhaam, near York.

1872

1872
Christie, T. Beath, Esq., M.D. Eating.

1871
Church, Colonel Geo. Earl. Care of J. W. Barry, Esq., 19, Great Winchester-street, E.C.

*Church, W. H., Esq.

1849
Churchill, Lord Alfred Spencer. 16, Rutland-gate, S.W.

1856

1870
Clapton, Edward, Esq., M.D., &c. St. Thomas's-street, Southwark, S.E.

1863
Clark, Lient. Alex. J. 14, St. James's-square, S.W.; and Eccleswell-house, Maidstone, Newport, Monmouthshire.

1870
Clark, Charles, Esq. 20, Belmont-park, Lee, Kent, S.E.

1872
Clark, George Thomas, Esq. Dowlaishouse, Dowlaish.

1873
Clark, Sir John, Bart. 38, Cornwall-gardens, W.; and Tilipronie, Aboyne, Aberdeenshire.

1868
Clark, John Gilchrist, Esq. Speddock, Dumfries, Dumfriesshire.

1862
Clark, J. Latimer, Esq. 5, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street, S.W.; and Beechmont, Dulwich, S.E.

1874
*Clark, Mathew E., Esq. 18, Granville-place, Portman-square, W.

1870
Clark, Robert, Esq. 46, Chepstow-villas, Baywater, W.

1868
*Clark, William, Esq. The Cedars, South Norwood.

1859
Clark, Rev. W. Geo., M.A. Trinity College, Cambridge.

1865
Clark, W. H., Esq. 6, Leinster-terrace, Hyde-park, W.

1874

1859
Clarke, Col. A., R.E. Army and Navy Club, S.W.

1874
Clarke, Captain F. C. H., R.A. Adair-house, St. James's-square, S.W.

1872
Clarke, Joseph, Esq. North-hill-villa, Highgate, N.

1855
*Clarke, Rev. W. B., M.A. Sydney, New South Wales. Care of Messrs. Trübner, Ludgate-hill, E.C.

1868
Clarke, W., Esq. 44, Ladbrooke-grove, W.

1862
Claude, Eugène, Esq. Villa Helcetia, Carlton-road, Tufnell-park, N.

1863
Clayton, Captain John W., late 15th Hussars. 14, Portman-square, W.

1866
*Cleghorn, Hugh, Esq., M.D. Straitly, St. Andrew's.
<table>
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Address</th>
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<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>Cleghorn, John, Esq.; M.B. S., M.S.A., &amp;c.</td>
<td>3, Spring-gardens, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Clements, Rev. H. G.</td>
<td>United University Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Clements, Robert George, Esq. 97</td>
<td>Victoria-park-road, E.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Clerk, Captain Claude</td>
<td>Military Prison, Aldershot, Hants.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Clermont, Thomas, Lord</td>
<td>Ravensdale-park, Newry, Ireland.</td>
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<td>1845</td>
<td>Cleveland, His Grace the Duke of</td>
<td>Cleveland-house, 17, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Clifford, Sir Charles</td>
<td>Hatherton-hall, Cannock, Staffordshire.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Clifford, Charles Cavendish, Esq.</td>
<td>House of Lords, S.W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Clifford, Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>1, Lansdown-place, Blackheath, S.E.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Clinton, Lord Edward</td>
<td>Army and Navy Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Clive, Rev. Archer</td>
<td>Whitchfield, Hereford.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Clowes, E., Esq.</td>
<td>Salisbury-square, Fleet-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Clowes, George, Esq.</td>
<td>Duke-street, Stamford-street, Blackfriars, S.E.; Charing-cross, S.W.; and Surbiton, Surrey.</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Clowes, William, Esq.</td>
<td>Duke-street, Stamford-street, Blackfriars, S.E.; Charing-cross, S.W.; and 51, Gloucester-terrace, Byde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Clowes, William Charles Knight, Esq., M.A. Duke-street, Stamford-street, Blackfriars, S.E.; and Surbiton, Surrey.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Clutterbuck, Robert, Esq., J.P.</td>
<td>8, Great Cumberland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Coard, Philip Aldridge, Esq.</td>
<td>13, St. Mark's-square, Sandringham-road, West Hackney, E.</td>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Cobbold, John Chevalier, Esq.</td>
<td>Athenium Club, S.W.; and Ipswich, Suffolk.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Cochrane, Rear-Admiral the Hon. A., C.B. Junior United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Cochrane, Kenneth, Esq., Elimbank, Galashiels, N.B.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Cock, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>Kingston-on-Thames.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>*Cockburn, Captain James George, 6th Regiment. Guernsey.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Cockerton, Richard, Esq.</td>
<td>Cornwall-gardens, South Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>*Cockle, Captain George</td>
<td>9, Bolton-gardens, South Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Cocks, Colonel C. Lygon (Coldstream Guards). Trerren-Voyn, Lisheard, Cornwall.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Cocks, Major Octavius Yorke</td>
<td>86, Park-street, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1841</td>
<td>*Cocks, Reginald Thistlethwaye, Esq.</td>
<td>43, Charing-cross, S.W.; and 29, Stanhope-gardens, South Kensington, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Codrington, General Sir William, G.C.B. 110, Eaton-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>*Coe, Rev. C. C.</td>
<td>Highfield, Bolton-le-Moors.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Colchester, Reginald Charles Edward, Lord. 1, Wilton-street, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year of Election</td>
<td>Name</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Cole, William H., Esq.</td>
<td>64, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Colebrooke, John, Esq.</td>
<td>15, Hans-place, Chelsea, S.W.</td>
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<td>1841</td>
<td>Colebrooke, Sir Thomas Edward, Bart., F.R.A.S.</td>
<td>37, South-st., Park-lane, W.</td>
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<td>1848</td>
<td>Coles, Charles, jun., Esq.</td>
<td>86, Great Tower-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Coles, Jno., Esq.</td>
<td>Mitcham, Surrey.</td>
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<td>*1835</td>
<td>Collett, William Rickford, Esq.</td>
<td>Carlton Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Collier, C. T., Esq., Barrister of the Middle Temple.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Collingwood, Lieut. W.</td>
<td>India-office, S.W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Collinson, Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>7, Deaconshire-place, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Collinson, John, Esq., c.h.</td>
<td>37, Porchester-terrace, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>Collinson, Vice-Admiral Richard, c.h.</td>
<td>Haven-lodge, Ealing, W.; and United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>*1871</td>
<td>Collis, Capt. Gustavus W. Berry, 6th Royal Regiment.</td>
<td>Care of Mrs. Collis, Barton-terrace, Dawlish, Devon.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Colquhoun, Sir Patrick M. de, q.c., LL.D.</td>
<td>2, King's-bench-walk, Temple, E.C.</td>
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<td>*1861</td>
<td>Colville, Charles John, Lord.</td>
<td>42, Eaton-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Colvin, Binny J., Esq.</td>
<td>71, Old Broad-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Colvin, Captain W. B., Royal Fusiliers.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Cox and Co., Craig's court, S.W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Combe, Lieut. B. A.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Compiègne, Marquis de.</td>
<td>10, Rue de Clichy, Paris.</td>
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<td>*1884</td>
<td>Conder, Rev. John.</td>
<td>Hallbrooke-house, New Wombourne, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Constable, Captain Chas. Golding, i.n.</td>
<td>6, Harley-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.</td>
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<td>*1872</td>
<td>Cook, F. L., Esq.</td>
<td>3, Cromwell-place, South Kensington.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Cooke, Lieut.---Col. A. C., R.E.</td>
<td>Bermuda.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Cooke, John George, Esq.</td>
<td>25, Austin-friars, Old Broad-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Cooke, Nathaniel, Esq.</td>
<td>5, Ladbroke-terrace, Notting-hill, W.</td>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Cooke, Robt. F., Esq.</td>
<td>50, Albermarle-street, W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Cooke, William Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>4, Ehm-court, Temple, E.C.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Cooke, Capt. W. S., 22nd Regiment.</td>
<td>Advair-house, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>*1872</td>
<td>Cookson, F., Esq.</td>
<td>Teddington-hall, Teddington.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>Cooley, William Desborough, Esq.</td>
<td>13, College-place, Camden-town, N.W.</td>
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</table>
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election

1872 Cooper, Alfred, Esq. 9, Henrietta-street, Cavendish-square, W.
1872 Cooper, Commr. B. J., R.N. 31, Kensington-square, W.
1862 Cooper, Sir Daniel. 20, Prince’s-gardens, South Kensington, S.W.
1856 Cooper, Lieut.-Col. Edward H., Grenadier Guards. 42, Portman-square, W.
1873 Cooper, Thos. T., Esq. Care of Messrs. H. S. King and Co., 65, Cornhill, E.C.
1874 610 Cooper William White, Esq. 19, Berkeley-square, W.
1871 Cope, Henry, Esq. 19, Bedford-place, Russell-square, W.C.
1853 Copley, Sir Joseph William, Bart. Sprotborough, Doncaster.
1864 Cork and Orrery, Earl of. 1, Grafton-street, W.
1868 Cork, Nathaniel, Esq. Grenfell-house, Sutton, Surrey.
1868 Corner, William Mendl, Esq. 10, Enmore-park, South Norwood; and 105, Leadenhall-street, E.C.
1868 *Cornish-Brown, Charles, Esq. Clifton-lodge, Farquhar-road, Norwood, S.E.
1865 Cornthwaite, Rev. T., M.A. Forest, Walthamstow.
1860 620 Cornwell, James, Esq., PH.D. Purbrook, Crescent-wood-road, Sydenham-hill, S.E.
1868 Cory, Frederic C., Esq., M.D. Portland-villas, Buckhurst-hill, Essex; and Nassau-place, Commercial-road, E.
1873 Cosson, Emilus Albert de, Esq.
1874 *Cosson, the Baron de. 38, Rue St. Dominique, St. Germain, Paris.
1869 Coster, Guillaume F., Esq. 11, Park-crescent, Regent’s-park, N.W.
1856 Cottesloe, Right Hon. Lord. 20, Eaton-place, S.W.
1873 Cottrill, Robert Alfred, Esq. Stanwell-house, Stanwell, near Staines.
1873 Courtenay, J. Irving, Esq. 3, Fowden-buildings, Temple, E.C.
1874 630*Courtney, Henry Nicholas, Esq., B.A. 24, Fitzwilliam-street, Dublin; and National Club, Whitehall-gardens, S.W.
1862 Coward, William, Esq. Rock-bank, Lordship-lane, Dulwich, S.E.
1857 *Cowell, Lieut.-Col. Sir J. C., K.C.M.G., R.E. Buckingham-palace, S.W.
1854 Cowley, Norman, Esq. 4, Montagu-place, Montagu-square, W.
1871 Cowper, Sir Charles, K.C.M.G. 3, Westminster-chambers, S.W.
1862 *Cowper, Sedgwick S., Esq. 3, Upper Phillimore-place, West Kensington, W.
1874 Coxon, Samuel Bailey, Esq., F.G.S. Usworth Hall, Durham.
1865 Coyah, John S., Esq. Levent-house, St. Helen’s-place, E.C.
1867 640 Crane, Leonard, Esq., M.D. 7, Albemarle-street, W.
Royal Geographical Society.

Year of Election. | Name and Address
---|---
1873 | Craufurd, George Ponsonby, Esq. Buenos Ayres; and Travellers' Club, S.W.
1857 | Craufurd, Lieut.-General James-Robertson, Grenadier Guards. Travellers' Club, S.W.; and 36, Prince's-gardens, W.
1875 | Craven, Alfred, Esq. Henwood-bank, Sharrow, Sheffield.
1848 | Crawford, Robert Wigram, Esq. 71, Old Broad-street, E.C.
1866 | Crawford, O. J., Esq. Athenaeum Club, S.W.
1859 | *Creyke, Captain Richard Boynton, R.N. Grisethorpe-hall, Filey, Yorkshire.
1866 | Croker, T. F. Dillon, Esq. 19, Pelham-place, Brompton, S.W.
1864 | Croll, A. A., Esq., C.E. Southwood, Southwood-lane, Highgate.
1868 | Croll, Alex., Esq. Mavis-bank, Grange-road, Upper Norwood.
1860 | *Crookley, J. Rodney, Esq. 43, Portadown-road, Maidstone, W.; and 30, Parliament-street, W.
1862 | Crossman, James Hiscott, Esq. Rolls-park, Chigwell, Essex.
1863 | *Crowder, Thos. Mosley, Esq., M.A. Thornton-hall, Bedale, Yorkshire.
1852 | Crowdy, James, Esq. 17, Serjeants' inn, E.C.
1874 | Crowe, Francis, Esq., LL.D. 22, Westbourne-park-road, W.
1872 | Cruikshank, Donald, Esq. Junior Naval and Military Club, 19, Dover-street, W.
1859 | Cull, Richard, Esq., F.R.A.S. 13, Twickenham-street, Bedford-square, W.C.
1857 | Cumming, William Fullarton, Esq., M.D. Athenaeum Club, S.W.; and Kinellan, Edinburg.
1860 | Cunliffe, Roger, Esq. 24, Lombard-street, E.C.; and 10, Queen's-gate, South Kensington, W.
1853 | Cunningham, John Wm., Esq., Sec. King's College. Somerset-house, W.C.; and Harrow, N.W.
1862 | *Cunynghame, Lieut.-Gen. Sir A. T., K.C.B. United Service Club, Pall-mail, S.W.
1860 | Cunynghame, Sir Edward A., Bart. Army and Navy Club, S.W.
1865 | Cure, Capel, Esq. 51, Grosvenor-street, W.
1872 | Curling, Lient. J. Jas., R.E.
1868 | Currie, A. A. Hay, Esq., C.E. 18, Acqua Sola, Genoa.
1839 | 670 Curtis, Timothy, Esq.
1872 | Cust, Robt. Needham, Esq. 64, St. George's-square, S.W.
1867 | Cuttance, John Fras. J., Esq. Cleveland-house, Greville-road, Kilburn, N.W.
1872 | Czarnikow, Cesar, Esq. 29, Mincing-lane, E.C.
1874 | Dalziel, Arthur Jas., Esq. 11, Mark-lane, E.C.
1863 | *Dalgety, Fred. G., Esq. 16, Hyde-park-terrace, W.
XXXVI

List of Fellows of the

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<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
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<tr>
<td>1864</td>
<td>Dallas, A. G., Esq.</td>
<td>3, Ennismore-gardens, Prince's-gate, S.W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Dallas, Sir Geo. E., Bart.</td>
<td>Foreign-office, Downing-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>D'Almeida, W. B., Esq.</td>
<td>19, Green-park, Bath.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Dalrymple, R. G. E., Esq.</td>
<td>680</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Dalyell, Sir Robt. Alex. Osborn, Bart.</td>
<td>H.M.'s Consul at Rustchuk, Bulgaria.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Daiziel, William R., Esq.</td>
<td>5, Gresham-park, Brixton, S.W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Damer, Lieut.-Col. Lionel S. Dawson.</td>
<td>2, Chapel-street, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Daniell, Colonel E. Staines.</td>
<td>East India United Service Club, 14, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Darroch, Geo. Edw., Esq.</td>
<td>38, Stanhope-gardens, S.W.; and Oxford and Cambridge Club, Pall-mall, S.W.</td>
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<td>1838</td>
<td>*Darwin, Charles, Esq., M.A.; F.R.S.</td>
<td>6, Queen Anne-street, Cavendish-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Davidson, Duncan, Esq.</td>
<td>4, Lancaster-gate, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>690 Davidson, Col. James.</td>
<td>Sneinton Manor-house, Nottingham; and Carlton Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Davies, R. H., Esq.; Chief Commissioner of Oudh, Lucknow.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Twining, 215, Strand, W.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Davies, Rev. R. V. Faithfull.</td>
<td>Trinity College, Eastbourne.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>*Davies, Robert E., Esq., J.P.</td>
<td>Crescent-villa, Kington, near Portsmouth.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Davies, W. Hy.</td>
<td>Esq.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Davis, Edmund F., Esq.</td>
<td>6, Cork-street, Bond-street, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Davis, Frederick E., Esq.</td>
<td>20, Blandford-square, N.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Davis, Rev. James.</td>
<td>7, Adam-street, Adelphi, W.C.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Davis, Captain John Edward, R.N.</td>
<td>Hydrographical-office, Admiralty, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>700 Davis, Richard, Esq.</td>
<td>2, St. Helen's-place, E.C.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Dawes, Edwyn, Esq.</td>
<td>Heathfield-lodge, Surbiton</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Debary, Rev. Thomas, M.A.</td>
<td>35, Mount-street, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1886</td>
<td>Debenham, William, Esq.</td>
<td>16, Gloucester-place, Portman-square, W.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>De Crespiigny, Lieutenant C., R.N.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. King and Co., 63, Cornhill, E.C.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>De Leon, Dr. Hananel.</td>
<td>26, Redcliffe-gardens, West Brompton, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>710 Denham, Vice-Adm. Sir Henry Mangles.</td>
<td>F.R.S. 21, Carlton-road, Maidstone, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>Denison, Alfred, Esq.</td>
<td>6, Albemarle-street, W.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Royal Geographical Society.

1875
*Denny, Edward Maynard, Esq. 43, Upper Brook-street, Grosvenor-square; and Boxhurst, Dorking.

1872
*Dent, Alfred, Esq. 12, Hyde-park-gardens, W.

1874
Dent, Clinton T., Esq. 16, Lower Belgrave-street, S.W.

1872
*Dent, Edward, Esq. 12, Hyde-park-gardens, W.

1871
Dentley, James, Esq. *The College, Margate.

1853

1867
De Salis, Major-General Rodolph, C.B. 123, Pall-mall, S.W.

1872
Desmond, Rev. H. M. Egan.

1874
720 Devas, Thomas, Esq. Mount Arrarat, Wimbledon.

1854
*Devaux, Alexander, Esq. 2, Avenue-road, Regent’s-park, N.W.

1874

1837

1853
De Wesselow, Lieut. Fras. G. Simpkinson.

1872
Dhuleep-Singh, His Highness the Maharaja. Elvedon-hall, near Thetford.

1870
Dibdin, Charles, Esq. 62, Torrington-square, W.C.

1870
Dibdin, Robert W., Esq. 62, Turrington-square, W.C.

1862
Dick, Captain Charles Cramond. Elmwood, Cologf, Armadale, Devon.

1866
*Dick, Fitzwilliam, Esq., M.P. 20, Curzon-street, Mayfaiir, W.

1861
720 Dick, Robert Kerr, Esq., Bengal Civil Service. Oriental Club, W.

1866
Dick, William Graeme, Esq. 29, Leinster-square, W.

1830
*Dickinson, Francis Henry, Esq., F.S.A. 119, St. George’s-square, Pimlico, W.; and Kingweston-park, Somerset.

1852
Dickinson, John, Esq. Athenaeum Club, S.W.

1854
*Dickinson, Sebastian Stewart, Esq., M.P., Barrister-at-Law. 12, Suffolk-street, Pall-mall; and Brown’s-hill, Stroud, Gloucestershire.

1859
Dickson, A. Benson, Esq. 4, New-square, Lincoln’s-inn, W.C.

1860
Dietz, Bernard, Esq., of Algea Bay. 3, Dorset-square, W.

1859

1860

1859
*Dilke, Sir Charles Wentworth, Bart., M.P. 78, Sloane-street, S.W.

1856
740 Dillon, The Hon. Arthur. 113, Victoria-street, S.W.

1864
Dimsdale, J. C., Esq. 50, Cornhill, E.C.; and 52, Cleveland-square, S.W.

1873
Dineen, Thomas, Esq. 7, College-street, Belfast.

1872
Divett, Edwd. Ross, Esq. Reform Club, S.W.

1867
Dix, Thomas, Esq. 10, Amwell-street, W.C.

1872
Dixon, Joseph, Esq. Hillsb’-hall, Sheffield.

1861
Dixon, Lieut.-Colonel John.

1854
Dixon, W. Hepworth, Esq., F.R.S. 6, St. James’s-terrace, St. John’s-wood, N.W.

1873
**List of Fellows of the Royal Society**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name and Title</th>
<th>Address</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1854</td>
<td>Dodson, Right Hon. John George, M.P.</td>
<td>6 Seavmore-place, Mayfair, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>Donald, James, Esq.</td>
<td>339 High-street, Edinburgh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1858</td>
<td>Donne, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Instow, North Devon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>Doria, Marquis Giacomo</td>
<td>Genoa. Care of Kirkland, Cope, and Co., 23 Salsbury-street, Strand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>Douglas, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Augus-lodge, Portsea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>Douglas, John, Esq.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Douglas, Captain N. D. C. F.</td>
<td>Guards' Club, S.W</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Douglas, Stewart, Esq.</td>
<td>5 Chester-terrace, Eaton-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Dowling, Edward Samuel, Esq.</td>
<td>14 Holland-villas-road, Kensington, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>Dowling, Lieut.-Col. James Henry</td>
<td>Barnwood, near Gloucester</td>
</tr>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Down, J. H. Langdon, Esq., M.D.</td>
<td>39 Welbeck-street, W. ; and Normansfield, Hampton Wick</td>
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<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>Doyle, Sir Francis Hastings C., Bart.</td>
<td>Custom-house, E.C.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Drach, Solomon Moses, Esq., F.R.A.S.</td>
<td>74 Offord-road, Barnsbury, N.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>*Drew, Frederick, Esq.</td>
<td>Claremont-road, Surbiton</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Drummond, Alfred Manners, Esq.</td>
<td>Charing-cross, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Drummond, E. A., Esq.</td>
<td>2 Bryanston-square, W.</td>
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<td>1846</td>
<td>Drummond, Lieut.-General John</td>
<td>The Boyce, Dymock, Gloucestershire</td>
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<td>1851</td>
<td>Drury, Captain Byron, R.N.</td>
<td>4 Cambridge-villas, Cheltenham</td>
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<td>1851</td>
<td>*Du Cane, Major Francis, R.E.</td>
<td>Brentwood, Essex</td>
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<td>1851</td>
<td>*Ducie, Henry John, Earl of</td>
<td>15 Portman-square, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td>Duckworth, Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>Holmfield-house, Aigburth, near Liverpool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>*Duff, Mountstuart Elphinstone Grant, Esq., M.P.</td>
<td>4 Queen's-gate-gardens, South Kensington, W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1866</td>
<td>*Dugdale, Captain Henry Charles G.</td>
<td>Mereworth-hall, Atherton, Warwick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>*Dugdale, John, Esq.</td>
<td>1, Hyde-park-gardens; and Llwyn, Llanfyllin, Oswestry</td>
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<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>Dunbar, John Samuel A., Esq.</td>
<td>28, Pembridge-crescent, Bayswater, W. ; and 4, Barnard's-inn, Holborn</td>
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<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>Duncan, Major Francis, R.A., M.A., F.R.S.</td>
<td>The Scientula Club, 7, Saville-row, W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>*Duncan, George, Esq.</td>
<td>45 Gordon-square, W.C.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>*Dundas, Right Hon. Sir David, Q.C.</td>
<td>13, King's-Bench-walk, Temple, E.C. ; and Ockeytyre, Stirling</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Dunell, Henry James, Esq.</td>
<td>12, Hyde-park-square, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Dunlop, Alexander Milne, Esq.</td>
<td>28, Clarebroade-gardens, W. ; and 3, Old Palace-yard, Westminster, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1839</td>
<td>*Dunlop, R. H. Wallace, Esq., C.B., Indian Civil Service.</td>
<td>12, Kent-gardens, Castle-hill, Ealing</td>
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<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>*Dunmore, Charles Adolphus Murray, Earl of</td>
<td>50, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Dunn, Captain F. J. A.</td>
<td>Partillon, Tours, France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of Election</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Address</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Dunn, Wm., Esq.</td>
<td>Lime-street-square, E.C.; and Ravensbourne-park, Cattofd-bridge, Kent.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Duprat, Le Vicomte</td>
<td>Consul-Général de Portugal, 8, St. Mary-Axe, E.C.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>Durham, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>Beauchamp-house, Kidworth, near Leicester.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Durnford, Lieut.-Colonel A. W., R.E.</td>
<td>Care of W. M. James, Esq., 8, Lyndhurst-road, Roslyn-park, Hampstead.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Duthie, Capt. W. H., R.N.</td>
<td>Woolwich, S.E.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Dutton, F. S., Esq.</td>
<td>Reform Club, S.W.; and Adelaide, Australis.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Dutton, Frederick H., Esq.</td>
<td>45, Dover-street, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Dykes, Wm. Alton, Esq.</td>
<td>(Provost of Hamilton) The Orchard, Hamilton, N.B.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Dymes, Daniel David, Esq.</td>
<td>Windham Club, S.W.; and 9, Mincing-lane, E.C.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Eardley-Wilmot, Major-Gen. F., M.R.A.</td>
<td>22, Victoria-road, Clapham-common, S.W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Earle, Arthur, Esq.</td>
<td>Childwall-lodge, Wavertree, near Liverpool; and Windham Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Eastwick, Edward B., Esq., F.R.S.</td>
<td>88, Holland-road, Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Eastwick, Captain W. J.</td>
<td>Cuyuni, Trinidad.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Eaton, F. A., Esq.</td>
<td>New University Club, St. James's-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>*Eaton, H., Esq.</td>
<td>16, Prince's-gate, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>*Eaton, William Meriton, Esq.</td>
<td>16, Prince's-gate, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Eatwell, Surgeon-Major W. C. B., M.D.</td>
<td>Oriental Club, Hanover-square, W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Eber, General F.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Ebury, Lord.</td>
<td>107, Park-street, Grosvenor-square, W.; and Moor-park, Herts.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Eden, Admiral Sir Charles, K.C.B.</td>
<td>9, Queen's-gate-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Edge, Rev. W. J., M.A.</td>
<td>Benenden-vicarage, near Staplehurst, Kent.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Edgell, A. Wyatt, Esq.</td>
<td>11, Portugal-street, W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Edgeworth, M. P., Esq., BENG. C.S.</td>
<td>Maitrim-house, Anerley, S.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Edmonds, John Thomas, Esq.</td>
<td>Oscoo-house, near Pontypool, Monmouthshire.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>*Edward, James, Esq.</td>
<td>Balmaddery, by Dundee, N.B.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>*Edwardes, Thomas Dyer, Esq.</td>
<td>5, Hyde-park-gate, Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Edwards, Rev. A. T., M.A.</td>
<td>39, Upper Kennington-lane, S.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Edwards, G. T., Esq., M.A.</td>
<td>19, Old-square, Lincoln's-Inn, W.C.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>*Edwards, Henry, Esq., M.P.</td>
<td>53, Berkeley-square, W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Edwards, James Lyon, Esq.</td>
<td>7, The Avenue, Belvoir-park, Hampstead, N.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td>Egerton, Rear-Admiral the Hon. Francis, M.P.</td>
<td>Devonshire-house, S.W.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election | Name | Residence
--- | --- | ---
1863 | Elder, George, Esq. | Knock-castle, Ayrshire.
1867 | Eley, Charles John, Esq. | Old-Brompton, S.W.
1865 | Elias, Ney, jun., Esq. | 64, Inverness-terrace, Bayswater, W.
1870 | Ellenborough, Lord. | Holly Spring, Brocknell, Berks.
1890 | Elliot, G., Esq., C.B. | The Hall, Houghton-le-Spring, near Fence Houses, Durham.
1857 | *Elliot, Capt. L. R. | La Mailleraye-sur-Seine, Seine Inferieure. Care of J. L. Elliot, Esq., at c4, Albany, W.
1871 | Elliot, William, Esq. | 2, De Crespigny-terrace, Denmark-hill, Camberwell, S.
1873 | Ellis, Hon. Evelyn H. | Raleigh Club, Regent-street, W.
1865 | 830 Ellis, W. E. H., Esq. | Hasfield-rectory, Gloucester; Oriental Club, W.; and Byculla Club, Bombay.
1871 | Ellis, Walter J., Esq. | 102, Harley-street, Cavendish-square, W.
1873 | Emalieu, W. Stuart, Esq. | Lloyd's, E.C.; and Richmond, S.W.
1873 | Emalieu, William Esq. | The Laurels, Richmond-hill, S.W.
1858 | Elphinstone, Major Sir Howard C., R.E., K.C.B., V.C., C.M.G. | Buckingham-palace, S.W.
1869 | Elsey, Colonel William. | West-lodge, Ealing, W.
1857 | Elton, Sir A. H., Bart, Athenæum Club, S.W.; and Clevedon-court, Somersetshire.
1873 | Elton, Captain Frederick. | Care of Messrs. Crawford, Colvin, and Co., 71, Old Broad-street, E.C.
1872 | Elwell, W. R. G., Esq. | 8, Beverley-road, South Penge-park, S.E.
1862 | *Emanuel, Harry, Esq. | 11, Hyde-park-gardens, S.W.
1863 | Emalieu, John, Esq. | 47, Gray's-inn-road, W.C.
1850 | Enderby, Charles, Esq., F.R.S., F.L.S. | Royal Institution, Albemarle-street, W.
1860 | Enfield, Edward, Esq., F.R.A. | 19, Chester-terrace, Regent's-park, N.W.
1870 | Erskine, Claude J., Esq., Bombay Civil Service. | 87, Harley-street, W.; and Athenæum Club, S.W.
1852 | Erskine, Admiral John Elphinstone. | 1 L, Albany, W.; and Lockhead, Stirling, N.B.
1857 | *Esmeade, G. M. M., Esq. | 29, Park-street, Grosvenor-square, W.
1872 | 850 Espinesse, Don Juan (Baron de Eldenburg). | Plaza del Inquisicion, Lima, Peru.
1874 | *Evans, B. Hill, Esq. | 23, St. John's-villas, Upper Holloway, N.
1870 | *Evans, Edward Bickerton, Esq. | Waibourne-hall, near Worcester.
1830 | *Evans, Vice-Admiral George. | 1, New-street, Spring-gardens, S.W.; and Englefield-green, Staines.
<table>
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
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<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>Evans, Lieut.-Colonel Henry Lloyd</td>
<td>14, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>*Evans, W., Esq.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>Evans, W. Herbert, Esq.</td>
<td>Forde Abbey, Chard, Dorset.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1865</td>
<td>Evans, Colonel William Edwyn</td>
<td>55, Seymour-street, Portman-square, W.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Evelyn, Lieut.-Colonel George P.</td>
<td>84, Osnaburgh-gardens, Brompton, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1851</td>
<td>*Evelyn, William J., Esq., F.S.A.</td>
<td>Evelyn Estate-office, Evelyn-street, Deptford,</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td><em>Everett, James, Esq., F.S.A.</em></td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Ewart, John, Esq.</td>
<td>7, Lancaster-street, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Ewing, J. D. Crum, Esq.</td>
<td>3, Lime-street-square, E.C.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Eyre, Edward J., Esq.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Eyre, George E., Esq.</td>
<td>59, Lounds-square, Brompton, S.W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Eyre, Major-Gen. Sir Vincent, K.C.S.I.</td>
<td>Athenarum Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Fair, John, Esq.</td>
<td>50, Hamilton-terrace, St. John's-wood, N.W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Fairfax, Captain Henry, R.N.</td>
<td>Army and Navy Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Fairholme, George Knight, Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Mr. Ridgeway, 169, Piccadilly, W.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Fairland, Edwin, Esq., M.D. (Surg. 21st Hussars)</td>
<td>Lucknow, Odessa.</td>
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<td>1838</td>
<td>Falconer, Thomas, Esq.</td>
<td>Uah, Monmouthshire.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Falconer, William, Esq.</td>
<td>Gothic-house, St. Ann's-road, Stamford-hill, N.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Falkland, Lucius Bentinck, Viscount</td>
<td>Shuttersdale, Yorkshire.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Fane, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>14, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>Fanshawe, Admiral E. G.</td>
<td>Delrow, Watford, Herts.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Farmer, Edmund, Esq.</td>
<td>Lawrence, Sevenoaks, Kent.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Farmer, James, Esq.</td>
<td>6, Porchester-gate, Kensington-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>*Farquharson, Lieut.-Col. G. M'B.</td>
<td>St. John's-villa, Cathmore-road, Shepherd's-bush, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Farrar, R. Bishop, Esq.</td>
<td>33, Abchurch-lane, E.C.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>*Farrar, W. Jos., Esq.</td>
<td>18, Upper Brook-street, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Fauconer, Rob. Stephen, Esq.</td>
<td>Fairlaun, Clarence-road, Clapham-park, S.W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Fawcett, Captain Edward Boyd, M.A.</td>
<td>The Towers, Clevedon, Somerset.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Fawcett, Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>Wainsford, Lymington.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Fawcett, Frederick, Esq., M.D.</td>
<td>Westgate, Louth, Lincolnshire.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>*Fayrer, Joseph, Esq., M.D.</td>
<td>16, Grenville-place, Portman-square, W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Fazakerley, J. N., Esq.</td>
<td>6, South Eaton-place, S.W.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election. | Name and Address
--- | ---
1874 | Fenn, Thomas, Esq. 14, Bedford-square, W.C.
1872 | Fenner, William, Esq. Thatched House Club, St. James’s-street, S.W.; and 3, Den-crescent, Teignmouth, South Devon.
1840 | *Fergusson, James, Esq., F.R.S., D.C.L. 20, Langham-place, W.
1860 | Ferro, Don Ramon de Silva.
1871 | Festing, Captain Robert, R.E. South Kensington Museum, S.W.
1865 | 900 Field, Hamilton, Esq. Thornton-lodge, Thornton-road, Clapham-park, S.
1874 | Fielden, Joshua, Esq., M.P. Nutfield Priory, Redhill, Surrey.
1844 | Findlay, Alex. George, Esq. 53, Fleet-street, E.C.; and Dulwich-wood-park, S.
1862 | Finnis, Thomas Quotsted, Esq., Alderman, Wanstead, Essex, N.E.
1874 | Firth, Fraz. Helme, Esq. 25, Cockspur-street, S.W.
1870 | *Firth, John, Esq., J.P. Care of Messrs. R. Buckland and Son, Hop-gardens, St. Martin’s-lane, W.C.
1863 | Fisher, John, Esq. 60, St. James’s-street, S.W.
1869 | Fitch, Frederick, Esq., F.R.M.S. Hadleigh-house, Highbury-new-park, N.
1857 | *Fitzclarence, Commander the Hon. George, R.N. 1, Warwick-square, S.W.
1872 | Fitzgerald, A., Esq. Junior St. James’s Club, 74, St. James’s-street, S.W.
1861 | 910 Fitzgerald, Captain Keane, 2, Portland-place, W.
1873 | Fitz-Gerald, R. U. Penrose, Esq. 110, Eaton-square, S.W.
1873 | Fitz-James, Frank, Esq., C.E.
1857 | Fitzwilliam, The Hon. C.W., M.P. Brooke’s Club, St. James’s-street, S.W.
1837 | *Fitzwilliam, William Thomas, Earl. 4, Grosvenor-square, W.; and Wentworth-house, Rotherham, Yorkshire.
1865 | *Fitzwilliam, William S., Esq. 23, Ovington-square, Brompton, S.W.
1863 | Fleming, G., Esq. Brompton Barracks, Chatham.
1865 | Fleming, Rev. T. S. The Vicarage, St. Clement’s, Leeds.
1853 | 920*Fleming, Rev. Francis P. Prospect-hill, Dunoon, Scotland.
1862 | Fletcher, John Charles, Esq. Dale-park, Arundel; and Eaton-place, S.W.
1857 | Fletcher, Thomas Kedward, Esq. Union-dock, Limehouse, E.
1873 | Foggo, Geo., Esq. Oriental Club, W.
1863 | Foley, Major-Gen. the Hon. St. George, C.B. 24, Bolton-street, W.
1874 | Folkard, A., Esq. Thatched House Club, St. James’street, S.W.
1861 | Foord, John Bromley, Esq. 52, Old Broad-street, E.C.
1874 | Forbes, A. Litton A., Esq. Clarence Club, 1, Regent-street, W.
1860 | Forbes, Commander Charles S., R.N. Army and Navy Club, S.W. Care of Messrs. Woodhead.
1863 | Forbes, Capt. C. J. F. Smith.
1872 | Forbes, Henry, Esq.
1872 | Forbes, James G. T. Esq., Staff-Surgeon R.N. Royal Hospital, Greenwich.
### Royal Geographical Society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>Forbes, Major Jno., G., r.e.</td>
<td>2, The Terrace, Kensington-gardens-square, W.; and 14, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Forbes, Lord, m.a.</td>
<td>Castle Forbes, Aberdeenshire</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Forbes, W. F., Esq.</td>
<td>Loch-cote-house, Bathgate, N.B.; and Castleton</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Ford, Col. Barnett (Governor of the Andaman Islands)</td>
<td>14, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Forde, Henry Charles, Esq., c.e.</td>
<td>Ridgway-place, Wimbledon</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>940*Forrest, Alex, Esq., Survey Department of Perth. Western Australia.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Baker and Oliphant, 37, Walbrook, E.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Forshaw, Thomas, Esq.</td>
<td>The Bower, Bowdon, Cheshire</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Forsman, Comr. O. A. (Consul for Portugal).</td>
<td>Potschefstroom, Transvaal Republic, S. Africa. Care of Vicomte Duprat, 8, St. Mary Axe, E.C.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Forster, Hon. Anthony.</td>
<td>Finlay-house, Britanny-road, St. Leonards-on-Sea</td>
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<tr>
<td>1839</td>
<td>*Forster, Right Hon. William Edward, M.P.</td>
<td>80, Eccleston-square, S.W.; and Burley, near Otley</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Forsyth, William, Esq., M.P., q.c.</td>
<td>61, Rutland-gate, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>*Fortescue, Hon. Dudley F.</td>
<td>9, Hertford-street, Mayfair, W.</td>
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<td>Foss, Edward William, Esq.</td>
<td>Trensham-house, Croydon</td>
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<td>Foss, G. Lush, Esq.</td>
<td>Clevedon-house, Coronation-road, Bristol</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Foster, Ebenezer, Esq.</td>
<td>19, St. James's-place, St. James's, S.W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Foster, Edmund, jun., Esq.</td>
<td>79, Portsdon-road, Maidstone, W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Foster, H. J., Esq.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Fowler, A. Grant, Esq.</td>
<td>3, St. German's-place, Blackheath</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>*Fowler, John, Esq., c.b.</td>
<td>Thornwood-lodge, Campden-hill, W.</td>
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<td>*Fowler, Robert N., Esq., M.A.</td>
<td>50, Cornhill, E.C.; and Tottenham, N.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Fox, Lieut.-Colonel A. Lane</td>
<td>Guildford, Surrey</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Fox, D. M., Esq., Chief Eng. Santos and St. Paulo Railway.</td>
<td>St. Paulo, Brazil</td>
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<td>960*Fox, Francis E., Esq., B.a.</td>
<td>Falmouth</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Fox, Samuel Crane, Esq.</td>
<td>31, Cambridge-gardens, Notting-hill, W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Franks, Aug. W., Esq.</td>
<td>103, Victoria-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Franks, Charles W., Esq.</td>
<td>2, Victoria-street, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1882</td>
<td>Fraser, Captain H. A., L.N.</td>
<td>Zanzibar. Care of Messrs. Grindlay, 55, Parliament-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Fraser, Jas. Grant, Esq., C.E.</td>
<td>9, Great Queen-street, Westminster, S.W.</td>
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List of Fellows of the

Year of
Election.
1866
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1863
Fraser, Captain T. Care of Col. MacDonald, Senior United Service Club, S.W.
Freeland, W., Esq. Chichester.
Freeman, Henry W., Esq. 6, Days-hill-ellas, Cheltenham.
Freke, Thomas George, Esq. 1, Cromwell-houses, Kensington, W.
Fremantle, Captain Hon. Edmund Robert, R.N., C.R., C.M.G. 20, Eaton-place, S.W.
Freme, Major James H. Wreentnall-house, Shropshire; and Army and Navy Club, S.W.
French, Colonel P. F. 8, Duke-street, St. James's, S.W.
Frere, Bartle John Laurie, Esq. 45, Bedford-square, W.C.
Frere, George, Esq. 16, Great College-street, S.W.
*Freshfield, Douglas W., Esq. 6, Stanhope-gardens, South Kensington, W.; and United University Club, S.W.
*Freshfield, W. Dawes, Esq. 64, Westbourne-terrace, W.
Friedrichsen, Aug. Daniel, Esq. 76, Jermyn-street, S.W.
Frith, Rev. William. 3, Brunswick-ellas, Cambridge-road, Turnham-green, W.
Fudge, William, Esq. 5, Park-row, Bristol.
Fuller, Thomas, Esq. 119, Gloucester-terrace, Hyde-park, W.; United University Club, S.W.
Fussell, Rev. J. G. Curry. 16, Cadogan-place, S.W.; and Kildare-hallcastle, Templemore, Ireland.
Fyfe, Andrew, Esq., M.D. 112, Brompton-road, S.W.
Fytche, Major-Gen. Albert, C.S.I. 21, Loundes-sq., S.W.; and Reform Club, S.W.
*Gabrielli, Antoine, Esq. 6, Queen's-gate-terrace, Kensington, W.
Gaisford, Thomas, Esq. Travellers' Club, S.W.
Gale, Henry, Esq., C.B. Care of Mr. A. S. Twyford, 5, Southampton-street, Bloomsbury, W.C.
*Galloway, John James, Esq.
Galsworthy, Frederick Thomas, Esq. 8, Queen's-gate, Hyde-park, W.
Galsworthy, Robert Herbert, Esq. 61, Gloucester-place, Portman-square, W.
*Galton, Captain Douglas, R.E. 12, Chester-street, Grosvenor-place, S.W.
*Galton, Francis, Esq., M.A., F.R.S. 42, Rutland-gate, S.W.; and 5, Bartlet-terrace, Leamington.
Galton, Theodore Howard, Esq. 78, Queen's-gate; and Hadspen-ho., Droitwich.
*Gammell, Major Andrew. Drumtoochy, Kincardineshire, N.B.
*Gardiner, H. J., Esq. 6, Orsett-terrace, Westbourne-terrace, W.
Gardiner, Christopher T., Esq. British Consulate, Canton.
Gardiner, Captain G. H., R.N. 7, James-street, Westbourne-terrace, W.
Gardiner, John Dunn, Esq. 19, Park-street, Park-lane, W.
Gascoigne, Frederic, Esq.
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Gastrell, Lieut.-Col. James E.</td>
<td>S. Staff Corps, Surveyor-General's Office,</td>
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<td>Calcutta, Care of H. T. Gastrell, Esq., 36,</td>
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<td>Lincoln's-inn-fields, W.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Gawler, Colonel J. C.</td>
<td>Towcester, Northampton, E.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>*Geiger, Jno. Lewis, Esq.</td>
<td>8, Duke-street, St. James's, S.W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>*Gellatly, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>Uplands, Sydenham</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>George, Rev. H. B.</td>
<td>New College, Oxford</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Gerstenberg, Isidore, Esq.</td>
<td>9, Gloucester-terrace, Gloucester-gate, Regent's-</td>
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<td>park, N.W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>*Gibb, George Henderson, Esq.</td>
<td>13, Victoria-street, Westminster, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Gibbons, Alderman Sir Sills John, Bart.</td>
<td>Tridge-place, Hurst-green, Sussex.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>*Gibbs, H. Hucks, Esq.</td>
<td>St. Dunstan's, Regent's-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>Gibbs, James, Esq.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Gibbs, Jno. Dixon, Esq.</td>
<td>The Willows, Englefield-green, N.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Gibson, James Y., Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Williams and Xorge, Henrietta-</td>
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<td>street, Covent-Garden, W.C.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Gill, Lieutenent W. J., R.E.</td>
<td>Junior United Service Club, Charles-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>Gillespie, Alexander, Esq.</td>
<td>Heathfield, Walton-on-Thames, Surrey</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>*Gillespie, William, Esq.</td>
<td>(of Torbane-hill), 46, Melville-street, Edinburgh,</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>*Gillett, Alfred, Esq.</td>
<td>Banbury, Oxford</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>1020*Gillett, William, Esq.</td>
<td>20 Belgrave-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Gilliat, Alfred, Esq.</td>
<td>Court-lodge, West Fairleigh, Maidstone</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Gilliat, Algernon, Esq.</td>
<td>76, Westbourne-terrace, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>Gillies, Robert, Esq., c.e.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Reith and Wilkie, Dunedin,</td>
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<td>Otago, N.Z. Per Messrs. Sampson and Co., 188,</td>
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<td>*Gilman, Ellis, Esq.</td>
<td>53, Sussex-gardens, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Gladstone, George, Esq.</td>
<td>35, Ventnor-villas, Cliftonville, Brighton</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Gladstone, J. H., Esq., Ph.D.</td>
<td>17, Pembroke-square, W.</td>
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<td>*Gladstone, Robert Stuart, Esq.</td>
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<td>*Gladstone, W. K., Esq.</td>
<td>Fitzroy-park, Highgate, N.</td>
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<td>Glanville, Silvanus Goring, Esq.</td>
<td>52, Threadneedle-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1030Glass, James George Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>28, London-street, Edinburgh. Care of</td>
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<td>Messrs. King and Co., 45, Pall-mall, S.W.</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Glen, Joseph, Esq., Mem. Geogr. Soc. of Bombay, Oriental Club, W.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Glover, Capt. Sir John H., B.n., K.c.m.g., 27, Bury-street, St. James's, S.W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Glover, Robert Reavley, Esq.</td>
<td>30, Great St. Helen's, E.C.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Glover, Colonel T. G., R.E.</td>
<td>Barwood, Horsam, near Epper, Surrey</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Glyn, Sir Richard George, Bart, Army and Navy Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Goddard, F. Du Cane, Esq.</td>
<td>6, Tenterden-street, W.; and Child Oakford-house,</td>
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<td>Blandford</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Goldsmit, Bartle, Esq.</td>
<td>40, Hill-street, Berkeley-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Goldsmit, Bartle, Esq.</td>
<td>32, Nottingham-place, Marylebone, W.</td>
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</table>
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election.

1868 1040 Goldsmid, Sir Francis, Bart., M.P. Inner-circle, Regent's-park, N.W.

1863 Goldsmid, Maj.-Gen. Sir Frederic John, K.C.S.I., C.B. 1, Southwell-gardens, South Kensington; and United Service Club, S.W.

1861 Goldsmid, Julian, Esq. 105, Piccadilly, W.

1873 Goldsworthy, R. Tuckfield, Esq. St. Stephen's Club, Westminster, S.W.

1860 Gooch, Thomas Longridge, Esq. Team-lobby, Saltwell, Gateshead-on-Tyne.

1864 Goodall, George, Esq. Messrs. Cox and Co., Craig's-court; and Junior Carlton Club, W.

* Goodenough, Captain J. G., R.N. United Service Club, S.W.

* Goodenough, Lieut.-Col. W. H., R.A. Woolwich, S.E.; and Care of Messrs. Cox and Co., Craig's-court, S.W.

1874 Goodliffe, Farns. Gimer, Esq. Care of Goodliffe and Smart, 95, Bishopsgate-street-within, E.C.


1865 1050* Goolden, Charles, Esq. United University Club, S.W.

1861 Gooldin, Joseph, Esq. 18, Lancaster-gate, W.

1856 * Gordon, Major-General the Hon. Sir Alexander H., K.C.B. 50, Queen's-gate-gardens, South Kensington, W.

1874 Gordon, Arthur Lee, Esq. Warehouse, Aberdeen-shire; and 42, Duke-street, St. James's, S.W.


1874 Gordon, Robt., Esq., C.E. 5, Albert-street, Victoria-square, S.W.

1870 Gordon, Russell Manners, Esq. 38, Alpha-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.

1866 Gore, Colonel Augustus E. St. Vincent.

1853 Gore, Richard Thomas, Esq. 6, Queen-square, Bath.

1859 Goring, Fred. Sally, Esq. 23, Spring-gardens, S.W.

1862 1060* Goss, Samuel Day, Esq., M.D. 111, Kennington-park-road, S.

1870 Gottlieb, Felix Henry, Esq., J.P. Singapore, East Indies.


1835 Gould, Lieut.-Colonel Francis A. Buntingford, Herts.


1846 Gould, John, Esq., F.R.S., F.L.S. 26, Charlotte-street, Bedford-square, W.C.


1872 Gourley, Colonel E., M.P. Sunderland.

1887 Graham, Michael, Esq., M.D. Madeira. Care of C. R. Blandy, Esq., 25, Cruched-friars, E.C.

1868 Graeme, H. M. S., Esq.

1889 1070* Graham, Andrew, Esq., Staff Surg. R.N. Army and Navy Club, S.W.

1858 Graham, Cyril C., Esq. 9, Cleveland-row, St. James's, S.W.; and Debroe-house, Watford, Herts.

1874 Graham, James Henry Stuart, Esq. 1 Belgrave-road, Shepherd's-bush, W.

1871 Graham, J. C. W., Paul, Esq. 1, Carlisle-place, Victoria-square, S.W.; and Brooke's Club, St. James's-street, S.W.
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<th>Year of Election</th>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>*Graham, Thomas Cuninghame, Esq. Carlton Club, S.W.; and Dunlop-house, Ayrshire.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>*Grant, Andrew, Esq. Oriental Club, Hanover-square, W.</td>
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<td>*Grant, C. Mitchell, Esq. 15, George-street, Hanover-square.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Grant, Daniel, Esq.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Grant, Francis W., Esq. 40, Pall-hall, S.W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>1080 Grant, Lieutenant J. Murray (Inspector Cape Frontier Police), Cape of Good Hope. Care of Messrs. Ridgway, Waterloo-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Grant, Colonel W. Francis. L 6, Albany, W.</td>
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<td>Gray, Andrew, Esq. 1, Lune-street-square, E.C.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Gray, Charles W., Esq. 14, Chester-terrace, Regent’s-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>Gray, Mathew, Esq. St. John’s-park, Blackheath, S.E.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>1090 Greatheal, Lieut.-Colonel Wilberforce, W. H., C.B. 7, Queen-street, Mayfair, W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Greaves, Rev. Richard W. 1, Whitehall-gardens, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Green, Captain Francis, 58th Regiment.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Green, John Henry, Esq. 8, Weighton-road, South Penge-park, S.E.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Green, Joseph E., Esq. 12A, Myddelton-square, E.C.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Green, Rev. W., M.A. Chaplain to the Tower of London.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>Green, Colonel Sir W. H. R., K.C.B., C.B. 36, St. George’s-road, Eccleston-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Greene, Captain John Clinton, R.A.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Greenfield, Thomas Challen, Esq. 84, Basinghall-street, E.C.; and 6, Outram-villas, Addiscombe.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>*Greenfield, W. B., Esq. 59, Porchester-terrace, Hyde-park, W.; and Union Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>1100 Greenup, W. Thomas, Esq. 22, Havelock-square, Sheffield.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Greg, Thomas, Esq. 8, Eaton-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Greg, W. R., Esq., Comptroller of H.M. Stationery Office. Wimbledon, S.W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>*Gregory, Augustus Charles, Esq. Surveyor-General, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Gregory, Charles Hutton, Esq., c.c. 1, Delahay-street, Westminster, S.W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>*Gregory, Francis Thomas, Esq. Queensland.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>*Gregory, Isaac, Esq. Merchants’ college, Blackpool.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Gregson, George, Esq. 26, Harley-street, Cavendish-square, W.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Grellet, Henry Robert, Esq. Care of L. Mentsendorf, Esq., 37, Great Tower-street, E.C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of Election</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Grenfell, Henry R., Esq., M.P.</td>
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<td>Grey, Charles, Esq.</td>
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<td>1837</td>
<td>*Grey, Sir George, K.C.B.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Grey, Captain H. (Bengal Staff Corps).</td>
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<td>Griffin, Daniel, Esq.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>*Griffith, Daniel Clewin, Esq.</td>
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<td>1839</td>
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<td>Griffith, Sir Richard</td>
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<td>1836</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Griffiths, Arthur Edward, Esq.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Griffiths, Captain A. G. F., 63rd Reg. (Major of Brigade, Gibraltar).</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Gunnell, Captain Edmund H., R.N.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>*Gurney, John H., Esq.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Gwynne, Fran. A., Esq.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Habicht, Claudius Edward, Esq.</td>
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<td>1883</td>
<td>Hadfield, William, Esq.</td>
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<td>Hadow, J. W., Esq.</td>
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<td>Hadow, P. D., Esq.</td>
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<td>Hale, Rev. Edward, M.A.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Halliday, Major-General William Robert</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>Halifax, Viscount, G.C.B.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>*Halkett, Rev. Dunbar S.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>*Halkett, Commander Peter A., R.N.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Hall, Alex. Lyons, Esq.</td>
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</table>
Royal Geographical Society.

1861
Hall, Charles Hall, Esq. Watergate-house, Emmworth.

1863
Hall, Henry, Esq. 109, Victoria-street, S.W.

1869
*Hall, James MacAlester, Esq.

1869
Hall, James Tebbutt, Esq. Fore-street, Limehouse, E.

1871
Hall, Admiral Robert, C.B. 38 Craven-hill-gardens, W.; and Admiralty, S.W.

1871
Hall, Thomas F., Esq., F.G.S. 29, Warwick-square, S.W.

1873
Hall, Admiral Sir William Hutchison, K.C.B., F.R.S. United Service Club, S.W.; and 48, Phillimore-gardens, Kensington, W.

1878
Halloran, Arthur B., Esq. 3, Albert-terrace, St. Leonard’s, Exeter.

1872
*Halpin, Capt. R. C. 38, Old Broad-street, E.C.

1871
*Hamilton, Andrew, Esq., Lieut. 102nd Regiment. The House of Folkland, Fyne; and Naval and Military Club, W.

1882
Hamilton, Archibald, Esq. South Barrow, Bromley, Kent, S.E.

1881
Hamilton, Lord Claude, 19, Eaton-square, S.W.; and Barons-court, County Tyrone.

1880
*Hamilton, Captain Henry G., R.N. 71, Eccleston-square, S.W.

1889
Hamilton, Captain Richard Vesey, R.N. Keyham, Devonport.

1861
*Hamilton, Col. Robert William, Grenadier Guards. 103, Eaton-square, S.W.

1863
Hamilton, Rowland, Esq. Oriental Club, W.

1830
Hamilton, Terrick, Esq. 121, Park-square, Grosvenor-square, W.

1872
Hamilton, Walter, Esq. 13, Mitre-court-chambers, Temple, E.C.

1846
Hamilton, Rear-Admiral W. A. Baillie. Macartney-house, Blackheath, S.E.

1853
Hampton, Lord, F.R.S. 41, Eaton-square, S.W.; and Westwood-park, Droitwich, Worcestershire.

1874
Hanbury, R. W., Esq., M.P. East Close, near Christchurch, Hants.

1853

1860
*Handley, Benjamin, Esq. Lima, Peru; and 74, Market-place, Sheffield.

1874
Handley, Captain Francis (late R.N.). The Limes, Gipsey-hill, Upper Norwood.

1886

1861
*Hankey, Blake Alexander, Esq.

1874
Hankey, Reginald, Esq. 71, Chester-square, S.W.; and Arthur’s Club, S.W.

1870
*Hankey, Rodolph Alexander, Esq. 54, Warwick-square, S.W.

1857
Hankey, Thomson, Esq. 45, Portland-place, W.

1837
*Hamner, Lord, F.R.S. 59, Eaton-place, S.W.; and Hamner-hall and Bettisfield-park, Flintshire.

1874
Harberton, Viscount. 60, Rutland-gate, S.W.

1859
*Hansard, Henry, Esq. 13, Great Queen-street, W.C.

1870
Harbord, John B., Esq., M.A., Chaplain R.N. 69, Victoria-park-road, E.

1840

1864
*Ivoly*Hardie, Gavin, Esq. 113, Piccadilly, W.

1864
Harding, Major Charles. Grafton Club, 10, Grafton-street, Piccadilly, W.

1864
Harding, J. J., Esq. 1, Barnsbury-park, Islington, N.

1864
Hardinge, Capt. E., R.N. 32, Hyde-park-square, W.

1861
Hardinge, Henry, Esq., M.D. 18, Grafton-street, Bond-street, W.

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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Residence</th>
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<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>Hargrave, Joseph, Esq.</td>
<td>Fort Garry, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. Care of the Hudson Bay Company, 1, Lime-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Hargreaves, William, Esq.</td>
<td>Dartmouth-grove, Blackheath, S.E.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Harley, Colonel R. W., C.B., C.M.G.</td>
<td>Junior United Service Club, Chandos-st., W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Harper, J. A. W., Esq.</td>
<td>23, Grosvenor-road, Piccadilly, S.W.; and Lloyd's, E.C.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Harris, Capt. G. F., 20th Regt.</td>
<td>48, Lansdown-road, Dublin.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Harris, Edwd., Esq.</td>
<td>Rydal-ville, Longton-grove, Upper Sydenham.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Harris, John M., Esq.</td>
<td>Yelbana, Anerley-road, S.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Harris, Reader, Esq.</td>
<td>Temple Club, Arundel-street, Strand, W.C.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Harrison, Charles, Esq.</td>
<td>3, Great Tower-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Harrison, Charles, Esq.</td>
<td>10, Lancaster-gate, W.</td>
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<td>1838</td>
<td>Harrowby, Dudley, Earl of, F.S.A.</td>
<td>Sandon-house, Lichfield; and Norton, Gloucestershire.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Harston, Edward F. B., Esq.</td>
<td>14, Mecklenburgh-square, W.C.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Hart, Henry Neville, Esq.</td>
<td>107, Harley-street, W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>*Hart, J. L., Esq.</td>
<td>20, Pembroke-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Hartley, Sir Chas., Aug., F.S.S.E., &amp;c.</td>
<td>Reform Club, Pall-mall, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Hartnell, Rev. Belford, M.A.</td>
<td>Clifton College, Bristol.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>Harvey, Alex. S., Esq.</td>
<td>228, Union-street, Aberdeen.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>Harvey, Aug. Jnr., Esq.</td>
<td>1, South-bank, Regent's-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Harvey, Charles, Esq.</td>
<td>Rathgar-cottage, Streatham, S.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Harvey, James, Esq. (Solicitor).</td>
<td>Eak-street, Invercargill, Southland, New Zealand. Care of the Bank of Otago, Old Broad-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Harvey, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Ickwellbury, Biggleswade.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Harvey, John, Esq.</td>
<td>7, Mincing-lane, E.C.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Harvey, John, Esq., M.D.</td>
<td>Château Deslyons, Boulogne-sur-Mer.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Harvey, Richard M., Esq.</td>
<td>13, Devonshire-street, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Harvie, Edgar Christopher, Esq.</td>
<td>City of London Club, Old Broad-street.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Hatherton, Lord.</td>
<td>Teddlesley-park, Penbridge, Staffordshire.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Hawker, Geo. C., Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Hayward and Collected, 1, New Basing-hall-street, E.C.</td>
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Hawker, Edward J., Esq. 37, Cadogan-place, S.W.

1834


Hawkins, John, Esq.


Hawkins, Rev. W. Bentinck L., F.R.S. 33, Bryanston-square, W.

Hawksley, Thomas, Esq., G.C. 14, Phillimore-gardens, Kensington, S.W.

Hay, Andrew, Esq. Oriental Club, Hanover-square, S.W.; and Bombay.

Hay, Rear-Admiral Sir J. C. Dalrymple, Bart., M.P., F.R.S. 108, St. George's-square, S.W.; U.S. Club, S.W.; Dunalag, Glenlaze; and Harrow-on-the-Hill, N.W.

Hay, Rear-Admiral Lord John, M.P., G.B. 15, Cromwell-road, South Kensington, W.


Hay, Lord William. B 5, Albany, W.

Haydon, G. H., Esq. Bethlehem Hospital, S.E.

Hayes, A. A., Esq., jun. Care of Horace Farquhar, Esq., 9, King William-street, E.C.

Haynes, Stanley L., Esq., M.D. Malvern-link, Worcestershire.

Hayman, James, Esq. Burgess-hill, Finsbrey-road, N.W.

Head, Alfred, Esq. 13, Craven-hill-gardens, Bayswater, W.

Head, Henry, Esq. Stoke Newington, N.


Headlam, Right Hon. Thomas E., M.P. 27, Ashley-place, Victoria-street, S.W.

Heard, Dr. Samuel S. Derrigini-castle, Kenmare, Ireland; and 14, St. James's-square, S.W.


Heathfield, W. E., Esq. Arthur's Club, S.W.

Hector, Alexander, Esq.

Hector, James, Esq., F.R.S., M.D. Care of E. Stanford, Esq.


Heinemann, N., Esq., Ph.D. Scientific Club, 7, Savile-row, W.

Helme, Richard, Esq. Walthamstow, Essex.

Hemans, Geo. Willoughby, Esq., C.E. Westminster-Chambers, Victoria-street, S.W.

Henderson, David Mitchell, Esq. 1, Carden-place, Aberdeen; and Old Calabar, W. Africa.

Henderson, G., Esq., M.D., F.L.S. Care of Messrs. King and Co., Pall-mall, W.

Henderson, Henry, Esq. 14, Balmoral-road, Elm-park, Liverpool.

Henderson, John, Esq. 2, Arlington-street, Piccadilly, W.

Henderson, Capt. K. G. Care of Sir C. McGregor, Bart., and Co., 25, Charlotte-street, S.W.; and Naval and Military Club, Piccadilly, W.

Henderson, Patrick, Esq. Care of George Reid, Esq., 21, Abchurch-lane, E.C.
List of Fellows of the

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<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Henderson, William, Esq.</td>
<td>5, Stanhope-street, Hyde-park-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>1844</td>
<td>*Heneage, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>Stag’s-end, Hemel Hempstead.</td>
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<td>1838</td>
<td>*Henry, Wm. Chas., Esq., M.D., F.R.S.</td>
<td>Haffield, near Ledbury, Herefordshire.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Hepworth, Campbell, Esq.</td>
<td>2, St. James’s-square, Cheltenham.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Herd, Captain D. J.</td>
<td>2, Norway-house, Limehouse, E.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Hertslet, Edward, Esq., C.U.</td>
<td>Librarian, Foreign-office, S.W.; and Belle-ekc-house, Richmond, S.W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Hertslet, Geo. Thos., Esq.</td>
<td>Lord Chamberlain’s-office, St. James’s-palace, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Heugh, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Tunbridge-wells.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Hewitt, Richard, Esq.</td>
<td>The Green, Esher, Surrey, and 3, Princes’-square, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1840</td>
<td>*Heywood, James, Esq., F.R.S.</td>
<td>Athenaeum Club, S.W.; and 28, Kensington-palace-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Heywood, Samuel, Esq.</td>
<td>171, Stanhope-street, Hampstead-road, N.W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Heyworth, Capt. Lawrence, 4th Royal Lancashire</td>
<td>Junior United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>Higgins, Edmund Thomas, Esq., M.R.C.S.</td>
<td>10, Harcourt-road, Anerley, S.E.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Hill, Arthur Bowdler, Esq.</td>
<td>South-road, Clapham-park, Surrey, S.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Hill, Clement L., Esq.</td>
<td>Foreign-office, S.W.</td>
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<td>122, Leadenhall-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Hill, Samuel, Esq., M.D.</td>
<td>22, Mecklenburgh-square, W.C.</td>
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<td>Hills, Lieut.-Colonel James, C.B., V.C., R.A.</td>
<td>14, St. James’s-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Hinchliff, T. Woodbine, Esq., Barrister-at-Law.</td>
<td>64, Lincoln’s-inn-fields, W.C.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>*Hinde, Samuel Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>Windham Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1846</td>
<td>Hindmarsh, Frederick, Esq.</td>
<td>4, New-inn, Strand, W.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Hirt, William Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>103, Mottram-road, Stalybridge, Cheshire.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Hirth, Dr. F.</td>
<td>Imperial Customs, China.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>*Hoare, Henry, Esq. (Banker).</td>
<td>Hoare's Bank, Fleet-street; and St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Hoare, Samuel, Esq., M.A.</td>
<td>Parkbury, St. Alban's.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Hobson, Stephen James, Esq.</td>
<td>32, Nicholas-lane, Lombard-street; and 10, Regent’s-park-road, N.W.</td>
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</table>
Year of Election.

1874  *Hochschild, His Excellency, Baron (Swedish Minister).  2, Great Cumberland-street, Hyde-park, W.

1872  Hockin, Charles, Esq., M.A.  8, Avenue-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.

1869  1290 Hodges, Henry, Esq.  Blandesbury-lodge Collegiate-school, Kilburn.


1871  Hodgson, Henry Tylston, Esq.  Harpenden, St. Albans.

1861  *Hodgson, James Stewart, Esq.  24, Princes-gardens, S.W.

1857  Hodgson, Kirkman Daniel, Esq., M.P.  8, Bishopsgate-street, E.C.

1869  *Hodgson, William H., Esq.  Treasury-chambers; and 1, Whitehall-gardens, S.W.

1868  Holdich, Lieut. Thos. Hungerford, R.E.

1839  *Holford, Robert S., Esq.  Dorchester-house, Park-lane, W.


1861  Holland, Colonel James.  Southside, The Park, Upper Norwood, S.E.

1863  1300 Holland, Lotton, Esq.  The Gables, Osbourne-road, Windsor.

1862  Holland, Robert, Esq.  Stanmore-hall, Great Stanmore, Middlesex.

1873  Holland, Lieut. Swinton D., R.N.  Dumbleton, Evesham.

1871  *Hollingworth, Hy. Geo., Esq.  Kiu Kiang, China; and Bond, near Manchester.

1861  Holme, J. Wilson, Esq., M.A.  Downwood, Beckenham, Kent, S.E.

1874  Holmwood, T. D., Esq., 7, Church-terrace, Lee, Kent.


1869  Holt, George, Esq.  Union-street, Wiltonhall.

1871  1310 Holt, Henry T. W., Esq.  6, King's-road, Clapham-park; King and Co., Cornhill.


1864  Holt, Vesey, Esq.  17, Whitehall-place, S.W.

1873  Home, Lieut-Colonel Robert, R.E.  25, Kibbroad-road, Blackheath, S.E.

1857  Homfray, William Henry, Esq.  6, Storey's-gate, S.W.

1864  Hood, Sir Alex. Acland, Bart.  St. Andrie's-park, Bridgewater, Somerset.

1873  *Hood, F. Jacomb, Esq.  Conservative Club, S.W.

1862  Hood, Henry Schuback, Esq.  War-office, S.W.; and 10, Kensington-park-gardens, W.


1868  Hooper, Alf., Esq.  City of London Club, Old Broad-street, E.C.

1870  1320 Hooper, George Norgate, Esq.  159, King Henry's-road, Adelaide-road, N.W.

1870  Hooper, Rev. Robert Poole.  31, Cambridge-street, Brighton.

1861  Hoperaff, George, Esq.  3, Blicker-square, E.C.

1846  *Hope, Alex. James Beresford, Esq., M.P.  Arklow-house, Connaught-place, Hyde-park, W.; and Bedgelybury-park, Hurst-green, Kent.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election  
1863  Jardine, Robert, Esq.  Castlemilk, Lockerby, N.B.
1872  Jeffreys, A. F., Esq.  Fernhill, Bournemouth; and 21, Sackville-street, W.
1865  Jeffreys, J. Gwyn, Esq., LL.D., F.R.S.  Ware-priory, Herts.
1854  Jellicoe, Charles, Esq.  12, Cavendish-place, W.
1854  Jenkins, Capt. Griffith, L.L.D., c.h.  East India Club, St. James's-square, S.W.; and Derven, Welshpool, Montgomeryshire.
1837  Jenkins, R. Castle, Esq.  Beackley, near Chepstow.
1874  Jenkinson, H. Irwin, Esq.  Keswick, Cumberland.
1854  Jennings, William, Esq., M.A.  13, Victoria-street, Westminster, S.W.
1871  Jenoure, Alfred, Esq.
1874  Jeppe, Le Chevalier Fred.  Care of Portuguese Consulate, 8, St. Mary Axe, E.C.
1860  Jermyn, Rowland Formby, Esq.  War-office, S.W.
1873  Jervis, Theodore, Esq.  2, Neville-street, Onslow-gardens, W.
1870  Jessop, Captain Thomas.  Honley, Huddersfield.
1864  Jevia, Henry, Esq.  Lloyd's, E.C.
1874  Jeune, Fras. H., Esq.  3, Howick-place, Victoria-street, S.W.; and 1, Hare-court, Temple, E.C.
1859  Johnson, Henry, Esq.  Worthing, Sussex.
1854  Johnson, John Hugh, Esq.
1866  Johnson, W. H., Esq., Civil Assistant G. T. S. India.  Care of F. Drew, Esq., Claremont-road, Surbiton.
1868  Johnston, Alexander Keith, jun., Esq.
1874  Johnston, Capt. H. B.  United Service Club, Dublin; and Junior Carlton Club, Pall-mall, S.W.
1857  Johnston, J. Brooke, Esq.  29, Lombard-street, E.C.
1871  Johnston, T. B., Esq., F.R.E.  4, St. Andrew-square, Edinburgh.
1888  Johnston, Thomas, Esq.  12, Belvedere, Bath; and King Edward VI. Grammar-school, Bath.
1867  *Johnstone, John, Esq.  *Castlehouse, Mortlake, S.W.
1874  Johnstone, M. Butler, Esq., M.P.  8, Seashore-place, Mayfair, W.
1873  Johnstone, W. Woods, Esq., M.D.  44, Prince's-square, W.
1872  Jolley, Wm. Rowe, Esq., M.A., Hon. Chaplain to the Queen.  North Repprector, Norwich.
1874  Jones, Edwin, Esq. (Mayor of Southampton).  Woodlands, Bassett, Southampton.
List of Fellows of the

Year of

1862  Hope, Capt. C. Webley, R.N.  Messrs. Hallett & Co., St. Martin's-place, S.W.
1874  Hope, Percy, Esq.  Mosely-buildings, Manchester.
1869  Hopkins, Capt. David, M.A.  H.M. Consul at St. Paulo de Loando, West Coast of Africa.
1870  *Hopkins, Edward M., Esq.  3, Upper Berkeley-street, Portman-square, W.
1871  Horne, Francis, Esq.
1869  Horrex, Theophilus, Esq.  18, Connaught-square, Hyde-park, W.
1870  Hoseason, Captain John C., R.N.  United Service Club, S.W.
1861  Hoskins, Capt. A. H., R.N.  Army and Navy Club, S.W.  Care of Messrs. Woodhead.
1853  Houghton, Lord, D.C.L., F.R.S.  Travellers' Club, S.W.; The Hall, Bantry; and Frystona-hall, Ferribybridge, Yorkshire.
1874  Howard, A. C., Esq.  27, Devonshire-place, Portland-place, W.
1869  Howard, John, Esq., C.E.  Exmouth, Devon.
1873  Howard, Morgan, Esq.  Temple, E.C.
1873  Howard, William, Esq.  3, Roslyn-bank, Lyndhurst-road, Hampstead, N.W.
1867  *Hubbard, William Egerton, Esq.  Leonardshall, Horsham.
1867  *Hubbard, William Egerton, jun., Esq.  Leonardshall, Horsham.
1871  *Hadleston, Wilfred, Esq.  23, Cheyne-walk, S.W.
1872  Hudson, Jno., Esq.  5, Crosby-sq., E.C.; & Thatched-house Club, St. James's, S.W.
1870  Hudson, George B., Esq.  Froymore-hall, Hertford.  New University Club, St. James's-street, S.W.
1857  Hughes, Captain Sir Frederic.  Ely-house, Wexford.
1873  Hughes, James, Esq.  328, Camden-road, N.
1838  Hughes, William, Esq.  8, Devonshire-terrace, Kensington, W.
1865  Hughes-Hallett, Capt.  Schyne-courte, Richmond, S.W.
1838  *Hume, Edmund Kent, Esq.
1868  Hunt, John Percival, Esq., M.D.  3, Paradise-place, Green-lanes, N.
1873  Hunt, Jno., Esq.  22, Lancaster-gate, Hyde-park, W.
1874  Hunt, William Thomas, Esq.  1, Pembridge-villas, Bayswater, W.
1868  Hunter, Major Edward.  Junior United Service Club, S.W.
1862  Hunter, Henry Lannoy, Esq.  Beech-hill, Reading.
1874  Hunter, Capt. J. Edward, R.N.  Care of Messrs. Hallett and Co., St. Martin's-place, S.W.; and United Service Club, Pall-mall, S.W.
1876  Hutchins, Edward, Esq.  10, Portland-place, W.
<table>
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Hutchins, F. Leigh, Esq.</td>
<td>22, Queen's-gardens, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Hutchins, Geo. Albert, Esq.</td>
<td>Felsted Pen, Spanish Town, Jamaica</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Hutchinson, Major Alexr. Hadden, R.A., F.G.S., Garrison Instructor</td>
<td>Bull-point, Devonport</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Hutchinson, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>8, Summer-place, South Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Hutchinson, Capt. R. R.</td>
<td>Junior St. James's Club, St. James's-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Hyndman, Hy. Mayers, Esq.</td>
<td>10, Devonshire-street, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Hutton, Charles W. C., Esq.</td>
<td>Belair, Dulwich, S.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Hyde, Captain Samuel</td>
<td>8, Billiter-square, E.C.</td>
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<td><strong>1852</strong></td>
<td>Illingworth, Richard Stenhawer, Esq.</td>
<td>9, Norfolk-crescent, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>Impy-Lovibond, Col. Archibald, R.E.</td>
<td>8, The Terrace, Kensington-gdns., sq., W.</td>
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<td>1850</td>
<td>Imray, James Frederick, Esq.</td>
<td>89, Minories, E.; and Beckenham, Kent, S.E.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Ingall, Samuel, Esq.</td>
<td>Forest-hill, Kent, S.E.</td>
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<td>1851</td>
<td>Inglefield, Admiral Edward A., G.B.</td>
<td>F.R.S., United Service Club, S.W.; and 10, Grove-end-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>Inglis, Commander Charles D., R.N.</td>
<td>7, Alhambra-street, W.</td>
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<td>1846</td>
<td>Ingram, Hughes Francis, Esq.</td>
<td>University Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Inman, R. M., Esq.</td>
<td>Edinburgh-House, West-street, Brighton</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Inskip, Capt. G. H., R.N.</td>
<td>1, Huntscombe-place, North-road, Plymouth</td>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Inskip, Rev. Robert Mills, C.B.</td>
<td>1, Huntscombe-place, North-road, Plymouth</td>
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<td>1840</td>
<td>Irby, Frederick W., Esq.</td>
<td>Athenaeum Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Irvine, James, Esq.</td>
<td>18, Devonshire-road, Cloughton, Cheshire</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Irving, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Ebsworth and Sons, 4, Corbet-court, Graceschurch-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Irwin, James V. H., Esq.</td>
<td>4, Boscowel-gardens, Regent's-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Jackson, F. H. Ward, Esq.</td>
<td>9, Albion-street, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Jackson, Richd. Belgrave, Esq.</td>
<td>16, Addison-terrace, Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Jackson, Robert Ward, Esq.</td>
<td>28, Inverness-road, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Jackson, Thea. Hughes, Esq.</td>
<td>Manor-house, Birkenhead</td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>Jackson, William, Esq.</td>
<td>44, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td><strong>1871</strong></td>
<td>Jackson, Wm. Chas., Esq.</td>
<td>Universities Club, 71, Jermyn-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Jacomb, Thomas, jun., Esq.</td>
<td>23, Old Broad-street, Gresham-house, E.C.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>James, William Bosville, Esq.</td>
<td>13, Bloomsfield-road, Maida-hill, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>James, William Morris, Esq.</td>
<td>8, Lyndhurst-road, Hampstead, N.W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Jamieson, Hugh, Esq.</td>
<td>Junior Carlton Club, S.W.</td>
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Jones, Capt. Felix, late 1.N. Fernside, Church-rd., Westow-hill, Upper Norwood, S.
1863
Jones, Captain H. M., V.C.
1857
Jones, Lieut.-Col. Jenkin, Royal Engineers.
1862
Jones, John, Esq. 338, Strand, W.C.
1873
Jones, Rev. John. 11, Petherton-road, Canonsbury.
1872
Jones, Staff-Commander Jno., R.N. 6, Edgeware-square, Kensington, W.
1871
Jones, Robert, Esq. The Manor-house, St. John's-wood-park, N.W.
1861
Jones, Sir Willoughby, Bart. Cranmer-hall, Fakenham, Norfolk.
1873
Jones, Wm. Leighton, Esq. Heavitree, near Exeter.
1867
1863
Kane, Dr. William. Dinan, Cotes du Nord, France.
1873
Kantzow, Capt. H. P. de, R.N. 5, Prince of Wales-terrace, Kensington-palace.
1888
Kay, David, Esq. 19, Upper Phillimore-place, Kensington, W.
1858
Kaye, Sir J. W., K.C.B., F.R.S. India-office, S.W.
1865
Keating, Hon. Sir Henry Singer. 11, Prince's-gardens, S.W.
1857
Keldenhuy, Alfred D., Esq. Milnthorpe, Penrith, Westmoreland.
1875
1845
Keir, Simon, Esq. Conservatives Club, S.W.
1863
1890
Kemp, Geo. L., Esq., Manager of the, Standard Insurance Co. (of England), Calcutta. Care of Mr. O'Hagan, 3, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall, S.W.
1871
1873
Kempter, J., Esq. 3, Portsmouth-place, Kennington-lane, Surrey, S.E.
1863
Kennard, Adam Steinmetz, Esq. 7, Fenchurch-street, E.C.
1861
Kennedy, Henry Hyndham, Esq. 5, Clarence-place, Hyde-park-gardens, W.
1871
Kennedy, John, Esq., M.D. East India United Service Club, 14, St. James's-square, S.W.
1874
Kennedy, Rev. John, M.A. 4, Stepney-green, E.
1854
1871
1871
Kenrick, George, Esq. 6, Percy-villas, Campden-hill, Kensington, W.
1865
Kerr, Alexander, Esq. (Barker), Wellington, New Zealand. Care of Norman S. Kerr, Esq., M.D., 42, Grove-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.
1872
Kerr, Staff-Corrmar. J. H., R.N. Hydrographic-office, S.W.
1863
Kerr, Major-General, Lord Mark, C.B. 18, James-street, Buckingham-gate, S.W.
1874
Kershaw, Wm., Esq. 16, St. Mary Axe, E.C.; and Suffolk-lodge, Brixton-road, S.W.
1862
Keysell, Francis P., Esq. Grove-house, Cheshunt.
1884
1864
Kimber, Dr. E. 13, Park-villas, Shepherd's-bush, W.
1884
Kincord, Thomas, Esq. 9, Lansdowne crescent, Glasgow.
List of Fellows of the

Year of
Election.

1874 King, Hon. J. P. Locke. 38, Dover-street, W.; and Brooklands, near Weybridge, Surrey.

1846 King, Lieut.-Colonel Edward R., 38th Regiment, Junior United Service Club, S.W.

1870 King, Henry S., Esq. J.P. 65, Cornhill, E.C.; 45, Pall-mall, S.W.; Manor-house, Chigwell, Essex; and Junior Carlton Club, S.W.

1872 King, James, Esq. 12, Claremont-terrace, Glasgow.

1866 King, John, Esq. Compton-field-place, Guildford, Surrey.

1861 King, Lieut.-Col. W. Ross, Unatt., F.S.A. Scot. Tertowie, Kinellar, Aberdeenshire; and Army and Navy Club, S.W.

1873 *Kingsley, Maurice, Esq. Eversley-rectory, Winschfield, Hants.

1857 *Kinnaird, Hon. Arthur F., M.P. 2, Pall-mall-east, S.W.

1887 Kinnaird, George William Fox, Lord, K.G. Rossie-priory, Inchturle, N.B.; and 33, Grosvenor-street, W.

1858 Kirk, John, Esq., M.D. 18, Horbury-crescent, Notting-hill.

1863 Kirk, John, Esq., Barrister. C. Tharold, Esq., Welham, Retford, Notts.

1870 Kirkland, Major-General John A. Vessey. Wester Forde, Mlunathorpe, N.B.

1868 Kisch, Daniel Montagu, Esq. 47, Gloucester-square, Hyde-park, W.


1868 Kitto, Richard L. Middleton, Esq. Preston-lodge, Prestonside, N.B.

1835 *Kjaer, Thomas Andreas, Esq. Gathersgaden No. 26, Copenhagen.

1867 Knight, Andrew Halley, Esq. Care of R. Phipps, Esq., 3, Abschuch-lane, E.C.

1862 Knollys, General Sir William T., K.C.B. Eaton-square, S.W.

1871 Knollys, Major W. W., 93rd Highlanders. Woolwich.

1874 Knowles, George, Esq., C.B. 11, Queen’s-gardens, Hyde-park, W.

1867 Knox, Alex. A., Esq. 91, Victoria-street, Westminster, S.W.

1861 Knox, Thomas G., Esq. India. Care of Messrs. H. S. King and Co., 45, Pall-mall, S.W.

1866 Kopesch, Henry, Esq. Custom-house, Shanghai, and S, Storey’s-gate, S.W.

1861 Kyd, Hayes, Esq., M.R.C.S. Wadebridge, Cornwall.


1849 *Laffan, Colonel Robert Michael, M.E. Army and Navy Club, S.W.

1870 Laing, Arthur, Esq. 29, Mincing-lane, E.C.


1859 Lamb, Lieut. Henry, I.N. H.M. India Store Department, Belvedere-road, Lambeth, S.

1863 *Lambert, Alan, Esq. Heath-lodge, Putney-heath, S.W.

1864 Lambert, Charles, Esq. 2, Queen-street-place, Upper Thames-street, E.C.

1861 Lamont, James, Esq. 4, Queen-street, Mayfair, W.

1870 Lamplough, Charles Edward, Esq. City of London Club, E.C.
<table>
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Lamprey, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Camden-square, N.W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Lamprey, Surgeon-Major Jones, 67th Regiment</td>
<td>Care of J. H. Lamprey, Esq. 17, St. Ann's-hill, Wandsworth-common, S.W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Lampson, Sir C. M., Bart.</td>
<td>80, Eaton-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>*Lange, Sir Daniel A.</td>
<td>21, Regent-street, W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>*Langler, John R., Esq., B.A.</td>
<td>Elm-villas, 30, Bridge-road-west, Battersea, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Langley, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>Well-hall, Etham, Kent.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Langworthy, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>Brookfield, Ryde, Isle of Wight</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Larcom, Lieut. T. H.</td>
<td>Care of Messrs. Stillwell, 22, Arundel-street, W.C.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Lardner, Colonel John</td>
<td>United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Large, Robert Emmott, Esq.</td>
<td>Vernon-lodge, Teddington; and 13, South-square, Lincoln's-inn, W.C.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Larnach, Donald, Esq.</td>
<td>21, Kensington-palace-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Lasseter, Frederic, Esq.</td>
<td>The Grove, Hanwell, W.</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Latrobe, Ch. J., Esq.</td>
<td>Clopham-house, Lecce, Sussex</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Laughton, Lieut.-Col. George Arnold, Bombay Staff Corps.</td>
<td>Superintendent Bombay Survey, Bombay.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Laughton, J. K., Esq.</td>
<td>Royal Naval College, Greenwich</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Law, Geo., Esq. 1</td>
<td>Raymond-buildings, Gray's-inn, W.C.</td>
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<td>1846</td>
<td>*Law, Hon. H. Spencer, m.a. 36, Eccleston-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Law, Jas., Esq. 544</td>
<td>Oxford-street, W.C.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Lawes, Robert Murray, Esq. 9, Clarges-street, Piccadilly, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Lawrence, Alexander, Esq.</td>
<td>Clyde-house, Thurlow-road, Hampstead; and Windsor-chambers, Great St. Helen's, E.C.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Lawrence, Fred. W., Esq.</td>
<td>Oakleigh, Beckenham, Kent</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Lawrence, Lord, G.C.B., G.C.S.I. 26, Queen's-gate, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>*Lawrence, Philip Henry, Esq. 12, Whitehall-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>Lawrence, W. F., Esq.</td>
<td>New University Club, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Lawrence, W. L., Esq.</td>
<td>Sevenhampton-manor, Andoverford, Gloucester.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Lawrie, James, Esq. 63</td>
<td>Old Bond-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Lawson, William, Esq.</td>
<td>21, Wulham-grove, Fulham, S.W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>*Lay, Horatio N., Esq.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Layard, Right Hon. Austen H., D.C.L.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Layard, Captain Brownlow Villiers, 3rd West India Regt.</td>
<td>Junior United Service Club; and 23, Upper Mount-street, Dublin.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>*Leaf, Charles J., Esq.</td>
<td>Old Change, E.C.; and The Rylands, Norwood, S.E.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Learid, Jno., Esq. 12</td>
<td>Old Burlington-street, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Learmonth, Andrew James L., Esq.</td>
<td>Junior United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Leaver, J. Cristopher, Esq.</td>
<td>Roathern-house, Cattleman, Barnes, Surrey.</td>
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</table>
List of Fellows of the


1853 1540* Le Bretton, Francis, Esq. 21, Sussex-place, Regent's-park, N.W.

1861 Leckie, Patrick C., Esq. 7, Palace-road, Roupell-park, Streatham, S.

1870 Lecky, Squire Thornton Stratford, Esq., Lieut. Royal Naval Reserve, 171, Duke-street, Liverpool, N.

1868 Lee, John, Esq. Grosvenor-cottage, Loughborough-road, S.W.


1874 Leeman, George, Esq., M.P. 7, Dean's-yard, Westminster, S.W.

1874 Leeman, Rev. W. L. Rector of Middleton St. George, Darlington.

1869 *Lees, Lieutenant-Colonel Nassau, D.C.L. Athenaeum Club, S.W.

1865 Le Fevre, W. H., Esq., C.E. 68, Bedford-gardens, Kensington, W.

1833 *Lefevre, Sir John George Shaw, M.A., D.C.L., F.R.S., Vice-Chancellor of the University of London. 18, Spring-gardens, S.W.


1862 Leggatt, Clement Davidson, Esq. 43, Inverness-terrace, W.

1861 Legh, William John, Esq. 38, Belgrave-square, S.W.; and Lyme-park, Cheshire.

1861 *Lehmann, Frederick, Esq. 15, Berkeley-square, W.

1845 Leigh, John Studdy, Esq., F.G.S. 6, Talbot-road, Westbourne-park, W.

1869 Leigh, Roger, Esq. Barham-court; and Hindley-hall, Hindley.

1863 Le Mesurier, Henry P., Esq., C.E. 21, Stanley-crescent, Kensington-park, W.

1874 Le PAYS, Geo. Renatus, Esq. 38, Brunswick-terrace, Brighton; and Thatched House Club, S.W.

1856 Leslie, The Hon. G. W. Leslie-house, Leslie, N.B.

1873 Leslie, William, Esq. Warthill, Aberdeenshire, N.B.; and Carlton Club, Pall-mall, S.W.

1867 1560 L'Estrange, Carleton, Esq. Carlton Club, S.W.

1873 Letts, Thomas, Esq. 2, Crown-buildings, Queen Victoria-street, E.C.

1857 Leverson, George B. C., Esq. 18, Queensberry-place, Cromwell-road, S.W.

1869 Leveson, Edward J., Esq. Cluny, Crescent-wood-road, Sydenham-hill, S.E.

1874 Levin, Nathaniel, Esq. 44, Cleveland-square, W.


1859 Levinsohn, Louis, Esq. Vernon-house, Clarence-gardens, Maida-hill, W.

1873 *Lewin, Frederick Dealtry, Esq. Morelands, St. John's-park, Blackheath, S.E.

1869 *Lewin, Capt. Thomas, Beng. Staff Corps. East India United Service Club, S.W.

1872 Lewis, Jos., Esq., R.A. Castle Carrow, Carrick-on-Shannon.

1874 1570 Lewis, Rev. R. C., M.A. Streatham-common, S.W.

1852 Leycester, Captain Edmund M., R.N. White-place, near Maidenhead, Berks.

1859 Lichfield, Thomas George, Earl of Shugborough, Staffordshire.

1872 Liebenrood, Captain J., R.N. Belmont-lodge, Lee, Kent; and 35, Moray-place, Edinburgh.

1869 Ligar, C. W., Esq., Surveyor-General of Victoria. 4, Royal Exchange-avenue, E.C.; and Melbourne, Australia.
### Royal Geographical Society.

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<td>1870</td>
<td>Light, Rev. John, 13, Notting-hill-terrace, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Lilford, Thomas Lytton Powys, Lord, 10, Grosvenor-place, W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Lindsay, H. Hamilton, Esq. Windham-place, Bryansoton-square.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Lindsay, Lord, M.P. 47, Brook-street, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>*Lindsay, Colonel Robert J., M.P., V.C. Lockinge-house, Wantage, Berks; and 2, Carlton-gardens, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1580</td>
<td>*Lindsay, William S., Esq. Manor-house, Shepperton, Middlesex.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Lindsey, Mark John, Esq. 32, Ludgate-hill, E.C.; and Burnt-ash-lane, Lee, Kent.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Linton, Robert P., Esq., F.R.C.S., M.R.I. 14, St. James’s-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Little, Archibald J., Esq. Skanghi; and 18, Park-street, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Lloyd, Francis Aylmer, Esq. 23, Queen’s-terrace, Finchley-road, N.W.</td>
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<td>1570</td>
<td>*Lloyd, Hon. George A. Sydney, N.S.W.; George-yard, Lombard-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Lloyd, Percival, Esq. The Limes, Crouch-hill, Hornsey.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Lloyd, Sir Thomas Davis, Bart. United University Club, S.W.; and bronwydd, Carmarthen.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Lloyd, Rev. William V., M.A.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Lluellyn, Capt. Richard. 20, Montagu-square, W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Lluellyn, Major William R., R.A. Shoeburyness, Essex.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Lobley, James Logan, Esq., F.R.S. 59, Clareon-road, W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Lobo, Manoei da Gama, Esq., M.D. Rio de Janeiro.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>Loch, George, Esq.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Loch, John Charles, Esq. Hong-Kong.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Loch, William Adam, Esq. 8, Great George-street, Westminster, S.W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Locke, John, Esq. 83, Addison-road, Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Lockhart, William, Esq., F.R.C.S. Park-villas, 67, Granville-park, Blackheath, S.E.; and China.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Lockhart, Captain Wm. Stephen Alexander.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Lockwood, James Alfred. United Arts Club, Hanover-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Loder, Edmund Giles, Esq. 42, Grosvenor-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Logan, Sir William Edmond, F.R.S. Montreal, Canada.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Londesborough, Wm. Henry Forster, Lord. 38, Berkeley-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Longbottom, A. P., Esq., C.R. Hamlet-house, Hammermith, W.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>*Long, George, Esq., M.A. 2, Rhine-villas, Portfield, Chichester.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Long, Rev. James. 14, Salisbury-square, Fleet-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Longden, J. R., Esq. Government-house, Trinidad. Care of Mr. A. Walker. 13, King’s-road, Bedford-row, W.C.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election.

1865  *Longley, Lt.-Col. George, r.e.  Brookes's Club, St. James's-street, S.W.


1858  Longman, William, Esq.  36, Hyde-park-square, W.


1881  Lonsdale, Arthur Pemberton, Esq.

1890  Looker, William Robert, Esq.  Melbourne, Australia.  Care of Mr. Ashhurst, 9, Fenchurch-street, E.C.

1873  Lord, W. Barry, Esq.  Downshire-hill-cottage, Hampstead, N.W.

1874  Lorne, The Most Hon. the Marquis of, E.T., M.P.  1, Grosvenor-crescent, S.W.

1864  Lothian, William Schomberg, Marquis of.  15, Bruton-street, W.

1873  Lovell, Thomas, Esq., M.I.C.  Lucknow, India.

1873  Lovett, Major Beresford, R.E.  East India United Service Club, 14, St. James's-square, S.W.


1867  Low, Alex, F., Esq.  84, Westbourne-terrace, W.

1863  Low, S. P., Esq.  55, Parliament-street, S.W.


1830  Lowry, Joseph Wilson, Esq.  39, Robert-street, Hampstead-road, N.W.


1860  Loyd, Colonel W. K.  Union Club, S.W.

1870  Luard, Captain Charles Edward, R.E.  War-office, Whitehall.

1866  Luard, Wm. Charles, Esq.  Llandaff-house, Cardiff; and Athenæum Club, S.W.


1871  Ludlow, Edgar John David, Esq.  Care of Geo. Perry, Esq., 67, Charlewood-street, St. George's-road, S.W.


1872  *Lumsden, Colonel P. S., C.B., Quartermaster-General, Bengal Army.  United Service Club, Pall-mall, S.W.


1870  Lyall, George, Esq.  43, Queen's-gate-terrace, S.W.; and Hadley, near Epsom.

1873  Lycett, Sir Francis, K.C.B.  18, Highbury-green, Highbury, N.

1866  Lydall, J. H., Esq.  12, Southampton-buildings, Chancery-lane, W.C.

1873  Lydgate, Robert, Esq.

1873  Lydgate, Wm., Esq.  The Castle School, Guildford.

1869  Lye, John Gaunt, Esq.  18, Prince of Wales-terrace, Kensington, W.


1861  *Lynch, Thomas Kerr, Esq.  31, Cleveland-square, Hyde-park, W.

1650  Lyne, Francis, Esq.
Macaulay, William, Esq. 122, Leadenhall-street, E.C.
Macbraire, James, Esq. Broadmeadows, Berwick-on-Tweed.
Macdonald, Colonel John (Beng. Staff Corps). Care of Messrs. Grindlay and Co., 55, Parliament-street, S.W.
MacEwen, Archibald, Esq. 56, Brunswick-street, Glasgow.
Macfarlan, John G., Esq. The Tower, Richmond-bridge.
Macfarlane, Donald H., Esq. 62, Portland-place, W.
MacGregor, Lieut.-Col. C. M. Bengal.
MacGregor, Duncan, Esq. Athenaeum Club, S.W.
MacGregor, John, Esq., M.A. Athenaeum Club, S.W.
Mackay, Dr. A. E., R.N. Admiralty, Somerset-house, W.C.
Mackay, Nevile F., Esq. 2, Elm-court, Temple, E.C.
Mackelvie, Jas. Tannock, Esq. 21, Victoria-street, S.W.; and 7, Albemarle-street, W.
Mackenzie, James T., Esq.
Mackenzie, John H., Esq. 1, Crown-court, Old Broad-street, E.C.
Mackenzie, William, Esq., M.D., C.B. 3, Tulbot-square, Hyde-park, W.; and East India United Service Club, S.W.
Mackeson, Edward, Esq. 13, Hyde-park-square, W.
Mackinlay, Andrew U., Esq. 39, Holland-park, W.
Mackinlay, D., Esq. Oriental Club, W.
Mackinlay, John, Esq., J.P., M.I.C.E., Chief Engineer and Inspector of Machinery, H.M. Dockyard, and Surveyor to the Port, Bombay. Care of Charles Bannerman, Esq., 193, Cumberwell-new-road, Kennington, S.E.
Mackinnon, Wm. Alex., Esq., M.P., F.R.S. 4, Hyde-park-place, W.
Mackinnon, W., Esq. Balfinabiel-by-Harbert, Argyllshire.
Macintosh, Alex, Esq. 9, Tulbot-square, Hyde-Park, W.
Macintosh, Alexander Brodie, Esq. Oriental Club, W.; and Dunoon, Scotland.
Mackinclay, Major-Gen. Elliot, 69th Regiment. U.S. Club, S.W.
Mackley, Thomas Cole, Esq. Ferndale, Streatham.
Maclagan, Colonel Robert, R.E. Care of Messrs. Crawford, Colvin, and Co., 71, Old Broad-street, E.C.
Maclaine, Murdoch G., Esq. 6, Prince’s-square, Euston-water, W.
MacLeay, George, Esq. Pendell-court, Bletchingley.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election

1870  MacLeod, Lieut. Angus, r.n.  H.M.S. 'Excellent,' Portsmouth.
1875  Macrury, Andrew, Esq.  Macrury, Macdonald, and Macgregor, 37, Walbrook, E.C.
1861  Macleod, John Wilham, Esq.  The Home, Whalley-range, Manchester.
1861  1690 Macmillan, Alex., Esq.  16, Bedford-street, Covent-garden, W.C.
1874  MacMurdo, Major-General, c.b.  Rose-bank, Fulham.
1871  Macnab, Duncan Macpherson, Esq.  Union Club, S.W.
1855  Macnab, John, Esq.  Fiddlender-lodge, Trinity, near Edinburgh.
1868  Macnair, George, Esq.  Oriental Club, Hanover-square, W.
1871  Macpherson, Daniel, Esq.  Cadiz ; and 1, King-street, St. James's, S.W.
1871  Macpherson, Hugh Martin, Esq.  E. I. United Service Club, S.W.
1861  Macpherson, William, Esq.  Russia-house, Putney.
1870  Maclaurk, John, Esq.  2, Cecil-street, Hillhead, Glasgow.
1873  McAlpin, Donald A. L., Esq., r.n.  H.M.S. 'Favourite,' Queensferry, N.B.
1863  McArthur, Alex., Esq.  Raleigh-hall, Brixton-rise, Brixton, S.W.
1867  McArthur, William, Esq.  1, Guyler-houses, Brixton-rise, S.W.
1872  McCall, John, Esq.  17, Gracechurch-street, E.C.
1860  McClintock, Admiral Sir Francis Leopold, r.n.s. United Service Club, S.W.; and H.M. Dockyard, Portsmouth.
1871  *McClure, Joseph Henry, Esq.  9, Runsmford-place, Liverpool.
1862  McCosh, John, Esq., M.D.  Junior United Service Club, S.W.
1866  1710 McNair, Major John F. A., r.a.
1865  McDonald, James, Esq.  Oriental Club, Hanover-square, W.
1865  McEuen, D. P., Esq.  24, Pembroke-square, Bayswater, W.
1874  McGavin, Alan Lawrie, Esq.  Cordon-lodge, Wanstead; and 2, Barge-yard, Victoria-street, S.W.
1867  McGregor, Duncan, Esq.  Clyde-place, Glasgow.
1869  McGregor, Alexander Bennett, Esq.  19, Woodside-terrace, Glasgow.
1874  McLllwraith, Robert, Esq.  36, Prince's-gate, S.W.
1866  *Melvor, W. G., Esq., Sup. of Chinchona Plantations, Ootacamund, Madras. Care of Mr. E. Bumpus, Holborn-bars, E.C.
1858  McKerrell, Robert, Esq.  45, Inverness-terrace, W.; and Mauritius.
1873  McKerlie, P. H., Esq., F.s.a., Scot., &c.  26, Pembroke-villas, Bayswater, W.
1868  1720 McClean, Frank, Esq., M.A., c.h. Fernichie, Tunbridge-wells.
1870  McLeod, Major-Gen. W. C.  14, St. James's-square, S.W.
1852  M'Eldred, Walter, Esq.  Head Master of the Royal Military Asylum, Chelsea, S.W.
1874  McMahon, Colonel A.  46, Ebury-street, W.
Royal Geographical Society.

Year of 
Election.


1872 Magrath, Colonel John R., Madras Artillery, Ret. Murhill, near Bradford-on-Avon, Wilts; and East India U. S. Club, 14, St. James’s-square, S.W.

1874 Maitland, Rev. A. Gray. Roseneath, Sydenham-park, S.E.

1871 Major, Henry, Esq., R.A. Sherwood-house, Mansfield-road, Nottingham.

1845 1730 Major, Richard Henry, Esq., F.S.A. Athenæum Club, S.W.; and British Museum, W.C.

1868 *Makins, Henry F., Esq. 8, Palace-gate, Kensington, W.; and Reform Club, S.W.

1858 Malby, John Walter, Esq. 15, Richmond-villas, Seven-sisters‘-rd., Holloway, N.

1853 *Malby, Thomas, Esq. 2, Park-villas, Seven-sisters‘-road, Holloway, N.

1862 *Malcolm, Major Edward Donald, R.E. Chatham.

1863 Malcolm, James, Esq. 22, Prince‘s-gate, Knightsbridge, W.


1872 Malleson, Colonel G. B. Care of Coutts and Co., Strand, W.C.

1853 *Mallet, Chas., Esq. Audit-office, W.C.; and 7, Queensbro‘-terrace, Bayswater, W.

1870 Man, Captain J. Alexander (Commissioner of Customs for Newchwang, S. Manchuria.) Care of P. J. King, Esq., 10, St. Stephen’s-square, Bayswater, W.; and Junior United Service Club.

1872 1740 Man, Captain William. Care of B. F. Stevens, 17, Henrietta-street, Covent-garden, W.C.

1872 Man, William, Esq. Woodford, Essex.

1874 Mann, H., Esq. Belgrave-mansions, S.W.; and 2, Upper Brunswick-place, Brighton.


1866 Mann, Robert James, Esq., M.D. 5, Kingsdown-villas, Wandsworth-common, S.W.

1866 Manners, George, Esq., F.S.A. Lansdowne-road, Croydon.

1868 Manners-Sutton, Graham, Esq., 7, Gloucester-terrace, Hyde-park, W.

1874 Manners-Sutton, Hon. Robert Henry. 12, Queensbury-place, S. Kensington, W.

1856 Manning, Frederick, Esq. Byron-lodge, Leamington; and 8, Dover-street, W.

1864 *Mansell, Captain A. L. Hydrographic-office, Admiralty, S.W.

1869 1750 Mantell, Sir John Iles. Swinton-park, Manchester; and Windham Club, S.W.


1871 Margetts, William G., Esq. Allamira, Stonebridge, Willand, N.W.

1872 Margöschis, John Thomas, Esq. Care of Mrs. Margöschis, Brodie-villa, Leamington.

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List of Fellows of the

Year of
Election

1860
Mariette, Prof. Alphonse, M.A. 27, St. Stephen’s-square, Bayswater, W.

1874
Marjoribanks, Edw., Esq. 134, Piccadilly, W.

1873
Markham, Captain Albert Hastings, R.N. 21, Eccleston-square, S.W.

1854
*Markham, Clements Robert, Esq., C.B., F.R.S. India-office, S.W.; 21, Eccleston-square, S.W.; and Athenæum Club, S.W.

1884
Marsden, Rev. Canon. Great Oakley, Horwich, Essex.

1857

1873
Marshall, Charles H., Esq. The Cedars, Sydenham, S.E.

1862
*Marshall, J. G. Den, Esq. 6, The Mount, St. Leonards-on-Sea.

1873
Marshall, John, Esq. Auckland-lodge, Queen’s-road, Richmond, S.W.

1862
Marshall, William, Esq. 71, Mornington-road, W.

1859
*Marshall, The Hon. Robert. 5, Chesterfield-street, Mayfair; W.

1857
Marshman, J. C., Esq. 7, Kensington-palace-gardens, W.

1875
Marston, Edward, Esq. 188, Fleet-street, E.C.

1770

1874
Marten, Elliott, Esq., Vice-Consul, Sarawak. Care of W. T. Marten, Esq., 30, Great St. Helen’s, E.C.

1861
Martin, Henry, Esq. Sussex-house, Highbury-new-park, N.

1860
*Martin, Richard Biddulph, Esq. Clarewood, Bickley, S.E.

1862
Martin, Thomas, Esq. 5, Compton-terrace, N.

1870

1871

1871
Master, Chas. Hoskins, Esq. Barrow-green-house, Oxted, near Godstone, Surrey.

1870
Masterman, Edward, Esq. 30, Threadneedle-street, E.C.; and 27, Clements-lane, Lombard-street, E.C.

1870

1869
*Matheson, Alexander, Esq., M.P. 33, South-street, Park-lane, W.; and Ardross Castle, Ross-shire, N.B.

1874
*Matheson, Hugh Mackay, Esq. 3, Lombard-street, E.C.

1845
*Matheson, Sir James, Bart., F.R.S. 13, Cleveland-row, S.W.; and Achna, Bonar-bridge, Sutherlandshire, &c.

1871
Mathew, George Buckley, Esq. Care of Messrs. Boddington and Co., St. Helen’s-place, E.C.

1874
Mathews, Chas. Edward, Esq. Oakgate, Augustus-road, Edgbaston, Birmingham; and Arts Club, W.

1872

1858
Mathieson, James Ewing, Esq. 77, Lombard-street, E.C.; and 16, Queen's-gardens, Bayswater, W.

1873
Maude, Colonel G. A. Royal Meux, Pimlico, S.W.

1868

1871
Mawbey, Henry, Esq. 12, Clare-road, Cottenham, Bristol.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name and Address</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>Maxwell, John, Esq. <em>Lichfield-house, Richmond.</em></td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td><em>Maxwell, Sir William Stirling, Bart., M.P. 10, Upper Grosvenor-street, W.; and Keir, Dunblane, N.B.</em></td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>May, Staff-Commr. Daniel John, R.N. <em>Care of Case and Loudensack, 1, James-street, Adelphi, W.C.</em></td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Mayers, William S. F., Esq., Chinese Secretary, H.B.M. Legation, Pekin. <em>Care of James West, Esq., 2, Cooper's-court, Cornhill, E.C.</em></td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Mayne, Captain Richard Charles, R.N., C.B. 80, Chester-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Mayo, Captain John Pole. <em>Army and Navy Club, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Mayson, John S., Esq., J.P. 5, St. James's-square, Manchester.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Meade, The Hon. Robert Henry. <em>Colonial-office, S.W.; and 3, Belgrave-square, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Meadows, Dr. Alfred. 27, George-street, Hanover-square, W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Measom, George Samuel, Esq. <em>St. Margaret's, Isleworth.</em></td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>*Medlycott, Commander Mervyn B., R.N. <em>Care of Messrs. Woodhead.</em></td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td><em>Meinertz-Hagen, Daniel, Esq. 10, Rutland-gate, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Melvill, Major-General Sir Peter Melvill, Mil, Sec. to the Bombay Government. 27, Palace-square, Brighton.</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Melvill, Philip, Esq., R.N. <em>Ethy-house, Lostwithiel, Cornwall.</em></td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Mercer, Henry C., Esq., R.A. <em>Denham-lodge, Uxbridge.</em></td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Messiter, Charles A., Esq. <em>Barwick, near Yeovil, Somerset.</em></td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Methuen, Capt. Hon. Paul (Scots Fusil. Gds.) <em>Guards Club, Pall-mall, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Methven, Captain Robert. 44, Chester-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1837</td>
<td><em>Methven, Captain Robert. 44, Chester-square, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>Michell, Lieut.-Colonel J. E., R.N.A.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Michell, Robert, Esq. <em>India-office, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td><em>Miche, A., Esq. 26, Austin-friars, E.C.</em></td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Michie, Honourable Archibald, Q.C. 5, Bury-street, St. James's; and Reform Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1848</td>
<td>Middleton, Rear-Admiral Sir G. N. Brooke, Bart. <em>Broke-hall, Suffolk.</em></td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td><em>Miers, John William, Esq., C.E. 74, Addison-road, Kensington, W.</em></td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Mildmay, Capt. Herbert St. John (Rifle Brigade). 19, Charles-square, Berkeley-square, W.*</td>
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List of Fellows of the

Year of Election.

1872 Miles, Captain Samuel Barrett (Bombay Staff Corps), Political Agent in Mekran. Care of Messrs. Tübiner, Ludgate-hill, E.C.

1874 Miller, Capt. David, R.N. United Service Club, Pall-mall, S.W.

1875 *Miller, Captain Henry Matthew, R.N. The United Service Club, S.W., and Fernside, Sevenoaks.

1878 Miller, Robert Montgomerie, Esq. Culverden-grove, Tunbridge-wells.

1883 *Miller, Admiral Thomas. United Service Club, S.W.

1881 Milligan, Joseph, Esq. 6, Craven-street, Strand, W.C.

1887 Mills, Arthur, Esq. 34, Hyde-park-gardens, W.


1866 Milne, Admiral Sir Alex., K.C.B, G.C.B. 13, New-street, Spring-gardens, S.W.

1867 Milner, Rev. John, B.A. H.M.S. *St. Vincent.*

1862 *Milton, Viscount, M.P. 17, Grosvenor-street, W.

1862 *Mitchell, George, Esq. 22, Bolton-street, Piccadilly, W.


1873 Mitford, A. B., Esq. 1, Albert-terrace, Knightsbridge; and Travellers' Club.

1874 1840 Mitford, Col. Jno. Philip Oswaldtiston. Mitford-hall, Morpeth, Northumberland; and Army and Navy Club, S.W.

1851 *Mocatta, Frederick D., Esq. 9, Connaught-place, W.

1873 Moffat, Rev. Dr. Robert. 64, Knowle-road, Brixton-road, S.W.

1855 Moffatt, George, Esq. 103, Eaton-square, S.W.

1868 Moffett, John, Esq. General Register Office of Seamen, 6, Adelaide-place, London-bridge, E.C.

1873 Moleyns, Major T. A. de, R.A. Woolwich.

1861 Mollison, Alexander Fullerton, Esq.

1870 Moneta, Don Pompeo (Chief Engineer, Argentine Republic). Buenos Ayres.

1871 Montagu, Jno. M. P., Esq. Downe-hall, Bridport, Dorset, and Union Club, S.W.

1862 *Montague, Major Horace. 11, Clifton-villas, Maidstone, W.


1860 Montgomery, Robert Mortimer, Esq.


1874 Moodie, G. P., Esq. 1 Suffolk-place, Pall-mall, S.W.

1839 Moody, General R. C., R.E. Cheadle-house, near Ludlow, Shropshire.


1874 Moore, Adolphus W., Esq. India-office, S.W.

1883 Moore, H. Byron, Esq. Survey-office, Melbourne, Australia.

1861 Moore, John Carrick, Esq., F.R.S. Cornwall, Wigtownshire; Geological Society, W.C.; and 23, Bolton-street, W.

1870 1860 Moore, John, Esq. 7, Nicholas-lane, Lombard-street, E.C.
Royal Geographical Society.

1870
Mora, Diego d’Ulsson, Esq. 2, Brook-street, Chelsea, Manchester.
Moran, Benjamin, Esq. 20, Norfolk-terrace, Baywater, W.; and 5, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street, S.W.

1872
Morland, Lieut. Henry, late 1 N. Assistant Dockmaster, &c., Bombay.

1883

1889
*Morgan, Delmar, Esq. 19, Queen’s-gardens, Hyde-park, W.

1899
*Morgan, D. L., Esq., Deputy Inspector-General, m.s. 9, Spring-gardens, S.W.
Morgan, Junius Spencer, Esq. 13, Prince’s-gate, Hyde-park, W.
Morland, Lieut. Henry, late 1 N. Assistant Dockmaster, &c., Bombay.

1839 1870
*Morris, Charles, Esq. University Club, S.W.
Morris, Edwd. Ellis, Esq. Bedfordshire Middle-class Public School, Bedford.
Morris, Rev. R. Leslie, M.A. Fitzroy-lodge, Highgate.

1871
*Morrison, A. F., Esq. 16, Carlton-house-terrace, S.W.
Morrison, Colonel J. C. D. 40, Albion-road, Finchley-road, N.W.
Morson, Thomas, Esq. 124, Southampton-row, Russell-square, W.C.
Moseenthal, Adolph, Esq. 18, Aberdeen-park, Highbury, N.
Moser, Robert James, Esq. 45, Bedford-square, W.C.
Mott, F. T., Esq. 1, De Montfort-street, Leicester.

1880
*Mount, Frederick J., Esq., M.D., Surgeon-Major and Inspector-General of Prisons, Bengal Army, &c. 12, Durham-villas, Kensington, W.; and Athenaeum Club, S.W.

1868

1871
*Mowatt, James, Esq., M.A. 51, Notting-hill-square, W.; and Cairns College, Cambridge.

1858
Mueller, Ferdinand, Esq., M.D., PH.D. Director of the Botanical Gardens, Melbourne. Care of Messrs. Duhou and Co., 37, Soho-square, W.

1874
*Muir, Hugh B., Esq. 34 Clements-lane, Lombard-street, E.C.
Muir, Thomas, Esq. 24, York-terrace, Regent’s-park, N.W.
*Muir, Thomas, jun., Esq. Madeira; and 24, York-terrace, Regent’s-park, N.W.

1867
Müller, Albert, Esq. Eaton-cottage, South Norwood, S.

1873
1890 Münster, His Excellency, Count. (Ambassador of the German Empire.) German Embassy, 9, Carlton-house-terrace, S.W.

1859
*Munchon, John H., Esq. Junior Carlton Club, S.W.
Murchison, Kenneth R., Esq. 24, Chapel-street, Park-lane, W.; and Junior United Service Club.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Elevation.

1830  *Murdoch, Sir Thomas W. Clinton, K.C.M.G.  S, Park-street, Westminster, S.W.; and 88, St. George's-square, S.W.

1860  Murray, George J., Esq.  Furrows-husk, Cosham, Hants; and Junior Carlton Club, S.W.

1872  *Murray, G. S. D., Esq.  New University Club, St. James's-street, S.W.

1868  *Murray, Henry, Esq.  Garrick Club, Garrick-street, W.C.

1844  *Murray, James, Esq.

1830  Murray, John, Esq.  50, Albermarle-street, W.; and Newstead, Wimbledon, S.W.

1872  1900  *Murray, John, Esq., jun.  Newlands, Wimbledon, S.W.

1876  Murray, T. Douglas, Esq.  34, Portland-place, W.


1870  Murray, William Vaughan, Esq., M.R.I., &c.  4, Westbourne-crescent, Hyde-park, W.

1865  Mussy, H. G. de, Esq., M.D.

1865  Nairne, P. A., Esq.  2, Grove-hill, Camberwell, S.E.

1868  Napier, of Magdala, Lord, G.C.B., F.R.S.

1861  Napier, William, Esq.

1870  Napier, Wm. Jno. Geo. (Master of Napier.)  1, Queen-square, Westminster, S.W.; and Thriplow-castle, Selkirkshire.

1871  Nares, Captain G. S., R.N. Care of the Hydrographer, Admiralty, S.W.


1872  Nayler, Geo., Esq. (Surgeon).  3, Savile-row, W.

1873  Nelson, George Henry, Esq.  1, Hillside, Wimbledon, S.W.

1857  *Nesbitt, Henry, Esq.  12, Victoria-villas, Kilburn, N.W.

1875  Nesbitt, William, Esq.  Junior Carlton Club, Pall-mall, S.W.

1869  Neville, Lieut.-Col. Edward.  30, Clarges-street, Piccadilly, W.

1870  Newall, Wm. Johnstone, Esq.  33, South-street, Park-lane, W.

1868  Newbatt, Benjamin, Esq., F.R.S., &c.  7, Vicarage-gardens, Campden-hill, W.


1856  Newman, Thomas Holdsworth, Esq.  9, Gt. Cumberland-place, Hyde-park, W.

1920  Newton, Alfred P., Esq.  15, Sheffield-gardens, Campden-hill, W.

1872  Newton, Wm., Esq.  11, Mitre-court, Temple, E.C.

1870  Nicholas, W., Esq.  2, Shirley-villas, Prospect-hill, Walthamstow, E.

1870  Nicholl, Henry John, Esq.  16, Hyde-park-gate, W.

1870  Nicholls, James, Esq.  22, Laurence Pountney-lane, E.C.; and The Mount, Kenley, Surrey.

1865  *Nichols, Robert C., Esq.  5, Sussex-place, W.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Member Name</th>
<th>Title/Role</th>
<th>Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1856</td>
<td>Nicholson, Sir Charles, Bart., D.C.L.</td>
<td>Chancellor of the University, Sydney</td>
<td>Devonshire-place, Portland-place, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>*Nicol, Robert, Esq.</td>
<td>Reform Club, S.W.; and Westminster-palace-hotel, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>Nicoll, Wm., Esq.</td>
<td>41, Victoria-st., S.W.; and Fawzyde, Kennoff, Kincardine</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>*Nicolson, Arthur Robert, Esq.</td>
<td>11, Church-rov, Hampstead, N.W.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>Nicolson, Vice-Admiral Sir Frederick Wm. Erskine, Bart., C.B.</td>
<td>15, William-street, Lothian-square, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>Nimmo, Rev. R., D.A., B.N.</td>
<td>Mill-house, Grantchester, near Cambridge, and H.M.S. <em>Bellerophon</em></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1858</td>
<td>Nix, John H., Esq.</td>
<td>77, Lombard-street, E.C.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>*Noldrrett, Jno. Spencer, Esq.</td>
<td>352, Albany-road, Camberwell, S.E.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>*Noloth, Admiral Matthew S.</td>
<td>13, North-terrace, Camberwell, S.E.; and United Service Club, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1854</td>
<td>Norman, H. J., Esq.</td>
<td>4, Halthor-street, Grosvenor-place, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>Norris, Charles, Esq.</td>
<td>124, Wood-street, E.C.; and Marischal-road, Lee, Kent</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>Norris, Harry, Esq.</td>
<td>Colonial-office, S.W.; and 4, Little St. James's-street, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1881</td>
<td>North, Alfred, Esq.</td>
<td>23, Ladbroke-crescent, Notting-hill, W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Northumberland, Algernon George, Duke of</td>
<td>2, Grosvenor-place, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Notman, Henry Wilkes, Esq.</td>
<td>7, Great Marborough-street, W.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>Nourse, Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>Conservative Club, S.W.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Oakeley, R. Banner, Esq.*


*Ogilvy, Col. Thos. | 23, Grafton-st., Piccadilly, W.; and Rathven, Forfarshire, N.B. |


*Oldershaw, Capt. Robert Piggott. | 78, Warwick-square, Belgrave-road, S.W. |

*Oldfield, Captain Rudolphus, R.N. | United Service Club, S.W. |

*Oldham, Henry, Esq., M.P. | 26, Finsbury-square, E.C. |

*Oliphant, Laurence, Esq. | Athenaeum Club, S.W. |

*Oliver, Captain S. P., 12th Brigade R.A. | Care of Est. W. Oliver, Bovington-rectory, Ougar, Essex. |


*Ommannaux, H. M., Esq. | Blackheath, S.E. |

*Ormzwayte, John Benn-Walsh, Lord. | 28, Berkeley-square, W. |

*Ormeots, Henry Merv, Esq. | Broughton-park, Manchester. |

*Orpen, F. H. S., Esq. | Burkly, Griqualand West, South Africa. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name and Title</th>
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<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td>Osborn, Sir George R., Bart. Travellers' Club, S.W.; and Chicksand-priory, Beds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>Osborn, Commander Noel, R.N. 119, Gloucester-terrace, Hyde-park, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1856</td>
<td>Osborn, Admiral Sherard, C.B., F.R.S. 33, Charles-street, Berkeley-square, W.; Athenaenum and Reform Clubs, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>*Osborne, Lieut.-Col. Willoughby. Political Agent, Bhopal, Schira, India.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>*Ouvry-North, Rev. J. East Acton, Middlesex, W.</td>
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<td>1844</td>
<td>*Overstone, Samuel, Lord, M.A., M.R.I. 2, Carlton-gardens, S.W.; and Wickham-park, Surrey.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>Owden, Thomas S., Esq. Mount-pleasant, Philip-lane, Tottenham.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Packer, William, Esq. 1, Cavendish-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Page, George Gordon, Esq., C.E. 4, Great James-street, Gray's-inn, W.C.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Palmer, F. J., Esq., R.N. 8, Callum-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Palmer, Captain George, R.N. H.M.S. 'Rosario,' Australia; and Cavers, Havick, Roxburghshire, N.B.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Palmer, Rev. Jordan, M.A., P.S.A. Upper Streatham, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Palmer, J. Horsey, Esq. 56, Cromwell-road, Queen's-gate, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1838</td>
<td>*Palmer, Samuel, Esq.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Pannel, Charles S., Esq. Walton-lodge, Torquay.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Papengouth, Oswald C., Esq., C.E. Care of W. Hornibrook, Esq., 6, Regent's-square, W.C.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Parfitt, W. S., Esq., C.E. Montevideo. Care of Mrs. Parfitt, Devises, Wilt.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Parish, Captain A. Benbridge, Isle of Wight.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Park, Abraham, Esq. Warrington-terrace, Ashton-under-Lyne; and Morningdale-house, Renfrewshire, N.B.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Park, James Dickson, Esq. 48, Queen's-gate-gardens, South Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Parker, Capt. Francis G. S., 54th Regiment, P.O.S., A.I.C.E. Jullundur, Punjab.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Parker, James, Esq. 45, Leinster-square, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Parkin, George Lewis, Esq. 22, Park-lane, W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year of Election</td>
<td>Member Name and Details</td>
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<tr>
<td>1850</td>
<td>*Parkyns, Mansfield, Esq., F.R.S. Arthur’s Club, St. James’s-street, S.W.; and 59, Prince’s-square, Bayswater, W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>Parry, Edward, Esq. 284, Camden-road, N.W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>*Parry, Francis, Esq. Junior Athenæum Club; and 102, Piccadilly, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Pau, Elias de, Esq. 2, Kensington-gardens-terrace, Hyde-park, W.; and The Lodge, Rembridge, Isle of Wight.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Pasteur, Marc Henry, Esq. 38, Mincing-lane, E.C.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Paterson, John, Esq. 19A, Coleman-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>1000, Patterson, Jas. Wilson, Esq. Roseland, Waverley, Baltimore Co., U.S.A.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Pattinson, J., Esq. 21, Bread-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Paul, J. H., Esq., M.D. Camberwell-house, Camberwell, S.E.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Paul, Joseph, Esq. Ormond’s-house, Ryde, Isle of Wight.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Paulson, W. H., Esq., R.A. 3, Grove-place, Highgate, N.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Paxton, Robert Cha., Esq. 24, Stafford-terrace, Phillimore-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Payne, Wm., Esq. The Keep, Forest Hill.</td>
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<td>1847</td>
<td>*Paynter, William, Esq., F.R.A.S. 21, Belgrave-square, S.W.; and Camberwell-house, Richmond, Surrey, S.W.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>Peacock, George, Esq. Starcross, near Exeter.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Pearson, Captain R. B., R.N. 9, Hyde-park-street, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Pearson, Colonel Alfred. United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Peckey, J. T. Primrose, Esq. Leytonstone, Essex.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>*Peckover, Alexander, Esq., F.L.S. Wisbeach.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>*Peck, Cuthbert K., Esq. Wimbledon-house, Wimbledon, S.W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>*Peek, Sir Henry William, Bart., M.P. Wimbledon, S.W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>*Peel, Captain Francis.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Peel, Right Hon. Sir Robert, Bart., M.P. 4, Whitehall-gardens, S.W.; and Drayton-meter, Tamsworth.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Pembroke, George R. C. Herbert, Earl of. Wilton-house, Salisbury; and 10, Victoria-square, Pimlico, S.W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>3030, Pender, John, Esq. 18, Arlington-street, W.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>Pender, Staff-Comm. D., R.N. Admiralty, Whitehall; and Esquimalt, Thornton-hill, Wimbledon, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>*Pennant, Colonel S. S. Douglas, Penrhyn-castle, Bangor.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>*Penrhyn, Lord. Penrhyn-castle, Bangor.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>Pepys, Hon. Walter Courtenay. Windham Club, St. James’s-square, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td>Percy, Lieut.-General the Hon. Lord Henry M. (Guards) 40, Eaton-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Pereira, Francisco E., Esq.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Perkins, Sir Frederick, M.P. Southampton.</td>
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</table>
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election

1859
Perry, Sir Erskine, Member Indian Council. 36, Eaton-place, S.W.

1865

1866
Perry, William, Esq. 9, Warwick-road, Upper Clapton, N.E.

1867
Peter, John, Esq. Conservative Club, S.W.

1857
*Peters, William, Esq.

1860
Petherick, John, Esq. 12, St. Luke's-road, Westbourne-park, W.

1860
Petrie, Major Martin, 97th Regiment. Hanover-lodge, Kensington-park, W.

1861
Petter, G. Wm., Esq. Streatham-grove, S.

1866
Pharazyn, Robert, Esq. Wellington, New Zealand. Care of Messrs. Scott and Rogers, 36, Mark-lane, E.C.

1867

1854
Phelps, William, Esq. 18, Montagu-place, Russell-square, W.C.

1862
Phené, John Samuel, Esq., F.G.S. 5, Carlton-terrace, Oakley-street, S.W.

1873
*Phillbrick, Frederick Adolphus, Esq. 28, Avenue-road, N.W.

1860
Philip, George, Esq. 32, Fleet-street, E.C.

1872
Phillips, Herbert Rees, Esq. India-office, S.W.

1872
Phillips, Sutherland Rees, Esq., M.D. Three Counties Asylum, Arlesley, Bakley.

1857
Phillimore, R. Admiral Augustus. Sheffield, Farnham, Hants; and India United Service Club, S.W.

1859
Phillimore, Charles Bagot, Esq. Hurley Manor-house, Great Marlow; and India-office, S.W.

1860

1854
Phillips, Major-General Sir B. Travell. United Service Club, S.W.

1869

1873
2050 Phillips, Geo., Esq. Bellecure-lodge, Beaufort-street, Chelsea, S.W.

1873
Philp, Capt. Fras. Lamb (Royal Scots Greys). Aldershot. Care of Cox & Co., Craig's-court; and Army and Navy Club, S.W.

1871
Philpott, Edward P., Esq., M.D., LL.D. Poole, Dorsetshire.

1872
*Pickering, John, Esq. 28, Springfield-mount, Leeds.

1871
Pickersgill, Wm. Cunliffe, Esq. 58, Prince's-gate, S.W.

1871
Pierce, Josiah, Esq. 12, Beaufort-gardens, Brompton-road, S.W.

1870
Pigott, Robt. Turtle, Esq. Manor-gardens, Lee, Kent; and 36, Southamptown-street, Strand, W.C.

1874
Pigott, Thomas Digby, Esq. War-office, Pall-mall, S.W.

1864
*Pigou, F. A. P., Esq. Dartford, Kent.

1852
Pike, Captain John W., R.N. United Service Club, S.W.

1855
2060 Pilkington, James, Esq. Blackburn.

1865
Pilkington, William, Esq. War-office.

1852
Year of Election | Name | Address
--- | --- | ---
1870 | Pimblett, James, Esq. | Tutenhill, Burton-on-Trent.
1859 | Pinney, Colonel William | 30, Berkeley-square, W.
1867 | Plant, Nathaniel, Esq. | Hotel Exchange, Rio de Janeiro; and De Montfort-house, Leicester.
1871 | Platt, Lieut.-Colonel Chas. Rowley. | 4, Bolton-street, Piccadilly, W.
1874 | Platt, Thomas, Esq. | 73, Lancaster-gate, Hyde-park, W.
1865 | Player, John, Esq. | 22, Carpenter-road, Edgbaston, Birmingham.
1886 | Plowden, Charles C., Esq. | The Cottage, Chisilhurst, Kent.
1856 | *Plowes, John Henry, Esq. | 39, York-terrace, Regent's-park, N.W.
1870 | Plunkett, Major-Gen. the Hon. Charles Dawson. | United Service Club, S.W.
1873 | Pollard, Henry Thos., Esq. | 4 Threadneedle-street, E.C.
1855 | *Pollexfen, Captain J. J. | India.
1866 | *Pollington, John Horace, Viscount. | 8, John-street, Berkeley-square, W.
1835 | *Ponsonby, The Hon. Frederick G. B. | 3, Mount-street, Grosvenor-square, W.
1860 | Pook, Captain John. | 6, Colne's-villas, Lewisham-hill, S.E.
1870 | Poole, C. M., Esq., C.E. | 97, Talbot-road, Westbourne-park, W.
1857 | Pope, Captain Wm. Agnew. | 18, Portland-place, W.
1863 | *Porcher, Captain Edwin A., R.N. | 60, Chester-square, S.W.
1874 | *Porgas, Theodore, Esq. | 43, St. James's-place, S.W.; and Austin Friars, E.C.
1871 | *Potter, Wm. Richd., Esq., M.A. | Tonge-house, Lower Norwood, S.
1868 | Potter, Archibald Gilchrist, Esq. | Woodham-lodge, Lavender-hill, Wandsworth, S.W.
1874 | Potter, Richard, Esq. | Standish-house, Stonehouse, Gloucestershire.
1867 | Potter, Wm. H., Esq. | Care of G. T. White, Esq., Kinvara, Tooting-common.
1861 | *Pounden Captain Lonsdale. | Junior United Service Club, S.W.; and Bromwood, Co. Wexford.
1862 | Povah, Rev. John V., M.A. | 11, Endsleigh-street, W.C.
1864 | *Powell, F. S., Esq. | 1, Cambridge-square, Hyde-park, W.
1874 | 2090Power, Edward, Esq. | 45, Belsize-park, Hampstead.
1859 | Power, E. Rawdon, Esq. (Retired List, Ceylon Civil Service). | Heywood-lodge, Tenby, South Wales; and Thatched-house Club, S.W.
1868 | Powall, John Fish, Esq. | 63, Russell-square, W.C.
1864 | Powys, The Hon. C. J. F. | 
1864 | Powys, The Hon. Leopold. | 
1870 | *Prance, Reginald H., Esq. | Frognal, Hampstead.
1873 |*Preedy, Colonel H. William. | 
1873 | *Prevost, Admiral J. C. | 1, Burton-street, Eaton-square, S.W.
1868 | Price, Charles S., Esq. | Bryn Derven, Neath.
1869 | 2100Price, F. G. H., Esq. | 1, Fleet-street, E.C.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election

1869
Price, James, Esq.

1852
Price, James Glenie, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. 14, Clement's-inn, W.C.

1860
*Prickett, Rev. Thomas William, M.A., F.S.A. 11, Lyppett-terrace, Cheltenham; and United University Club, Pall-mall East, S.W.

1868
Prideaux, Capt. W. F., Bombay Staff Corps. Care of Messrs. King and Co., 45, Pall-mall, S.W.

1873
Prince, John Sampson, Esq. Hastings-house, Bournemouth.

1865
*Pringle, A. Esq. Yair, Selkirk, N.B.

1855
*Pringle, Thomas Young, Esq. Reform Club, S.W.

1866

1868

1874
Probyn, Maj.-General Deighton, V.C., C.B. 35, Cadogan-place, W.

1874

1872
Proctor, Samuel, Esq. (Head Master, Borough Schools, San Fernando, Trinidad). Care of E. H. Pennyc, Esq., 17, Lime-street, E.C.

1861
*Prodgers, Edwin, Esq. The Rectory, Ayott St. Peter's, Herts.

1874

1874

1852
Prout, John William, Esq., M.A., Barrister-at-Law. Athenaeum Club, S.W.; and Neasden, Middlesex, N.W.

1861

1874

1862
*Pugst, Lieut.-Colonel J., 8th Hussars. 5, Hyde-park-terrace, S. Kensington, S.W.

1872
Puleston, John H., Esq. 2, Palace-gate, Kensington, W.

1860
Puller, Arthur Giles, Esq. Athenaeum Club, S.W.; Arthur's Club, S.W.; and Youngsbury, Ware.

1872
Punster, Wm. B., Esq. 1 and 2, Grosvenor-villas, Merton-road, Wandsworth, S.W.

1857
Purcell, Edward, Esq., LL.D. Whitechurch, Monmouth.

1869
Purdon, Lieut. George Frederic, R.N.

1865
*Pusey, Sidney E. Bouverie, Esq.

1870
Pycoft, Sir Thomas, K.C.S.I. 17, Cleveland-gardens, Hyde-park, W.

1861
Quin, Lord George. 15, Belgrave-square, S.W.

1868
Quin, John Thomas, Esq. Care of Mr. Lambson, Epsom.

1862
Quin, T. Francis, Esq. Bathurst-house, 418, Clapham-road, Clapham, S.W.

1871

1858
*Raidstock, Granville Augustus, Lord. 30, Bryanston-square, W.

1869
Rae, Edward, Esq. Devonshire-road, Birkenhead.

1862
*Rae, James, Esq. 32, Phillimore-gardens, Kensington, W.
Royal Geographical Society.

Year of Election:

1853
Rae, John, Esq., M.D., L.L.D. 2, Addison-gardens-south, Holland-villas-road, Kensington, W.

1870
Raikes, Francis Wm., Esq. Junior Carlton Club.

1867

1871
Ralli, Eustratius, Esq. 93, Lancaster-gate, W.

1871
Ralli, Pandeli, Esq. 17, Belgravia-square, S.W.

1870
Ralston, W. R. Shedden, Esq., M.A. British Museum, W.C.

1873
Rambaut, Jehh, Esq., M.D. The Grange, Godstone, Surrey.

1866
Ramsay, Alex., Esq. Kilmorey-lodge, Castlebar, Ealing, W.

1873
Ramsay, F. W. Hutchinson, Esq., M.D. 15, Somerset-street, Portman-square, W.

1866
*Ramsay, Admiral G. United Service Club, S.W.

1867
Ramsay, John, Esq. Islay, N.B.

1867

1869
Randell, Thomas, Esq. Castle-green, Taunton.

1874
Rankin, Capt. Fras. W. Northwick-ville, Clifton, Gloucestershire; and Junior Naval and Military Club, Piccadilly.

1866
Rankin, William, Esq. Ternvale-ridge, Carndonagh, Donegal.

1866

1869
Rassam, Hormuzd, Esq., Assistant Political Resident, Aden. Ailsa-park-lodge, Twickenham, S.W.

1859
Ratcliffe, Colonel Charles, F.R.A. Athenæum Club, S.W.; Edgbaston, Birmingham; and Downing College, Cambridge.

1870
Ratcliffe, Rev. Thomas, B.D., &c.

1861
Ratcliff, Colonel Charles, F.R.A. Athenæum Club, S.W.; Edgbaston, Birmingham; and Downing College, Cambridge.

1873
Rate, Lachlan Macintosh, Esq. 9, South Audley-street, W.

1846
Ravenscroft, W.H., Esq. 19, Lansdowne-road, W.

1859

1859
Ravensstein, Ernest G., Esq. Alpha-cottage, Lorn-road, Brixton, S.W.

1861
Rawlinson, Sir Christopher. Wilbury-park, Salisbury.

1844

1874
Rawson, Christopher, Esq. 8, Sussex-place, Cornwall-road, S.W.

1838
Rawson, His Excellency Rawson Wm., C.B., Governor-in-Chief of the Windward Islands. Barbadoes.

1869
Ray, Captain Alfred William. The Lodge, Brixton-oval, S.W.

1872
Ray, George H., Esq., M.D., Bengal.

1874

1873
Read, Frederick, Esq. 45, Leinster-square, W.

1874
Read, F. W. C., Esq. Walthamstow, E.

1863
Reade, W. Winwood, Esq. 10, Beaumont-street, Portland-place, W.

1865
Redhead, R. Milne, Esq. Springfield, Seedley, Manchester; Conservative Club, S.W.; and Junior Carlton Club, S.W.

1868
*Redman, John B., Esq., C.E. 6, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street, S.W.

1871
Reed, Andrew Holmes, Esq. Earlsmead, Poyne-green, N.

1859
Reeve, John, Esq. Conservative Club, S.W.
<table>
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Reiden, George, Esq.</td>
<td>2, Great Tower-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Reid, David, Esq.</td>
<td>95, Piccadilly, W.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Reid, Lestock R., Esq.</td>
<td>Athenaeum Club, S.W.; and 122, Westbourne-terrace, W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Kelhy, Anthony Adams, Esq.</td>
<td>Belmont, Mullingar.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Reiss, James, Esq. 7, Cromwell-road-houses, South Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Relf, Jno., Esq.</td>
<td>The Grange, Nightingale-lane, Clapham-common, S.W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Rennie, John Keith, Esq., M.A., Camb. 56, Gloucester-terrace, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1834</td>
<td>Rennie, M. B., Esq., C.B.</td>
<td>Care of James Rennie, Esq., 9, Motcomb-street, Belgrave-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Rennie, W., Esq.</td>
<td>6, Great Cumberland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>Renwick, Lieutenant, R.E.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Reuter, Julius, Baron de.</td>
<td>Kensington-palace-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Reynolds, Henry Birch, Esq.</td>
<td>Adwell, near Tetworth, Oxfordshire.</td>
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<td>Reynolds, James, Esq.</td>
<td>174, Strand, W.C.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Rice, Wm., Esq. 20, Elm-grove, Brixton-hill, S.W.; and Stanfords Geograph. Establishment, Charing-cross, S.W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Richards, Alfred, Esq.</td>
<td>Tewkesbury-lodge, Forest-hill.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Richards, Capt. F. W., R.N.</td>
<td>United Service Club; and H.M.S. 'Devastation,' Channel Squadron.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Richards, Admiral George H., F.R.S., C.B.</td>
<td>24, Warrington-crescent, Maidstone, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Richards, M. W., Esq.</td>
<td>Shore-road, S. Hackney, E.</td>
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<td>Richardson, F., Esq.</td>
<td>Juniper-hall, Mickleham, Docking.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Richardson, W. Brown, Esq.</td>
<td>Darlaston-rectory, Wednesbury, Staffordshire.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>*Richard, Major F. J.</td>
<td>10a Pall-mall East, S.W.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Richards, Edward Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>4, Connaught-place, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>*Rideout, W. J., Esq.</td>
<td>51, Charles-street, Berkeley-square, W.</td>
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<td>1844</td>
<td>Ridley, F. H., Esq. 44, Alexandra-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Ridley, George, Esq. 2, Charles-street, Berkeley-square, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Ridpath, James Lionel, Esq.</td>
<td>Devon-lawn, Wimbledon-park.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>Ridpath, Thomas Alex., Esq.</td>
<td>33, George-street, Hanover-square, W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>*Rigby, Major-General Christopher Palmer.</td>
<td>Oriental Club, W.; and 14, Mansfield-street, W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Riley, Captain Charles Henry.</td>
<td>Junior United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Rintoul, Robert, Esq.</td>
<td>Windham Club, S.W.</td>
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Ripon, Geo. Fredk. Sam., Marquis of, F.R.S. 1, Carlton-gardens, S.W.; and Studley Royal, Ripon.

1874
Ritchie, Rev. George St. Martin (Chaplain to the Forces). Aldershot.

1868
*Roberts, Charles W., Esq. Penrith-house, Epsom-road, Brixton, S.W.

1867
Roberts, Capt. E. Wynne. Nutfield-lodge, Pouchen-end, Boxmoor, Herts; and Junior Carlton Club, S.W.

1874
Robertson, A. D., Esq. 53, Queen's-gate, W.

1865
Robertson, A. Stuart, Esq., M.D. Horwich, near Bolton.

1866

1861
*Robertson, Graham Moore, Esq. 21, Cleveland-square, Hyde-park, W.

1870
*Robertson, James Nisbet, Esq. 23, Porchester-square.

1868

1863
Robertson, R. B., Esq. H.M.'s Legation, Yokohama, Japan.

1873
Robertson, Major Wheatley. 35, Queen's-gardens, W.

1870

1830
Robinson, Vice-Admiral Charles G. 30, Bloomsfield-terr., Westbourne-terr., W.

1873
Robinson, Capt. F. C. B., R.N. Junior United Service Club, S.W.

1872
Robinson, Henry, Esq., M.C.E., F.R.S. 7, Westminster-chambers, S.W.

1864
Robinson, Rev. Henry Mowld, M.A. Chichester, Essex.

1864
Robinson, H. O., Esq. 6, South-street, Finsbury, E.C.

1859

1865

1864
Robinson, John, Esq. Care of E. Street, Esq., 30, Cornhill, E.C.

1874
Robinson, John, Esq., C.E. Care of J. W. Barry, Esq., 2, Westminster-chambers, S.W.

1862
Robinson, Lient.-Col. Sir John Stephen, Bart. Arthur's Club, S.W.; and 20, Park-lane, W.

1860
Robinson, Mr. Serjeant, 8, King's-Bench-walk, Temple, E.C.; and 43, Mecklenburgh-square, W.C.

1855
Robinson, Thomas F., Esq., F.R.S. Belmont-lodge, Anerley, S.E.

1850

1872
Robinson, Wm., Esq. Colonial-office, S.W.

1870
Robinson, Hon. W. G. F., Governor of Western Australia. Care of the Colonial-office.

1830
*Rodd, James Rennell, Esq. 29, Beaumont-gardens, S.W.

1861

1873
Rogers, Major Brudenell. Care of Messrs. Richardson and Co., 13, Pall-mall, S.W.

1874
Rogers, Captain Ebenezer. Longford, Ireland.

1863
Rogers, John T., Esq. River-hill, Sevenoaks.
List of Fellows of the

Year of Election
1872 Rolleston, W. Vilett, Esq.
1861 Rollo, Lord. Dumcrieff-castle, Moffat, N.B.
1863 Rönn, M. Hermann von. Ladbrooke-lodge, Ladbrooke-square, W.
1866 Rook, Major W., M.A. Formosa, Lymington, Hants.
1871 Rooks, Geo. Arthur, Esq. 24, Lincoln's-inn-fields, W.C.
1873 Rosa, Dr. Don Manuel Gonzalez de la, M.A.E. (Professor of Philosophy, University of San Marcos, Lima.) 80, Guildford-street, Russell-sq., W.C.
1872 Rose, H. Cooper, Esq., M.D. Hampstead, N.W.
1868 Rose, Henry, Esq. 8, Porchester-square, Hyde-park, N.W.
1861 Rose, Jas. Anderson, Esq. Wandsworth, Surrey, S.W.; and 11, Salisbury-st., W.C.
1870 Rose, The Right Hon. Sir John. 18, Queen's-gate, Hyde-park, W.
1857 •Rose, Colonel Sir Wm. Anderson, Alderman, F.R.S. Carlton Club, S.W.; 63, Upper Thames-street, E.C.; and Upper Tooting, S.W.
1870 Ross, Capt. Geo. Ernest Augustus (King's Own Light Inf. Militia). Forfar-house, Cromwell-road, South Kensington, W.
1864 •Roundell, C. S., Esq. 63, Cromwell-road, South Kensington, S.W.
1862 Roupell, Robert Priolo, Esq., M.A., Q.C. J 5, Albany, W.
1839 •Rous, Vice-Admiral the Hon. Henry John. 13, Berkeley-square, W.
1874 Routledge, Edmund, Esq. 40, Clunricarde-gardens, Bayswater, W.
1872 •Row, A. V., Nursing, Esq. Daba-garden, Visagapatam, India, Care of King and Co., 65, Cornhill, E.C.
1874 Rowan, Maj.-General H. S., C.B. United Service Club, Pall-mall, S.W.
1868 2260 •Rowlands, Percy J., Esq. India-office, S.W.
1863 Rowley, Captain C., R.N. 33, Cadogan-place, S.W.
1856 Rucker, J. Anthony, Esq. Blackheath, S.E.
1874 Rumbold, Capt. H. F. W. Junior United Service Club, S.W.
1861 •Rumbold, Charles James Augustus, Esq. 5, Percival-terrace, Brighton.
1861 Rumbold, Thomas Henry, Esq. 38, Sussex-square, Brighton.
1860 Rumley, Major-General Randall, Vice-President Council of Military Education. 16, Eaton-terrace, Eaton-square, S.W.
1858 •Russell, Lord Arthur, M.P. 10, South Audley-street, W.
1869 Russell, George, Esq., M.A. Viewfield, Southfields, Wandsworth; and 16, Old Change, St. Paul's, E.C.
1830 •Russell, Jesse Watts, Esq., D.C.L., F.R.S.
1830 Russell, John, Earl, F.R.S. 37, Chesham-place, S.W.; Pembroke-lodge, Richmond, S.W.; Endleigh-house, Devonshire; and Gart-house, near Callander, N.B.
1800 Russell, Wm. Howard, Esq., LL.D. Carlton Club, S.W.
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<th>Year of Election</th>
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<th>Residence</th>
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<tr>
<td>1866</td>
<td>Rutherford, John, Esq.</td>
<td>2, Cavendish-place, Cavendish-square, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Ruxton, Captain W. Fitzherbert, R.N.</td>
<td>41, Cornwall-gardens, S.W.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Ryder, Admiral Alfred P.</td>
<td>U.S. Club, S.W.; and Ealmsde-abbey, Uppingham.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Ryder, G., Esq.</td>
<td>10, King's-Bench-walk, Temple, E.C.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Sabben, J. T., Esq., M.D.</td>
<td>Northumberland-house, Stoke Newington, N.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Sabel, Ernest E., Esq.</td>
<td>30, Clarendon-gardens, Maida-hill, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>Sadgrove, Arthur William, Esq.</td>
<td>64, Mark-lane, E.C.; and Eilham, Kent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>St. Albans, Duke of</td>
<td>4, Prince's-gate, S.W.; and Bestwood-park, Notts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1857</td>
<td>St. David's, Right Rev. Conyngham Thirlwall, Bp. of</td>
<td>Abergele-palace, Cvmarneth.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>St. Jean, Le Vicomte Ernest de Satgé</td>
<td>Malvern Wells; and Junior Athenaeum Club.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>St. John, Major Oliver Beauchamp Coventry, B.E.</td>
<td>Care of Misses. H. S. King &amp; Co., 65, Cornhill, E.C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>St. John, Spenser, Esq., British Legation, Port-au-Prince, Haiti.</td>
<td>Care of J. A. St. John, Esq., 44, St. John's-wood-terrace, St. John's-wood, N.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>Sale, Lieut. M. T., R.E.</td>
<td>St. James's-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Salloch, Colonel J. C., H.M.I. Forces</td>
<td>29, St. James's-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Salles, J. de, Esq.</td>
<td>56, Stanhope-gardens, South Kensington, W.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Salmon, Charles Spencer, Esq.</td>
<td>33, Weymouth-street, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>*Salmond, Robert, Esq.</td>
<td>Reform Club, S.W.; 14, Woodside-crescent, Glasgow; and Rankin-stone, Patras, Ayr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>Salt, Henry, Esq.</td>
<td>Egremont, Gosnold.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Salting, William Severin, Esq.</td>
<td>6, Grosvenor-gardens, S.W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>*Sandbach, Wm. Robertson, Esq.</td>
<td>10, Prince's-gate, Hyde-park, S.W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Sandeman, David George, Esq.</td>
<td>Cambridge-house, Piccadilly, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Sanderson, Rev. Edward</td>
<td>59, Conduit-street, W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>Sanford, Major Henry Aysford</td>
<td>29, Chester-street, Grosvenor-place, S.W.; and Nynehead-court, Wellington, Somerset.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Sarll, John, Esq.</td>
<td>Beauvoir-house, Holfington-park, St. Leonard's-on-Sea.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Sartoris, Alfred, Esq.</td>
<td>Abbotstown, Stow-on-the-Wold.</td>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Saumarez, Captain Thomas, R.N., C.B.</td>
<td>The First, Jersey.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Saunders, Fns., Esq.</td>
<td>6, Limes-grove, Lewisham, S.E.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Saunders, Howard, Esq.</td>
<td>7, Radnor-place, Gloucester-square, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Saunders, James Ebenezer, Esq., F.L.S., F.G.S., F.R.A.S.</td>
<td>9, Finsbury-circus; and Granville-park, Blackheath, S.E.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Saurin, Admiral E.</td>
<td>Prince's-gate, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Sawyer, Col. Charles</td>
<td>25, Queen's-gate-terrace, South Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>Schale, Vernon Rudolph, Esq.</td>
<td>20, Milton-square, Dorset-square, N.W.</td>
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<td>Schenley, Edward W. H., Esq.</td>
<td>14, Prince's-gate, S.W.</td>
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<td>Scholfield, William F., Esq.</td>
<td>Belgravia-mansions, Grosvenor-gardens, S.W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Scott, Abraham, Esq.</td>
<td>12, Farquhar-road, Upper Norwood, S.E.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Scott, Adam, Esq.</td>
<td>8, Warwick-road-west, Maidstone, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Scott, Arthur, Esq.</td>
<td>Rotherfield-park, Alton, Hants; Travellers' Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>Scott, Dugald, Esq.</td>
<td>The Moorlands, Kersal-edge, Manchester.</td>
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<td>Scott, Lord Henry</td>
<td>3, Tunney-street, Park-lane, W.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Scott, Hercules, Esq.</td>
<td>Brotherton, near Monroose, N.B.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Scott, William Cumin, Esq.</td>
<td>Mayfield-house, Blackheath-park, S.E.</td>
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<td>Scovell, George, Esq.</td>
<td>34, Grosvenor-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>Searight, Hugh Ford, Esq.</td>
<td>7, East India-avenue, E.C.</td>
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<td>Searight, James, Esq.</td>
<td>80, Lancaster-gate, W.</td>
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<td>Seaton, Colonel the Right Hon. Lord</td>
<td>D.3, Albany, W.</td>
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<td>Sedgwick, Jno. Bell, Esq.</td>
<td>1, St. Andrew's-place, Regent's-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Seroome, Edwin, Esq.</td>
<td>49, Brook-street, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>*Sericold, Charles P., Esq.</td>
<td>Brewery, Liqueurpond-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>Sewell, Charles, Esq.</td>
<td>155, Fenchurch-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Seymour, Alfred, Esq., M.P.</td>
<td>47, Eaton-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>*Seymour, Admiral F. Beauchamp, C.B.</td>
<td>Admiralty, Whitehall, S.W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Seymour, George, Esq.</td>
<td>54, Lime-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>*Seymour, Colonel W. H., C.B.</td>
<td>United Service Club, Pall-mall, S.W.</td>
</tr>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Shadwell, Lieut.-Colonel Lawrence.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>*Share, Staff-Commander James Masters, R.N.</td>
<td>Hornbrook-house, Compton, Plymouth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>*Sharp, Celia Kimber, Esq.</td>
<td>43, Tregunter-road, West Brompton, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>Sharp, Captain Cyril</td>
<td>7, Thurloe-square, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1866</td>
<td>Sharp, Henry T., Esq.</td>
<td>102, Piccadilly, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>*Sharpe, William John, Esq.</td>
<td>1, Victoria-street, Westminster, S.W.; and Norwood, Surrey, S.E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>Shaw, James V., Esq.</td>
<td>The Elms, Twickenham, S.W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>Shaw, C. Bousfield, Esq.</td>
<td>28, Charles-street, St. James's; and 2, Essex-court, Temple.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1861
Shaw, John Ralph, Esq. Arrowe-park, Birkenhead.

1870

1870 2350*Shearne, Edward, Esq. Junior Athenaeum Club, W.

1846
Sheffield, George A. F. C., Earl of, F.R.S. 20, Portland-place, W.; and Sheffield-park, Sussex.

1868
*Shelley, Captain G. Ernest. 32, Chesham-place, W.

1867

1867
Shepherd, Chas. Wm., Esq., M.A., F.R.S. Trotterscliffe, Maidstone.

1860
Sheridan, H. Brinsley, Esq. New City Club, E.C.

1863
Sheridan, Richard B., Esq., M.P. 48, Grosvenor-place, W.

1857
Sherrin, Joseph Samuel, Esq., LL.D. Ph.D. Leyton-house, Leyton-crescent, Kentish-town, N.W.

1859
*Sherwill, Lieut.-Col. W. S., F.G.S. Perth, N.B.

1858
*Shipler, Conway M., Esq. Tayford-moors, Winchester.

1868 2360*Shirley, Lionel H., Esq., C.E., &c. Windham Club, S.W.; and 9, Queen’s-gate-terrace, S.W.

1871
*Shoolbred, James, Esq. 38, Lancaster-gate, Hyde-park, W.

1873
Short, Robert, Esq. 42, Hillmarten-road, Camden-road, N.

1872
*Shuter, William, Esq. 66, Belaise-park-gardens, Pancras-street, N.W.

1856
Shuttleworth, Sir J. P. Kay, Bart. 3, Victoria-street, S.W.; and Gauthroy-hall, Burnley, Lancashire.

1869
Silk, George Chas., Esq. The Vicarage, Kensington, W.

1871
*Sills, Wm. Bernard, Esq. 19, Beaumont-gardens, S.W.

1870
Silva, Manuel, Esq. 8, Sheen-ellas, Park-road, Richmond, S.W.

1865
*Silva, Frederic, Esq. 12, Cleveland-square, Bayswater, W.

1859

1859 2370*Silver, Stephen Wm., Esq. 66, Cornhill, E.C.; and 3, York-gate, Regency-park, N.W.

1860
Sim, John Coysgame, Esq. Coombe-wood, Kingston, Surrey.

1853

1848
*Simmons, Lieut.-General Sir John L. A., R.E., K.C.B. Lieut.-Governor Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, S.E.

1866
Simms, Henry M., Esq. Tyburn-crescent, Wood-road, Sydenham-hill, S.E.

1864
Simpson, Frank, Esq. 17, Whitehall-place, S.W.

1862
Simpson, Henry Bridgeman, Esq. 44, Upper Grosvenor-street, W.

1863
*Simpson, William, Esq. 64, Lincoln’s-inn-fields, W.C.

1886

1858
List of Fellows of the

Year of
Election.
1872 2382 Skilbeck, A. Jos., Esq. 262, Upper Thames-street, E.C.
1873 Skilbeck, Jno. Hy., Esq. The Hollies, Snarebrook, E.
1866 Skinner, John E. H., Esq. 3, Dr. Johnson's-buildings, Temple, E.C.
1863 Skrine, Henry D., Esq. Warleigh-manor, near Bath.
1871 Slade, Henry, Esq. Staff-Surgeon, R.N. Army and Navy Club, S.W.; and Royal Western Yacht Club, Plymouth.
1870 Sladen, Major E. B. (Polit. Agent at the Court of H.M. the King of Burmah). Care of Messrs. Grindlay and Co., 55, Parliament-street, S.W.
1872 Smale, Sir John, K.C.B., Chief Justice, Hong-Kong. Care of Clements Smoke, Esq., 46, York-terrace, Regent's-park, N.W.
1865 Smedley, Joseph V., Esq., M.A. Oxford and Cambridge Club, S.W.
1871 Smetham, John Osborne, Esq. King's Lynn, Norfolk.
1875 Smith, B. Leigh, Esq., M.A. Oxford and Cambridge Club, Pall-mall, S.W.
1871 Smith, Major C. B. Euan, 14, St. James's-square, S.W. Care of King and Co., Cornhill, E.C.
1859 Smith, Edward, Esq. Wadham Club, S.W.
1873 Smith, Griffiths, Esq. The Grove, Highgate, N.
1865 Smith, Guildford, Esq. 63, Charing-cross, S.W.
1861 Smith, Jervoise, Esq. 47, Belgrave-square, S.W.
1861 Smith, Joseph Travers, Esq. 25, Throgmorton-street, E.C.
1857 Smith, Captain Phillip, Grenadier Guards.
1873 Smith, Dr. Porter, M.D. Shepton Mallet, Somersetshire.
1874 Smith, R. Barr, Esq. 19, Robertson-terrace, Hastings; and Torrens-park, Adelaide, S. Australia.
1868 Smith, Major Robert M., R.E., Director of the Telegraphic Establishment in Persia. Tehran.
1874 Smith, Rupert, Esq. Hart's-hill-cottage, Brierley-hill, Stafford; and The Priory, Dudley.
1841 Smith, Thomas, Esq.
1859 Smith, W. Castle, Esq. 1, Gloucester-terrace, Regent's-park, N.W.
1859 Smith, William Henry, Esq., M.P. 1, Hyde-park-street, W.
1869 Smyth, Warington, Esq., F.R.S. 92, Inverness-terrace, W.
1850 Smythe, Major-General William J., R.A., F.R.S.
1872 Smeal, William, Esq. 20, Northampton-park, Canonsbury, N.
1859 Somers, Charles, Earl. 49, Prince's-gate, S.W.; Eastnor-castle, Herefordshire; and The Priory, Reigate, Surrey.
Somerset, Capt. Leveson E. H., R.N. Care of Messrs. Chand, 3, Clifford’s-inn, Fleet-street, E.C.


*Soutey, James Lowther, Esq. Care of Messrs. Stibwell, Arundel-street, Strand.

Southwell, Thomas Arthur Joseph, Viscount. Windham Club, S.W.

Spalding, Captain H., 194th Regiment. Doved.

Spalding, Samuel, Esq. Thornleigh, Sydenham-hill, S.E.

Sparks, J. Hyde, Esq. Conservative Club, S.W.


Spencer, Admiral the Hon. J. W. S. 5, Portman-street, W.

Spencer, Walter, Esq. 28, Great Queen-street, Bloomsbury; and Cavendish Club, 307, Regent-street, W.

Spicer, Edward, Esq. 19, New Bridge-street, E.C.

*Spicer, Jas., Esq. The Harts, Woodford, Essex.

Spicer, Capt. Richard W. 69, Belgrave-road, S.W.

Spickernell, Dr. Geo. E., Principal of Eastman’s Royal Naval Establishment. Eastern-parade, Southsea.

*Spottswoode, William, Esq., F.R.S. 50, Grosvenor-place, S.W.


Spruce, Richard, Esq., PH.D. Wellburn, Castle Howard, York.

Square, William, Esq., F.R.S. 22, Portland-square, Plymouth.

Stafford, Edward W., Esq. Colonial Secretary of New Zealand. Care of Mr. J. S. Tytler, 19, Castle-street, Edinburgh.

Stanford, Edward, Esq. 6, Charing-cross, S.W.


*Stanhope, Walter Spencer, Esq. Cannon-hall, Barnsley, Yorkshire.

Stanley, Hon. E. Lyulph. 82, Harley-street, W.

Stanley, Lieut. Henry, R.N. Admiralty Survey, Melbourne. Care of Captain J. E. Davis, R.N.

*Stanley Walmsey, Esq., C.B. Care of Messrs. Cuthill, Son, and Debungs, 103, Cannon-street, E.C.

Stanton, Charles Hombrow, Esq. 65, Redcliffe-gardens, S.W.

Stanton, George, Esq. Coton-hill, Shrewbury; and Conservative Club, S.W.

Stanton, Henry, Esq. 1, River-street, Myddelton-square, E.C.

Stark, Wm. Emery, Esq. Chancellor-villa, Park-road, West Dulwich, S.E.


Statham, John Lee, Esq. 60, Wimpole-street, W.

Staveley, Major-Gen. Sir Charles, G.C.B., Commander-in-chief, Bombay. Care of Mr. H. Saunders, 24, Tichborne-street, W.; and United Service Club, S.W.
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<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>List of Fellows of the</th>
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<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>*Staveley, Miles, Esq. Old Stanley's-hall, Ripon.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Steel, William Strang, Esq. 65, Lancaster-gate, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Stening, Charles, Esq. 38, Upper Hamilton-terrace, N.W.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Stephani, Albert, Esq. (Kt. of Bederkesa), LL.D., PH.D., Secretary to Chamber of Commerce and Industry for Silesia. Troppau, Silesia. Care of the Austro-Hungarian Consulate, 29, St. Stephen's-lane, E.C.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>*Stephen, Sir George. Melbourne. Care of Mr. H. W. Ravenscroft, 7, Gray's-in-square, W.C.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Stephens, Harold, Esq. Finchley, N.W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>2460 Stephens, Thomas Wall, Esq. North-ville, Regent's-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Stephenson, B. Charles, Esq. 12, Bolton-row, Mayfair, W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Stepney, A. K. Cowell, Esq. 6, St. George's-place, Knightsbridge, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Stevens, George Richard, Esq. 2, Phillimore-terrace, Allen-street, Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1855</td>
<td>Stevens, Henry, Esq., F.S.A. 4, Trafalgar-square, W.C.</td>
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<td>1841</td>
<td>Stevenson, Thomas, Esq., F.S.A. Iver Heath, Bucks.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Steward, Major Edward H., R.E. War-office, Whitehall, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Stewart, A. J. R., Esq. 34, Wimpole-street, W.; and Ards-house, Co. Down.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>2470 Stewart, Maj. C. E., I.A., Bengal Staff Corps. 14, Sussex-udas., Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Stewart, Gilbert McLeod, Esq. 1, Westminster-chambers, S.W.</td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>*Stewart, Captain Herbert, 3rd Dragoon Guards. The Barracks, York.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Stewart, Rev. Dr. James. Loxdale, Ailsa, South Africa. Care of Robert Young, Esq., Offices of the Free Church of Scotland, Edinburgh.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>*Stewart, Major J. H. M. Shaw, Royal Madras Engineers.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Stewart, J. L., Esq., M.D., Forest Department, India.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Stewart, Robert, Esq. Port Elizabeth, Cape of Good Hope. Care of Standard Bank, 10, Clement's-lane, Lombard-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Stewart, Wm., Esq., M.D.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Stewart, Admiral Wm. Houston, C.B. 53, Warwick-square, S.W., and Admiralty, S.W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Stillwell, Henry, Esq., M.D. Moarcroft, Hillington, Uxbridge.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>2460 Stirling, Capt. Frederick H., R.N. H.M.S. 'Hero'; and United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>*Stirling, J. Carew, Esq. 9, South Eaton-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Stirling, Sir Walter, Bart. 36, Portman-square, W.</td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td>Stock, Thomas Osborne, Esq. 44, Eastbourne-terrace, W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Stocker, John Palmer, Esq. 93, Oxford-terrace, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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</table>
*Stokes, Rear-Admiral John Lort. United Service Club, S.W.; and Scothoebell, Haverfordwest, Wales.

Stone, David H., Esq., Alderman. Sydenham-hill, S.E.

Stone, Octavius, C., Esq. Stoney-gate, Leicester.

*Story, Edwin, Esq. 88, Oldfield-road, Stoke Newington, N.

Stovin, Rev. Charles F. 59, Warwick-square, S.W.

2490 Strachey, Major-General Richard, B.E., C.S.I., F.R.S. India-office, S.W.

Strange, Lieut.-Col. Alexander, F.R.S. India Store Department, Belvedere-road, Lambeth, S.E.

Stratford de Redcliffe, Stratford Canning, Viscount. 22, Grosvenor-square, W.

Straton, Rev. N. D. J. Kirkby-ashorf, Tadcaster.

Straughton, Joseph, Esq. Cockermouth, Cumberland.


*Strode, Alfred, Rowland Chetham, Esq. Dunedin, Otago, New Zealand.

Strong, F. K., Esq., K.H. Hamburg, Germany. Care of Alfred Strong, Esq., 7, Burlington-road, St. Stephen's-square, W.

Strothers, Dr. Bethel Henry. 5, Grosvenor-place, S.W.

Strutt, George H., Esq., F.R.A.S. Bridge-hill, Belper.

2500 Stuart, Lieut.-Gen. Charles. 5, Granville-place, Portland-square, W.

Stuart, Lieut.-Col. J. F. D. Crichton. 25, Wilton-crescent, Belgrave-sq., S.W.

Stuart, Right Hon. Sir John. Loch Carron, Ross-shire; and 5, Queen's-gate, Hyde-park, W.


Sturgeon, Wentworth, Esq. 14 and 15, St. SWithin's-lane, E.C.

Sturt, Henry, Esq., jun. 119, Holland-road, Kensington, W.


Sudeley, Charles G. Hanbury Tracy, Lord. 5, Bolton-row, W.; and Toddington, near Broadway, Worcester.


Sullivan, Captain T. W., C.B., R.N.

2510 Summerhayes, William, Esq., M.D.

Surridge, Rev. Henry Arthur Dillon, M.A. 21, Berners-street, W.


Sutherland, Geo., Esq. Arboretum-square, Derby.

*Sutherland, George Granville William, Duke of. F.R.S. Stafford-house, St. James’s-palace, S.W.

Sutherland, Robert, Esq. Egham-rise, Surrey.

Sutherland, Thomas, Esq. 38, Thurloe-square, S.W.


Suzuki, Kinzo (Sec. of Japanese Leg.). 9, Upper Belgrave-st., Belgrave-sq., S.W.

Swain, Edward, Esq. Three Counties Asylum, Staffield, Baldock.

2520 Swan, Major Percival. 114, Piccadilly, W.

Cheltenham, S.E.

Stone, Octavius, C., Esq. Stoney-gate, Leicester.
List of Fellows of the

1857
Swanzy, Andrew, Esq. Sevenoaks, Kent.

1856
Swinburne, Rear-Admiral Charles H., Holne, Holmswood, Henley-on-Thames.

1862
Swinburne, Comr., Sir John, Bart., R.N. Capheaton, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

1863
Swinhoe, R., Esq., H.B.M. Consul, Taiwan. 33, Carlyle-square, S.W.

1871
Syme, Henry, Esq. 60, Palace-gardens-terrace, Campden-hill, W.

1864

1852
*Syghe, Colonel Millington H., R.E. Alvercliff, Alverstoke, Hants.

1832
*Tagart, Courtenay, Esq. Rocklease Point, Durham Down, near Bristol.

1859
*Tagart, Francis, Esq. 31, Craven-hill-gardens, Hyde-park, W.

1866

1857
*Tait, Robert, Esq. 14, Queen Anne-street, W.

1861
Talbot de Malahide, James Talbot, Lord, P.H.S. Malahide Castle, Co. Dublin.

1861
Taylor, Commander A. Dundas, R.N. Care of Messrs. H. S. King and Co., 63, Cornhill, E.C.

1873
Taylor, Charles, Esq. Church-house-school, Ealing, W.

1869
Taylor, George N., Esq. National Bank, Old Broad-street, E.C.

1865
Taylor, H. L., Esq. Reform Club, S.W.; and 23, Phillimore-gardens, Kensington, W.

1873
Taylor, Jas. Banks, Esq. Thatched-house Club, St. James's, S.W.

1874

1865
Taylor, Rev. Jas. Hudson, 6, Pyrland-road, Newington-green, N.

1871
Taylour, John, Esq. 1540, The Rocks, Bath; and Booth-hall, Blackley, Lancashire.

1863
Taylour, John, Esq. Grena-lodge, Richmond.

1870
Taylor, John Fenton, Esq. 20, New-street, Spring-gardens, S.W.

1867

1854
Taylor, John Stopford, Esq., M.D. 1, Springfield, St. Anne-street, Liverpool.

1863
Taylor, Maj.-Gen. R.C.H., C.B. 16, Eaton-place, S.W.; and Carlton Club, S.W.

1873

1875
Teddle, Lieut.-Colonel William. 3, The Grove, Bolton's, South Kensington, W.

1865
Teede, Chas., Esq. 12, Granville-park, Blackheath.

1864
Temple, Sir Richard, K.C.B.

1860
Templeton, John, Esq. 24, Budge-row, E.C.

1857
Tennant, Professor James. 149, Strand, W.C.

1873
Terrazuma, Munenori (His Japanese Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister). 9, Upper Belgrave-street, Belgrave-square, S.W.

1872
Terreiro, Maximo, Esq. 88, Belaise-park-gardens, N.W.

1870
Teschemacher, Edward Fred., Esq. 1, Highbury-park-north, N.

1830
*Thatcher, Colonel R.I.C.

1874
Thomas, Chas. Evan, Esq. 98, Queen's-gate, S.W.

1863
Thomas, G., Esq.
Royal Geographical Society.

Year of
Election.

1854 Thomas, Henry Harrington, Esq. 8, Camden-crescent, Bath.

1872 Thomas, James Lewis, Esq., War-office, Horse Guards. 26, Gloucester-square, S.W. and Thatched House Club, St. James's-street, S.W.

1885 Thomas, John Hewson, Esq. East India Dept., Custom-house, E.C.


1874 Thomas, R. Gerard de V., Esq., M.A. Eghorne-house, Maidstone; and Universities Club, Jermyn-street, S.W.

1875 Thompson, John Geo., Esq., M.A. St. Mary's College, Peckham, E.C.


1869 *Thompson, Henry Yates, Esq. 32, Ennismore-gardens, S.W.

1872 Thompson, Lieut. Richard, r.e. 22, St. Mary's, Bedford.

1874 Thompson, Thomas, Esq. Care of Robert Schwears & Co., 39, Lombard-st., E.C.

1863 Thompson, James, Esq. Dunstable-house, Richmond.


1866 Thomson, John, Esq. 34, Wiltshire-road, Brixton, S.W.


1865 Thomson, W. T., Esq.

1862 *Thorne, Augustus, Esq. 4, Cullum-street, City, E.C.

1887 Thornton, Edward, Esq., c.b. Harrow.


1858 Thorold, Rev. A. W. 31, Gordon-square, W.C.


1865 *Thurburn, C. A., Esq. 16, Kensington-park-gardens, Notting-hill, W.

1864 *Thurburn, Hugh, Esq. 108, Westbourne-terrace, W.

1861 Thurlow, The Right Hon. Lord. Dunchail, Forres, N.B.


1874 Tige, Col. Fred. The Priory, Christchurch, Hants; and Travellers' Club, S.W.

1868 Tilley, Henry Arthur, Esq. Hanwell, Middlesex, W.

1872 Tinling, George, Esq. 17, Prince's-square, Bayswater, W.

1874 Tinne, J. Ernest, Esq. Briersley, Aigburth, near Liverpool.


1873 Tipping, George B., Esq. Coombe-lodge, Kingston-hill, Surrey.

1862 Todd, John, Esq. Eastcote-lodge, St. John's-park, Blackheath, S.E.
List of Fellows of the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name and Information</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1865</td>
<td>Todd, Rev. John W., D.D. <em>Tudor-hall, Forest-hill, Sydenham, S.E.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td>*Tomlin, George Taddy, Esq., F.S.A. <em>Combe-house, Bartonfields, Canterbury,</em></td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>Tomline, George, Esq. 1, <em>Carlton-house-terrace, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Torrance, John, Esq. 5, <em>Chester-place, Hyde-park-square, W.</em></td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Townsend, Commander John, R.N. 12, <em>Maccoulay-road, Clapham, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Townson, Wm. Parker, Esq., D.A. Cantab. <em>Care of Miss Townson, Ash-house, Caton, near Lancaster.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>1846</td>
<td><em>Towry, George Edward, Esq.</em></td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Towe, John Wrench, Esq. <em>Fishmongers'-hall, London-bridge, E.C.</em></td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td><em>Toby, Capt. Henry. 12, Upper Westbourne-terrace, W.</em></td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Tracy, The Hon. C. H. 11, <em>George's-street, W.</em></td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td><em>Travers, Arch, Esq. 28A, Addison-road, Kensington, W.</em></td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Tremendereere, Major-General C. W., C.B., R.E. 1, <em>Porchester-square, Baywater.</em></td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Tremlett, Rev. Francis W., M.A., D.C.L., B.D. <em>Belville-park, Hampstead, N.W.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>Trench, Captain Frederic. <em>Naval and Military Club, Piccadilly, W.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>Trestruil, Rev. Frederick. <em>St. John's-road, Newport, Isle of Wight.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>Treuenfeld, Richard von F., Esq. 12, <em>Queen Anne's-gate, Westminster, S.W.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>Trevelyan, Sir Charles Edward, Bart. E.C.B. 8, <em>Grosvenor-crescent, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Trimmer, Edmund, Esq. 41, <em>Botolph-lane, E.C.</em></td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Tritton, Joseph Herbert, Esq. 54, <em>Lombard-street, E.C.</em></td>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Trivet, Captain John Fredk., R.N.R. <em>The Homestead, Hackney-common, N.E.</em></td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Trotter, Capt. Henry, R.E. <em>Care of Messrs. Richardson, 23, Cornhill, E.C.</em></td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Trotter, Captain J. Moubray. <em>Naval and Military Club, Piccadilly, W.</em></td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Trotter, William, Esq. 11, <em>Hertford-street, Mayfair, W.</em></td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Trutch, J.W., Esq. (Chief Commissioner of Lands and Works). <em>British Columbia.</em></td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Tryon, Captain George, R.N., C.B. <em>Army and Navy Club, S.W.</em></td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Tuckett, Francis Fox, Esq. <em>Frencheay, near Bristol.</em></td>
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<td>1835</td>
<td>*Tuckett, Frederick, Esq. 4, <em>Mortimer-street, Cavendish-square, W.</em></td>
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<td>1865</td>
<td>Tuckett, Philip D., Esq. <em>Southwood-lawn, Highgate, N.</em></td>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Tudor, Edward Owen, Esq., F.S.A. 1, <em>Portugal-street, Grosvenor-square, W.</em></td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Tudor, Henry, Esq. 12, <em>Portland-place, W.</em></td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td><em>Turnbull, George, Esq., C.B., F.R.A.S. 23, Cornwall-gardens, South Kensington, W.</em></td>
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<td>1834</td>
<td><em>Turnbull, Rev. Thomas Smith, F.R.S. University Club, S.W.;</em> and <em>Blofield, Norfolk.</em></td>
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Year of
Election.

1873  Turner, Hon. George.
1874  Turner, H. G., Esq. Madras Civil Service 14, St. James's-square, S.W.
1874  Turner, Jos. Edward, Esq. 30, King-street, Cheapside, E.C.
1863  Turner, Thomas, Esq. Guy's-hospital, Southwark, S.E.
1867  Tweedie, Captain Michael, R.A. Woolwich.
1864  *Twentyman, A. C., Esq. Castlecroft, near Wolverhampton.
1863  Twentyman, William H., Esq. Rauceworth, St. John's-wood-park, N.W.
1874  Twite, Charles, Esq. 5, Victoria-street, S.W.
1858  Twyford, Captain A. W., 21st Hussars. Resident Commissioner, H.M.’s Convict Prisons, British Guiana. Care of A. J. Murray, Esq., 7, Whitehall-place, S.W.; and Reform Club, S.W.
1862  *Tyler, George, Esq. 24, Holloway-place, Holloway-road, N.
1873  Tyler, W. James, Esq. West-hill, Sydenham, Kent.
1859  Tylner, Colonel W. Fraser. Aldowrie, Inverness.
1869  Underdown, E. M. Esq., 3, King’s-Bench-walk, Temple, E.C.
1862  Underhill, Edward Bean, Esq., LL.D. Derwent-lodge, Thurlow-road, Hampstead, N.W.
1861  2650 Ussher, John, Esq. Arthur’s Club, St. James’s-street, S.W.

1844  *Vacher, George, Esq. Manor-house, Teddington.
1874  Valentine, William J., Esq. Homedale-house, Gypsy-hill, Upper Norwood; and 18, Cornhill, E.C.
1872  *Valentin, James R., Esq. 55, Cow-cross, E.C.
1862  *Vander Byl, P. G., Esq. 126, Harley-street, W.
1856  *Vaughan, James, Esq., F.R.C.S. Bulith, Breconshire.
1852  *Vavasour, Sir Henry M., Bart. Dane End, Ware, Herts.
1855  Vavasseur, James, Esq. Knockholt, near Sevenoaks, Kent.
1871  Vereker, Lieut-Col. the Hon. Chas. Smyth. The Avenue, Beaulah-hill, S.E.
1863  2650*Vereker, The Hon. H. P., LL.D., H.M. Consul at Charante. 1, Portman-square, W.
1837  *Verney, Sir Harry C., Bart. F.R.A.S. Travellers’ Club, S.W.; and 32, South-street, W.
1837  Verrey, Charles, Esq.
Year of Election

1852
Verulam, James Walter, Earl of. Gorhambury, near St. Albans; Barry-hill, Surrey; and Messing-hall, Essex.

1865
Vile, Thomas, Esq. 75, Oxford-terrace, W.

1874
*Vincent, Capt. Chas. (late N.) 231, Cornwall-road, Notting-hill, W.

1873
Vincent, Capt. Charles Edward Howard. Royal United Service Institution, Whitehall-yard, S.W.

1857
Vincent, John, Esq. 7, Granville-park, Blackheath, S.E.


1871

1858

1874
Viney, Rev. Josiah. Fernwood, Highgate, N.

1872
Vivian, Hon. H. Crepigny. Foreign-office, S.W.

1863
Vivian, Major Quintus. 17, Cheam-street, Belgrave-square, S.W.

1863
*Vyvyan, Sir Richard Rawlinson, Bart., F.R.S. Trelowarren, Cornwall.

1864
Wade, R. B., Esq. 13, Seymour-street, Portman-square, W.

1873

1873
*Wagner, Henry, Esq., M.A. 16, King-street, St. James's, S.W.

1853
2680*Wagstaff, William Raester, Esq., M.D., M.A.

1869
Waite, Charles, Esq., L.L.D., Principal of St. John's College. Weighton-road, South Penge-park, S.E.

1863
Waite, Henry, Esq. 3, Victoria-street, Pimlico, S.W.

1867
*Waite, Rev. John.

1874
Walburn, Edmund, Esq., M.A., Principal of Grosvenor College. 366, Brixton-road, S.W.

1871
Wakley, Thos. Finsbury Septimus, Esq., C.E. College-terrace, Guernsey.

1873
*Walsh, Lionel N., Esq. 66, Louvain-square, S.W.

1874

1870

1862
Walker, Major-General C. P. Beauchamp, C.M. 2, Cranley-place, Onslow-square, S.W.; and United Service Club, S.W.

1872
169*Walker, Capt. Campbell, Madras Staff Corps. The Lawn, Esher.

1861
Walker, Edward Henry, Esq., Consul at Cagliari. Care of Messrs. Drummond.

1863
*Walker, Frederick John, Esq. The Priory, Bathwick, Bath.

1859
*Walker, Colonel James T., F.R.S., Royal Engineers. Supt. Gt. Trig. Survey of India. Dehra Doon, India. Care of Messrs. H. S. King and Co., Pall-mall, S.W.; and 17, Queensberry-place, Cornwall-road, South Kensington, S.W.

1873
Walker, John, Esq. 15, Loughborough-road, North Brixton.

1861
*Walker, John, Esq.

1858
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<th>Year of Election</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address or Details</th>
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<td>1871</td>
<td>Walker, Capt. J. B.</td>
<td>East Bank, Qxton, Birkenhead; and Old Colaba, near Bombay, West Africa.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Walker, R. B. N., Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Mr. Bilson, 38, South Castle-street, Liverpool.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Walker, T. F. W., Esq.</td>
<td>6, Brock-street, Bath; and Athenaeum Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Walker, William, Esq., F.R.A.</td>
<td>48, Hilldrop-road, Tusnell-park, N.</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Wallace, Alfred Russell, Esq.</td>
<td>The Dell, Grays, Essex.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Waller, Edmund, Esq.</td>
<td>Hoe-street, Walthamstow, Ec.</td>
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<td>Wallich, George C., Esq., M.D.</td>
<td>Terrace-house, St. George's-terrace, Horne-bay.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Walpole, the Hon. F., M.P.</td>
<td>4, Dean-street, Park-lane, W.; and Rainthorpe-hall, Long Stratton, Norfolk.</td>
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<td>Walpole, Rt. Hon. Spencer, M.P., F.R.S.</td>
<td>109, Eaton-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>Walter, Henry Fraser, Esq.</td>
<td>Papplewick-hall, near Nottingham.</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>*Waltham, Edward, Esq.</td>
<td>Watcombe-house, Stockwell-green, S.W.</td>
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<td>Walton, J. W., Esq.</td>
<td>26, Savile-row, W.</td>
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<td>Walton, R. G., Esq., C.E.</td>
<td>Bombay.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Ward, Edwin, Esq., F.R.S.</td>
<td>York-house, 69, Avenue-road, St. John's-wood, N.W.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>*Ward, George, Esq.</td>
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<td>Ward, Admiral J. Hamilton.</td>
<td>Oakfield, Wimbledon-park, S.W.</td>
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<td>Ward, Jno., Esq.</td>
<td>6, Ulsmot-terrace, Belfast.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Wardlaw, John, Esq.</td>
<td>44, Prince's-gardens, Hyde-park, S.W.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Warner, E., Esq.</td>
<td>49, Grosvenor-place, S.W.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Warre, Arthur B., Esq.</td>
<td>109, Onslow-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>Warre, Rev. Edmond, M.A.</td>
<td>Eton College.</td>
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<td>Warre, Major-General H. J., C.B.</td>
<td>United Service Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Warren, Capt. Charles, R.E.</td>
<td>School of Gunnery, Shoeburyness.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Warren, Charles, Esq.</td>
<td>17, Hanover-street, Peckham, S.E.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>Waterhouse, George Marsden, Esq.</td>
<td>Care of Measce, Morrison and Co., 4, French-church-street, E.C.</td>
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Watson, James, Esq. 24, Endleigh-street, W.C.

Watson, Sir James, Lord Provost of Glasgow. 9, Woodside-terrace, Glasgow.

Watson, James, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. Langley-house, Langley, Bucks.

Waton, John Harrison, Esq. 28, Queensborough-terrace, Kensington-gardens, W.

Watson, Robert, Esq. Falcoott-house, North-hill, Highgate, N.

Watson, Robert Spence, Esq. Moss Craft, Gateshead-on-Tyne.


Watson, Wm. Bryce, Esq. 5, Lime-street-square, E.C.; and 29, Duke-street, St. James's, S.W.

Watt, Robert, Esq., C.E. Ashley-avenue, Belfast.

Watts, H. Cecil, Esq. 15, Randolph-road, Maids-hill, W.

Watts, John, Esq. Over Court, near Bristol.

*Waugh, Maj.-General Sir Andrew Scott, Bengal Engineers, F.R.S., late Surveyor-General and Superintendent Great Trig. Survey. Athenæum Club, S.W.; and 7, Petersham-terrace, Queen's-gate-gardens, South Kensington, S.W.

Waugh, Francis Gledstanes, Esq., M.A. Oxford and Cambridge Club, Pall-mall, S.W.

Wayte, Rev. Wm., M.A. Eton College.


*Webb, William Frederick, Esq. Novestad Abbey, Notts; and Army and Navy Club, S.W.

*Webber-Smith, Major-General James. 14, Cambridge-square, Hyde-park, W.

Webster, Alphonsus, Esq. 44, Mecklenburgh-square, W.C.

Webster, E., Esq. North-lodge, Ealing, W.

Webster, George, Esq., M.D., J.P. Dukeich, S.E.

Webster, George, Esq. 40, Finsbury-circus, E.C.

Webster, James Hume, Esq. Keith-lodge, Upper Norwood.

Wedd, George, Esq. 51, Queen's-gardens, Hyde-park, W.


Weise, Jno., Esq. 103, St. George's-road, Pimlico, S.W.

Weiss, Foveaux, Esq. 33, Chester-terrace, Regent's-park, N.W.

Weller, Edward, Esq. 34, Red-lion-square, W.C.

Welling, Henry, Esq. 44, Thistle-grove, South Kensington, W.


Wells, J. C., Esq. Southborough, Bickley, Kent.
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<th>Year of Election</th>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Wells, Sir Mordaunt, late Chief Puisme Judge, Bengal. 107, Victoria-street, S.W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Wells, William, Esq. 22, Bruton-street, W.; and Redleaf, Penshurst, Kent.</td>
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<td>Wentworth, William Charles, Esq.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>West, Lieut.-Colonel J. Temple.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>West, William Nowell, Esq. 30, Montagu-street, Russell-square, W.C.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Westendarp, Charles H., Esq. 51, Lansdowne-road, Kensington-park, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Western, W. T., Esq. 11, Montague-villas, Richmond, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863 2780</td>
<td>Westlake, John, Esq. 16, Oxford-square, W.</td>
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<td>Westmacott, Arthur, Esq. Athenæum Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>Westmacott, E. Vesey, Esq.</td>
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<td>Weston, Alex. Anderdon, Esq., M.A. 74, Queen's-gate, W.</td>
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<td>Westwood, John, Esq. 24, Coleman-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>Weyland, John, Esq., F.R.S. Woodrising-hall, Norfolk.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Wharncliffe, Lord. 15, Curzon-street, W.</td>
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<td>Wharton, Rev. J. C. Junior Athenæum Club, Piccadilly, W.</td>
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<td>Wharton, Robert, Esq. 131, Harley-street, W.</td>
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<td>1858</td>
<td>Whistley, G. W., Esq. 150, Leadenhall-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1869 2790</td>
<td>Whitchelaw, Rev. James Shearer. 7, Crowland-terrace, Church-road, Islington, N.</td>
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<td>1853</td>
<td>*Whinfield, Edward Wrey, Esq., B.A. Severn-grange, Worcesters.</td>
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<td>1839</td>
<td>*Whishaw, James, Esq., F.S.A. 32, Harewood-square, N.W.</td>
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<td>Whitaker, Thomas Stephen, Esq. Everthorpe-hall, East Yorkshire; and Conservative Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>White, Arthur D., Esq., M.D. 56, Chancery-lane, W.C.</td>
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<td>White, Francis W., Esq. Niasgo, China. Care of H. C. Batchelor, Esq., 2 King William-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>White, Robert Owen, Esq. The Priory, Lewisham, S.E.</td>
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<td>1866 1800</td>
<td>White, W. A., Esq., H.M. Consul, Dantzig. Care of G. C. Roundell, Esq., Librarian's Dept., Foreign-office, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>*White, William O., Esq. 10, Lime-st., E.C.; and Barnsfield, near Dartford, Kent.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>*Whitehead, Chas., Esq., F.S.A. Barming-house, Maidstone.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Whitehead, Colonel F. George. 84, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Whitehouse, William Matthew Mills, Esq. 48, Chepstow-place, Baywater, W.; and Hardweck-house, Studley, Warwickshire.</td>
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<td>Year of Elevation</td>
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<td>Whymper, Edward, Esq.</td>
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<td>Whyte, M. B., Esq.</td>
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<td>Whyte, W. Anthony, Esq.</td>
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<td>Whytt, Ebenezer, Esq.</td>
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<td>Whytt, P. Falconer, Esq.</td>
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<td>Wilder, Frederick, Esq.</td>
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<td>Wilkinson, J. E., Esq.</td>
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<td>Wilkinson, Alfred, Esq.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>*Wilkinson, Major A. Eastfield, B.A.</td>
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<td>Wilkinson, Frederick E., Esq., M.D.</td>
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<td>Wilkinson, Dr. G.</td>
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<td>*Williams, John Anderson, Esq.</td>
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<td>Wilems, Edouard Heuri Léonard, Esq.</td>
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<td>Williams, Frederick G. A., Esq.</td>
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<td>Williams, John Robert, Esq.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Williams, Major-General Sir. Wm. F., Bart., K.C.B., D.C.L., Commander-in-Chief, Canada.</td>
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<td>Williams, W. Ebys, Esq., M.D.</td>
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<td>Willoughby, Henry W., Esq.</td>
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<td>*Willis, Colonel G. H. S., C.B.</td>
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<td>Wills, Peter Turner, Esq.</td>
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<td>Wills, William Henry, Esq., J.P.</td>
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<td>Wilson, Alexander, Esq.</td>
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<td>Wilson, Major Charles William, R.E.</td>
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<td>Wilson, E., Esq.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Wilson, John Peter, Esq.</td>
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<td>Year of Election</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Wilson, Robert B. W., Esq. 3, Beaumont-gardens, W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Wilson, Robert Doble, Esq. 15, Green-street, Grosvenor-square, W.</td>
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<td>Wilson, Samuel King, Esq. 3, Portland-terrace, Regents-park, N.W.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Wilson, Thomas, Esq. 38, De Beauvoir-road, Kingsland, N.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Wilson, Rev. T. Given, R.A. 23, Wynell-road, Forcet-hill, S.E.</td>
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<td>Wilson, Captain Thomas, R.N.</td>
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<td>Wilson, William Thomas, Esq. Deutz, near Cologne.</td>
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<td>Wiltshire, Rev. Thomas, M.A., F.G.S., F.L.S. 25, Granville-park, Lewisham, S.E.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Winchester, C. A., Esq. Oriental Club, W.</td>
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<td>Windram, James, Esq. (Banker). 80, King William-street, E.C.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Wingate, T. F., Esq. 18, Albion-street, Hyde-park-square, W.</td>
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<td>Wislau, Eugene Henry, Esq. War-office, Pall-mall, S.W.</td>
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<td>Wiseman, James, Esq. 1, Orme-square, Baywater, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Wiseman, Commr. Sir W., Bart., R.N. 88, Belgrave-road, S.W.; and Lagos, W. Africa. Care of Mice, Case and Loundensack, 1, James-street, Adelphi, W.C.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Wodehouse, J. H., Esq., H.M.'s Commissioner and Consul-General for the Sandwich Islands.</td>
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<td>Wodehouse, His Excellency Sir Phillip, K.C.B., Governor of Bombay. Care of India-office, S.W.</td>
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<td>Woff, Sir Henry Drummond, K.C.M.G., M.P. 15, Rutland-gate, S.W.; and Athenaeum Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Wonnacott, Jno., Esq., F.G.S. &amp;c. 15, Haddington-road, Stoke, Devonport.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>Wood, Captain Alexander (Bombay Staff Corps). Heath-bridge, Abbey-wood, Kent, S.E.; and 14, St. James's-square, S.W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Wood, Chas. Malcolm, Esq. Heath-bridge, Abbey Wood, Kent; and Junior Athenaeum Club, S.W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Wood, Henry, Esq. 10, Cleveland-square, Hyde-park, W.</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Wood, Captain T. P. Holly-bank, Rushall, Tunbridge-wells.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>Wood, Walter, Esq. 3, Clarence-road, Finsbury-park, N.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>Woodfield, Major H. J. Plumridge. 44, Charing-cross, S.W.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Woodfield, Mathew, Esq., M.I.C.E. General Colonial Manager, Cape Copper Mining Co., Namaqualand, Cape of Good Hope. 43, Ludbrooke-grave-road, Notting-hill, W.</td>
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<td>1873</td>
<td>Woodroffe, John W. Allen, Esq. 14, Thurlow-road, Hampstead, N.W.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Woods, Samuel, Esq. Mickleham, near Dorking, Surrey.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Woolcott, George, Esq. 78, Palace-gardens-terrace, Kensington, W.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Worms, Baron George de. 17, Park-crescent, Portland-place, W.</td>
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<td>1856</td>
<td>Worthington, J. Hall, Esq. Alton-hill, Oxton, near Birkenhead.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Worthington, Richard, Esq. 7, Champion-park, Denmark-hill, S.E.</td>
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<td>Year of Election</td>
<td>Name</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Wotton, William G., Esq., M.D.</td>
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<td>1839</td>
<td>Wyld, James, Esq.</td>
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<td>1863</td>
<td>Wylde, W. H., Esq.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Wythes, George Edward, Esq.</td>
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<td>1869</td>
<td>Yardley, Sir William</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>Yeats, John, Esq., LL.D.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Yorks, Lieut.-General Sir Charles, K.C.B.</td>
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<td>1857</td>
<td>*Young, Allen, Esq.</td>
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<td>1838</td>
<td>*Young, Charles Baring, Esq.</td>
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<td>1874</td>
<td>*Young, Charles Edward Baring, Esq.</td>
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<td>1830</td>
<td>*Young, James, Esq.</td>
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<td>2893</td>
<td>Zwecker, J. B., Esq.</td>
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</table>
NAMES OF INDIVIDUALS

TO WHOM

THE ROYAL PREMIUMS AND OTHER TESTIMONIALS
HAVE BEEN AWARDED.

1832.—Mr. Richard Lander—Royal Medal—for the discovery of the course of the River Niger or Quorra, and its outlet in the Gulf of Benin.

1833.—Mr. John Biscoe—Royal Medal—for the discovery of the land now named “Enderby Land” and “Graham Land,” in the Antarctic Ocean.

1834.—Captain Sir John Ross, R.N.—Royal Medal—for discovery in the Arctic Regions of America.

1835.—Sir Alexander Burnes—Royal Medal—for the navigation of the River Indus, and a journey by Balkh and Bokhara across Central Asia.

1836.—Captain Sir George Back, R.N.—Royal Medal—for the discovery of the Great Fish River, and its navigation to the sea on the Arctic Coast of America.

1837.—Captain Robert FitzRoy, R.N.—Royal Medal—for the survey of the Shores of Patagonia, Chile, and Peru, in South America.

1838.—Colonel Chesney, R.A.—Royal Medal—for the general conduct of the “Euphrates Expedition” in 1835-6, and for accessions to the geography of Syria, Mesopotamia, and the Delta of Susiana.

1839.—Mr. Thomas Simpson—Founder’s Medal—for the discovery and tracing, in 1837 and 1838, of about 300 miles of the Arctic shores of America.

Dr. Edward Ruppell—Patron’s Medal—for his travels and researches in Nubia, Kordofán, Arabia, and Abyssinia.

1840.—Col. H. C. Rawlinson, R.I.C.—Founder’s Medal—for his travels and researches in Susiana and Persian Kurdistán, and for the light thrown by him on the comparative geography of Western Asia.

Sir R. H. Schomburgk—Patron’s Medal—for his travels and researches during the years 1835-9 in the colony of British Guayana, and in the adjacent parts of South America.

1841.—Lieut. Rapier, R.N.—Founder’s Medal—for the publication of his work on ‘Navigation and Nautical Astronomy.’


1842.—Captain Sir James Clark Ross, R.N.—Founder’s Medal—for his discoveries in the Antarctic Ocean.

Rev. Dr. E. Robinson, of New York—Patron’s Medal—for his work entitled ‘Biblical Researches in Palestine.’

1843.—Mr. Edward John Eyre—Founder’s Medal—for his explorations in Australia.

Lieut. J. F. A. Symonds, R.E.—Patron’s Medal—for his survey in Palestine, and levels across the country to the Dead Sea.
1844.—Mr. W. J. Hamilton—Founder's Medal—for his researches in Asia Minor.
Prof. Adolph Erman—Patron's Medal—for his extensive geographical labours.

1845.—Dr. Beke—Founder's Medal—for his extensive explorations in Abyssinia.
M. Charles Ritter—Patron's Medal—for his important geographical works.

1846.—Count P. E. de Strzelecki—Founder's Medal—for his explorations and discoveries in the South-Eastern portion of Australia, and in Van Diemen's Land.
Professor A. Th. Middendorff—Patron's Medal—for his extensive explorations and discoveries in Northern and Eastern Siberia.

1847.—Captain Charles Sturt—Founder's Medal—for his various and extensive explorations in Australia.
Dr. Ludwig Leichhardt—Patron's Medal—for a journey performed from Moreton Bay to Port Essington.

1848.—Sir James Brooke, Rajah of Sarawak and Governor of Labuan—Founder's Medal—for his expedition to Borneo.
Captain Charles Wilkes, U.S.N.—Patron's Medal—for his Voyage of Discovery in the S. Hemisphere and in the Antarctic Regions, in the years 1838-42.

1849.—Austen H. Layard, Esq., D.C.L., M.P.—Founder's Medal—for his contributions to Asiatic geography, researches in Mesopotamia, and discoveries of the remains of Nineveh.
Baron Ch. Hügel—Patron's Medal—for his explorations of Cashmere and surrounding countries, communicated in his work entitled 'Kashmir und das Reich der Siek.'

1850.—Col. John Ch. Fremont—Patron's Medal—for his successful explorations of the Rocky Mountains and California; and for his numerous Discoveries and Astronomical Observations.
The Rev. David Livingstone, of Kolobeng—a Chronometer Watch—for his successful explorations of South Africa.

1851.—Dr. George Wallin, of Finland—25 Guineas—for his Travels in Arabia.
Mr. Thomas Brunner—25 Guineas—for his explorations in the Middle Island of New Zealand.

1852.—Dr. John Rae—Founder's Medal—for his survey of Boothia and of the Coasts of Wollaston and Victoria Lands.
Captain Henry Strachey—Patron's Medal—for his Surveys in Western Tibet.

1853.—Mr. Francis Galton—Founder's Medal—for his explorations in Southern Africa.

Captain Robert J. M. McClure, R.N.—Patron's Medal—for his discovery of the North-West Passage.

1855.—The Rev. David Livingstone, M.D., &c.—Patron's Medal—for his Scientific Explorations in Central Africa.
Mr. Charles J. Anderson—a Set of Surveying Instruments—for his Travels in South-Western Africa.
Award of the Royal Premiums.

1856.—ELISHA KENT KANE, M.D.—Founder’s Medal—for his discoveries in the Polar Regions.

HEINRICH BAETH, PHIL. DR.—Patron’s Medal—for his explorations in Central Africa.

Corporal J. F. CHURCH, of the Royal Engineers—a Watch and Chain—for his scientific observations while attached to the Mission in Central Africa.

1857.—Mr. AUGUSTUS C. GREGORY—Founder’s Medal—for his explorations in Western and Northern Australia.

Lieut.-Col. ANDREW SCOTT WAUGH, Bengal Engineers—Patron’s Medal—for the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India.

1858.—Captain RICHARD COLLINSON, R.N.—Founder’s Medal—for his Discoveries in the Arctic Regions.

1858.—Prof. ALEX. DALLAS BACHE, Superintendent U. S. Coast Survey—Patron’s Medal—for his extensive Surveys of America.

1859.—Captain RICHARD F. BURTON—Founder’s Medal—for his Explorations in Eastern Central Africa.

Captain JOHN PALLISER—Patron’s Medal—for his explorations in British North America and the Rocky Mountains.

Mr. JOHN MACDOUALL STUART—a Gold Watch—for his Discoveries in South and Central Australia.

1860.—Lady FRANKLIN—Founder’s Medal—in commemoration of the discoveries of Sir J. Franklin.

Captain Sir F. LEOPOLD MCCINTOCK, R.N.—Patron’s Medal—for his Discoveries in the Arctic Regions.


Mr. JOHN MACDOUALL STUART—Patron’s Medal—for his Explorations in the Interior of Australia.

1862.—Mr. ROBERT O’HARA BURKE—Founder’s Medal—for his Explorations in Australia.

Captain THOMAS BLAKISTON—Patron’s Medal—for his survey of the River Yang-tsze-kiang.

Mr. JOHN KING—a Gold Watch—for his meritorious conduct while attached to the Expedition under Mr. R. O’Hara Burke.

1863.—Mr. FRANK T. GREGORY—Founder’s Medal—for his explorations in Western Australia.

Mr. JOHN ARROWSMITH—Patron’s Medal—for the very important services he has rendered to Geographical Science.

Mr. WILLIAM LANDSBOROUGH—a Gold Watch—for successful Explorations in Australia.

Mr. JOHN M’KINLAY—a Gold Watch—for successful Explorations in Australia.

Mr. FREDERICK WALKER—a Gold Watch—for successful Explorations in Australia.

1864.—Captain J. A. GRANT—Patron’s Medal—for his journey from Zanzibar across Eastern Equatorial Africa to Egypt, in company with Captain Speke.

BARON C. VON DER DECKEN—Founder’s Medal—for his two Geographical Surveys of the lofty Mountains of Kilima-njaro.

Rev. W. GIFFORD PALGRAVE—the sum of 25 Guineas—for the purchase of a Chronometer or other Testimonial, for his adventurous Journey in and across Arabia.

1865.—Captain F. G. MONTGOMERIE, R.E.—Founder’s Medal—for his Trigonometrical Survey of North-West India.

Mr. S. W. BAKER—Patron’s Medal—for his relief of Captz. Speke and
Award of the Royal Premiums.

Grant, and his endeavour to complete the discoveries of those travellers.

Dr. A. VáMÉéY—the sum of 40 Pounds—for his Travels in Central Asia.

1866.—Dr. THOMAS THOMSON, M.D.—Founder's Medal—for his Researches in the Western Himalayas and Thibet.

Mr. W. CHANDLASS—Patron's Medal—for his Survey of the River Purús.

M. P. B. DU CHAILLU—the sum of 100 Guineas—for his Astronomical Observations in the Interior of Western Equatorial Africa.

MOOLA ABDUL MEJID—a Gold Watch—for his Explorations over the Pamir Steppe, &c.

1867.—Admiral ALEXIS BOUTAKOFF—Founder's Medal—for being the first to launch and navigate ships in the Sea of Aral.

Dr. ISAAC L. HAYES—Patron's Medal—for his memorable expedition in 1860-61 towards the open Polar Sea.

1868.—Dr. AUGUSTUS PETERMANN—Founder's Medal—for his zealous and enlightened services as a writer and cartographer in advancing Geographical Science.

Mr. GERHARD ROLSF—Patron's Medal—for his extensive and important travels in the interior of Northern Africa.

The PUNDIT employed by Captain T. G. Montgomery—a Gold Watch—for his route survey from Lake Mansarowar to Lhasa, in Great Thibet.

EDUCATIONAL PRIZE:

Mr. JOHN WILSON—the sum of Five Pounds—for successful competition in Geography at the Society of Arts examination.

1869.—Professor A. E. NORDENSKJOLD—Founder’s Medal—for the leading part he took in the recent Swedish Expeditions in the North Polar Region.

MRS. MARY SOMERVILLE—Patron's Medal—in recognition of the able works published by her, which have largely benefited Geographical Science.

SCHOOLS' PRIZE MEDALS:

Political Geography.—HY. G. RICHMOND, Liverpool College (Gold Medal).

JAS. DEARDEN WILDE, Manchester Grammar School (Bronze Medal).

Physical Geography.—WM. GRUNDY, Rossall School (Gold Medal).

GEO. WM. GENT, Rossall School (Bronze Medal).

EDUCATIONAL PRIZE:

Mr. JOHN KIDNEY—the sum of Five Pounds—for successful competition in Geography at the Society of Arts examination.

1870.—Lieutenant FRAS, GARNIER (of the French Imperial Navy)—Patron's Medal—for his survey of the course of the great Cambodian River during the years 1866-8.

MR. GEORGE W. HAYWARD—Founder's Medal—for his explorations in Eastern Turkistan.

SCHOOLS' PRIZE MEDALS:

Political Geography.—GEO. WM. GENT, Rossall School (Gold Medal).

JAS. HY. COLLINS, Liverpool College (Bronze Medal).

Physical Geography.—GEO. GREY BUTLER, Liverpool College (Gold Medal).

MARTIN STEWART, Rossall School (Bronze Medal).

EDUCATIONAL PRIZE:

Mr. THOMAS RICHARD CLARKE—the sum of Five Pounds—for successful competition in Geography at the Society of Arts examination.

1871. SIR RODERICK I. MURCHISON, Bart.—Founder's Medal—in recognition
of the eminent services he has rendered to Geography during his long connection with the Society.

A. Keith Johnston, Ph. D.—Patron’s Medal—for his long-continued and successful services in advancing Geography, and especially for his merit in carrying out his scheme of Physical Atlases.

Schools’ Prize Medals:—
Political Geography.—Geo. Hogben, University School, Nottingham (Gold Medal).
Richd. Naylor Arkle, Liverpool College (Bronze Medal).
Physical Geography.—Daniel McAlister, Liverpool Institute (Gold Medal).
Wm. Gershom Collingwood, Liverpool College (Bronze Medal).

Educational Prize:—
Mr. John Armstrong—the sum of Five Pounds—for successful competition in Geography at the Society of Arts examination.

1872.—Colonel Hy. Yule, C.B.—Founder’s Medal—for the eminent services he has rendered to Geography in the publication of his three great works, ‘A Mission to the Court of Ava,’ ‘Cathay, and the Way Thither,’ and ‘Marco Polo.’

Mr. Robert Berkeley Shaw.—Patron’s Medal—for his Journeys in Eastern Turkestan, and for his extensive series of Astronomical and Hydrometrical Observations, which have enabled us to fix the longitude of Yarkand, and have given us, for the first time, the basis of a new delineation of the countries between Leh and Kashgar.

Lieut. G. C. Mustiers, R.N.—A Gold Watch—for his adventurous Journey in Patagonia, through 960 miles of latitude, of which 780 were previously unknown to Europeans.

Karl Mauch—the sum of Twenty-five Pounds in acknowledgment of the zeal and ability with which he has devoted himself, for a series of years, to the Exploration of South-Eastern Africa.

Schools’ Prize Medals:—
Physical Geography.—S. E. Spring Rice, Eton College (Gold Medal).
A. S. Butler, Liverpool College (Bronze Medal).
Political Geography.—W. G. Collingwood, Liverpool College (Gold Medal).
W. C. Graham, Eton College (Bronze Medal).

Educational Prize:—
Mr. Geo. M. Thomas—the sum of Five Pounds—for successful competition in Geography at the Society of Arts Examination.

1873.—Mr. N. Elyas.—Founder’s Medal—for his survey of the Yellow River of China, in 1868; and for his recent journey through Western Mongolia.

Mr. H. M. Stanley.—Patron’s Medal—for his discovery and relief of Dr. Livingstone.

Mr. Thomas Baines.—A Gold Watch—for his long-continued services to Geography, and especially for his journeys in South-Western and South-Eastern Africa.

Captain Carlessen.—A Gold Watch—for his discoveries in the Arctic Seas, and for having circumnavigated the Spitzbergen as well as the Nova Zembla groups.

Schools’ Prize Medals:—
Physical Geography.—W. C. Hudson, Liverpool College (Gold Medal).
W. A. Forbes, Winchester College (Bronze Medal).
Political Geography.—S. E. Spring Rice, Eton College (Gold Medal).
A. T. Nutt, University College School (Bronze Medal).
1874.—Dr. GEORG SCHWEINFURTH.—Founder’s Medal—for his discovery of the Uelle River, beyond the South-western limits of the Nile basin; and for his admirable work, ‘The Heart of Africa,’ in which he has recorded the results of his travels.

Colonel P. EGERTON WARBURTON.—Patron’s Medal—for his journey across the previously unknown Western Interior of Australia; from Alice Springs, on the line of overland telegraph, to the West Coast near De Grey River.

SCHOOLS’ PRIZE MEDALS:

Physical Geography.—LOUIS WESTON, City of London School (Gold Medal).
FRANCIS CHARLES MONTAGUE, University College School (Bronze Medal).

Political Geography.—WILLIAM HARRY TURTON, Clifton College, Bristol (Gold Medal).
LIONEL JACOB, City of London School (Bronze Medal).
PRESENTATION

OF THE

ROYAL AND OTHER AWARDS.

(At the Anniversary Meeting, June 22nd, 1874.)

ROYAL MEDALS.

The Founder's Gold Medal for the promotion of Geographical Science and Discovery was awarded this year to Dr. Georg Schweinfurth, for his explorations in Africa during many years; for his determination of the south-western limits of the basin of the Nile, and discovery of the River Uelle, in a new region beyond those limits; and for his admirable work, 'The Heart of Africa,' in which he has recorded the valuable results of his travels. The Victoria, or Patron's Gold Medal, was awarded to Colonel P. Egerton Warburton, for his successful journey across the previously unknown western interior of Australia, from Alice Springs, on the line of Overland Telegraph, to the west coast, near De Grey River.

In the absence of the medallists, His Excellency Count Münster, German Ambassador, attended to receive the medal on behalf of Dr. Schweinfurth, and J. Bateman, Esq., on behalf of Colonel Warburton.

Addressing Count Münster, the President said:—

"In handing this medal to your Excellency to be conveyed to your countryman, Dr. Georg Schweinfurth, who is expected soon to return from a new journey he has undertaken in the interior of Northern Africa, I have but little need to mention the services this distinguished traveller has rendered to Geographical Science—services which the Council of this Society have felt it their duty thus publicly to acknowledge. The work describing his journey, which has been published by Schweinfurth, and translated into the English language, has been so widely read that few persons with a taste for geography and the allied subjects can have failed to read..."
and admire it. Trained by a previous experience of three years in African travel, in Nubia, Dr. Schweinfurth started on his longer journey in 1868, with the fixed purpose of exploring that portion of the region of the Upper Nile which is watered by the tributaries of the Bahr Ghazal, and which had been previously visited by Petherick, von Heuglin, Antinori, Piaggia, Mademoiselle Tinne, and others. Trusting himself, as a solitary European, in the hands of an armed party of ivory merchants, he penetrated with them to their most distant stations, beyond the country of the once mysterious Nyam-Nyams, and across the watershed of the Nile. Although unprovided with instruments for astronomical observations, he plotted his routes on the basis of calculated paces and compass bearings, and with such accuracy that he was enabled to furnish material for a good map of the whole country he traversed; an accuracy which he tested by a long journey undertaken for the sole purpose of verifying his work by connecting it with a fixed position on the route of Petherick. But it is not merely for his topographical labours that the Council deem him eminently worthy of the distinction of a Royal Medal. His book teems with observations on the physical geography, ethnology, climate, botany, and resources of that remote region; and so graphically has he portrayed its various aspects, that we seem, in his pages, to obtain a clear idea of the interior of Equatorial Africa.

"With these remarks permit me, your Excellency, to deliver this medal into your hands."

His Excellency Count Münster briefly replied:—He felt proud and grateful that the Society had conferred the greatest honour in its power to bestow, on one of his countrymen, and as soon as he should learn the arrival of Dr. Schweinfurth from the new journey in Africa, which he had undertaken since the publication of the work alluded to by the President, he would lose no time in transmitting it into his hands. He (Count Münster) was gratified to think that his countrymen worked together with the Royal Geographical Society for the great objects of science and civilization, and was proud of the honour of himself belonging, as a member, to the Royal Geographical Society.

Next addressing Mr. J. Bateman, who attended to receive the Victoria or Patron's Medal on behalf of Colonel Egerton Warburton, now in Australia, the President thus spoke:—

"The Council of the Royal Geographical Society have decreed one
of the Royal Medals of the year to your relative, Colonel Egerton Warburton, in testimony of their admiration of the ability and daring he has displayed in undertaking and carrying to a successful issue one of the most difficult and hazardous explorations of recent times, across a previously unknown part of Australia—a part which had baffled the attempts of several previous travellers. Starting from Alice's Springs, near Central Mount Stuart, on the line of Overland Telegraph, on the 15th of April, 1873, he reached, after eight months' march—the latter portion of which was through an arid region where they were supported by the meat of their slaughtered camels, and finally narrowly escaped death from starvation—the frontier settlements on the De Grey River at the end of December, and Roebourne, in Nickol Bay, early in last January. Thus nearly 1000 miles of entirely new country have been traversed, and although no detailed account of the Expedition has yet been received in this country, the Council have full confidence that a large amount of accurate geographical information will be added by Colonel Warburton, as the fruits of his Expedition, to the common stock of knowledge. During the twenty years he has been a resident in the colony he has been repeatedly engaged in the work of geographical exploration, and in the years 1865–1866 distinguished himself by his journeys in the basin of Lake Eyre, his Report of which, with a map, was published by the Colonial Government. Although so large a portion of the region traversed in his last Expedition proved so trying to the party and so destitute of resources, no part of it was utterly destitute of vegetation, and there can be no doubt that his journey will lead to important practical results. Indeed, his safe arrival in Adelaide was celebrated on the 16th of April last by a banquet, at which 220 gentlemen, representatives of all the chief interests in the community, attended to give an enthusiastic welcome to the successful explorer. I am happy to learn from Colonel Mant, that Colonel Warburton was engaged, when he last heard from him, in preparing his Journal, and that his son, who accompanied him in his journey, is constructing a map of the region traversed, both which will be sent to England for publication. In placing this Medal in your hands, for transmission to your relative, I trust that you will express to him the sympathy of myself and colleagues of the Council of this Society for the privations he has suffered, and our wishes for his future welfare."

Mr. Bateman, in acknowledging the gift, said that he regretted that Colonel Warburton could not himself be present to return
thanks. He was sure that if anything could repay his relative for the arduous journey he had performed, and the very great sufferings he had endured, it would be the honour that the Royal Geographical Society had conferred upon him. It was hard to realize that in the centre of Western Australia an unexplored district existed, as large in area as Spain and Portugal together. All the attempts which had hitherto been made to traverse it had failed, in consequence of the extreme aridity of the country. Governor Eyre, in his well-known journey, was obliged to travel along the coast and subsist on shellfish; and of the fourteen persons who started in the expedition under Colonel Warburton, only two remained capable of doing their duty. All the hardships, however, which the leader had undergone would be richly atoned for by the Gold Medal of the Royal Geographical Society.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS PRIZE MEDALS.

Mr. Francis Galton, F.R.S., Chairman of the Public Schools Prizes Committee, introduced the subject of the awards of the year in the following words:

"The Society will learn with pleasure that their offer of four medals for annual competition among all the boys of our great public schools has again produced gratifying results. No less than 15 great public schools have sent competitors, and the boys who come first in our list are adjudged by the examiners to have well deserved their honours. This is the sixth year of our examinations, and consequently 24 medals have been won since their commencement, which, together with the number of those 'honourably mentioned,' testifies to perhaps 100 public-schoolboys having been induced by us to make a serious and successful study of geography. The authorities of public schools are apt to complain of the difficulty of obtaining good teachers in natural science: we, at all events, are doing our part towards preparing material whence future teachers may be selected. We may also take credit to ourselves for having already raised the standard of geographical teaching in many schools. It has occurred more than once that candidates have been found ill prepared: we represented the defect to the head masters, who turned their attention to remedying it, and their boys in subsequent years have distinguished themselves. Lastly, we have had the continued good fortune to secure geographers of the highest rank for our examiners. This was a means we had in view from the
first, of improving the quality of geographical examinations and incidentally of geographical teaching."

The President then presented medals as follows:

**Physical Geography** (Examiner, Professor A. C. Ramsay, LL.D., &c.)
*Gold Medal.*—Louis Weston, City of London School.
*Bronze Medal.*—Francis Charles Montague, University College School.

**Political Geography** (Examiner, the Rev. Canon Rawlinson, M.A.)
*Gold Medal.*—William Harry Turton, Clifton College, Bristol.
*Bronze Medal.*—Lionel Jacob, City of London School.

The Rev. Mr. Durham, of the City of London School, and Mr. W. W. Magee, of University College School, also attended.

The Hon. G. C. Brodrick then announced that the special subject for the examination next year would be China; and, in doing so, he expressed a hope that the Society would be as fortunate as it had hitherto been in securing the services of eminent examiners in that subject. As Mr. Galton had said, that had been one of the objects the Society had had in view, and hitherto they had been very successful. In 1872, South America being the special subject, the services of Mr. Bates were secured, who has thrown so much light upon that region by his own researches. In 1873, the subject being Central Asia, Sir Henry Rawlinson was the examiner in Political Geography, and Dr. Hooker in Physical Geography. At the last examination, when the subject was the British Isles, Professor Ramsay was the examiner in Physical Geography. Of course, China could not be compared in historical interest with the British Isles, nor could the competing candidates next year have the advantage of such admirable text-books on physical and political geography as those which the candidates for the present year had had. At the same time the physical geography of China was of very great interest, and perhaps there was no country so important about which the general public knew so little. A popular impression still-prevailed, though it certainly could not be shared by the Fellows of the Society, that China is not many times larger than Great Britain, but is most densely peopled; the fact really being that it is at least eighteen times as large as Great Britain, and is not so densely peopled as Great Britain. Yet China is, after all, but six weeks distant from England; and in these days, when a journey round the world by way of China can be accomplished in 90 days, it is not too much to hope that some of those who are led to study
the geography of that country for the purpose of next year's examinations, may hereafter visit it themselves. Those who competed for the prizes would not only find themselves amply rewarded by the interest of the subject itself, and by the commercial utility of geographical knowledge in these days, but also by its value in University examinations. A definite and honourable place had been assigned to geography in the new system of examinations of schools which had been established by the Universities; and the Council of the Society had lately, through their President, addressed a letter to the Vice-Chancellors of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, pointing out the claims of geographical science to due recognition in any future redistribution of University revenues, and suggesting that there ought to be a Professorship of geography in each University, and that it might even be possible to found travelling Fellowships for the encouragement of original research in geography.

At the conclusion of the President's Annual Address on the progress of Geography—

Sir H. Rawlinson said he should be sorry for the meeting to separate without expressing, in a marked manner, their respect and gratitude to Sir Bartle Frere, on this the last occasion of his presiding over their proceedings. It was a matter of much regret to himself (Sir Henry), personally, as it must be to all the Fellows of the Society, that the Council had not been able to persuade Sir Bartle to retain, for a longer period, the office which he had so worthily filled during the past year. The report of the Council showed that during that year the Society had increased in a marked manner both in numbers and reputation; and for that exceptional prosperity they were no doubt greatly indebted to the high personal character of Sir Bartle Frere, united with his very special qualifications for the office. He had always been remarkable for combining those qualities of heart and head which enabled him to command the admiration and to enlist the sympathies of his fellows. Had he continued to fill the chair, undoubtedly the same prosperity would have attended the Society in the future. As his successor, he (Sir Henry) felt very much the increased responsibilities which devolved upon him. They could not always expect the same great accession of new members, nor that new objects of interest would command the public attention as did the last days of the heroic Livingstone; but no doubt questions of importance
would arise, and in devoting himself to the charge of the interests of the Society, he should take for his example the conduct and the labours of his predecessor.

Sir Henry then proposed a vote of thanks to the retiring Members of the Council, and to the Auditors. He would wish to include in this vote also the Staff, for he believed there was no Society in the Metropolis better served by its Council and Staff than the Royal Geographical Society. No President, whatever might be his qualifications, would be able to conduct the business of the Society satisfactorily, or at least so admirably as it had been conducted, without the cordial co-operation of the Staff.

The retiring President, in acknowledging the vote, said, that in what he had observed, Sir Henry Rawlinson must have drawn more upon his ancient friendship than upon anything which he (Sir Bartle) had been able to effect for the Society. Had he been remaining an inhabitant of London, he should have been very glad to have done anything he could further to serve the Society; but the work of the Society had grown to such dimensions, and required such constant attention, that without continual residence in London it was quite impossible to do justice to it. His work had been most materially lightened by the cordial co-operation of the Staff, who had rendered it in every sense a work of as much pleasure as it was of responsibility. With such a successor as Sir Henry Rawlinson, he felt certain that there would be no diminution in the prosperity of the Society; and as long as he belonged to it, no exertion should be wanting on his part to second the efforts of one who would so worthily follow in the steps of the great founder of the Society (as he might call him), who laid down the principal lines upon which he himself had endeavoured to walk in all he had done in the management of the Society; and he looked forward to Sir Henry's tenure of office as likely to be the most prosperous period of the Society's existence.

Before the conclusion of the proceedings, the President announced that the Council had that day unanimously decided that medals should be given to the servants of Dr. Livingstone who had come to England, and that a special silver medal should be struck, to be given, as a mark of approbation of their fidelity and courage, to all who accompanied the Doctor in his last great expedition.

The Rev. Horace Waller then led up to the President Chumah and Susi, two of Dr. Livingstone's followers, to each of whom the President gave a bronze medal.
Speaking on behalf of the two recipients, the Rev. Mr. Waller thanked the Society for the gift. These faithful companions of Livingstone were able, he said, to give an intelligible account of every river and mountain and village in the regions they had passed through; and such aid as they could give was of the first importance to Mr. Livingstone in preparing the work on which he was now engaged.

The following letter, in acknowledgment of the Royal Medal, was received from Dr. Schweinfurth subsequently to the Anniversary Meeting:

"GENTLEMEN,

"On the 17th instant, I received, through the medium of Count Münster and of our Ministry of Public Instruction, the great medal which you have awarded me.

"On receiving this rare, high, and unique mark of distinction, I am moved by feelings of joy and gratitude which will ever accompany me to the end of my life. Allow me herewith to give expression to those feelings.

"When, years ago, I set out to begin my lonely wanderings, I little expected that fortune would ever favour me with this extraordinary honour, which, emanating from the highest authority in Great Britain, is awarded by the most impartial and the most competent judges in that great kingdom; and that a corporation, to whom the opinion of the whole world assigns the supreme direction of all labour in the field of geographical discovery, would act as umpire on that occasion.

"But that reward, far above my feeble deserts, which a kind Providence has cast into my lap, shall incite me to labour further at the solution of those problems which science indicates to me. There cannot be a more enduring encouragement to that end, than the one you have awarded.

"All my efforts shall henceforth be directed to make me more worthy of the distinction I have been honoured with, and while I unite the warmest wishes for the welfare of the Royal Geographical Society with this determination, I preserve my medal as a token of your gratifying goodwill.

"Accept, honoured gentlemen, my thankful and deeply devoted greetings.

"To the President and Council of the Royal Geographical Society of London."
ADDRESS

to

THE ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

Delivered at the Anniversary Meeting on the 22nd June, 1874.

By the Right Hon. Sir H. Bartle Frere, K.C.B., G.C.S.I.,
D.C.L., LL.D., etc., President.

Gentlemen,

In fulfilling my duty as your President, of laying before you a review of the Geographical events of the past year, I may begin by congratulating you on the continued prosperity and activity of the Society. By the Council Report which has just been read you have been informed that no fewer than 342 New Members, besides 9 Honorary Corresponding Associates, have been elected during the year. The total number now on our rolls is 2809 Ordinary, and 76 Honorary Corresponding Members. Accompanying this increase in numbers, and its concurrent increase of revenue, we may hope that there has been an increased activity and usefulness; and I am convinced that a Society like ours, fulfilling, as it does, a public want, may look forward to a career of prosperity proportioned to the general growth of the nation.

The improved punctuality in the publication of our 'Journal' and 'Proceedings,' so justly noticed last year by my predecessor, as reflecting so much credit on our excellent Secretaries, and especially on Mr. H. W. Bates, on whom so much of the labour falls, has been carried still further during the past season, and leaves little on this score to be desired.

OBITUARY.

Dr. Livingstone.—The great geographical event of the year has been, beyond all doubt, the ascertainment of the fate of Dr.
Livingstone, and the recovery, through the fidelity of his followers, of those full records of his last expedition which his son is now preparing for publication.

In an annual summary like the present, it is impossible to do more than briefly glance at the leading events of a life devoted with unflagging energy, and without rest or intermission, to labours having for their main object the elevation of the Negro races of Africa in the social and moral scale of humanity; but one incidental result of which has been to place Dr. Livingstone in the foremost rank of discoverers and geographical explorers of this or probably of any age.

David Livingstone was born at Blantyre in Scotland, on the 19th of March, 1813, of a race distinguished in Scottish annals for that staunch fidelity to their convictions and objects in life which was so characteristic of the great traveller. The family had been reduced in fortune during the political distractions which marked the last years of the Stuart dynasty, and his parents could give to David, their second son, little more than the inheritance of sterling domestic virtues and high principles, with such an excellent practical education as the local schools of Scotland have for generations past afforded.

The epitaph which he inscribed on his parents' resting-place at Hamilton, when, after his first return from Africa, the children laid their mother beside their father's grave, records, in his own simple and touching language, his sense of how much he owed to early home-training. It runs:—"1856. To show the resting-place of Neil Livingstone and Agnes Hunter; and to express the thankfulness to God of their children, John, David, Janet, Charles, and Agnes, for poor and pious parents."

Both parents appear to have enjoyed, in their own neighbourhood, a respect due to high character and active religious principle, which secured for them a degree of consideration far beyond what could have been expected from their worldly fortune; and it was from them, apparently, that David Livingstone early imbibed those strong yet catholic religious views, and that passionate desire to extend the blessings of Christian teaching and civilization to the poorest and the meanest of mankind, which formed the mainspring of his action in after life.

From his earliest youth he had been taught the duty and the power of self-reliance; and the first use he made of such liberty as was afforded him, by having to aid in working for his own live-
lihood, was to set himself to supplement his school education by
the acquisition of every kind of knowledge which came within his
reach. Gradually his inclinations and studies shaped themselves to
what was needed to obtain at the Glasgow University such a degree
as should enable him to offer himself for the ministry, and obtain
an opportunity of working with any of the great Missionary
Societies which devote their labours to the extension of Christianity
in distant lands; and he obtained, under circumstances which
greatly enhanced the difficulty of the acquisition, a very wide and
thorough elementary knowledge of surgery and medicine, and of
most divisions of natural science which bear on the medical pro-
fession, besides those branches of theology which form the Uni-
versity curriculum of divinity students intended for the ministry
of the Established Church of Scotland. The energy with which he
worked may be estimated from the fact that he gained his medical
diploma at Glasgow without a farthing of aid from any one; saving
sufficient from his hard-won earnings in summer, to support him-
self whilst attending medical and Greek classes at Glasgow during
the winter. Indeed, all that belonged to his early life and training
is of the utmost interest to the student of human nature and the
lover of human progress; but it is impossible in such an address
as the present to do more than indicate very briefly the main cir-
cumstances which formed and qualified the future great explorer.

We must, therefore, pass rapidly over the history of his joining
the London Missionary Society, the disappointment of his hopes of
being employed in China, the acquaintance with Dr. Moffat—then
already a veteran African missionary—and his final resolve to join
Moffat’s Mission at Kuruman or New Latakoo—at that time far
beyond the utmost boundary of civilized and settled European
colonization at the Cape of Good Hope. He reached Africa in
1840, and thenceforward devoted his whole being to the improve-
ment and elevation of the races of that continent. How he learned
and laboured as a missionary, under the sagacious guidance of Dr.
Moffat; how he there formed the domestic ties which lent such a
human charm to the romance of his after-life; how he pondered the
great questions whether Christianity or civilization should lead the
way in the great work he saw before him, till he arrived at the con-
clusion that in these days, at all events, they cannot be separated,
and they must march together; how the complex character of the
great problems involved gradually unfolded itself to his medita-
ions; how he finally realised the truth that the explorer and
traveller must precede, or at least accompany, either the missionary or trader; and how he resolved himself to be the pioneer—all this history we must leave to be unfolded by his biographer.

One of his first objects was to acquire a thorough command of the Sechuana language; one of very great power and copiousness, and spoken, with dialectic variations, over a large area of Southern Africa. In order to do this, he completely isolated himself for several months from all European society, and thus gained a clear insight into the language, habits, modes of thought, motives, and character of the African races. During this missionary period of his life he undertook seven journeys, each of not less than 600 miles; in one of which, in 1842, he was within 10 days' distance of Lake N'gami, but, probably, through being without any knowledge of the observations needful to a geographer, he gave no account of these travelling. His first attempt at publishing the result of his experiences seems to have been a paper which he sent in 1843 to Dr. Buckland, on the gradual desiccation of the countries he had traversed; but it is very uncertain whether this ever reached its destination, though the subject was well discussed at a later period.

His daring character could not remain long unknown. Kindred spirits were drawn around him, and travellers and sportsmen came from afar to consult him. Although a keen sportsman from boyhood, the heavy work of daily teaching was never neglected for self-enjoyment. At no time had he any sympathy with the mere slaughterer of game, and he seldom hunted except when it was necessary to provide for himself and those around him.

In 1843 he selected a beautiful valley called Mabotsha, between Kuruman and Kolobeng, in lat. 25° 14' s., as the site of his first separate missionary station. One circumstance may here be mentioned in illustration of the powers of endurance which must be assumed when speaking of him. In 1843, whilst trying to rid the village of an old man-eating lion, he was very nearly killed by the wounded and infuriated beast. For thirty years afterwards all his labours and adventures, entailing such exertion and fatigue, were undertaken with a limb so maimed that it was painful for him to raise a fowling-piece or in fact to place the left arm in any position above the level of the shoulder. At one period especially, when so much of his time was passed in navigating the "Pioneer" on the Zambesi, it was frequently noticed that the false joint in the arm made him powerless to climb up the
side of a ship: that this old fracture was eventually the sole means of identifying his remains is now a matter of world-wide interest.

Kolobeng, his second station, 270 miles north of Kuruman, to which he removed in 1847, is placed almost under the tropic of Cancer, and is consequently subject to the extreme dryness caused by a nearly vertical sun. But as it is elevated from 4000 to 6000 feet above the sea, its temperature is not excessive, and it is free from marsh malaria, and thus served for a tropical sanatorium. The territories around it, with their peculiar vegetation, supported so enormous an amount of animal life, that the reports given by travellers and sportsmen of the countless herds of game would be incredible, were they not fully confirmed by Dr. Livingstone and others. In scenes and circumstances so entirely at variance with those of his early life, and amid so fine a field for his powers of observation, the young missionary at once commenced to gather that knowledge which he found of the utmost value throughout his subsequent career, either as a stationary pastor or as the enterprising traveller.

As in the outset of his career the coincidence of the China war and the visit of Dr. Moffat to this country caused Dr. Livingstone’s field of enterprise to be thrown in Southern Africa, so many influential circumstances concurred to change his career from that of the quiet but active missionary, which he followed with single aim and devotion for twelve years, to that of the bold and vigorous explorer, which he continued to his last hour. Some of these remarkable coincidences it may be well to notice. Previous to the opening and development of the Overland route between India and Europe, the furlough rules of the Indian army restricted officers during their terms of leave to the Cape; many of them made for the country in which Livingstone was stationed, on account of its salubrity; the abundance of game also attracted them, and many sportsmen and travellers came to him for advice and aid, among whom were several Associates of the Royal Geographical Society. In this way friendships were begun which ended only with his death, and generous aid was afforded him which first opened his way to wider views.

Again, the political troubles arising out of the Kaffir aggressions, and the hostility of a section of the Dutch community, occurred about the same period, and leading to the entire destruction of his missionary station, induced him to change the scene of his operations to unexplored regions further north. At the same juncture, again, Arab traders made their first appearance on the Western Zambesi
from Zanzibar: had they come a year or two earlier they would have bought up and removed the ivory, &c., which Dr. Livingstone was able to utilize for crossing and recrossing Africa with his faithful Makololo. The gigantic success of these journeys at once placed him beyond the reach of adverse external circumstances as to his future progress, and thus, in the second half of his African career, he was enabled to outdo all travellers who had preceded him in any age.

Undoubtedly his own great powers, natural and acquired, were one great element in his success. The qualifications necessary to constitute a complete traveller are so many and various, that they are seldom found in any one man; but Livingstone appeared to possess them all in a most exalted degree. His personal coolness and bravery, undisturbed and undaunted in any emergency, his wonderful tenacity of purpose, his gentleness and yet firmness in dealing with the native Africans, his self-negation and power of endurance, his iron frame and its capacity of resistance to all bad climatic influences, all these greatly contributed to success; whilst the wide and extended view he had of the duties of his sacred calling, gave to his character an elevation and power far beyond what the highest mental or physical gifts could have commanded.

During the sojourn at Kolobeng he first saw slavery under that revolting aspect which roused every impulse of his generous nature into permanent antagonism.

The Dutch Boers around his mission station were perpetrating atrocities on the helpless tribes, which excited his greatest indignation: kidnapping, murder, and rapine were every-day occurrences in the neighbourhood.

His denunciation of these villanies was so determined that ultimately Livingstone found himself the centre point of an irritation and popular persecution which forbode the most serious consequences. Space will not allow us to enter very deeply into these first records of his energy; but they are by no means the least interesting episodes, and they go far to show the unchanging nature of his plans through life.

"It is difficult," we find him writing, "for a person in a civilised country to conceive that any body of men possessing the common attributes of humanity (and these Boers are by no means destitute of the better feelings of our nature) should, with one accord, set out, after loading their own wives and children with caresses, and proceed to shoot down in cold blood men and women, of a different
"colour, it is true, but possessed of domestic feelings and affections equal to their own. I saw and conversed with children in Boers' houses who had, by their own and their master's account, been captured; and in several instances I traced the parents of these "unfortunates, though the plan approved amongst the Burghers is to take children so young that they soon forget their parents, and their native language also."

Livingstone became intolerable in the eyes of these men, but, although tried severely, he was not found wanting. He was accused of wishing to raise the native tribes to a higher sense of self-regard, and of a desire to open up the country in which they dwelt, and as a consequence, in 1852 we find his mission station destroyed whilst he was absent, his medicines scattered, his furniture and clothing carried off and sold at auction by the Boers. "They resolved to shut up the interior, and I determined to open the country; and we shall see who have been most successful in resolution, they or I." When we look back on his efforts, what a purpose lay wrapped in these iron-willed utterances at Kolobeng!

Livingstone's first important journey of discovery was commenced on June 1, 1849. His object was to cross the dreaded Kalahari desert and reach the reported Lake Ngami. He had communicated his plans to several friends that he had attached to his humble home at Kolobeng, and with their generous aid he was enabled to carry them out. These were Captain (now General Sir) Thomas Steele, F.R.G.S., then aide-de-camp to the Marquis of Tweeddale, at Madras, Mr. William Cotton Oswell, and Mr. Mungo Murray. In company with the last two-named gentlemen, the lake was reached on August 1st, but the season was too far advanced for them to reach Sebituane. Captain Steele sent the account of this important journey to the Royal Geographical Society, and thus Dr. Livingstone's name and powers were at once placed well before the world by Sir Roderick Murchison. It was at once decided by the Royal Geographical Society to take cognisance of his intrepid feat, and a chronometer-watch was awarded in 1849 to "the Rev. David Livingston, of Kolobeng, for his successful explorations in South Africa." This was his first geographical communication through our Society, when it was rising again into importance under the influence of his most earnest and best friend, Sir Roderick. Two years previous the Society, it may be remembered by our older Fellows, was in too languishing a condition to have afforded him much aid; but at the time that his first communication reached us,
in February, 1850, it was under the vigorous guidance of Admiral Smyth, Sir R. Murchison, and Dr. Norton Shaw: his worth was at once fully appreciated, and that lasting friendship began which was a bright feature in the lives of our late much-loved President and the great traveller. He again started for the lake in the following year; but returned without attaining his object of meeting with Sebituane. Nothing daunted, in 1851 he again started with his firm friend, Mr. Oswell, taking with him Mrs. Livingstone and his children; and they were rewarded by the discovery of the Great Zambesi River, at the end of June, 1851, in the centre of the continent, and not far from one of the wonders of the world, the unequalled Victoria Falls. At this time he seems to have formed the determination of opening a highway for commerce and Christianity by means of the great rivers to the East and West coasts; and proposed, accordingly, to Mr. Oswell to trace a route to the Eastern sea-board; but this was not carried out, and Livingstone with his family returned to Kolobeng.

At Linyante, on the River Chobe, he met Sebituane, a chief of the Makololo, a man of enlarged views, most earnestly attached to him, and who had a very marked influence on his future career. But here Livingstone was met by a severe and unlooked for misfortune. He and Mr. Oswell had hardly time to congratulate themselves on having reached Sebituane (whom he describes as "decidedly the best specimen of a native chief he ever saw"), when the chief was carried off by sudden illness.

It is somewhat singular that Dr. Livingstone should have pronounced the same view of opening up Inner Africa, that was proposed in 1793 by Dr. de Lacerda, each supposing that the Great Zambesi would form nearly a continuous water-communication between the East and West coasts.

On the destruction of his house and property, and the carrying into slavery of his 200 school-children at Kolobeng, Dr. Livingstone determined on seeking an entirely new field for his missionary work. He first accompanied his wife and children on the long journey to Cape Town, crossing the entire colony with perfect safety in the midst of an inglorious but very costly Caffre war. This was his first appearance in civilized life for eleven years. He reached the Cape in April, 1852. During his sojourn here he was indebted to his firm friend (Sir) Thomas Maclear, then Astronomer Royal to the Colony, for much useful instruction in astronomical observation. Having seen his family safely embarked for England, he
started on his return journey in June, 1852, reaching Kuruman, which place he left for his next journey on November 20th, and Kolobeng on January 15th, 1853, arriving at Linyante, the capital of the Makololo, on May 23rd, and was most favourably received by the young chief Sekeletu, the successor of his late friend Sebituane. We now mark a most significant era, not only in the life of this undaunted man, but in those busy schemes which, as they had for their sole object the welfare of the tribes around him, were liable to continual change of front as new and unlooked-for circumstances arose.

In a word, to the dismay of Livingstone, the slave trade had made its way to Linyante, Sebituane's town, and was already bearing its baneful fruit amongst the Makololo people of his adoption. Some traders had reached the chief's quarters, and, in exchange for a few much-coveted guns, they carried away hundreds of captives. How was this evil to be arrested? One plan seemed to commend itself. If the natives could be shown a way to the outer world, so as to find a market for their ivory and produce, they might yet be saved.

Thus it is that we see him for thirty years eagerly looking about for a natural highway for Commerce. River after river is traced from source to sea. It is always the same hope, the continually deepening conviction; and he still trusts on that the water-ways of Eastern and Central Africa may prove sufficiently vast, continuous and deep for the cherished scheme of extended commerce and civilization "to come out all right at last."

Nothing is more striking, in his narrative of this first gigantic enterprise, than the utter disproportion of his outfit to the task he set himself. It is in such marked contrast to later experience, that it is all but incredible that he was enabled, with but a comparatively few shillings' worth of European necessaries, to lead his followers to a successful termination of their work. It is true that in going to São Paulo de Loanda in search of a market for the ivory which was all but worthless to Sekeletu, he acted in some degree as the agent of that chief, and was most materially aided by his influence and commands; but he mainly depended on his gun for support for himself and his twenty-seven followers, who volunteered at Linyante for the time his journey occupied, from their departure on November 11th, 1853, until their arrival at Loanda, on May 21st, 1854, Dr. Livingstone himself being nearly worn out by fatigue and illness. Through the kindness and attention of our
Associate, Mr. Edmund Gabriel, he soon recovered, and with many presents he, accompanied by his faithful attendants, set out on his return to Sekeletu on September 20th, 1854, and reached Sesheke in the following September.

The route from the centre of Africa to the West Coast not being found so advantageous for trade as was hoped for, Dr. Livingstone at once made a resolution to try the eastern road, to the Portuguese settlements at the mouth of the Zambesi. Again furnished with ivory by Sekeletu, and accompanied by his volunteers, he left Linyante on November 3rd, and, after visiting the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi, he finally reached Quelimane, at its mouth, on May 26th, 1856, which was within a few days of four years after he left Cape Town.

He thus finished his famous journey across the continent. These travels had now excited the interest of the whole world. Such honours as it was in our power to bestow were quickly his, and the Patron's Medal was awarded him in 1855. We, as geographers, had an unbounded source of satisfaction in thus signifying our appreciation of his labours in threading the course of the River Zambesi. Already his careful observations had been forwarded to the Astronomical Department at the Cape of Good Hope, there to undergo the most searching scrutiny. How can one better describe the results than by repeating the announcement made by your then President, Lord Ellesmere, to the members of the Royal Geographical Society? In speaking of the scrutiny of Livingstone's notes, which had been undertaken by Sir Thomas Maclure and Sir J. Herschel, he exclaimed, "I believe I may say that there is more sound geography in the sheet of foolscap which contains them than in many volumes of much more pretension."

He left Quelimane on July 12th, reached the Mauritius on August 12th, and finally arrived in his native country on December 12th, for the first time, after an absence of more than sixteen years. Three days after, on December 15th, at a Special Meeting of the Society, he received such an enthusiastic welcome from his numerous friends at a most crowded assembly as is accorded to few.

The next few months were occupied with what, to him, was an arduous task—writing the account of his 'Missionary Travels.' This was done at the hospitable seat of his former friend in Africa, Mr. Webb, of Newstead Abbey.

It has been said by some who afterwards visited the Zambesi
districts, that it is almost worth a journey thither to notice the painstaking accuracy of his descriptions. Exaggeration in any shape appears throughout his life to have been so utterly foreign to his nature, that the only corrections his first observations required were usually additions to his first moderate estimate of distances travelled, of mountain heights, or breadth of rivers.

His 'Missionary Travels' met with the favour they deserved. Mr. Murray announced that 30,000 copies were sold soon after publication, besides 15,000 copies subsequently in a popular edition; and Dr. Livingstone's speeches, which will be found faithfully recorded in the 'Proceedings' of our Society, were always listened to with profound attention and the deepest interest.

We now pass to that which may be called his second series of explorations. Livingstone at this time solicited the aid of his countrymen. The Government placed at his disposal the materials which quickly formed "the Zambesi Expedition." At the grand farewell banquet given to him under the auspices of our late lamented President, Sir Roderick Murchison, on the 13th February, 1858, at which 350 guests assembled, many of the most distinguished statesmen and philosophers of the day were present, and testified by their speeches to the admiration and respect which he had earned from all classes of his countrymen.

The Expedition started for the Zambesi on the 10th March, 1858. Captain Bedingfield, R.N., Charles Livingstone (whose death we so recently deplored), Dr. Kirk, Dr. Meller, Richard Thornton, and Thomas Baines, gathered round him to share his enterprise.

Looking back upon the exploits of this adventurous little band, we find a continuous record of hard work, and each member of the Expedition pervaded by the same indomitable courage. The first act was to tramp on foot to the very heart of the continent and to revisit Sekeletu, the Chief of the Makololo, whose tribe was even then tottering to its fall.

From a geographical point of view, we note discoveries at this period of great importance. As in other places, the Portuguese were penned into their settlements by the angry disposition of the Zambesi and Shiré tribes; indeed, nothing at all was known of the sources of the rivers flowing through their territories.

Livingstone at once set about tracing the Shiré to its source, and in September, 1860, he found it flowing from the beautiful Lake Nyassa—an inland sea, which, if we mistake not, will before long be turned to great account in founding substantial relations with
the natives. Lake Shirwa was also discovered on this journey; but hardly second in importance was the newly-acquired knowledge that a high and comparatively healthy region lies stretched from the left bank of the Shiré for hundreds of miles.

If we trace an approach to enthusiasm in Livingstone's descriptions anywhere, it is when we find him detailing the industries of the Manganja and Ajawas on these hills, or describing their iron-forges, their cotton-fields and cloth-looms, their pottery, and the beauty of the fibres with which they make their nets: if we detect intense indignation, it is when he finds that the slave-traders, subsidised by the Portuguese authorities, invaded this fair region the instant his back was turned.

It was mainly owing to his representations that Bishop Mackenzie left England in 1860 to work on the lines laid down by Livingstone: the aim being to civilise and Christianise the natives. Under such a self-denying leader, with clergy, laymen, and mechanics attached to it,—with uncompromising opposition to slave trading as its raison d'être,—the best hopes followed the "Universities Mission."

To his great sorrow, the country Livingstone had fixed upon for the site of the mission station was hardly tenable at this time. The torrent of slavery had burst in upon the land. Both Livingstone and Mackenzie joined forces in attempting to stay the devastation occasioned by the slave wars. The liberation of large gangs of slaves and the terror of the English name in the slavers' camps were amongst the most marked features of this chapter in his life, and never did Livingstone's character shine out in truer colours than when leading his little band through the burning villages of the paralysed Manganja, to free their wives and children from the chains and yokes of the slave-drivers. The example was not lost, for we read in his last letters that, many years after, when hundreds of miles away from the Shiré highlands, a panic seized certain Arab slave-traders, who got word that he, the liberator of slaves, was in the vicinity. Nor must we omit a yet more interesting fact. On one of these occasions, a lad was freed by his kindly hand not far from Lake Shirwa: for three years the boy lived with those who survived Mackenzie; for eight long hazardous years he was the faithful servant of his liberator, and, when the spirit fled from that iron frame at last, it was Chumah, the liberated slave-boy of the Shiré highlands, that led from Lobisa to Zanzibar those men who bore their dead master's body, and to whom we are
so much indebted for the safety of the Doctor's journals and writings.

During the year 1862 Livingstone was destined to suffer the terrible loss of his wife. Mrs. Livingstone went to the Zambesi to join her husband in his work, but in three weeks she succumbed to a desperate attack of fever, which baffled all the skill of the three medical men who attended her at Shupanga.

The Zambesi Expedition lasted for five years. After Livingstone's recall in 1863, how earnestly do we find him denouncing the villany of Portuguese and Arab slave-traders! The difficulty—which was always to him a very great and real one—of facing a large audience used to vanish when pity stirred him to plead the cause of the harried tribes he had visited: how deeply the old malady of Africa had become his care let the chapters tell, which are devoted to the subject in his second book, called 'The Zambesi and its Tributaries.'

Few will forget the enthusiastic reception accorded to Dr. Livingstone when he appeared in the Geographical Section of the British Association at Bath, in the autumn of 1864; but his short, and his second and final sojourn amongst us was mainly taken up in compiling the work which we have mentioned.

Space will not allow us to particularize the results of the Zambesi Expedition, but one fact must be noticed.

The testimony of those who witnessed the devastation of the slave trade, and who personally probed all its foul ramifications on the spot, has since borne ample fruit. Knowing as we do the extreme difficulty there has been to arouse this and other countries to the fact of the enormous development of the East African slave trade of late years, we may almost doubt if anything short of this period of trial and adventure could have opened the eyes of Europe to the true state of the case, but it was not till long afterwards that the evidence then collected moved the country to further action. It was the publication of further letters from Livingstone, written during his last journey, and detailing the still existing horrors of the slave traffic, which again directed attention to the revelations of 'The Zambesi and its Tributaries,' and three years ago led to the appointment of a select Parliamentary Committee of Inquiry. Many of his old companions were then called on to testify to what they had seen during the Zambesi Expedition, and the national conscience was at last awakened to the truths which had been put before the public many years before. Humanly speaking, Living-
stone, and Livingstone alone, has been the means of awakening public interest in this question. His clear, explicit statements take the place of all the loose facts too often ventured on by hearsay philanthropists. He saw for himself, he attracted others to see, and he infused all his own spirit of indignation into his fellow-witnesses of these crimes.

We have now arrived at the period of his last travels. The Zam-besi Expedition had not answered his expectations. The thwarting policy of the Portuguese, the ravages of the slave trade, and the unfavourable dimensions of the "Pioneer" for river exploration defeated his purpose; and soon after he returned home, he felt a strong desire once more to explore as he had done in earlier days.

Determined to follow up the suggestions of our late President, Sir Roderick Murchison, Livingstone left us in August, 1865, "to define the true watershed of Inner Southern Africa." He spent the winter 1865-6 in Bombay and in Zanzibar, organizing his new Expedition. How he plunged into the inner depths of the unknown regions, lying between the coast and lakes Tangan-yika and Nyassa, we know from the few waifs and strays of correspondence which escaped the vigilance of slave-traders, who were too sagaciously aware of the real consequences of his presence amongst them.

Ere we next assemble in Anniversary Meeting, the geographers of every nation will have before them the full results of this last and most important of his journeys; meantime, let it suffice to say that he entered East Africa at Mikindany Bay, near the mouth of the Rovuma in April, 1866; travelled thence to the eastern shore of Lake Nyassa; afterwards doubling its southern extremity, and proceeding northerly over the Lobisa highlands to the Cazembe and to Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika, discovering, in his way, the great Lake Bangweolo, and the magnificent river, the Lualaba. For many months lost to the outer world, he was successfully searched for, found, and succoured by Mr. H. M. Stanley, who finally left him in the month of March, 1872, after which (in August) he resumed his explorations, and, near the shores of Lake Bangweolo, died on the 4th of May, 1873. His remains were preserved by his negro attendants, and carried, together with his journals and other property, during an eight months' march, to Zanzibar, whence they were brought to England, arriving on the 15th of April; on which day they were formally identified at the house of this Society by the eminent surgeon and Livingstone's former friend, Sir W. Fergusson.
Thanks to the indomitable energy of this extraordinary man, and thanks, too, to those who, by contact with him, felt their own natures raised to deeds of faithfulness and heroism, David Livingstone's journals were not only kept with scrupulous care to within a few days of his death, but brought hither by his negro followers with a devotion, which, whilst it has excited the admiration of every civilized nation, has perhaps done more than any individual act on record to raise the black races in the estimation of the world. Let us never forget what has been done for geography by the faithful band who restored to us all that it was in their power to bring of our lost friend, and who rescued his priceless writings and maps from destruction. The remains of Livingstone were accompanied to this country by one of these faithful negro attendants, Jacob Wainwright, who witnessed their interment in Westminster Abbey, on the 18th April last under circumstances which none of us who witnessed the ceremony are ever likely to forget. His grave has since been visited by two of his attendants, Chumah and Susi, who had served him yet longer and with equal fidelity, and who have been brought to England since the funeral.

Ages may elapse before the full measure of his services to Africa can be accurately measured, for we may hope that by his lifelong labours a new era will be opened to all the Negro races of that continent, and no man can foresee the ultimate consequences of their enfranchisement. We are in a better position for judging of the great value of his services to geographical science. As a mere explorer he trod some 29,000 miles of African soil, and laid open nearly one million square miles of new country, equal to one-fourth the area of Europe.

So far back as the year 1859, your President, Lord Ellesmere, pointed to the rapidly filling blanks upon the map of Africa, and, as he gave praise and honour to Livingstone, he bade his fellows look on his work that they might read the man. But these facts give a very imperfect idea of the geographical results of his labours; for not only were his own observations singularly numerous and accurate, but to his example must be attributed much of the general impulse given to African exploration by others in this generation.

As a whole, the work of his life will surely be held up in ages to come as one of singular nobleness of design, and of unflinching energy and self-sacrifice in execution. It will be long ere any one man will be able to open so large an extent of unknown land
Sir H. Bartle Frere's Address.

to civilized mankind. Yet longer, perhaps, ere we find a brighter example of a life of such continued and useful self-devotion to a noble cause.

Charles Livingstone, the brother, and for some time the co-adjutor of Dr. Livingstone, was born at Blantyre, Scotland, February 28, 1821. He acquired the best education afforded by the schools of Blantyre and Bothwell, and like his elder brothers, often gratified his intense love of nature by long rambles with them, searching out new and interesting objects. He was afterwards employed in a lace-manufacturing warehouse in Hamilton, and on his account his parents afterwards removed to that town. He became an earnest teacher in the Sabbath-school, and there are middle-aged people who still speak affectionately of the tall slender boy, whose smiling face and kind words gave them a kindly welcome to his class. He availed himself of every opportunity for intellectual improvement, but it was not till the year 1840 that an opportunity presented itself by which he could carry out his one great desire—to secure an education that would fit him for missionary work in India or China. Hearing of an institution in one of the Western States of America, where an opportunity for manual labour placed the means of a liberal education within reach, he determined, with the advice and approval of his father and brother, to make his way to this then far distant Western land. Many difficulties obstructed his path, but we find him a few months later delighted with the success of his undertaking, and patiently devoting himself to his studies. Graduating from the collegiate, he entered the theological, department of the institution, and by his earnest devotion to his work and his unassuming demeanour won the esteem of his professors and made many friends. In the autumn of 1847 he entered the Union Theological, New York City, from which he took his degree during the year 1850. In the mean time having corresponded with the London Missionary Society in reference to China, he was led to turn his attention to some other field of labour. The late venerable Rev. Dr. Storrs, of Massachusetts, took a deep interest in him, and recommended him to a pastoral charge in that state. After a short connection with this church he was selected from upwards of forty candidates to assume the pastorate of a Congregational church in a beautiful town on the Massachusetts frontier. From long-continued mental application and arduous labours his naturally delicate constitution began to give way, and
in April 1857 he obtained leave of absence for a short visit to his native land. He met his brother Dr. Livingstone in London and was with him much while he was engaged in preparing his first volume, 'Missionary Travels in South Africa.' Their long separation and warm Christian sympathy in the great work to which they had mutually devoted themselves (the amelioration of mankind) had greatly endeared them to each other. The Doctor gladly availed himself of his brother's assistance in the preparation of the book, and finding him so valuable an assistant, urged him to accompany the newly-projected "Expedition to the Zambesi." It was not without a severe struggle that Charles Livingstone decided to leave his little family and the fond attachments that he had formed in America to accept this proposal; but the idea of renewed health and strength for more successful labour in his own church led him to accept the offered position, and in March 1858 he left England for the untried scenes of a wild and uncivilised land. Through privations, difficulties, and dangers of every kind he was the Doctor's faithful assistant and companion. In 1864 he was spared to return to America, after an absence of nearly seven years from his family.

Close mental application renewed his nervous difficulties, and he was compelled to resign all thought of resuming his ministerial calling. After writing out his journal he again came to England, and in connection with the Doctor published 'The Zambesi and its Tributaries.' In October of the same year he accepted the appointment of "Her Majesty's Consul at Fernando Po"—"a fever and hunger-stricken island on which no animal, horse, cow, mule, sheep, goat, or dog can subsist," as he afterwards describes it. In 1867 an accession to his consular district was made of the "Rights of Benin and Biafra, including the mouths of the Niger," by Lord Stanley. It was in visiting these rivers in an unsuitable gunboat that he contracted the diseases (bronchitis and asthma) from which he was a great sufferer for the remainder of his life, in addition to the fever of the country, of which he had his full share. Notwithstanding all this he spared no effort to open Africa to civilising influences. His upright consistent Christian life gave him great influence with the chiefs, who often came of their own accord to seek his advice. He persuaded them to abolish many of their cruel and heathenish customs, and gave them instructions and suggestions for the better government of their people, from which they gave him the title of "The Settle Man." He was regarded by the missionaries of all
denominations as their warm and steadfast friend, and at all times took a deep interest in the progress of their work.

The Okrikas, a savage, cannibal tribe, becoming troublesome to their neighbours, he determined on a visit to them, being the first white man that had ever visited them. He sat for four hours in council with their chief and headmen, every eye fixed upon him. They took him to their juju-house, and showed him the skulls of their victims. At night they gave him an inner room ornamented with bones and skulls strung in fantastic array. His couch was composed of rude boxes, and such was their eagerness to view the white man that they could scarcely be persuaded to leave him. This visit seemed to result in great good to the Okrikas. Their chiefs were arbitrators in the late treaty with the Bonny Opobo tribes, and our allies in the Ashantee War. He was devoted to what he believed to be the highest interests of his country and humanity, and particularly sensitive to anything that tended in any way to tarnish the glory and reputation of England, a country to whose service he gave fifteen of his best years, sacrificed his health, and eventually his life. He died near Lagos, October 28, 1873, of African fever.

M. Francis Garnier.—The news of the death of this distinguished traveller and savant, a Lieutenant of the French Navy, slain in the performance of his duty in Tonquin on 20th December, 1873, was received by his fellow-geographers in England with feelings of profound sorrow. It will be in the recollection of many members of the Society that he attended in person at our Anniversary Meeting of 1870, to receive our Patron's Medal of the year for his exploration of the course of the Mekong River and journey through Western China. On that occasion my predecessor, Sir Roderick Murchison, summarised the deeds of the young officer, who, it will be remembered, succeeded to the command of the Cambodian Scientific Mission on the death of its commander, Captain de Lagrée, in the following words:—"In the course of this expedition, from Cratieh in Cambodia to Shanghai, 5392 miles were travelled over, and of these, 3625 miles, chiefly of country almost unknown to us, were surveyed with care, and the positions fixed by astronomical observations. In carrying out this important mission, your commander succumbed to the fatigues and privations of the harassing march between the head-waters of the Mekong and Tong-chuan, in the centre of Yunnan. Through his illness the progress of the
undertaking was for a time arrested; for one of the chief objects—a visit to Tali-fu—seemed little likely to be realised. But you nobly volunteered to undertake this hazardous journey, and, your commander having consented, you made a rapid march to the rebel stronghold, satisfactorily fixed its geographical position, and returned in safety to Yunnan, where you found your chief had died during your absence. Disinterring his remains for conveyance to your native country, you crossed to the nearest port on the Yangtsze, and, embarking in a native boat, brought the remainder of your party in safety to the mouth of the river.” Subsequent to his visit to England he brought out, under the auspices of the French Government, his fine work, the ‘Narrative of the Cambodian Expedition,’ in two quarto volumes, with 22 sheets of maps, and 47 pictorial illustrations; a typical example of what a complete report of a great national expedition of geographical exploration ought to be.

Despatched in 1872 again to the French Possessions in Indo-China, he met with his death, it is believed by treachery, at the hands of the Chinese rebels of Tonquin. He was born at St. Etienne on the 25th of July, 1839; he died, therefore, at the age of thirty-four years.

Colonel Emil von Sydow,* an Honorary Corresponding Member of our Society, was born at Freiburg, in the kingdom of Saxony, on the 15th July, 1812, and was the son of a well-known contributor to the belles lettres of that day. He received his education partly in the Gymnasium, afterwards in the Divisional School at Erfurt, where he at once showed the strong leaning towards the study of Geography which characterised his career through life.

With the completion of his 18th year he became an officer in the 31st Regiment of the Prussian Army, and in his 21st was attached as Master to the Divisional School, where he remained in activity ten years, latterly exclusively in charge of the Geographical Department, and where, in the year 1838, he published his first collection of wall maps. Called in 1843 to Berlin as a member of the Commission for Military Examinations, Sydow entered into close relation with Alexander von Humboldt, Carl Ritter, and other celebrities, more especially as regarded his favourite study. He also superintended the geographical studies of Prince Albrecht of Prussia, and

* By Major-General Beauchamp Walker.
in the year 1849 was appointed Lecturer on Military Geography at the new Academy, in which post he remained, with an interval of five years, to the end of his life.

During the mobilization of 1850–51, Sydow was employed as Staff Officer of the 4th Cavalry Division in Electoral Hesse. A characteristic anecdote falls into the events of this period. A suspected peasant being brought before him for examination, declared that he came from a district which we will call N. "From N.," said Sydow, "and you have red mud on your boots? You come from B." The suspected lost all confidence, and hastened to divulge all that was required of him. Not only had Sydow occupied himself with the study of Geography; he added to this branch of science that of Cartography, to which he now fully devoted himself. With this object in view he retired from active service in 1855, established himself in Gotha, where Bernhard Perthes was about to commence the publication of the 'Geographische Mittheilungen,' for which he subsequently wrote a series of articles, entitled 'Der Kartographische Standpunkt Europas.' In 1860 he returned to the service as Major, and was attached to the General Staff. Seven years later he became chief of a section in the subsidiary or purely scientific branch, and in 1870 was promoted to the rank of Colonel. Here he remained till the day of his death. The services which he rendered to his country in this capacity can hardly be overvalued; first in 1866, later and in a far higher degree in 1870–71, the work of his Department furnished a supply of maps to the Army which led in no small degree to the extraordinary successes of these eventful periods. In 1855 he was distinguished by the receipt of the large gold medal for Arts and Sciences, with the portrait of King William IV. He had married happily early in life, and was the father of three noble sons, the eldest of whom fell on the 28th June, 1866, at Soor-Burgendorf, as an officer of the Fusiliers of the Guard; the second was killed on the 18th August, 1870, before St. Privat, as an officer of the 3rd Foot Guards; the youngest, also an officer of that regiment, fell covered with wounds in the same battle, but, thanks to the skill of the well-known Professor Esmarck, has so far recovered as to be able to resume his duties. Last year (1872) Sydow lost his wife; the true partner of his joys and sorrows broke down under the accumulated misery of the loss of two, and the sufferings of her remaining son. I well remember the grief with which he told me of this sad bereavement. His death resulted from the after-consequences of an attack of cholera on the 13th
October, 1873, in the sixty-second year of his active and resultful life. A more amiable companion I have never known: add to this that he was a true servant of his King, a kindly superior and teacher, a good and genial comrade, and we have the picture of a man whose loss will long be felt by his country and by all who knew him. Peace to his ashes!

His principal works were the following:—

1. A School Atlas, in 42 sheets, which reached, as early as in 1867, the 20th edition.

2. Methodic Hand-Atlas for the scientific Study of Geography. 34 sheets, four editions, and on the fifth of which he was occupied at the date of his death.


4. Atlas for the German Translation of Thiers' 'History of the Revolution, the Consulate, and the Empire.'


Besides these, he published a number of outline Maps, calculated for the use of schools. The elucidations of these works were also from Sydow's pen, and were for the most part published in the periodicals of the day.

For the 'Militär Wochenblatt' he published, in 1864, 'A Review of the most important Maps of Europe; later his labour of love, 'The Register of the Geographical Statistical Department of the General Staff,' over which he presided with such marked ability. His brochure, 'North Italy, a Military Geographical Sketch,' was published in the Journal 'Unsere Zeit,' in 1860, but is incomplete, inasmuch as it wants the hydrographic portion of the work, although supplemented by an excellent Map of North Italy, compiled for the use of the Cadets' school, in whose possession it is still to be found.

Professor Christopher Hansteen, of Christiania, an Honorary Corresponding Member of our Society, died on the 11th of April, 1873, in the eighty-ninth year of his age. Educated first in the Cathedral School of his native city, and afterwards in the Gymnasium of Fredericksburg, he showed at an early age a predilection for mathematical and physical studies, and in 1819 he made for himself a wide reputation in the scientific world by his work, 'Researches in Terrestrial Magnetism.' This important branch of science became his speciality, and the progress it made during a
series of years following the appearance of his first treatise, is
in great measure indebted to his investigations and works. In
1828–30 he undertook a journey through Russia and Siberia, the
results of which were given to the world in a narrative published
in 1863.

Sir Paul Edmund de Strzelecki.—Sir Paul Edmund de Strzelecki,
generally known as Count Strzelecki, a Fellow of this Society,
died at his residence in Savile Row, on 6th December, 1873, in his
seventy-seventh year. He was a native of the Grand Duchy of Posen,
in the kingdom of Prussia, and came of a family of Counts by both
parents, his father being Count Francis de Strzelecki and his mother
the Countess Ann de Ruczynskish, the proprietress of Glucyna, in
the parish church of which place he was baptised on 21st July, 1797.
The prospects of his early life were chequered by the misfortunes
of his native country, as he witnessed the French invaders in pos-
session of the Grand Duchy, and had a painful recollection of the
head-quarters of General Marmont being established in his father’s
chateau. After the alliance of the Four Great Powers had brought
back peace to Europe, Count Strzelecki pursued a course of scientific
study at the University of Heidelberg, where his taste for foreign
travel evinced itself in early life, and he spent his vacations in
long and careful pedestrian expeditions into Switzerland and
Italy, studying the mineralogy and botany of those countries, and
familiarising himself with the use of the barometer, in determining
the vertical configurations of the chief mountain ranges and the
fall of the rivers. Before setting out on his voyage round the globe,
he visited the north of Scotland in 1830, and studied the system
of sheep-farming pursued by Patrick Sellar, Esq., in the county of
Sutherland, contrasting its peculiarities with the system in practice
at Wartemberg, in Silesia, on the estate of Prince Biron of Courland.
The knowledge thus acquired was of great importance to him sub-
sequently in New South Wales. In 1832 he resolved to put into
execution his long-cherished project of a voyage round the globe,
and directed his course first of all to Canada. Here he explored the
country of the Upper Lakes and discovered its rich deposits of
native copper, which he thought right to bring to the notice of the
Colonial Office. He passed some time also amongst the aboriginal
Indian tribes, studying their character and their habits, and, striking
southwards into the territory of the United States, emerged into
civilised life at Washington, where he was hospitably received by
the President, Andrew Jackson. Directing his course southward, he arrived at Rio Janeiro in the autumn of 1835, where his MS. journal recounts his explorations of the virgin forests of the Sierra Estrella. Thence he proceeded to Buenos Ayres, where he was the guest of General Rosas in August, 1836. After that he ascended the River Parana into Paraguay, and was welcomed by the Dictator Francia, from whose hospitality he had some difficulty in escaping into the territory of the Indians of the Gran Chaco. Returning thence to Santa Fé, he struck across the territory of the Argentine Republic to Mendoza and crossed the Cordilleras of Chili by the pass of La Cumbre, witnessing the phenomenon of melting snow at an elevation of 15,000 feet, whilst the snow lower down, at the elevation of 10,000 feet, was found unaltered. Thence he descended by Santa Rosa to Valparaiso, where he availed himself of the hospitable invitation of the Hon. Captain George Grey, and visited with him, on board H.M.S. Cleopatra, the Pacific Coast of America from Chili to California, landing in Mexico and passing some time in the province of Sonora. An extract from his MS. journal depicts in bright colours the high civilisation of this province and the happy relations which existed in 1837 between the descendants of the Spanish settlers and the Yakies or native Indians. "Everywhere," he writes, "abundance is visible—everywhere are seen the signs of a generous and open hand. Avarice, penuriousness, want, and suffering, seem to be unknown. Health, peace, and content, appear to reign in undisturbed possession of this region." On his return to Valparaiso Count Strzelecki accepted the hospitality of Captain Russell Eliott, and accompanied him on board H.M.S. Fly to the Marquesas, the Sandwich, and the Friendly islands. He arrived at Tahiti at a very interesting moment, when what has been termed "the Pritchard difficulty" very nearly brought on war between France and Great Britain. Here he became the guest of Queen Pomare, and he may be said to have inaugurated "Trial by Jury" in her dominions, as he sat as foreman on the first mixed jury empanelled in that country, to try an Englishman accused of the murder of a native. An account of the gigantic volcano of Kirauea, in the island of Hawaii in the Sandwich group, has been introduced by him into his description of the Crystalline Rocks of New South Wales, with some valuable observations on the scientific classification of volcanic products. Count Strzelecki took leave of Captain Russell Eliott at Tahiti, in November, 1838, and proceeded in a merchant-vessel to New Zealand, and thence to New South Wales, where he arrived at
Sydney in April, 1839. His main object in visiting New South Wales was to study its mineralogy; but he soon discovered, as he himself states in his 'Physical Description of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land,' that the scarcity of the simple minerals in that country was such as to discourage him from prosecuting any extensive mineralogical researches. His excursions, however, which he made with that object, disclosed to him a field of geological investigation of a most interesting character, and he was induced, at the urgent solicitation of Sir George Gipps, the Governor-General of New South Wales, "in the interest of science and of the colonists," to undertake a systematic survey of that portion of New South Wales which extends from 30° to 39° of south latitude, running nearly parallel with and stretching 150 miles inland from the coast. The labour of this survey was very great; it occupied him for five years. He made, to use his own words, 7000 miles on foot; he incurred an outlay of 5000L, and he prepared a geological map of New South Wales and of Van Diemen's Land on the scale of one inch to the mile, which he was unable to take upon himself to publish in this country from a disappointment in the recovery of funds for that purpose, consequent on the premature death of Sir George Gipps.

"His intention," he states, "when he set out from Sydney, had been to make Wilson's Promontory, the south-eastern extremity of New South Wales, the closing point of his survey;" but he was led to pursue the enquiry into the islands of Bass' Straits, and from those islands to Cape Portland and Research Bay in Van Diemen's Land. Here he found such striking correspondence of parts to the explored tracts of New South Wales, that he could not resist the temptation to extend his explorations, until they finally brought him to South Cape, in Van Diemen's Land, and thus he was enabled to join New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land in one geological survey. To the value of Count Strzelecki's contributions to physical geography our late distinguished President, Sir Roderick Murchison, has borne ample testimony in his Presidential Address of 1844.

Of the discoveries made by Count Strzelecki after his arrival at Sydney, the most important were those made by him in New South Wales. In fact, he himself states that he made no discovery of importance in Van Diemen's Land, where, however, he received every assistance from Sir John Franklin, then Governor. But with regard to New South Wales he made the discovery, in the month of October, 1839, that extensive gold-fields existed in
Bathurst, Wellington, and other districts, which he disclosed to Sir George Gipps, and at his earnest request kept secret from the public, "lest, if he made known his discovery, the maintenance of discipline amongst the 45,000 convicts, which the Australian colonies then contained, might be almost impossible." His other important discovery was accomplished in 1840, when he penetrated through a series of rugged and sterile defiles into a most beautiful and richly-watered tract of country, which he named "Gipps Land," in honour of the Governor-General of the colony. This district had hitherto been cut off from the rest of New South Wales by the formidable chain of the Australian Alps on the north, and by a zone of almost impenetrable scrub on the south, through which he was obliged to cut his way for 26 days, advancing only at the rate of three miles a day, and having to abandon a property in pack-horses and various valuable articles, which they carried, to the amount of 700£.

Sir George Gipps, in inducing Count Strzelecki to undertake so laborious a survey, was well aware of the sacrifice of time and money which it would impose upon him, and he accordingly assented to the Count's proposal, "that the Colonial Treasury should be associated with the enterprise and defray half the expenses, and further assured him, in case his researches should lead to results likely to benefit the public, he would recommend her Majesty's Government to repay him all the outlay which he might be obliged to incur in his expedition."

Having completed his labours in the two colonies, Count Strzelecki resumed his original voyage, and visited Java, Borneo, and the Philippine Islands, and thence proceeded to China, and, having accomplished his projected tour, returned to England by way of Egypt in the latter part of 1843. Here he was met by the unwelcome news that Sir George Gipps had been recalled from his government and had died a fortnight after his arrival at Southampton. This event was attended with a painful disappointment to the Count, as he had relied on the intervention of Sir George Gipps with the Colonial Office to obtain for him at least the recovery of half the outlay which he had been obliged to incur in his explorations, but the Colonial Office saw no other way of indemnifying him than by offering him an appointment in New South Wales, if he should be disposed to return there. This he declined to do, as it would have defeated his plans for making known to the scientific world of Europe the results of his travels. The liberality, however,
of the Tasmanian public came to his aid in some degree, and their
gratitude in subscribing a sum of 400l., as a contribution towards
the completion of his labours in illustrating the physical phenomena
of Van Diemen's Land, determined him to venture on the publica-
tion of his 'Physical Description of New South Wales and Van
Diemen's Land.' This work appeared in 1845, and at once placed
the name of Count Strzelecki on the roll of distinguished geo-
graphers. Science, however, has to regret that he was soon called
away from his labours as an author to undertake the relief of
suffering humanity, as he accepted the self-imposed and self-
remunerated mission of distributing, during a period of four years,
from 1846 to 1850, amongst the famine-stricken peasantry of Ire-
land, the relief which the liberality of the British public had col-
lected for them. During this period he left the question of the
discovery of gold and his other claims to the course of events.
Meanwhile, however, the discovery of the precious metal in New
South Wales had oozed out, and later explorers not merely enriched
themselves suddenly, but claimed the reward offered by the Legis-
lative Council of Sydney to the discoverer of gold. That reward,
however, was not distributed until 1853, when the Legislative
Council supported the proposal of the Executive Government of
the colony that the sum of 5000l. should be given to those who
first published the discovery and taught the miners how to wash
the gold, and not to him who first made the discovery and kept it
secret at the express request of the Executive Government. Justice,
however, was done to Count Strzelecki's scientific researches in the
course of the debates of the Legislative Council in its sitting on
5th October, 1853, and his claim to the discovery of the gold-fields
in 1839 was established beyond all dispute. Successive Ministers
of the Crown in this country have also borne their testimony to
the great services of Count Strzelecki, but, like many other public
benefactors, to use the words of the Secretary of State for the
Colonies in 1866, "he has had only the reward which being con-
scious of public service gives."

Count Strzelecki, after his return to England, obtained letters of
naturalisation as a British subject in 1845. He was a Fellow of
the Royal Society, and received the honorary degree of D.C.L. from
the University of Oxford. He was made a Companion of the Order
of the Bath in acknowledgment of his public services during the
Irish famine, and, after the Order of St. George and St. Michael
was extended to the Colonies, he was created, on the recommenda-
tion of Mr. Gladstone, a Knight Commander of that Order, in recognition of his great services in her Majesty’s Australian colonies.

Vice-Admiral Sir Robert M’Clure, C.B.—Robert John le Mesurier M’Clure, born at Wexford 28th January, 1807, was the posthumous son of Captain M’Clure, of the 89th Regiment, an officer who served with distinction under Abercrombie in Egypt, and stood beside his General when he fell mortally wounded at the battle of Aboukir. At four years of age he was entrusted to the care of his godfather, General le Mesurier, the hereditary Governor of Alderney, with whom he resided at the Governor’s house until 1819, when he was sent to Eton, and thence to Sandhurst. But the military profession being distasteful to him, at the age of sixteen he entered the Navy on board H.M.S. Victory. During the next twelve years he served in various parts of the world, passing his examination for Lieutenant in 1830.

In 1836 Sir Charles Adam applied to M’Clure to join an expedition sitting out for the North Pole; he at once assented, and was appointed to the Terror, commanded by Captain (now Admiral Sir George) Back, on a voyage to Repulse Bay. The vessel left Chatham on the 14th June of that year, and crossed Davis Strait on the 28th July. Here M’Clure gained his first experience of ice-navigation amidst the most appalling dangers: “a voyage,” as Sir John Barrow observes, “of a nature extraordinary and unparalleled in the history of voyages, ancient or modern.” On the return of the expedition towards the end of 1837, M’Clure received his Lieutenancy, and on the 1st February, 1838, was transferred to the Hastings, and afterwards to the Niagara on the Canadian lakes, where he distinguished himself by the capture of the leader and dispersion of a band of desperadoes, who had long set the authorities at defiance. Subsequently he was placed on the West India station from August, 1839, until 1848.

When it became necessary, after three years without tidings, to send an expedition in search of Sir John Franklin, the Enterprise and Investigator were fitted out under the command of Sir James Ross, and M’Clure was appointed First Lieutenant of the Enterprise. This expedition sailed in May, 1848, and after long detention in Baffin’s Bay, entered Lancaster Sound, making the harbour of Port Leopold on 11th September, and here Sir James Ross was obliged to winter. In September, 1849, the ships got out of harbour and into Barrow’s Strait, where they were closely beset by ice and carried out of Lan-
caster Sound into Baffin's Bay, compelling them to return to England. On his return M'Clure was promoted to the rank of Commander, and almost immediately the Admiralty resolved to despatch another searching expedition by way of Behring Strait, for which M'Clure again volunteered his services.

The new expedition consisted of the same two vessels, the Enterprise, commanded by Captain Collinson, and the Investigator, by Commander M'Clure. They sailed from England on the 20th January, 1850, but were separated in a gale of wind in the Straits of Magellan on the 20th April, and never encountered each other again. M'Clure reached the Sandwich Islands in July, and made the ice on the 2nd August. Keeping close along the American coast, he rounded Point Barrow, the extreme point to which exploration had been carried by a ship from the westward. All through August the Investigator encountered difficult navigation. On the 9th September they were only 60 miles from Barrow Strait: a few hours of clear sea and fair wind, and M'Clure would have connected the discoveries of Beechey on the west, with those of Parry on the east. But on the 11th they were beset; yet some further progress was made, and on the 16th the Investigator was only 30 miles from Barrow Strait. Here the ship wintered in the pack, and in October M'Clure started with a sledge party to the coast of Banks' Land, in the hope of solving the problem of a north-west passage in this direction. On the 26th they ascended a hill and obtained a view which settled the question affirmatively.

During the remainder of 1850, 51, and 52, M'Clure remained in these desolate regions, chiefly shut in by the ice, or proceeding slowly, retracing the latter part of his voyage, rounding the southern extremity of Banks' Land and coasting along its western shore. The dreary winters were passed in hunger and anxiety. Meanwhile unexpected aid was at hand: H.M.S. Resolute, commanded by Captain Kellett, arrived at Melville Island in September, 1852, and on the 6th April following, Lieut. Bedford Pim and Dr. Domville, who had been despatched from that vessel, reached the Investigator. "Despondency fled the ship, and Lieut. Pim received a welcome that he will assuredly remember and cherish to the end of his days."

Eventually Commander M'Clure was persuaded, though most reluctantly, to abandon his well-tried vessel, and on the 3rd June, 1853, he and his crew turned their backs on the old Investigator with feelings of sorrow. They reached the Resolute on the 17th June,
but had yet to face another winter on these inhospitable shores. The *Resolute* had to be abandoned, and after a march in the spring of 1854 to Beechey Island, took passage home in some whaling-ships. And so they made the long-sought North-west Passage. M'Clure and his gallant officers and crew are the only men who have passed from ocean to ocean to the north of the American continent. It was a glorious feat, of which the British Navy may well be proud.

The Royal Geographical Society presented M'Clure with their Gold Medal in 1854, in anticipation of his return; and a gold medal was also presented to him by the French Geographical Society. He became a Member of our body in 1855.

Captain M'Clure's commission was dated back to the day on which the existence of a continuous ocean was discovered from the hill on Banks' Land; he also received the honour of knighthood on his return to England, and a reward of 10,000l. was granted to the officers and crew of the *Investigator*, upon the recommendation of a Select Committee of the House of Commons, as a token of national approbation.

After his return from the Arctic regions he remained only about two years on shore. In March, 1856, he commissioned H.M.S. *Esk* at Sheerness, and proceeded in her to the China station, where he did good service during the war. In January, 1858, he was at the attack and storming of Canton, and in, the latter part of his commission he was commanding officer at Singapore. He returned to England in the autumn of 1861, and received a Companionship of the Bath for his services in China. He did not serve again. He became a Rear-Admiral, and in due course a Vice-Admiral on the retired list.

The latter years of his life were spent in rest and enjoying the pleasures of a country life. He was abroad last summer for his health, when he was attacked by his last illness; he begged to be brought to England, and in his lodgings in Duke Street he calmly breathed his last on the 17th October, 1873, aged 66 years and 8 months. He was buried at Kensal Green Cemetery on Saturday, the 25th October, surrounded by brother officers in the Naval service, and men eminent in the ranks of geographical research.

Sir Henry Holland, M.D.—We have to record among our losses during the past year, that distinguished physician Sir Henry Holland. His career in life was an exceptionally prosperous and favouring one. It was remarkable for its long duration, its brill-
liancy, its scientific utility, and its beneficence; and what made it most notable was, that Sir Henry by his position was brought intimately into relationship with the most prominent persons in public life during some of the most eventful years of the world's history. Few could more appropriately quote, as he has done on the title-page of his Autobiography, the words of Martial—

"Hoc est
Vivere bis, vita posse priore frui."

He was born at Knutsford, in Cheshire, on the 27th October, 1787, and died last year on his birthday, thus completing his eighty-fifth year. He was educated at a Bristol school, where he succeeded the late Lord Broughton, then John Cam Hobhouse, as head-boy. For a short time, after leaving school, he was in a merchant's counting-house in Liverpool; but before he was eighteen he took to the study of medicine in Edinburgh, where he graduated in the autumn of 1811, the subject of his Latin thesis being "The Diseases of Iceland," a country which he had himself already visited. As he was yet too young by three years for admission to the College of Physicians in London, he determined on making a tour of the Mediterranean and bordering countries, which resulted in the publication, in 1815, of a very valuable work, entitled 'Travels in the Ionian Islands, Albania, Thessaly, and Macedonia, during the years 1812 and 1813.' In 1814 he received the appointment of Domestic Medical Attendant on the Princess of Wales, afterwards Queen Caroline, on the understanding that he should accompany Her Royal Highness on her travels and during the first year of her contemplated stay on the Continent. Subsequently established in the pleasant practice of a West End physician, which, as he himself frankly admits, "abounds in cases which give little occasion for thought or solicitude, and are best relieved by a frequent half-hour of genial conversation," he yet found time for laborious scientific research, as shown by his published writings; to wit, his 'Medical Notes and Reflections,' published in 1839; his 'Chapters on Mental Physiology,' published in 1852; and his 'Essays on Scientific and other Subjects, contributed to the Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviews,' published in 1862. During the whole of his long life it had fallen to his lot to associate with all that was most distinguished for rank, genius, wit, learning, and refinement, not only in his own country, but in every capital of the civilised world. There was not a President or leading statesman in America that he could not call his friend. As a physician he had the heavy responsibility, as well as high honour, of
numerating among his patients Kings and Princes, Prime Ministers, Chancellors, statesmen, and jurists, and most of those who were highly distinguished among his cotemporaries for public services and for literary or scientific ability. But what is more surprising in his career, and more interesting to us as Geographers, is, that our late distinguished associate, though apparently bound by such ties of responsibility as these, contrived to indulge himself in a yearly ramble to some remote part of the world, selecting the long vacation, when most of his patients were also absent, for his holiday. In this way he managed to cross the Atlantic sixteen or seventeen times; travelled over more than 26,000 miles of the American Continent; made four expeditions to the East; three tours in Russia, two in Iceland, several in Sweden, Norway, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Greece; innumerable voyages to the Canaries, Madeira, and West Indies, and, to use his own words, "other excursions which it would be useless to enumerate." He joined with good effect the Deputation which, on the 16th December, 1872, waited on Mr. Goschen and the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, to press the subject of an Arctic Expedition upon the notice of Government; and made some very appropriate remarks on the scientific results to be anticipated from such an undertaking.

In his various tours it was his habit to carry with him the smallest amount of "impedimenta" possible; all who chanced to meet Sir Henry abroad, whether in the Arctic zone or the Tropics, on the Prairies or the Pyramids, found him always in the same black dress-coat in which he was so well known in London. His life was one long spell of healthy and intelligent activity. Three days before his death, on Friday, the 24th of October, he attended the Bazaine trial at Versailles, and dined at the British Embassy in Paris, "cheerful and happy, and full of conversation." On the 27th he died at his house in Brook Street, without any serious illness, but like a ripe shock of corn in its season, and regretted and honoured by all who knew him.

The Bishop of Winchester.—In our retrospect of the whole of the past year we meet with no event which has more painfully affected the public mind than the suddenness of the death of our illustrious associate, the Bishop of Winchester. The catastrophe was the more startling that this distinguished prelate was taken from us while in the full possession of those brilliant powers which rendered him so conspicuous an ornament, not only to this country, but to this age.
Samuel Wilberforce, the third son of the illustrious William Wilberforce, who won for himself undying fame by the share he had in the abolition of the slave-trade, was born on the 7th September, 1805, and had therefore nearly completed his 68th year at the time of his death. He received his early education at Edgbaston, near Birmingham, under the care of Archdeacon Hodson, and in due course was entered as a Commoner at Oriel College, Oxford. As an Undergraduate he commenced, at the Union Debating Society, the cultivation of that eloquence for which he subsequently became so remarkable. In 1826 he took a second class in Classics, and a first in Mathematics; his name standing in the Class-list side by side with Bishop Trower, the late Dr. Mortimer, Archdeacon Denison, Lord Henry Bentinck, and the late Lord Newark. In 1828 he received ordination from Dr. Lloyd, the then Bishop of Oxford, his "title" for orders being the curacy of Checkendon, in Oxfordshire, where he won for himself great affection by his goodness to the poor. In 1830 he was appointed to the living of Brightstone, in the Isle of Wight, the gift of Bishop Sumner of Winchester, to whose see he afterwards succeeded in Dr. Sumner's lifetime, but whom, nevertheless, he did not outlive. In 1839 the Bishop gave him the Archdeaconry of Surrey, and a Prebendal Stall in Winchester in 1840. In 1841 he was promoted to the rectory of Alverstoke, near Gosport, a populous parish, where he had Dr. Trench, the present Archbishop of Dublin, for his curate; and, in 1843, he was appointed one of the chaplains to His Royal Highness the late Prince Consort. In 1844 he received from the then Archbishop of York the appointment of Sub-Almoner to the Queen, and early in 1845 was promoted to the Deanery of Westminster, whence, before the close of the next year, he was advanced to the Bishopric of Oxford, an appointment which carried with it the Chancellorship of the Order of the Garter. In 1847 the Bishop received the dignity of Lord High Almoner to Her Majesty. In 1869, on Bishop Sumner's resignation of the Bishopric of Winchester, Bishop Wilberforce was translated to that important see.

The melancholy circumstances of his death are fresh in the minds of us all; but it is my sad duty to recount them here, simply by way of placing them on record in this obituary notice.

On Saturday, July 19th, 1873, his Lordship, accompanied by Lord Granville, left London by the South-Western Railway with the intention of paying a short visit to the Hon. Edward Frederick
Leveson Gower, at Holmbury, near Dorking, where Mr. Gladstone had arrived to meet them. At Leatherhead they were met by a groom with horses, and the Bishop mounted one which, on account of its quietness, was a special favourite of Lord Granville's. They took Ranmoor Common in their way, and followed the bridle-road towards Leith Hill. In going down the hill towards Abinger, the road at Evershed's Rough being very full of ruts, they left it for the turf, which, though light and springy, was not good galloping ground. While the Bishop was in conversation with Lord Granville, his horse stumbled, it is thought, over a stone, and his Lordship was thrown on his head. The neck was dislocated, and death was instantaneous. Although removed so suddenly, while in the full vigour of his intellect, and with his grand energies unabated, the Bishop had well-nigh reached the term which is ordinarily assigned to human life.

Of the intellectual powers of the lamented Prelate, so well and so widely known, it seems almost superfluous for me to speak. A life of ceaseless practical activity seemed to leave little opportunity for prosecuting the literary studies for which his academical career proved that he possessed such extraordinary aptitude; but his eloquence and his command of language were such, that, whether as a preacher, a debater, or a platform-orator, he may be said to have been in his day almost unrivalled. His polished mode of thought and sparkling wit made his society a delight to his friends, and he knew how to add a piquancy, all his own, even to the witticisms of others, simply by his manner of repeating them. He took a warm interest in Geography, and had been a Fellow of our Society ever since 1846, and was twice on our Council, besides taking part for some years in our social gatherings. In an intimate acquaintance with the geography of his own country he was surpassed by very few. But perhaps the most remarkable characteristic of the late Bishop of Winchester, even more characteristic than his overflowing kindliness of heart, was his inexhaustible energy. Apart from the vast correspondence entailed by his official position, he was able to find time for a great amount of volunteer work for churches and charities, and even though such toil would with many men amount to absolute drudgery, he always did his work well and with a hearty geniality. It must, moreover, be acknowledged that his efforts were invariably exerted with a view to the welfare, comfort, and assistance of those with whom his labours brought him into relationship.
LORD DE LA ZOUCHE.—The late Lord de la Zouche, known to the literary world chiefly by his former designation as the Honourable Robert Curzon, was born on the 16th March, 1810, the eldest son of the Baroness de la Zouche (baroness in her own right) and the Honourable Robert Curzon. His education was commenced at the Charterhouse, and completed at Christ Church, Oxford. It was whilst occupying the position of private secretary to Lord Stratford de Redcliffe at Constantinople that he undertook that holiday tour through portions of Turkey and Greece, visiting the various religious houses, convents, and monasteries, the results of which he gave to the world in his delightful book, 'Visits to the Monasteries of the Levant,' published by Murray in 1848. The description of his wanderings from convent to convent, scattered about the rocky islands, and perched on almost inaccessible promontories, and the curious literary treasures his good judgment and perseverance enabled him to bring to light, established his reputation as an Oriental traveller. He published a second book in 1854, entitled 'Armenia: a Year at Erzeroum and on the Frontiers of Russia, Turkey, and Persia;' but it was far from having the success of his former work, which has run through many editions, and still maintains its popularity. He was elected a Fellow of our Society in 1865. His death took place on the 2nd of August last.

KEITH EDWARD ABBOTT.—Mr. K. E. Abbott, during a lengthened period of service as Consul in various parts of Persia, distinguished himself by his contributions to our geographical knowledge of the country. His first appointment was to the Consulate of Teheran in 1841, whence he was transferred, in 1842, to Tabreez. On the death of Mahomed Shah, in the autumn of 1848, he was deputed, on the part of Her Majesty's Legation at Teheran, to convey to the Heir-Apparent, the present Shah, Nasser-ed-din, the intelligence of that event, and to accompany His Majesty, as the official representative of the Legation, to the capital. He was appointed Consul of Tabreez in April 1854, and remained there till the rupture between England and Persia in 1856: returning to the same place, as Consul-General, on the renewal of relations with Persia, in July 1857. In July 1868 he became Consul-General of the Russian Ports in the Black Sea and Sea of Azof, residing at Odessa, and remaining there until his death on the 28th April, 1873. His first contribution to our 'Transactions' was a paper entitled 'Geographical Notes, taken during a Journey in Persia in 1849–50,' published in the
25th volume of our 'Journal.' The route followed by him during this journey led from Teheran to Savé, Kúm, Kashan, and Isphahan, and thence to Yezd, Kerman, Shiraz, and Bushire, on the Persian Gulf. Embarking at the last-mentioned place in an Arab boat, he crossed the Gulf to the mouth of the Shat ul Arab, and thence proceeded to Muhmmeráh and Bagdad by the river; returning to Teheran by way of Kermáshá and Hamadán. His narrative was marked by great accuracy and conscientiousness, and his remarks on various places, rarely or never before visited by Europeans, attracted considerable attention among Oriental geographers at that time. Among his subsequent communications were his 'Notes on Ghilan' (the narrow strip of country on the south-western side of the Caspian), published in our 'Proceedings,' vol. iii., and his 'Memorandum on the Country of Azerbaijan' ('Proceedings,' vol. viii.). He had been a member of our body since 1869.

WILLIAM WHEELWRIGHT, the founder of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, of the Central Argentine and Boca and Ensenada Railways, and of the Callao Waterworks, by whose projects and successful undertakings the Pacific Coast of South America has so materially benefited, was born at Newbury Port, Mass., U.S.A., in 1798, and died on 26th September, 1873, at his residence, Gloucester Lodge, Regent's Park. He was the eldest son of Ebenezer and Anna Wheelwright, and a descendant from an old Lincolnshire Puritan family. Educated at Andover College, Mass., he led a seafaring life from the age of 14 years, and was promoted to the command of a ship in 1823, thus acquiring a practical knowledge of most parts of the Pacific Coast. In 1829 he established himself at Valparaiso, and engaged in various enterprises for the development of that part of South America—such as the exploration of South Chili for coal, the establishment of gasworks at Copiapo, the projection of the railway from Callao to Lima, and the working of the railway from Caldera to Copiapo.

The most recent works in which Mr. Wheelwright was engaged were the Central Argentine and the Boca and Ensenada Railways. It is his peculiar merit that he undertook the first surveys for these various undertakings entirely at his own expense, and endeavoured to make them subservie the interests of various branches of science. This is shown by the paper which he communicated to our Society early in the year 1860, on "A proposed Railway Route across the Andes, from Caldera in Chili to Rosario on the Paraná,
which was afterwards published in the 31st volume of our 'Journal,' accompanied by a map furnished by his surveyor; a paper which illustrates questions of engineering in the proposed scheme of carrying a railway across the Andes, and communicates much information on the climate, the mineralogical productions, and agricultural resources of the regions traversed by the surveyors. Although great difficulties surrounded his project, an important section of it was realised, and the Central Argentine Railway remains a monument of the patience, energy, and ability of its author.

In private life Mr. Wheelwright was greatly esteemed, and he leaves behind him many friends who mourn his loss. He was a frequent attendant at our evening meetings, during those intervals in his active life when he resided in London; and he occasionally took part in discussions on South American subjects.

Mr. Hamilton Hume, who was elected a Fellow in 1860, was a native of Australia, his parents having been among the earliest settlers in the colony. In his early years he was hardy and athletic, as well as intelligent and spirited; and he acquired from the natives an unusual facility for finding his way without a compass. His explorations began in 1814, when he was only 17 years of age; as he discovered, in company with a younger brother, the country now called Berrima or Bong-Bong. In 1817, having been requested by Governor Macquarie to accompany Surveyor Mechan to the "new country," they discovered Lake Bathurst, Goulburn Plains. In 1818 he joined Messrs. Mechan and Oxley in an exploring expedition to Jervis Bay; and in 1821, in company with his brother and two friends, the Yaro Plains were discovered, at which place he afterwards fixed his residence. In 1822 he was engaged on Lieutenant Johnson's survey of the east coast in search of rivers; and the late Mr. Alexander Berry and he penetrated from the upper portion of the Clyde to the present flourishing town of Braidwood. In 1824 his most difficult task was undertaken. It was to cross the country overland from Lake George—which was then the limit of our geographical knowledge—to Port Phillip Bay. Though the expedition had been suggested by the Government, but in the converse direction, it received but limited aid, and was imperfectly equipped. Mr. W. H. Howell, who is also one of our Fellows, shared in the expenditure and accompanied the expedition. Starting on the 3rd of October, 1824, they reached, on the 24th of December, the
spot where the town of Geelong now stands. Mr. Hume’s account of the district arrested the attention of stock-men and flock-owners, and the settlement of John Batman in 1827 was the first step towards the founding of the flourishing sister colony of Victoria. In 1828 he was associated with Captain Sturt in his attempt to trace the Macquarie River, and they discovered the Darling, which, in an unusually hot season, was salt at the point where they struck it. Sturt says: “I have on every occasion received the most ready and valuable assistance from Mr. Hume. His intimate acquaintance with the manners and customs of the natives enabled him to enter into intercourse with them, and chiefly contributed to the peaceable manner in which we have journeyed. I cannot but say he has done an essential service to future travellers, and to the colony at large, by his conduct on all occasions since he has been with me.” In 1829 he was unable to accompany Sturt on his second expedition, and he soon after settled down as a country gentleman. He died on the 19th of April, 1873, having nearly completed 76 years. A monumental pillar at Albury, on the Hume River, was erected by the colonists several years ago, and he is commemorated in several local names; and all the historians of the earlier days of the colony (including Rusden, the most recent) do full justice to the services which he rendered.

Mr. Herman Merivale, born at Dawlish, November 8, 1806, was the son of Mr. Merivale, Commissioner of Bankruptcy, by Louisa, daughter of Dr. Drury of Harrow. Sent to Harrow at ten years of age, he entered Oriel College, Oxford, at seventeen, and was subsequently elected Scholar of Trinity and Fellow of Balliol. He graduated as first class in Classics, obtaining the additional honours of first Ireland University Scholar, and first Elder Scholar. Called to the Bar about 1830, his University successes gave promise of a legal career of unusual distinction; but being elected as first occupant of Mr. Henry Drummond’s Chair of Political Economy at Oxford, he devoted much time to his duties as Professor, and published his lectures on colonization, which led to his selection by Lord Grey as Under Secretary to the Colonies in 1847. Thenceforward he gave himself to official and literary labours, and in 1858 became Under Secretary to the India Office on its reorganization, in which office he continued till his death, 8th February, 1874. Besides his Lectures on Colonization and the Poor Laws, he published a volume of Historical Studies, many articles in the ‘Edinburgh Review’
and other periodicals, and he completed the Lives of Sir Philip Francis and Sir Henry Lawrence, begun by others.

As a Fellow of this Society, he kept up a continued interest in works of geographical discovery, and in his official position at the Colonial and India Offices was ever ready to attend to matters of importance to the Society in India and the Colonies. But such an official position as his, whilst it, as in his case, absorbs talents and acquirements of the highest order, leaves little opportunity for achieving distinction by labours which often tend to help or correct others than to illustrate the individual labourers.

Admiral Frederick Bullock, who died on February 6, 1874, in his eighty-seventh year, entered the navy in November, 1804, and served throughout the war, in the Channel, in the Mediterranean, and on the East Indian station. In 1823 he had command of the Saap, surveying vessel on the Newfoundland station, in which he accompanied Captain G. F. Lyon to the coast of Labrador, when that officer sailed on his voyage of Arctic discovery. He was afterwards employed on survey duties on the Home station and elsewhere.

Mr. Frederick Ayrton began life as an officer of the Indian Artillery; but having resigned the service, he took up his residence in Egypt, to which country he devoted himself during the remainder of his life. He will be best remembered as a profound Arabic scholar, and for his researches into Egyptian History, especially since the Arab conquest. He formed a magnificent collection of Arabic calligraphs and MSS., which he bequeathed to the nation, though unfortunately the conditions with which the bequest was accompanied prevented their acceptance by the trustees of the British Museum. He was greatly respected in Egypt, where he so long resided, and was honoured by the Khedive with the title of Bey, as an acknowledgment of his services to H.H.'s Government.

Mr. Chisholm Anstey.—Our obituary contains the names of few abler men than that of Mr. Anstey, whose great and varied learning and untiring energy promised, in the earlier parts of his career, to win him the highest position in the Senate or at the Bar. He had travelled much, and possessed a wonderful facility for the acquisition of foreign languages, and a vast amount of information on Geographical subjects. He died at Bombay, where many of the
latter years of his life had been spent in successful practice at the Bar.


Admiralty Surveys.*

The hydrographical surveys undertaken by the Admiralty during the past year have embraced districts in the following countries: — England (south and east coast), Ireland (east coast); Mediterranean; Red Sea; East Coast of Africa (north and south of Zanzibar). In Australia, the provinces of West Australia, South Australia, Victoria, and Queensland. In West Indies, Jamaica and Barbadoes. In North America, Newfoundland. Western Pacific Ocean. These surveys have employed three of H.M. steam-ships — viz., the Shearwater of 670 tons, the Nassau of 695 tons, the Porcupine of 380 tons, one Colonial steam-vessel, two small hired steam-vessels, three hired sailing-vessels, and a steam-launch; and have been conducted by twelve naval officers in charge, with forty-seven naval officers as trained assistants, and have given employment to about 350 men.

To these surveys must be added the deep-sea exploratory voyage of H.M.S. Challenger (1460 tons, 400 horse-power), commanded by Captain George S. Nares, with a complement of 23 officers and 213 men, aided by a civilian scientific staff of five gentlemen, with Professor Wyville Thomson, F.R.S., as their chief.

East and South Coasts of England.—Staff-Commander Parsons and his staff, in the Porcupine, have performed good service in closely

* By Captain Frederick J. Evans, C.B., F.R.S., Hydrographer.
sounding the approaches to Harwich; the work extended from Orfordness to the Naze, and included seaward as far as the Shipwash and Gunfleet sands. A similar close examination of the shores from the South Foreland to Dungeness followed; the soundings extending from the coast from three to five miles. Dover bay was also surveyed in close detail, in anticipation of proposed harbour works, in continuation of the Admiralty pier.

Staff-Commander D. Hall has made during the past season, in addition to local surveys of the Medina river and Cowes roads, a minute examination of the bar at Portsmouth harbour. This survey, consequent on the dredging operations of 1871-2, shows that the proposed depth of 20 feet at low-water ordinary spring-tides, has, with the exception of a few spots of 19 feet, been realised. The completion of this valuable channel, now so near at hand, into our great naval arsenal, cannot be overrated. During the great wars, and indeed up to 1863, a line-of-battle ship was obliged to discharge her guns to proceed from Spithead to Portsmouth harbour; now any ship, drawing 25 feet, can enter at 3-hours’ flood, and the heaviest draft ship at high-water.

East Coast of Ireland.—Staff-Commander Kerr and staff, in a small hired steamer, have made a patient examination of the off-lying shoal banks between the Tuskar rock and Wicklow Head. The changes that have taken place in these banks, since their survey in 1844 by the late Captain Frazer, have been of sufficient importance to navigation to demand this re-survey, and necessitate their re-buoyage, a work about to be performed by the Commissioners of Irish Lights.

An examination of the bar at Wexford, Kingston harbour, the bar of the Liffey river, and the new cutting through the bar of Lough Carlingford, formed also a portion of the season’s work. Gratifying marks of improvement present themselves in the two last-named localities. The bar of the Liffey has now 15 feet at low-water springs over a breadth of two cables, and a narrow lane of 17½ feet. In 1800, the greatest depth was but 5½ feet; in 1856, 13 feet. Lough Carlingford bar, with its cutting of 400 feet wide, and a depth of 18 feet, opens up a fine harbour. A line of steam-vessels now run to the new harbour works and railway at Greenore on the west side of the lough.

Mediterranean.—Commander Wharton, in the Shearwater, commenced the season’s operations on the east coast of Sicily, the survey of which was completed, including a plan of Taormina. An
examination of the north coast between Castel-le-Mare and Milazzo followed, including partially-executed surveys of Palermo bay and Ustica. Port Said and its approaches were also re-sounded in May, 1873. Deposit was found to have taken place around and outside the breakwaters, in certain places considerably, while in others the depth had slightly increased.

The necessity for improved surveys of the dangerous coast in the neighbourhood of Zanzibar—consequent on the increase in number of our ships-of-war engaged in the suppression of the slave-traffic—led to the Shearwater being transferred from the Mediterranean to meet these pressing hydrographic requirements.

Red Sea.—An important addition during the past year has been made by an exhaustive survey, on the scale of 4 inches to the mile, of the Island of Perim and its off-lying shoals, together with the small strait and the coast near Cape Bab-el-mandeb. The necessity for minute surveys in channels principally navigated by steam-vessels is apparent in this case. A valuable steam-ship was wrecked off the south-east end of Perim in 1872; by general report it was assumed that the unknown danger on which the vessel stranded was several cables’ length from the land, and thus a formidable obstacle to secure navigation in a strait only 1½ mile wide. The survey by Lieutenant Gray and the officers of H.M.S. Nassau, while on a passage to Zanzibar, places this danger, still marked by the wreck, just 387 yards from the south-east point of Perim. This tendency to “cut off corners” in steam-navigation is fraught with danger. The most carefully conducted hydrographic survey, in localities newly opened up to commerce, can scarcely be accountable for a lurking pinnacle rock or boulder stone so near jutting points of land.

East Coast of Africa.—Reference has been made to the pressing necessity for more accurate surveys of the dangerous line of coast on which the slave-traffic exists, and of the removal from the Mediterranean of H.M.S. Shearwater to perform this duty. Commander Wharton has completed the coast of Zanzibar Island and the mainland opposite, from Pungany bay southwards to Pouna point, as also the channels north and south of Zanzibar Island, with their numerous dangers. These surveys are now on their way to England; the Shearwater having in the mean time, owing to the sickness of her ship’s company, and damages sustained to the ship in examining the intricate dangers of the district, proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope to refit and recruit.
Lieutenant Gray, with a staff of well-trained officers, has proceeded in H.M.S. Nassau (commissioned at Malta at the close of last year), to survey the coast southward of Zanzibar, extending from Quiloa to Port Mozambique. Operations have just been commenced, after having carried a line of deep soundings from Cape Guardafui to Zanzibar.

**West Indies.**—Staff-Commander George Stanley and staff, in a hired schooner, have been engaged on the south coast of Jamaica. The chief operations of the survey were the charting and sounding off to the 100-fathom line the coast between Port Royal and Morant point—a work of difficulty, owing to the fierce trade-winds which usually blow in this district. In the latter part of 1873 yellow fever, of a malignant type, broke out at Kingston and Port Royal. Many deaths ensued, and among the victims was a promising young officer, Navigating-Lieutenant Thompson, attached to the survey.

**Newfoundland.**—Navigating-Lieutenant William Maxwell and party, in the hired steam-vessel Gulnare, have been actively engaged in various localities. On the south coast the survey progressed 20 miles to the eastward. A re-survey of Port Hood in Cape Breton Island, owing to great changes in the depth of water in certain parts, was made at the request of the Government of the Dominion of Canada. The coast of Labrador from Cape St. Lewis to the latitude of 54° N. was also examined, the prominent head-lands fixed, and outlying islands surveyed. The short time during which this survey can be profitably prosecuted makes it an arduous service. The difficulties of the season's work at the beginning were further enhanced by the immense number of icebergs aground along the shore.

**Japan.**—The survey of the coasts of Kiusiu and Nipon is about to be resumed by Captain St. John in H.M.S. Syleia. This ship was commissioned for the service in February of the present year, and has, therefore, not yet reached the ground for surveying operations.

**Australia.**—The marine surveys of the shores of the several colonies are steadily progressing, supported, as heretofore, by Colonial and Imperial funds.

In **Western Australia**, Navigating-Lieutenant Archdeacon and his assistant have surveyed, in laborious detail, the entrances and approaches to Cockburn sound, Owen's anchorage, and Gago roads, with the view to certain harbour-works in the interests of the colony. The service on this exposed coast in whale-boats, by which
slender means the duty was accomplished, is worthy of record. The
party have now completed the northern and western approaches
to Swan river, and are about to proceed to the small, but rising,
port of Champion bay.

In South Australia Staff-Commander Howard and staff have com-
pleted the soundings off the southern shores of Kangaroo Island. In
Spencer's gulf several islands and dangers seaward of Port
Lincoln were examined and soundings in detail taken. The coast-
line from Cape Catastrophe to Point Avoid, the inner waters of
Coffin's bay, and the sea-coast thence to Point Drummond, have
also been surveyed. Soundings off the wild line of coast westward
of Cape Catastrophe are now in progress.

Victoria.—The surveying party under Staff-Commander H. J.
Stanley have been chiefly employed in completing the coast-line
of King Island at the western entrance of Bass strait, and in
sounding around. The bank of soundings, extending seaward from
King island in the direction of Portland bay, was found to extend
30 and 40 miles from the coast, and then to drop suddenly to depths
greater than 150 fathoms. This bank of soundings should afford
material aid to the navigator making the land in thick weather.

Queensland.—Staff-Commander Bedwell, in the hired schooner
Pearl, aided by a steam launch, is steadily working northward. Port
Bowen, Island head, Strong-tide passages, Shoal-water bay, Broad
sound, and several islands of the Northumberland group, have
been included in the year's survey. Navigating-Lieutenant Connor,
detached from the Pearl, has been employed surveying portions
of the Brisbane river; also the entrance of Endeavour river in
lat. 15° 30' s.* (here Cook refitted the Endeavour in 1770, after nearly
losing the ship on a reef in the neighbourhood). Mr. Connor, aided
by a boat and crew provided by Captain Moresby, of H.M.S. Basilisk,
has surveyed the inner edge of the Warrior reef in Torres Strait, and
the adjacent coast-line of New Guinea as far as the Talbot islands,

Contributions to Hydrography.—Much varied and useful infor-
mation, including partial surveys, has been received during the past
year from officers both of the Royal and Mercantile Marine.

An useful sketch survey of Amsterdam Island, in the South Indian
Ocean, with nautical remarks; as also important corrections to the
reef and coast features of Kandavu Island in the Fiji group, Pacific

* This survey shows a considerable reduction in the depth of water at the
river's mouth, and especially in the small anchorage where Cook careened and
refitted his ship.
Ocean, have been received from Commodore Goodenough and his Navigating-Lieutenant (Hosken) in H.M.S. Pearl.

Captain Moresby, in H.M.S. Basilisk, and his Navigating-Lieutenant, T. L. Mourilyan, have largely added to our knowledge of the South-Eastern coast of New Guinea; of which some further details are given in a subsequent portion of this Address, under 'New Guinea.' Between Redscar bay and Point Hood several coast localities were examined, and a detailed survey executed of a capacious harbour, which was named Port Moresby. Proceeding eastward to the comparatively unknown region between New Guinea and the Louisiade Archipelago, these persevering officers succeeded in tracing a clear passage (named China strait) close past the east end of New Guinea, and leading apparently to a clear open channel on the north, named in compliment to the First Lord of the Admiralty, Goschen strait. Captain Moresby, in his homeward route during the present year from the Australian station, where he has performed so much good Hydrographic service, will follow, up the exploration of Goschen strait and the northern shores of New Guinea.

In the Eastern Pacific, Lieutenant S. T. Lecky, R.N., commanding the Pacific mail steam-ship Aurora, has materially added to the secure navigation of the western part of Magellan strait:—by patient observation of the several transit bearings of the various headlands between Cape Cross Tides and Cape Pillar (a distance of nearly 100 miles), made in his several voyages through the Strait; and these again, combined with groups of sextant angles to prominent coast and mountain features at stated distances in the ship's track, have afforded data for connecting the detached labours of P. P. King, FitzRoy, Stokes, and Mayne (1825–1869) in this now rising commercial highway. Mr. Lecky has also furnished valuable notes on parts of the coast of South America between Cape Pillar and Callao, including a clear and neat survey of Tongoy bay, a rising port near Coquimbo.

On the West Coast of Africa, Mr. R. C. Downer, while in command of the Emily of Glasgow, on a trading voyage to the oil-rivers in the bight of Biafra, made painstaking surveys of the mouths of the Opobo and Quaebco rivers, heretofore uncharted. With a laudable spirit he presented his labours to the Admiralty, and they are now published.

'Challenger' Deep-Sea Exploring Expedition. — In the Address of my predecessor, last year, the general scope and arrangements of this
expedition were briefly set forth. It mentioned that no expense had been spared to render the Challenger perfect in equipment; that an abundant supply of instruments and apparatus necessary to carry out the physical investigation of the deep sea had been furnished, as also all the appliances which modern science could suggest in order to sound, dredge, and obtain the temperature, and other observations at the greatest depths of the ocean.

The Challenger had then reached Bermuda, after having visited Lisbon, Gibraltar, Madeira, Teneriffe, and St. Thomas in the West Indies, making continuous lines of deep soundings and temperature observations throughout the several tracks. The subsequent movements comprise a voyage from Bermuda to Halifax by way of the banks off Sandy Hook on the coast of the United States, and the return to Bermuda; thus crossing the Gulf Stream in two widely-spread tracks; thence to the Azores, Madeira, Canary Islands, and St. Vincent, in the Cape de Verde group. From St. Vincent a détour towards the African coast was made, and thence to St. Paul Rocks near the Equator, calling at Fernando Noronha and Bahia; thence to the Cape of Good Hope, touching by the way at the Tristan d’Acunha group.

This completed, or nearly so (depending on the tracks to be made in the homeward route in 1875-6), the Atlantic exploration. To record in the limited space at command all that has been effected in the first part of this excellent work is difficult; a few statistical details will, perhaps, show most readily the great amount of well-directed labour that has been expended in carrying out the leading objects of the expedition.

From the time of leaving England to arrival at the Cape of Good Hope, 18,610 miles of ocean have been traversed. In the deep-sea soundings, 174 casts obtained, and the nature of the bottom ascertained in each case. These casts varied from 500 fathoms to 3875 fathoms, the latter being the greatest depth observed; and, what is remarkable, only 85 miles from the land—that of St. Thomas Island in the West Indies. Of the proportion in number and depths of these deep-sea soundings we have—

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At sixty stations, serial temperatures of the ocean were observed, generally at every 100 fathoms' depth to 1500 fathoms below the surface, the bottom temperature being obtained at the same time. *

At six stations, in depths varying from 3150 to 1000 fathoms, and at twenty stations below the latter depth, the dredge or the trawl was sent to the bottom, and, in most cases, fruitful work for the naturalist was obtained.

Geographical and physical science have rarely received contributions of wider significance and importance than those derived from the Challenger Expedition. The reports of Captain Nares on this Atlantic Ocean exploration have been printed by the Admiralty and circulated among learned bodies and individuals as well as among those interested commercially in deep-sea telegraphy. The salient matters touched on in these reports may not prove uninteresting in this Address.

With reference to depth, the greatest found—

In the North Atlantic Ocean was ... 3875 fathoms

South Atlantic Ocean ... 2650

With reference to temperature, the lowest observed at sea bottom was—

In North Atlantic [3025 fathoms] ... 34°4 Fahrenheit

Equatorial Region [2475 fathoms] ... 32°4

South Atlantic [2325 fathoms] ... 32°9

In the North Atlantic Ocean the most striking temperature results are, (1.) that below the upper 60 or 80 fathoms, all the water, as far north as the 40th parallel of latitude, is warmer than that at the same depth at the Equator. [A slight exception to this general law was found at Bermuda.]

(2.) The mean temperature of the upper 1500 fathoms is 4½° warmer than that at the Equator.

(3.) The temperature of the bottom water is about 35° (ranging from 35°6 on the African to 34°9 on the American side of the Atlantic), while at the Equator it is 2½° colder.

(4.) At the Equator the temperature decreases rapidly with the depth. At 60 fathoms below the surface the temperature is the same as at Madeira, with the same depth, namely, 61°5.

* The whole of the soundings given above, and also the serial temperatures, were successfully made with specially prepared hempen sounding-line. This line is one inch in circumference, has a breaking strain of about 15 cwt., and weighs 18½ lbs. the 100 fathoms. The bottom temperatures were obtained during the sounding operation. The serial temperatures were obtained with the same description of line, but by a separate observation.
From a position 260 miles north of St. Thomas, and thence to the Gulf Stream, a distance of 1000 miles, a warm stratum of water (of temperature 62° to 66° Fahr.) underlies that affected by solar heat and other causes. With a maximum thickness of 380 fathoms—or 330 fathoms thicker than the corresponding stratum southward—the same warm stratum was found to extend within 280 miles of the Azores, when it is suddenly lost. The origin or movement of this immense body of water is obscure; but Captain Nares considers that as its thickest part joins the warmer water of the Gulf Stream, it is evidently connected with it, and probably is an offshoot; also that as the southern and eastern boundaries of this enormous store of heat, extending as it does 2250 miles from the Gulf Stream, and remaining so steadily at the same temperature; it may be safely predicted as being produced by that stream, and to stretch across the Atlantic to the European shores north of the Azores.

With respect to the Gulf Stream, the serial temperature observations show that it is extremely superficial, extending only 100 fathoms below the surface.

Among the notable results of the surface-current observations are the following:—When the Equatorial current was running to the westward on the surface 0·75 knot an hour, at a depth of 50 fathoms the rate had decreased to 0·4; and at 75 fathoms there was still water.

Considerable difficulty—as had been anticipated—was experienced in making sounding and current observations in the Gulf Stream. Captain Nares’ Report is of special interest in these practical details. On one occasion, while sounding in this ocean river, the ship had to be steamed at the rate of three knots an hour to keep up to the sounding line.

After refit at the Cape of Good Hope, the Challenger sailed in the middle of December (1873) in further prosecution of the voyage of research. The route selected was by way of Prince Edward, Crozet, Kerguelen, and Heard islands; thence southward to the Antarctic Circle; returning northward to Melbourne, Australia—the time occupied being exactly three months, and the distance traversed 7640 miles.

In addition to the several deep-sea soundings made in the solitary seas here traversed, much additional geographical detail was collected of the several groups of islands, more especially at Kerguelen and Heard islands. The Challenger’s visit to these remote and desolate
spots was of special value in relation to the Transit of Venus Expedition, chosen as they were by British astronomers as the most important stations for their purpose in the South Indian Ocean. The difficulty presented itself as to the security of anchorage for the ships conveying the parties, and for communication between the ships and the latter when engaged in their astronomical duties. Our knowledge of Kerguelen Island, heretofore, was chiefly drawn from the limited survey made by Cook in his third voyage of discovery, in 1776, and from the visit made by Sir J. C. Ross, in 1840, when on his voyage of magnetical research in the Antarctic seas.

Christmas harbour, in the extreme north of the island, which was the chief haven for these two noted expeditions, had thus become classic ground, and was originally selected as the primary station—a second or auxiliary station being destined for Heard Island. Doubts, however, had arisen as to the suitability of the latter wild, outlying mountainous cluster, both with reference to the security of anchorage near its shores and the prevailing climate. To the Challenger was allotted the solution of these important questions, and well has it been effected. The entire absence of shelter for the ship, the difficulties that would be experienced in communicating with the observing party, and the slender chance of fine weather, are clearly set forth in Captain Nares' Report of his proceedings. Heard Island has, therefore, been rejected on these grounds as unsuitable. Fortunately the Challenger's experienced surveying staff were enabled, during a few days of occasional fine weather in the eighteen days to which their visit was extended, to chart a large portion of the east and south shores of Kerguelen Island. Several good anchorages, at remote distances from Christmas harbour, were examined; and thus a choice of observing stations, with various aspects and various conditions of climate under prevailing winds, are open to the Astronomical Expedition just about to leave our shores. The weather experienced at Kerguelen Island compares with that of England in winter; but, in the favoured parts, the sky is more frequently clear than it is at home in that season.

The full report by Captain Nares on this head will be greatly valued by all interested in this national enterprise.

The secure anchorages taken up by the Challenger, after leaving Christmas harbour, were Fuller and Hopeful harbours and Betsey cove in Accessible bay, on the east coast; Greenland bay and Island harbour in Royal sound, on the south coast of the island. A lofty range of mountains runs through the whole extent of the island in
a north-west and south-east direction, with numerous spurs spreading out on each side. The highest peak, which is near the south coast, attains a height of 6100 feet, and was named after the illustrious navigator Ross. Another lofty range, of 3200 feet, near Accessible bay, was named after Crozier, the able colleague of Ross. A central mass whose summit was 4000 feet high, and with a glacier descending to the sea on either side of the island, was appropriately named after one to whom the Challenger Expedition is mainly indebted—Admiral Richards.

Quitting Heard Island on the 7th February, the Challenger's course was shaped to the s.s.e.; on the 11th the first iceberg was met in 60° 30' s.; and on the night of the 13th, during a fog and light breeze, the ship ran into the edge of the open pack-ice, in 65° 30' s. On the following day the bottom was dredged in 1675 fathoms—1½ mile from the edge of the pack; in this position numerous icebergs were visible, both in the pack and around, nearly all table-topped. On the 16th the Antarctic Circle, in 78° 20' e., was crossed, the western edge of the pack-ice having been followed since the night of the 13th. At this extreme southern position the weather was "wonderfully clear," no pack-ice in sight except to the northward, and had there been land of any altitude within 50 miles of the ship in an easterly or southerly direction, it must have been seen.

Working away to the eastward, occasionally in sight of the pack and strong stream ice and many icebergs, a position in lat. 64° 18' s. and 94° 47' e., or 20 miles west of Wilkes' Termination-land, was reached, when soundings were obtained in 1300 fathoms—brown ooze—the weather very fine and clear, with no appearance of land in any direction. After experiencing a heavy gale on the following day from the south-east, accompanied with its usual thick weather and heavy snow-squalls—requiring consummate seamanship for the management of the ship, surrounded as she was by icebergs—the Challenger, on the 25th, again stood in for the pack, and penetrated a mile within its edge, wishing to get as near Termination-land as possible; while in the pack, and at noon, with a very clear sky to the southward and eastward, and within 15 miles to the westward of the assumed position, there was no appearance of land of any kind.

On the 26th February, when in lat. 62° 26' s., and 95° 44' e., soundings were obtained in 1975 fathoms, yellowish mud; this was the deepest water found since leaving the Cape of Good Hope.
The trawl at this depth brought up numerous specimens of animal life. At the surface the sea temperature was 33°; at 100 fathoms, 31° 9'; at 150, 34°; and at 200 fathoms, 34°. Another strong gale with blinding snow was here experienced. Fortunately, just before dusk a large iceberg was seen, the ship was hove-to with a close-reefed spanker and steam up under its lee, and remained in comparative security under this friendly breakwater. A course to the north-east was now shaped, away from this inhospitable region; and, after passing the last iceberg on 4th March, in 53° 17’ s. and 109° 23’ e., the *Challenger* arrived in Melbourne on 17th March.

Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, both in regard to the strength of the wind and the great cold so frequently experienced, 15 ocean soundings were obtained in depths varying from 1260 to 2600 fathoms. Serial temperatures at 13 stations, dredging at 12, and trawling at 6, further followed, the results to the Naturalists of the Expedition having the highest interest.

In the field of terrestrial magnetism, much labour has been bestowed from the time of the *Challenger* leaving England. The elements of declination, inclination, and intensity are daily observed at sea, as well as at the several ports visited. The Magnetic staff includes Commander Maclean, Lieutenant Bromley, and Navigating-Lieutenant Tizard, all well-trained and competent observers.

Captain Nares’ observations on the ice and climate of the Antarctic Sea passed through in his ship are of interest. He says:

“The icebergs met with by us were usually from a quarter to half a mile in diameter, and about 200 feet high. The highest measured was 248 feet, but it was evidently an old berg floating on a large base. The largest was seen furthest south in lat. 66° 40’; it was certainly three miles in length, and was accompanied by several others nearly as large. They were all remarkably clear of rocks or stones, although, each time we have dredged, sufficient evidence was brought up to show that the bottom of the sea is fairly paved with the débris brought by them from Antarctic lands. In shape they were nearly always tabular, the original top surface of the glacier remaining uppermost, or inclined at a slight angle to the horizon. It is remarkable how few were fallen in with to the westward of the 80th meridian of east longitude, or to the northward of the pack-ice we met there, which I believe to have been a detached patch, similar to that sailed through by Ross in 1841.

“To the eastward of 92° E. long. icebergs were very numerous, and continued so as we ran to the eastward, even when we were
at a distance from the pack. Their absence further to the westward, between 70° and 80° E. long., except when close to the pack-edge, was so marked, that, coupled with their absence on the same meridians in lower latitudes, as shown by the ice-chart, I am led to believe that there can be no land for a considerable distance south in that neighbourhood; and that a very high latitude could be gained there if desired.

"Temperature.—When at the pack-edge the temperature of the water was always between 28° and 29°, just sufficiently warm to melt salt-water ice very slowly, but to have no effect on the freshwater berg-pieces. At a short distance from the pack the surface-water rose to 32°, but at a depth of 40 fathoms we always found the temperature to be 29°; this continued to 300 fathoms, the depth in which most of the icebergs float, after which there is a stratum of slightly warmer water of 33° or 34°. Whilst in the neighbourhood of the ice, between the 13th and 25th February, the temperature of the air ranged between 34°-8° and 21°-5° Fahr., the mean being 31°-5°; a slightly colder climate in an average latitude of 64° s. than is found in the month of August in the Arctic Seas in latitude 74° s.

"Barometer.—The barometer ranged between 29-22 and 28-52 inches; when steady at 28-80 or 28-90 inches, fine weather was experienced. It rose quickly to about 29-10 inches the day before the occurrence of each gale, and commenced to fall previous to the wind increasing.

"The gales were also foretold by the unusual clearness of the atmosphere: the first blew from the eastward, shifting to the southward; the second from the northward, shifting to west.

"The prevailing winds were from the eastward. The sky was overcast for seven days out of fourteen; but we obtained sights on all but three days.

"Whales, &c.—A great number of fin-backed whales and penguins were sighted whilst we were near the edge of the pack; the former appeared to congregate most on the sheltered bights of the pack. Very few sperm-whales were seen, and no seals or sea-elephants."

Summary.—The usual Tide Tables, Light Lists, and Hydrographical Notices, have been published during the year. Among the larger works are: 'Red Sea Pilot' (new edition), from Suez and Akabah to the Straits of Bab-el-mandeb, and thence to Aden. Vol. i. 'Mediterranean Pilot,' which contains Gibraltar Strait, Coast of
Spain, African Coast to Gulf of Kabes, together with the Balearic, Sardinian, Sicilian, and Maltese islands. 'South America Pilot,' Part I. (new edition), extending from French Guiana to Cape Virgins, with the Falkland and South Shetland islands. A revised edition of the principal ports on the East Coast of the United States of America; new editions of the 'Channel Pilot,' Part I., and 'North Sea,' Part III.; useful Geographical information, relating to several islands in the Pacific Ocean and to the South-east part of New Guinea, will be found among the Hydrographic Notices.

Among the 77 new Charts published since the last Report, the Ice chart for the Southern Hemisphere deserves notice. This chart, originally compiled in 1866, has since received important additions as to the positions of drifting icebergs, and is now engraved on copper. The movements of the enormous masses of ice thrust out and rent from the Antarctic coasts, as shown on this chart, are worthy the attention of Physical Geographers.

1620 Sheets have received corrections and additions during the past year, and the number of Charts printed for the Royal Navy and the general public has been 187,248.

During the past year the Hydrographical Department, and indeed the Admiralty Surveying Service at large, has, through death and retirement, lost two of its most distinguished members, the Superintendent of charts, Captain Hoskyn, and its esteemed chief, Admiral Richards.

Captain Hoskyn had served long in the regular line of the Naval service as well as on Foreign and Home surveys. With a richly-stored mind, a well-regulated temperament, and unwearied powers of application, he was, fortunately for Hydrography, in 1865, selected to fill the responsible office of Superintendent of charts. By the remarkably efficient and genial manner in which he performed his duties, the esteem and friendship of all those who were associated or came in contact with him in official life, were secured, and few men have died more regretted than Richard Hoskyn.

The loss, through retirement, of Admiral Richards—who in his position of Hydrographer (extending over a period of ten years, and those years of very stirring times) had secured the respect, the confidence, and the grateful feelings of every member of the Surveying Service—cannot be over-estimated. That ready appreciation of fellow-workers, devotion to duty, and earnestness for the advancement of Hydrographic science, all characteristics of the man, ren-
dered Admiral Richards a worthy follower of preceding occupants of the office and a bright example to our rising school of Naval officers. The Admiral, in retiring from the post of Hydrographer of the Admiralty, carries with him wishes that he may enjoy many years of fully-restored health, and the assurance that the remembrance of his efficient services to Hydrography and kindly manner to all ranks will not be readily forgotten by his old Staff, ashore and afloat.

**Indian Marine Surveys.**—A most interesting fact, connected with the progress of hydrographical research during the year, is the resumption by the Government of India of Marine Surveys, which have been almost entirely in abeyance since the abolition of the Indian navy, soon after the Government of India was transferred from the East India Company to the crown.

Captain Taylor, of the late Indian navy, has been employed since last year under the Government of India, and has submitted an elaborate review of all existing charts and materials for charts of the coast from Pakchan estuary at the southern extremity of Tenasserim to Sonmiani Bay, west of Kurachee, including all the islands of the Bay of Bengal, the Laccadives, Maldives, &c. He has also matured and submitted to the Government of India a scheme to supplement and perfect existing charts, by working up materials not yet utilized, and by fresh surveys, and has proposed an agency for carrying out his plan, which is now before the Secretary of State.

There can be no doubt that such a plan as Captain Taylor's would not only fill up many a void in our knowledge of these coasts, but would perfect and bring up to date the admirable work which has given to many officers of the late Indian navy an historical name in the annals of hydrographical science. It would carry that work to depths inaccessible to the less perfect mechanical appliances which were available to earlier surveyors, and would help to settle many vexed questions regarding average sea-levels, elevation and depression of coasts, changes of harbour waters, and tidal phenomena of great scientific as well as commercial importance.

It may be hoped that Captain Taylor's plan will be approved of by the Secretary of State, in time to enable him to commence operations early in the next season.

**New Publications.**—*The Indian Directory.*—Connected with the subject I have just mentioned is the East India Directory,
compiled by Captain Taylor, of which the first volume has been published this year. This important compilation, founded on the well-known Directory of the late Captain Horsburgh, has, however, been almost entirely rewritten, and copious and valuable additional information given. The latest information regarding the coasts and general hydrography of the Indian Ocean has been patiently and diligently collected and embodied in the work, numerous maps illustrative of the chapters on passages, winds and currents, and the tidal and glacial phenomena, have been introduced, and an entirely new section has been devoted to the Suez Canal route, now daily increasing in importance. The subject of steamers' passages has received due attention, and that of the winds, cyclones, and general meteorology, brought up to the standard of our present knowledge. The book, while containing so much additional matter, has been much reduced in bulk—in itself a great boon to the navigator; a clear type being adopted, with the admirable system of putting the leading words in conspicuous type, long since adopted by the Admiralty. I trust that the author's new duties will not delay the appearance of the concluding volume.

Petermann's 'Geographische Mitteilungen.'—This valuable journal still maintains its high position among the serial publications devoted to geographical science. Since the last Presidential Address, many important papers have been produced, recording the progress of exploration and investigation, accompanied by well-executed maps, delineating the country visited by travellers and the results of their observations, or illustrating the physical conformation of the earth's surface, or its divisions for administrative purposes.

The very able articles, referred to by my predecessor last year, upon Arctic geography and exploration, by the editor, have been continued, recording the progress of the various expeditions undertaken by the different European nations and the United States, with the additions to our knowledge of those regions resulting therefrom. These include a description of the various kinds of drift-wood collected on the shores of Nova Zembla, with a view of ascertaining the direction and extent of the currents, the temperatures and physical phenomena observed on board the Albert, at Spitzbergen, in 1872; a very complete account of the expedition into Smith's Sound, under the late Captain C. F. Hall; numerous letters from the fifth Swedish expedition, at Spitzbergen, under the
command of Professor Nordenskiöld; and, lastly, a résumé of the Arctic campaign in 1873.

Professor Mohn has followed up his previous paper on the temperature of the seas between Greenland and Europe by a valuable essay on the Climatology and Meteorology of the waters surrounding Nova Zembla.

With regard to Asia, several interesting letters from the officers and others of the Russian expedition to Khiva have appeared in the 'Mittheilungen;' Baron Richthofen also records his journey through China, and Dr. Hirth describes the province of Quang-tung; some letters are also published from Captain Prjevalsky, on the Ethnology and Physical Characteristics of Mongolia and Tibet, with a valuable itinerary of the road from Urga to Lassa.

A supplement is devoted to an exposition of the important contribution to our knowledge of the interior of Africa between Natal and the Zambesi, performed by Carl Mauch between 1865 and 1872; and another contains four exhaustive reports on the Physical Configuration, Vegetation, Geological Productions, and the People of the Caucasus, by Dr. Radde, director of the Imperial Museum at Tiflis.

Among other papers on Africa may be noticed a report of a new exploration of the Libyan Desert by Gerhard Rohlf's, Ernest Marno's researches on the Upper Nile, and Dr. Nachtigal's routes on the Bahr-el-Ghazal.

The discoveries of Giles, and Gosse and Warburton in Central Australia, to the west from the line of electric telegraph, are each recorded as far as information has been received. Dr. Bernouilli contributes an interesting paper on a journey in Guatemala in 1870.

The results of the Challenger expedition, principally relating to the temperature of the North Atlantic Ocean at various depths, as far as they have been made known, are condensed and illustrated by a map.

Italy.—I am indebted to our much-esteemned honorary corresponding member, the Chevalier Cristoforo Negri, for the following details of geographical progress in Italy:

The Military Topographical Institute (the branch resident at Florence of the General Staff, which is stationed at Rome) has continued its geodetic labours with zeal and ability, and now little remains to complete the great fundamental map of the whole of
Italy and Sicily. The map of Sardinia, compiled from the researches and at the private expense of the late General Alberto La Marmora, has not yet been revised. The publication of maps has also continued, great use being made of the method of engraving by photography, introduced by General Avet.

The Royal Marine has confined its labours almost exclusively to the Adriatic (in connection with the Imperial Austro-Hungarian Marine), and the chart of the Gran Cabotaggio, which dates back more than half a century, will be greatly improved. It will then be necessary to think about a maritime chart of Sicily and the West of Italy; the English and French maps leaving much to be desired, as is frequently found to be the case. The geological map is also progressing, though slowly, owing to the want of a staff of paid subalterns. Some provinces (as, for instance, Forli) have published voluminous scientific monographs on their territory. The numerous works and projects for railways and canals have made us better acquainted with the hypsometry of Italy.

The Alpine Club has now its branches in nearly all parts of Italy, and the travels of many of its members furnish valuable, though unconnected and fragmentary, materials for the science of geology.

The botanist Dr. Odoardo Beccari, subsidised by the town of Genoa and the Italian Geographical Society, continues his excursions in the south-east of Malaysia, and in some parts of New Guinea, and sends rich collections to Italy—both to Genoa and to Rome. Concerning the explorations of this indefatigable savant, in New Guinea and the neighbouring islands, I shall give a further account in a subsequent section of this Address.

The Italian Geographical Society is concentrating its resources, and preparing to send a scientific expedition to Shoa, where it will receive the support of the Prince of that country, who has sent an envoy to Rome. The expedition would proceed in a westerly or south-westerly direction from Caffa, or Kaffa, into an unknown region. The expedition will be commanded by the naturalist Antinori, who has already visited the south-western affluents of the White Nile and the country of Bogos, and Lieutenant Parent, who accompanied Nordenskiöld to Spitzbergen two years ago.

The Society is continually increasing in numbers, and we may hope that any re-organisation which may be in contemplation will maintain and extend its sphere of usefulness. The actual effective president is Signor Correnti, Councillor of State; and Signor Negri enjoys the title of Perpetual President and Founder;
but every lover of geography will regret that, owing to his absence from Rome, and other causes, he now takes no part in the direction.

Arctic Exploration.—The hope expressed by my predecessor that the year 1874 would see the despatch of an exploring expedition to Smith Sound, has, I regret to say, but little chance of being realised. The joint Arctic Committee, appointed by the Royal Society and our own Society, for the purpose of preparing a statement of the valuable results to science that might be expected from such an expedition, held various meetings during the summer of 1873; and on the 6th of November the Council of the Royal Society nominated several of their body to co-operate with us in representing to the Government the desirability, in the interests of science, of such an Expedition. A joint deputation from the two Societies to the Government was soon after resolved upon, to which representatives of the British Association and the Dundee Chamber of Commerce were to be added, but in reply to my application to the late Prime Minister for permission to wait upon him, I received the following letter:—

"10, Downing Street,
29th November, 1873.

"My dear Sir B. Frere,

"I have now been able to consult my colleagues with reference to the request which you have conveyed to me on the subject of the proposed Deputations from the Royal Society, the Royal Geographical Society, the British Association for the Advancement of Science, and the Dundee Chamber of Commerce, to present Memorials praying the Government to undertake an Arctic Expedition.

"I must recall to your attention that the Government decided, during the present year, that no further voyage of discovery should be undertaken until the voyage of the Challenger should be completed. It was on this broader ground that they decided, and not on the narrower ground only, of the actual state of the particular question of Arctic Exploration.

"I would remind you that the operations of the survey are at present very incomplete. By survey I mean generally the examination of coasts more or less available for trade and general intercourse. These operations, generally, the Government hold to have a stronger claim than those of discovery: they are prosecuted with as much activity as general considerations of expense will permit; but were Her Majesty's Ministers disposed to augment the charges for Naval Services not strictly professional, they would incline to do so for survey rather than by a new voyage of discovery at the present moment.

"If it be thought that there are reasons which should induce the Government to alter the decision recently and deliberately adopted, I am obliged to

* Consisting, on the part of the Royal Society, of Professor Allman, Professor Busk, Dr. J. D. Hooker, Professor Huxley, Mr. Prestwich, Mr. P. L. Sclater, and General R. Strachey; and on the part of the Royal Geographical Society, of Sir Bartle Frere (President), Sir Rutherford Alcock, Admiral Sir George Back, the Earl of Derby, A. G. Findlay, C. R. Markham, Admiral Sherard Osborn and Sir H. C. Rawlinson.
ask the favour that the reasons be presented to us in a written form, when I should have the best and fullest opportunity of considering them in common with my colleagues.

"I remain,
"Very faithfully yours,
(Signed) "W. E. Gladstone."

In compliance with the concluding request in this letter, I addressed the Prime Minister as follows:—

"22, Princes Gardens,
"6th December, 1873.

"My dear Mr. Gladstone,

"I have to thank you for your letter of the 29th November, and for your kindness in stating so fully the grounds on which it was formerly decided to undertake no Arctic Exploration until the voyage of the Challenger should be completed.

"You will, I am sure, pardon me when I say that I do not think the connection between the voyage of the Challenger and the proposed Arctic Exploration is very obvious.

"I do not in the least undervalue the probable results of the Challenger's voyage. Even so far as they have gone, these results have shown their importance to the ocean navigator, to our submarine telegraphs, and to many branches of science of direct commercial value, apart from the great purely scientific questions which are illustrated every week she is at sea.

"But, except in these latter points of pure science, I know of nothing that the Challenger is doing which has much connection with the problems to be solved by the proposed Arctic Expedition.

"As regards immediate commercial results, every shipowner and seaman might find matter of interest in both Expeditions; but while the Challenger's results affect mainly the Atlantic and Pacific, and their commerce, the Arctic Expedition, commercially, most interests the great fishery ports, and those engaged in manufactures of Indian fibre, which cannot exist without animal oils.

"We all, commercial men as well as geographers, recognize and lament the very incomplete and inadequate condition of our naval surveying operations. There has been a very slight improvement of late years; but, upon the whole, the means at the disposal of the present able and zealous officer who advises the Admiralty on these subjects are, I believe, less in proportion to the whole naval expenditure than they were many years ago in Admiral Beaufort's time—certainly they are far less than the requirements of our greatly extended commerce demand.

"I gratefully acknowledge what has been done, partly as a result of the late mission to East Africa, in sending surveying ships to the east coast of that continent; but I think you will find there is very little survey work going on anywhere else. I know that in the Indian seas the lamentable deficiency of marine surveying of late years, as compared with some of the magnificent surveys executed more than 40 years ago by the East India Company, are subjects of daily remark by all commercial and nautical men. And on the great highways between Australia, England, India, and China, are large regions, which, for want of surveys, are given up to pirates and man-stealers: whereas, if they were surveyed as New Zealand was surveyed, within a very few years after our flag was first seen in those waters, those regions might be of the greatest commercial value to the whole world.

"You will, I am sure, pardon me for taking exception to the expression in your letter which indicates an opinion that voyages for survey, or discovery,
are not strictly 'professional naval services.' I believe that in these days, when it is so difficult to find a seaman's training for our young officers and men, when so much of the work is done by machinery, there are few better naval schools than a surveying ship; and that, if such ships were multiplied, not only would commerce benefit, but your men-of-war would be better supplied with practical seamen, both among men and officers, than is possible at present.

"This is still more the case with regard to any Arctic voyage of discovery. Service in the Arctic Seas, under any conditions, is one of the best possible schools for seamen, and is one of the few schools which now remain by which a thorough seaman can be formed, quite equal to the best men of former days.

"Moreover, as a matter of fact, some of our very best practical officers are men who distinguished themselves in Arctic exploration; and I doubt whether there is a single hour of any Arctic voyage of discovery which, in a strictly professional point of view, may not be considered well spent as training for any naval service.

"In reply to the kind invitation with which your letter concludes, that I should submit to you in written form the reasons which seem to us sufficient to induce the Government to alter its decision to postpone all Arctic discovery until the voyage of the Challenger is completed, I venture to forward some papers which I had intended to place in your hands as explaining, in more detail, the grounds of our application:—

"1. The first is a description of the several deputations who wish for the honour of an interview.

"2. The second is a Report of the Arctic Committee of the Royal Geographical Society.

"3. The third is a memorandum drawn up by that Committee for the Arctic Committee of the Royal Society; and

"4. The fourth is a brief sketch of the general grounds of the application of the Royal Geographical Society.

"The following are, shortly, the reasons why we urgently request that you will do us the favour to fix an early day for the reception of the deputation:—

"First, because any preparation for an expedition to sail in 1874 ought to be commenced at once.

"Secondly, because the several scientific and mercantile bodies represented by the deputations naturally expect that their reasons for a naval Arctic Expedition may be considered before a decision is finally formed; and though the papers enclosed state most of the arguments of the Royal Geographical Society, I cannot undertake to state all the reasons which might be urged by those members of the Council who are practically acquainted with Arctic discovery. Nor can I anticipate the special grounds which might be urged by the Royal Society, the British Association, and the Dundee Chamber of Commerce.

"Thirdly, that, even if her Majesty's Government should finally decide that the expense cannot be included in the Estimates now under preparation, the questions we would beg you to consider by no means end there. I have reason to know that at least in two quarters there is a very strong disposition to undertake as a private enterprise what I cannot but consider ought to be a national work; that very considerable sums will be risked in the attempt, partly on commercial grounds, partly as an expression of what I believe is a very wide-spread feeling on the part of the public who interest themselves in such questions.

"I may add that I am personally opposed to entrusting any such work to private hands: not on account of the expense, which I calculate could never, even if everything were done on the most liberal scale, exceed 25,000l. per annum;
but because I consider the object of such national importance that the work ought to be undertaken by the nation; and because the risks, which I believe are very small to a well-appointed and well disciplined Government expedition, are much increased if entrusted, as in the case of the Polaris, and of many other less successful expeditions, to men who are not under naval discipline or control. And, lastly, because the risk and difficulty in the first instance will be enhanced by a private expedition, without any certainty of saving any ultimate cost to Government. I look upon failure as far more likely to result from the private expedition than from one undertaken by the Admiralty, and I do not see, in the event of any disaster overtaking a private vessel, how it will be possible for the Government to avoid the expense of subsequent expeditions to look for her and her crew, after the experience we had in Franklin's case, showing that if the survivors of the expedition had been promptly looked for, many—probably most—of them might have been saved.

"I have little doubt that, should we not succeed in altering the views of Government as expressed earlier in the year, the Government will be applied to to aid an expedition under private auspices, and more or less at private expense. This would place the question in a position which, to my mind, would be less satisfactory than if Government undertook the whole expense.

"It is true that, if the funds were supplied by private individuals, Government might concede the commissioning the ships, so as to place the expedition under naval discipline; but to my mind it is not desirable to allow any authoritative interference by private parties, which it would be difficult to prevent unless the whole is under the unquestioned control of the Admiralty.

"May I submit that much time and trouble might be saved to her Majesty's Government, if you would consent at an early date to bear the arguments of the several deputations. Any delay till after Her Majesty's Ministers separate for Christmas may be productive of serious inconvenience and loss, especially should any private expedition be attempted too late in the season to go out fully equipped.

"Believe me, dear Mr. Gladstone,

"Ever yours faithfully and sincerely,

"H. B. E. Frere.

"The Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M.P."

The change of Ministry, which occurred not long after this letter was written, has delayed any further steps being taken in reference to this important subject. But the Council propose to bring it again before the present Ministers, and hope to obtain a favourable hearing. I should do injustice to Mr. Gladstone were I not to mention the strong personal interest he takes in expeditions of Arctic Discovery—an interest which does not seem to have diminished since, in 1834, he took an active part in the Select Committee of the House of Commons, which expressed so high an opinion of the national importance of Arctic Exploration, and of the valuable service which Sir James Ross had rendered by its promotion. In other directions the past year has not been an active one in Arctic projects. We have not received the official account of the remarkable voyage of the Polaris, up Smith Sound, of which a brief sketch was given in last year's Address. But an excellent résumé of the geographical
information brought by the American Expedition was given by our Secretary, Mr. Clements R. Markham, on the first evening of the present Session, in a paper in which he also communicated the results of the voyage of his relative Captain Markham, R.N., in the Arctic. The interest in this department of geography may be said now to centre in the fate of the Austrian Arctic Expedition under Payer and Weyprecht, which sailed in June, 1872, in the direction of Behring's Straits by way of Nova Zembla, and which has not been heard of since Count Wilczek left the gallant little party on the shores of Nova Zembla in the month of August of the same year. Attempts will no doubt be made, during the present summer, to obtain tidings of this Expedition; and I may mention that this is one of the objects of the journey of our Associate, Mr. Joseph Wiggins, of Sunderland, who has sailed in the yacht Diana for a summer's cruise in the Spitzbergen Seas.

Asia.—Palestine Survey.—Major C. W. Wilson, R.E., Director of the Topographical Department of the War Office, has furnished me with the following account of the progress of the Palestine Survey, in continuation of that given in the Address of last year.

The Survey of Palestine which is being made, on a scale of 1 inch to a mile, for the Palestine Exploration Fund, by Lieutenant Conder, R.E., Mr. Tyrwhitt Drake, and three non-commissioned officers, R.E., from the Ordnance Survey, has made considerable progress during the year that has passed; 1750 additional square miles have been completed and the finished map now extends from Nazareth to Bethlehem, and from the sea to the Jordan, covering an area of over 3000 square miles.

By the middle of June, 1873, the survey had been carried down the coast from Carmel towards Jaffa; but, in consequence of the great heat, this portion of the work could not be completed, and the party were obliged to retire to Bludan, in Anti-Lebanon, where they remained from July to October. From Bludan several excursions were made; the principal one being to Mount Hermon, where a number of observations for latitude were taken, and the true bearing of Carmel and other points in the survey determined. In October work was resumed in the south of Palestine, and by the end of November the survey had been carried down to the northern end of the Dead Sea and the mouth of the Jordan. In December a very severe outbreak of fever in the camp necessitated a removal to Jerusalem, where the party were delayed till the beginning of
March by the extraordinary severity of the weather, which prevented all work in the field; but as soon as the weather moderated they returned to the Jordan Valley, and carried the survey northwards to within two or three miles of the Sea of Galilee. This section of the work is of special interest, for it has given us, for the first time, a correct representation of the topographical features of the western side of the Jordan Valley, and an accurate survey of the windings of the Jordan; a number of salt-springs were found at different points of the valley, and attempts were made to register the variations in the level of the Dead Sea by means of a wooden gauge, but unfortunately the gauge was destroyed by the Bedawin. In April the portion of the Maritime Plain left unsurveyed in the summer of 1873 was completed, and the party then retired to Jerusalem to continue the plotting and drawing of the fair plans.

Lieutenant Conder has recently returned to England, bringing with him three sheets of the survey, which contain about 1600 square miles, in a finished state, including hill features. The survey sheets are accompanied by seventy large scale plans and special surveys of important places, such as Caesarea, Beisan, &c.; two volumes of MS. notes, containing detailed measurements of every important ruin in the country, with a description of each, written on the spot; lists of all names, written in Arabic and English, and arranged alphabetically for each sheet; and about fifty water-colour drawings of places of Biblical interest, studies of figures, animals, &c.

A geological map of the district survey has also been prepared, and specimens collected.

Lieutenant Conder returns to Palestine in July, and hopes to complete the survey of Western Palestine from Dan to Beersheba, in the same thorough manner as the work which he has brought home, during the winter season of 1875-6.

Of the American expedition, under Lieutenant Steever, U.S. Engineers, we have but slight information; after measuring a base line on the Plains of Moab, near Hesban, and completing the survey of about 500 square miles of country, the expedition returned to America, but no account of its labours has yet been published. It is believed that a second expedition is now being organised in America to continue the survey east of Jordan during the winter of 1874-5.

The completion of Mr. Murray's Map of Palestine by the publication of the southern sheet during the past year should not remain
unnounced. Carefully compiled, and well engraved, the map is far superior to any previous Map of Palestine, and cannot fail to be of great assistance to all students of Biblical geography.

Persia.—Last year Colonel Valentine Baker and Lieutenant Gill, R.E., travelled from Tehran to Meshed, and thence northwards by Kilat to Mahmoodabad, and round by Koochan, Shirivan, Bujnurd, and Jajarm to Shahrud and Tehran. The journey was for a considerable distance over a new country, and has added much to our knowledge of the district north of Meshed and around the head waters of the Attrek and Giurgen.

A reconnaissance of the route followed, with astronomical observations at certain points, was made by Lieutenant Gill, and since his return to England the work has been laid down on a scale of 4 miles to 1 inch, and the reconnaissance embodied in a general map of the north-eastern frontier of Persia, on a scale of 20 miles to 1 inch.

Russian Empire and Mongolia.—An expedition of a remarkable and enterprising character has been accomplished, under the auspices of the Imperial Geographical Society, by Captain N. M. Prjevalsky, of the Staff Corps, who travelled for nearly three years in the most remote parts of Inner Asia. For a considerable time—viz., from the spring of 1872 to the end of the summer of 1873—M. Prjevalsky was entirely cut off from all intercourse with the civilised world. The expedition was composed of Captain Prjevalsky, Lieutenant Pyltseff, and two Cossacks. Starting from Peking, he first travelled through Chakhar Mongolia, as far as the northern bend of the Yellow River, whence, crossing the desert of Alashan to the neighbourhood of Sining,* at that time disturbed by a revolt of the Dungans, he visited Lake Kokonor, and arrived on the northern borders of Thibet at the Upper Yang-tsze-Kiang or Mourou-nissu. Undaunted by the difficulties and dangers of the journey, M. Prjevalsky and his companion travelled 11,000 versts (7300 English miles), 5300 of which have been projected on the map,† with the aid of a route-map, based on 18 positions astronomically determined. The scientific results of this expedition are most important, including a number of hypsometrical and meteorological observations, and a valuable collection in Natural History. The labours of M. Prjevalsky serve to supplement Huc’s description of the Tsaidam

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* M. Prjevalsky was 60 versts (40 miles) to the east of Sining at Chobsenz.
† It is to be regretted that the observations taken by M. Prjevalsky do not include the longitude as well as the latitude of the places he visited.
country and Kan-su, besides acquainting us with the fauna on the banks of the Mourouii-ussu and the tribes inhabiting Koko-nor, Alashan, Kan-su, and Amdo. On comparing these travels with the works of Chinese * authors, and with an itinerary from Urga to Lhassa, communicated by M. Shishmareff, as well as with the travels of Mr. Ney Elias through Western Mongolia, we find excellent materials for correcting our knowledge of the geography of this part of Asia, which was hitherto based on the surveys of the Jesuits in the eighteenth century. For further details regarding this important exploration, I may refer to Mr. Ney Elias's annotated account of them in No. 1 of the present volume of our 'Proceedings.'

Dr. Fritsche, the Director of the Peking Observatory, has lately travelled through Eastern Mongolia, on his way from Peking to Nerchinsk in Eastern Siberia, on a visit of inspection to the meteorological station at the latter place. Entering Mongolia by one of the northern passes leading from China, he diverged from his direct road in order to explore the south-eastern border of Mongolia. He found by hypsometrical observations that the general elevation of the country did not exceed 600 to 1550 metres (2000 to 5000 feet), and that the height of some of the highest mountains was not more than 2000 to 3000 metres (6500 to 10,000 feet). Dr. Fritsche's observations prove the incorrectness of the statements of the Jesuits, according to which Peh-cha is described as a mountain 15,000 feet above the sea-level. Indeed the Chinese, who were questioned by M. Fritsche as to the presence in that country—especially in Wei-chang—of a mountain which attained the level of the snow-line, invariably answered in the negative; and declared that they had never heard of the name of Peh-cha. After visiting Hailar, the trade centre of North-Eastern Mongolia and Trans-Hingan Manchuria, Dr. Fritsche entered Russian territory at Tsurukhaitu. He describes that part of Mongolia visited by him as steppe-like, thinly populated, with lakes and rivers gradually drying up. He has since arrived at St. Petersburg, from which city he sent us in March last a copy of his map of East Central Asia, in which all the geographical and hypsometrical observations made by recent Russian travellers have been utilised.

In Northern Mongolia we have to notice an expedition by M. Paderin from Urga to Uliassutai, with the special object of dis-

* Translated by Father Palladius and M. Uspensky, see the 'Proc. of the Imp. Geog. Soc.' for 1873.
covering the ruins of Karakoram, the exact position of which is unknown. The itinerary of M. Paderin contributes to the geography of the basins of the Orkhon, the Upper Selenga, and the steppe-rivers flowing north and south from the Khankai-ola Mountains.

North of Paderin's route another journey has been made by the enterprising merchant Veselkoff, who travelled from the district of Minusinsk, in Siberia, to the Chinese outpost of Dzindilik, on the Upper Tess, and afterwards through an unexplored country to Kossogol. His remarks on the country of the Upper Selenga and its Mongol inhabitants are worthy of attention. M. Veselkoff was the first European to visit the Chinese post at Agar, and the stake fence dividing the lands of the Mongols from those of the Darkhats.

The south-eastern branches of the Altai Mountains, the valley of the Black Irtish, and the basin of Lake Uliunghur, have been explored by MM. Sosnoffsky, Miroshnichenko and Matusofsky. M. Sosnoffsky discovered that no actual hydrographical connection exists between Lake Uliunghur and the Black Irtish, although he believes that this lake once belonged to the oceanic basin when the river flowed out of the lake; afterwards, probably owing to some gradual change, the lake became confined in a separate continental basin. The Irtish now flows at a distance of only two or three versts (1 1/2 to 2 miles) from the lake; the whole of its eastern shore is known by the name of the heights of Tsir Guntai—the bare, gravelly plain, strewn with pebbles and shells, and covered with frequent salt marshes, bears the unmistakable appearance of having been recently submerged; and there is still a tradition among the inhabitants that the body of Uriankhai, who was drowned in the lake, was afterwards found in the Irtish. Sosnoffsky also collected information upon the course of the Black Irtish, and was the first to correct the wrong impression hitherto prevailing about that river, which represented it to be a wide deep stream with a rapid current. Its greatest width is at the mouth of its tributary, the Kaba, where it forms a bay 100 fathoms wide. Below the Kaba, i.e., towards Zaisan, its width is from fifty to sixty fathoms. As to its depth, the river is only unfordable immediately after the spring floods, about the 25th March; at any other time there are plenty of fords, and they are particularly frequent above the mouth of the Kaba. Thus the river is only navigable as far as the Kaba, and only light craft can ascend higher. We also find,
from these researches, that the basin of the Black Irtish slopes gradually towards the west, and is bounded on the north by the Altai Mountains, while to the south rises the Saur, a range unknown till quite recently, but in which there are peaks attaining a height of 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. Cartographers are indebted to the observations of MM. Matusoffs'ky and Miroshnichenko for new materials for correcting their maps of the country adjacent with the Black Irtish and Lake Uliunghur. Of especial value is the astronomical position of Bulun-Tokhoi, by means of which a projection can be made of Morozoff's caravan-route from the Upper Irtish to Khobdo, Uliassutai and Barkul.

In another part of the Chinese Empire, bordering on Russian Manchuria, Lieut.-Col. Barabash, of the Staff Corps, has recently made an interesting journey. Ascending the Sungari, to the mouth of the Nouni, he made his way up this river to Tsitsikhar, the capital of Northern Manchuria, whence he descended both rivers to Sansing, at the mouth of the Hurka; followed the course of the latter river up to Ninguta, and then, crossing the mountains to the basin of the Suifin, terminated his long journey at Nikolsk.* His journals, which will soon be published, will contain some new facts relating to this almost unexplored country, and will therefore be of exceptional interest to geographers.

Turning from the borders of China to Asiatic Russia, we have to notice an interesting expedition, organised and equipped by the Imperial Geographical Society under the command of M. Chekanoffs'ky, assisted by MM. Müller, Ksenjopolsky, and Nachvalnich. Some accounts of the Lower Tungusska Expedition have been published in the 'Proceedings of the Russian Geographical Society,' to which reference should be made by all who are desirous of acquainting themselves with the details of this scientific mission. We can only notice it briefly here. Early in the spring of 1873, the members of the expedition assembled in the district of Kirensk, and, as the severity of the climate would not allow of an immediate start, they employed the time in the meanwhile in scientific excursions in the basins of the Lena and Upper Tungusska. In the end of May they embarked in a boat for their voyage down the Lower Tungusska River. Müller made astronomical and magnetic observations, Ksenjopolsky attended to the collections, the topographer Nachvalnich kept an itinerary, noting the names of the places

* Nikolsk must not be confounded with Nicholaieffsk at the mouth of the Amur.
according to the local nomenclature, with the assistance of a native guide, while the leader of the party studied the geology of the country. Some of the collections of Chekanoffsky have been received in St. Petersburg, and the other results of his labours, as well as those of his companions, are in the course of publication. Towards the end of December last year Chekanoffsky and Müller started on another expedition to Olenek: their route will lie along the Upper Tungusska, and afterwards through a country part of which is entirely unexplored.

The military expedition last year to Khiva led to some important geographical results, which are in a great measure due to the zealous co-operation of General von Kaufmann, Governor-General of Turkestan, and General Krijanoffsky, Governor-General of Orenburg. It was at the instance of the former that the Imperial Geographical Society framed a list* of instructions to guide and assist scientific explorers, who might accompany the expedition, and furnished them with the necessary instruments for taking observations. Among the most recent accessions to our knowledge of the Oasis of Khiva, and the Aralo-Caspian Plains, we will notice the reports of Kuhn and Krause, the magnetic observations of Ovoodoff, and the astronomical observations of Sirovatsky, the specimens of water drawn from the Aral Sea by the commander of the flotilla, and the fossils found by Dikhoff on the banks of the Amu Daria. Of especial interest also are the researches of M. Bogdanoff, a young naturalist of great promise, who accompanied the expedition to Khiva, and brought home a collection of fish from the Amu Daria. Glukhoffsky's researches below Kunia Urgendj, along the old bed of the Oxus, complete the survey of the whole extent of the Usboi, the lower part of which, from Igdy and Ortakui to Balkhan Bay, had previously been explored by Stebnitzky. The latter officer has recently been engaged in some topographical work in the Turkoman Steppes, south of the Usboi, and has determined twenty-one positions astronomically, besides taking numerous hypsometrical observations.

In European Russia MM. Chaslaffsky and Barkofsky, known for their researches, the former in the Moscow region, the latter in that of the Niemen, have collected statistics relating to the corn-trade in the Azoff-Don country, from which it appears that the large increase† in the export of corn from the ports of the Sea of Azoff is

* These instructions were prepared by a committee of the Geographical Society, and were distributed among all three detachments.
† The exports from the ports of the Sea of Azoff increased from 20,000,000 in 1865 to 70,000,000 in 1871, and 90 per cent. of the exports were cereals.
caused by the vastly extended area of cultivation, owing to the development of railways, and new laws for the tenure of land in the country of the Don Cossacks. Lastly, in concluding this brief summary of Russian geography during the past year, I must allude to the labours of MM. Mainoff and Poliakoff in the government of Olonetz; the remarks of the former on the traces of the glacier period, and of the latter on the sectarian population in the district of Onega, are worthy of attention.

In the prospective arrangements for the coming season, Russian geographers are displaying great activity. An expedition has been organised by the Imperial Geographical Society to explore the delta of the Anu Daria and its different channels, to establish two meteorological stations on its right bank, and to ascend the course of the river as far as circumstances may permit, in order to ascertain how far it is navigable. Another party will execute a series of levellings in the Aralo-Caspian plains, determining with accuracy the difference in the levels of the two inland seas. An exploring party, under Captain Glukhoffsly, will make further researches in the Usboi or old bed of the Oxus, while a third party, under the auspices of the Society of Naturalists attached to the University of St. Petersburg, amongst whom are MM. Bogdanoff and Barbot de Marny, will visit the elevated plateau of the Ust-Urt. We also hear of scientific expeditions to the southern spurs of the Thian Shan Mountains in the direction of Kashgar and to the mountainous region east of Lake Issyk-kul.

Indian Land Surveys.—According to the official Report, the work of the Great Trigonometrical Survey during the year 1872-73 consisted of 92 triangles, covering an area of 11,058 square miles with the great theodolites, and of 3224 square miles, closely covered with points for the topographical surveys, with smaller theodolites: while several points have been fixed over an area of 7290 square miles of a portion of the Himalayas, inhabited by independent tribes, which will be valuable for preliminary geographical requirements. An area of 2734 square miles has been topographically surveyed in the Himalayas on a scale of 1 inch to the mile, and an area of 3878 square miles, on the 2-inch scale, in the Bombay Presidency.

Among the more salient points of the survey are the completion of the "Bider series," a longitudinal chain of triangles extending from Bombay to Vizagapatam, through one of the most unhealthy parts of India, which has been effected by a party under the com-
mand of Mr. W. C. Rossenrode; the continuation of the Assam operations, in the midst of extraordinary difficulties, by Mr. W. G. Beverley; the resumption of work at the Mangalore meridian series by Major Branfill; and the Brahmaputra survey by Captain Carter. In Kumaon and Gurhwal the survey has been under the direction of Lieutenant I. Hill, R.E., who last year carried on operations in the Mána valley, in the lake country to the east of Naini Tál, in the country round Lohur Ghat, in the portions of the Gori and Ramganga valleys near Arkot, and in the Bhabar parganahs. Much of the 2734 miles surveyed during the year by Lieut. Hill’s party was between 10,000 and 25,000 feet above the sea-level.

With regard to the Topographical Survey, seven parties have been in the field during 1872-73, as in the previous year. The total amount of work done was 25,327 square miles of final topography, only 6136 of which were in British territory, the remaining 19,191 being in native states. The tracts thus explored were for the most part wild and unhealthy; and those in Bilaspur, Mandla of the Central Provinces, the Garo, Naga, and Northern Chittagong hills, were covered with forests; in parts uninhabited, and never before entered by a European. An account of the operations in the Garo district, replete with interesting and valuable information with regard not only to the topography and physical configuration of this wild region, but also its geology and natural history, has already been communicated to our Society by the officer in command, Major Godwin-Austen, and published in our ‘Journal.’ There were, however, four parties engaged at the same time in completing the surveys of this region, comprising the Northern Chittagong hill-tracts, the Tipperah, Lushai, and Charchar hills, the Garo and Naga hills, and the Northern Munipur frontier. The various portions of this wide district were allotted to Major Godwin-Austen, Captain Badgley, Mr. Cook, and Lieutenant Woodthorpe. Altogether, 11,273 square miles were surveyed by these detachments. In Rajputana, 2760 square miles were delineated topographically by Captain Strahan.

Great progress was made during the year in the drawing and compiling branch of the head-quarter office of the Survey, under the energetic superintendence of Mr. I. O. N. James, in reducing, compiling, and incorporating the latest survey results on the original sheets of the Indian Atlas. Nine new quarter-sheets have been taken up, and considerable additions have been made to eleven of the old full-sized sheets. A great number of other maps
have also been completed, or are in progress. In the photographic branch, Captain Waterhouse, who has charge of this department, reports that 1611 maps have passed through his office during the year.

The Revenue Surveys have been continued during the year; four Cadastral Surveys being now at work in the North-West Provinces. The Annual Report of the Geological Survey has been this year drawn up by Mr. H. B. Medlicott, the accomplished colleague of Dr. Oldham, the founder of the Survey, who was absent on sick-leave in Europe for the first time during his twenty-two years' service. Dr. Stoliczka, another colleague, joined the Kashgar Mission party under Mr. T. D. Forsyth; and after taking part in various explorations carried out during the stay of the Mission, died on the return journey to India. The loss of this able public servant and zealous naturalist is much to be deplored.

Central Asia.—The most important additions that we have received during the past year to our knowledge of the geography of Central Asia have been furnished by the Mission which Mr. Forsyth has conducted to the Court of the Ataligh Ghazee. An account of these has been given to the Society at so recent a period as our last evening Meeting, by Sir Henry Rawlinson, to whom I am indebted for the brief résumé I now give you. Mr. Forsyth's Mission, although primarily constituted for political purposes, was also admirably equipped in respect to the interests of science; Colonel Gordon, with his coadjutors, Captains Biddulph and Trotter, and Dr. Stoliczka, forming perhaps as efficient a party as the whole of the Indian services could furnish for the exploration and investigation of an unknown region. As far as Kashgar the labours of the Engineer officers were mainly directed to the verification of the previous observations of Messrs. Shaw and Hayward, but beyond that point they entered on an entirely new field of operations. Colonel Gordon first led his party to the Chadir-kul Lake, about 100 miles to the north of Kashgar and within the Russian frontier, thus for the first time joining the two great systems of survey which have been so long at work in the north and south of Asia. We can well understand, indeed, the feeling of honest exultation with which Captain Trotter, who represented the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India with Mr. Forsyth's Mission, announces that "the scientific operations of Russia and England have now crossed each other in
friendly rivalry, the road from Kashgar to the crest of the Thian-shan (or Celestial Mountains) being a link in the chain across Asia, common to both countries."

Colonel Gordon found the crest of the Turgat Pass a few miles south of the lake—which crest seems to be now generally adopted as the Russian frontier—to be about 12,800 feet above the level of the sea, and he observed that, although there was no immediate drainage from the lake itself, it formed the watershed at this point between the east and west, the Aksu and the Arpa, which rise in the same basin as the lake between the two extreme ranges of the Thian-shan, flowing respectively, the one eastward into Turkistan, and the other westward, to join the Naryn or Upper Jaxartes.

On returning to Kashgar from this very interesting trip, Colonel Gordon despatched a party, under command of Captain Biddulph, to the eastward, on the road to Aksu. Captain Biddulph travelled for one stage between the Kizil and the streams of Yapchan, and supplies some important information with regard to the nomenclature of these rivers. He ascertained, indeed, that the main river above Yapchan actually bore the name of Yaman-yar, which had been hitherto supposed to be an invention of the fictitious German Baron, and also that the largest of the channels into which the Yaman-yar was divided was entitled Derbucheck, as given by the Baron in a more correct form than the Telwachook of Mr. Shaw. After passing Fyzabad, at 35 miles from Kashgar, and Kizil Arvat, at 46 miles, all habitation ceased, and the remainder of the road to Maralbashi, about 100 miles, lay through the thick jungle which lined the banks of the Kizil River. Near Maralbashi, which is placed in the published maps very much to the south of its true position, Captain Biddulph observed an isolated basaltic rock, with a treble peak, rising 2500 feet above the plain. It is a very remarkable natural object, and, as was to be expected, is invested with a holy character. The Yarkund River passes by Aksah, about 32 miles south-west of Maralbashi; but its further course to the eastward was not ascertained. Charwagh, indeed, one stage beyond Maralbashi (also called Burchuk), on the Aksu road, was the farthest point to the eastward which the party reached.

But by far the most important of the subsidiary expeditions, which have so nobly illustrated Mr. Forsyth's Mission, and which recall the old geographical triumphs of Elphinstone and Malcolm, has been Colonel Gordon's exploration of the Pamir Steppe. The party left Kashgar on March 17, and travelling by Yengi Hissar and Sir-i-kol
(Sarık Kül), reached Kilá Penja at the confluence of the two main arms of the Oxus on the 13th of April. They had hoped to have been permitted to have continued their return journey to India vid Cabul, either crossing the range from Badakhshan into the Chitral valley, or making the détour of the Bamian Pass; but the state of Afghanistan, where civil war has broken out and threatens to lead to serious disorder, created an insuperable difficulty, and they were accordingly, by the last accounts, preparing to recross the Pamir to Tash-kurghan, and so on to Yarkund, from whence they would follow in Mr. Forsyth's wake to Leh and Cashmire.

As the Pamir has been lately traversed by a number of native explorers, whose various routes and notes have been sifted and methodized by Colonel Yule, it cannot be expected that any new physical features of importance should have been discovered by Colonel Gordon's party; but the labours of these officers have been most valuable in verifying the native accounts in some instances, and in disproving them in others, and more especially in obtaining a correct view of the general orography and hydrography of the region. It appears that a stream does actually flow both from the west end and the east end of the lake in lesser Pamir, usually called Barket Yassin; the former stream, as was known before, joining the Sirhad or southern arm of the Penja, while the eastern stream unites with the Aktash water, and then, turning abruptly, flows north-west through the greater Pamir till it joins an effluent from the Kara-kul Lake and forms the considerable river of Murghabi, which, entering Shignan at Barpenj, passes through the entire length of that valley (identified by Colonel Yule with the "Vallis Comedorum"), and debouches into the Oxus at Wamir, five stages below Kilá Penja. A very valuable result of this determination of the course of the Karakul branch of the Oxus is, that it proves the Barket Yassin, in the lesser Pamir, to be the highest point in the steppe, since the stream which flows out of that lake crosses the whole extent of the greater Pamir in its onward course to Shignan. Colonel Gordon farther determined that the Kizil-yurt Plain was the true watershed between the east and west; the Turkestan river system being fed by the drainage of the hills which buttress this plateau, while the numerous lakes and streams, which are found on the table-land, invariably run off westward to the Oxus. The frontier of Wakhan was also found, as stated by Abdul Majid, to extend over the great Pamir Steppe as far as the Murghabi River, where it marched with Kokand, so that, in theory at least, the territories of
our ally, the Ameer of Cabul, are conterminous in this quarter with a region dependent upon Russia.

We must await the arrival of Mr. Forsyth's detailed report before attempting to resolve other obscurities which still attach to the lower course of the Oxus in its passage through Roshan and Darwuz, before it turns south and debouches in the plain country of Badakhshan.

SOUTH AMERICA.—The interest of South American exploration has for some time centered chiefly in the efforts made by the Peruvian Government to obtain an accurate knowledge of the courses of the many tributaries of the Amazon flowing through their territory, especially with regard to their navigability and the economic uses that can be made of them. The progress of these surveys has been briefly recorded from time to time by my predecessors, and I may now add that an excellent summary, from the pen of Lieutenant Juan Salaverry, of the Peruvian Navy, was published in the October number of 'Ocean Highways.' According to the latest accounts, Admiral Tucker, under whose direction these fluvial surveys have been made, submitted to the Peruvian Government, last December, a report of his proceedings up to that date. Two steamers had been engaged during the latter part of 1873 in surveying the main stream of the Marañon down to the Brazilian frontier, and the northern tributaries, Morona, Pastaza, Potro, and Tigre. The great southern affluent, the Huallaga, had also been submitted to a more accurate exploration than had hitherto been undertaken; all the chief points being determined astronomically, the country along the banks examined with regard to its adaptability for settlement, and the furthest point of steam-navigation ascertained. Whilst active work is thus continued in the eastern portion of the Republic, the veteran geographer, our Honorary Corresponding Member, Don Antonio Raimondy, has exchanged his labours in the field for the not less useful toil of elaborating the results of his researches in a general work on the geography and products of Peru, for the preparation of which the Government has made a liberal grant of money.

Further south, I may make a passing allusion to the journey of our Associate, Captain Musters, and Mr. Hegan, who left England last winter with the intention of proceeding from Buenos Ayres, by way of the upper waters of the Paraguay and its tributaries, to Sucre, in Bolivia. The Council provided Mr. Hegan with a set of instruments for determining positions and heights, and it is hoped that some addition to our knowledge of this part of the continent may
result from the undertaking. I have a letter from Mr. Musters, dated from Sucre in Bolivia, and the accounts he gives of his route show that we may expect from him matter of much interest regarding yet unexplored portions of Central South America.

According to the latest accounts, our Associate, Mr. Keith Johnston, who quitted the service of the Society at the end of last year to join a Scientific Commission organised by the Paraguayan Minister in London, to explore Paraguay, had found, on his arrival, the country so distracted by revolutionary movements, that the Commission was dissolved before it had an opportunity of commencing its labours. Resolved, however, not to return home without accomplishing some exploration, Mr. Johnston had offered his services to General Vedia, commander of the Argentine forces in the Gran Chaco, to undertake a survey of the little-known region between the Argentine post of Villa Occidental and Salta, and was in daily expectation of orders to proceed with the work.

Australia.—The chief event of the year in Australian geography is the bold and hazardous journey performed by Colonel P. Egerton Warburton, and his party of fourteen men, across the unknown western interior of Australia, from a station on the line of Overland Telegraph and Nickol Bay. For the successful carrying out of this undertaking the Council of our Society unanimously decreed him one of the Royal Medals of the year; and the details of the journey, so far as they have yet reached us, show how well this reward is deserved. Colonel Warburton started with his party, having a number of camels as their beasts of burthen, from Alice Springs, near Central Mount Stuart, on the 15th April, 1873, with the object of reaching the shores of the Indian Ocean and ascertaining the nature and resources of the previously unknown intermediate country. According to the brief account given on his arrival at Adelaide by Colonel Warburton, his course at first lay along the northern face of the M'Donnell Ranges, through a country which appeared to be well watered in ordinary seasons, and offered no great difficulties. The valleys between the parallel hilly ridges were fertile; but when the expedition had got so far westward as to be outside of the limits of the range, it fell in with very bad country—arid and barren, and covered with spinifex or porcupine bush, that constant sign of a barren soil throughout the greater part of Australia. As the party continued their toilsome way westward the appearance of the country became worse and worse; lines of sand-ridges presented themselves without any signs of surface water. Their
sufferings from thirst were at length relieved by the discovery of water, through the sharp sight and intelligence of a native belonging to the party. It was, however, very limited in quantity, and beyond it, towards the west, the aridity of the country became worse than ever. "Not a desert," as Colonel Warburton expresses it, "because not utterly destitute of vegetation. Rain sometimes fell, as testified by the scrub, but no surface water remained." The ascent and descent of the sand-ridges overtaxed the strength of the camels, and it was found prudent to march only in the coolness of the night. After some weeks of this kind of travelling, hunger began to assail the party, and one after another of the camels had to be slaughtered to keep themselves alive. At length, whilst the leader was prostrated by illness, and craved to be left behind to die, the remainder of the party strapped him to the back of a camel and made a push for the Oakover River, a tributary of the De Grey, near which were some outlying stations of West Australian colonists. Two of the men were sent on to the nearest station for succour, and returned, after an absence of sixteen or seventeen days, with food and horses, supplied by Messrs. Grant, Harper, and Anderson, of the De Grey River station. Without this timely aid the whole party must have perished. Intelligence of their arrival quickly reached the Government at Swan River, who had for some months expected their arrival at some of the frontier settlements, and a vessel was sent to Nickol Bay to bring them to the capital, whence they departed soon after for Adelaide, reaching that place in April, twelve months after their departure from Alice Springs. Great praise has been accorded by Colonel Warburton to the authorities of Western Australia for the cordial aid and hospitality rendered to the heroic band; and at Fremantle and Perth triumphal arches were erected in their honour. The arrival of Colonel Warburton at Adelaide was also celebrated by a public banquet on a large scale. I ought not to omit to record the fact that the cost of this important enterprise was sustained by two private colonists, the Hon. T. Elder and Captain Hughes.

The contemporaneous expedition of Mr. Gosse, dispatched by the South Australian Government from a position on the Overland Telegraph line south of the starting point of Colonel Warburton, although not successful in crossing to the western settlements, reached the shores of the Great Salt Lake in the interior, which had been discovered a short time previously by Mr. Giles, and named by him Lake Amadeus. From this point Mr. Gosse was obliged to return.
Of expeditions in other parts of Australia, space only permits me to mention that of Mr. W. Hann, in Northern Queensland, who, during the months from June to November, 1863, explored the difficult country along the head-waters of the Lynd, Mitchell and Bloomfield rivers, and reached Princess Charlotte's Bay.

**New Guinea.**—An expedition which has excited much interest among geographers and naturalists is that of M. Miklukho Maklay, a Russian savant, to the north-eastern coast of New Guinea. After passing a year on that island, in Astrolabe Bay, this traveller visited the Philippine Islands and Hong-Kong, proceeding thence to Batavia, where he stayed for a time with the Dutch Governor-General at Buitenborg, in order to elaborate the materials he had collected in New Guinea. Notwithstanding the perils and hardships undergone during his first expedition, M. Miklukho Maklay proposed visiting New Guinea a second time, and, according to the last letters received from him, intended leaving the island of Java at the end of 1873. His intention then was to visit, and reside for some time in, Triton Bay.

M. Miklukho Maklay has already communicated the chief results of his anthropological observations to the Academician Baer at Dorpat. In the 'Natuurkundig Tijdschrift voor Nederlandish Indie' for 1873, there appeared a very instructive article by M. Miklukho Maklay, under the title "Anthropologische Bemerkung über die Papuas der Maclay-Küste in New Guinea."

More rich in geographical results has been the exploring voyage of H.M.S. Basilisk, under the command of Captain Moresby, along the south-eastern coast of this great island. Captain Moresby relates in his letter to Sir Henry Rawlinson, giving an account of his remarkable discoveries, that the Basilisk, having accomplished sooner than he anticipated the mission with which it was charged, viz., the suppression of the illegal employment of Polynesian natives by the pearl-shellers in Torres Straits, he employed his spare time in attempting to complete the unfinished survey of Captain Owen Stanley on this coast. The result was to find the eastern termination of the land very different in configuration from what it had been represented on maps, and further, the discovery of a magnificent harbour on the south-east coast. I need not dwell further on the details of this important voyage, which have already been published in our 'Proceedings,' and will soon appear in a more complete form in our 'Journal,' but I cannot refrain from alluding to the agreeable picture drawn by Captain Moresby of the native in-
habitants whom he found at this eastern extremity of New Guinea, and who appear to be totally different in race, as they are in the mildness of their manners and in their hospitable treatment of visitors, from the hostile Papuans of the western portion of the island. Instead of the uncompromising hostility with which strangers attempting to land have been generally met in other portions of the island, Captain Moresby says that, although on all possible occasions he gave his crew liberty to go on shore and mix freely with the natives, perfect good feeling and confidence prevailed on both sides.

This contrast between the races of the east and west has also been remarked on by the Rev. Wyatt Gill, who communicated to the Society early in the Session an interesting account of his three visits to the mainland of New Guinea from the Mission Stations in the islands of Torres Straits. Mr. Gill was fortunate enough to see the natives of both races on different parts of the coast, and to ascertain, by inquiries of the resident missionaries, the line of separation between them, which on the south coast is the Manumau River. All the coast natives west of this river belong to the black or negrillo race, while east of this a light copper-coloured race, apparently of Malay descent, occupies the country. It was these latter with whom Captain Moresby had to deal, and he speaks in high terms of their docile disposition and their industry. Since these papers were read a strong reinforcement has left this country for the Mission Stations in Torres Straits, and a small coasting steamer, the gift of Miss Baxter, has been sent out to enable the missionary parties to explore thoroughly the south-eastern coast and ascend the rivers, with a view to adding to our knowledge of this wonderful country, as well as of selecting sites suitable for mission stations.

Whilst English explorers have been thus profitably engaged at the eastern end of New Guinea, more than one party of scientists of other nations have been doing good work at the western extremity. Thus Dr. Meyer, a German naturalist, known for his former researches in the island of Celebes, has succeeded in penetrating a considerable distance into the interior, and is said to have crossed the isthmus between Great Geelvink Bay and McCluer Inlet, but we have not at present seen any detailed account of the proceedings of this enterprising traveller. A more prolonged investigation of the western peninsula and of the neighbouring islands, especially the Aru Group, has been made by the Italian naturalist, Dr. Beccari,
and his companion, Signor D'Albertis, the latter of whom has lately returned to Europe, bringing with him the valuable collections in almost all branches of natural history accumulated by their united labours, the chief part of which, I believe, is destined for the museum of Genoa, now under the management of the Marquis Giacomo Doria, himself an accomplished naturalist and a former fellow-traveller of Dr. Beccari. Beccari and D'Albertis explored together in 1872 the western coast of the peninsula near Dorey, and the mountainous country of the Arfak and Atam some distance in the interior; and Dr. Beccari in the year following devoted many months to the examination of the Aru and Ké islands, of the former of which he has sent home a sketch-map, furnishing a welcome contribution to our knowledge of this little-known group. Other Italian explorers are Signor G. E. Cerutti, who made a survey, in 1870, of the straits between New Guinea and the island of Salwatty; Commandante Lovera di Maria, of the corvette Vettor Pisani, who, in 1872 and 1873, further examined the same straits and the channels of the Ké and Aru islands. In connection with these important explorations by Italian geographers and naturalists, I ought to mention that the results have been admirably recorded and illustrated by excellent maps in the periodical work entitled ‘Cosmos,’ conducted by our able Honorary Associate, Signor Guido Cora, of Turin.

Africa.—Africa has occupied by far the greater part of the attention of the Society during the past session, and on every side visible progress has been made towards filling up those large blank spaces on the map, which are still sources of such interest to the geographer and such a stimulus to the exertions of the enterprising traveller.

On the Western Coast, if the expedition against the Ashantees has not added much to our geographical records, it has materially quickened the interest attaching both to the Coast country and the Niger Valley. It has directed attention to quarters which are still unexplored, and effectually tended to lessen both the real and imaginary dangers of further exploration, besides leading to the publication of much information regarding the country.

The same may be said of what we have received from Sir Samuel Baker regarding his most adventurous expedition. The main parts of what he had done and discovered had been made known to us before my predecessor last addressed you, and since then you have had the great pleasure of welcoming Sir Samuel and the heroic partner of all his wanderings, and of hearing from his own lips, in
the lectures and addresses with which he has so liberally favoured us, and which are duly recorded in our journals, as much of the detailed history of his achievements as it would be possible to communicate without the publication of his work, which is so anxiously expected by all of us. Though the direct geographical results may be generally confined to the correct ascertainment of points previously visited by him, and the filling up by his accomplished relation and fellow-traveller, Lieutenant Baker, of many blanks in parts of the country which Sir Samuel had discovered in former journeys, most important service has been done to geography by proving the accessibility of regions which, a few years ago, were practically closed to European travellers; and we may every year hope for fresh contributions from those who are following in the path so energetically and successfully opened by Sir Samuel. The transmission by him of a letter addressed to Dr. Livingstone, which was forwarded across the Nile Valley, and reached Lieutenant Cameron at Unyanyembe, is in itself a fact of no small importance, geographically, as indicating the feasibility of transit by routes which had previously required all the energy of Burton, and Speke and Grant to traverse.

Yet more important is the fact which Colonel Grant has just learnt from a letter he has received from Colonel Gordon, that Lieutenant Cameron’s reply to Sir Samuel’s letter, and addressed to Sir Samuel at Gondokoro, had safely reached Colonel Gordon. It is thus clear that the King of Uganda, with whom Colonel Gordon’s predecessor had established friendly relations, is able to insure the conveyance of letters from the outposts of the Khedive of Egypt to those of the Sultan of Zanzibar.

It is, moreover, clear from Colonel Gordon’s letters that the difficulties in the way of reaching the lakes from Egypt have been greatly reduced since Sir Samuel’s first most adventurous journey.

Colonel Gordon writes from Gondokoro 16th April, and Khartoum 4th May. His letter reached London 17th June—one day short of two months from Gondokoro. He had left Cairo 21st February, and Suez the 22nd; arrived at Suakim the 26th, and left 28th; arrived at Berber 8th March, and left the 9th; thus reaching Khartoum on the 13th March, or 18 days from Suez.

The “Sud,” the great floating vegetable barrier, which so effectually closed the navigation of the river when Baker went up, had been cut through as Baker had suggested, so the route to Gondokoro was open.
Colonel Gordon left Khartoum the 21st March, and reached Gondokoro on the 10th April. In descending again from Gondokoro, he reached Kytch (5° 30' N. lat.) on the 10th April, and Khartoum on the 4th May—11 days from Gondokoro: but he believes it could be done in 8 days. He expects to have vessels on Lake Albert N'yanza in November.

In another letter, dated Khartoum 4th May, Colonel Gordon states that he had seen an embassy from King M'tesa of Uganda at Gondokoro, where they arrived four days previous to himself. They consisted of twelve Waganda and one Arab, and brought presents; amongst which was a cap worked by M'tesa's own hands. Gordon's baggage had not arrived, so he could make no suitable return; but he sent back all the slaves, his own cap, and some pictures, to M'tesa.

The Waganda witnessed Gordon's landing in state from his steamer at Gondokoro; they were shown the engine and furnace, and also had a sail in the steamer. On inspecting the sketches of Waganda in Speke's volume of the 'Discovery of the Sources of the Nile,' they were delighted when they recognised their own king, his mother, and other sketches with which they were familiar. Gordon tore out all the pictures and sent them to M'tesa.

The Waganda also brought two letters from Lieutenant Cameron, dated August and November last. These gave accounts of Dr. Livingstone's body having arrived, of Dillon's death, and Murphy's resignation. The Waganda told Gordon that Cameron intended to go by Karagweh to the north, and Gordon gave instructions that every assistance should be rendered to Cameron, should he reach Uganda. The King of Uganda sent for a male and female donkey, a man who would teach him to read the Koran, a writer, and a barber to shave him.

The great German Expedition to the countries north of the Congo has been fairly started; and their proceedings are regularly recorded in a publication issued by the German African Society, of which seven or eight numbers have already appeared.

The Expedition under Lieutenant Grandy, which was equipped by Mr. James Young, with a view to meeting Livingstone, should he have turned his steps westward, has hitherto not been attended with the results hoped for. Nor has the Expedition under Lieutenant Cameron as yet added much to our geographical knowledge, though it was effectual in affording to the followers of Livingstone useful aid at a critical part of their journey homeward with the body of
the great traveller. Lieutenant Cameron, when we last heard of him, had reached Ujiji, and, finding that he should not be able to travel west of the lake for some months, was preparing to explore by boat the south-western shores. The losses he had sustained by the death of his two promising companions, Dr. Dillon and young Mr. Moffat, and by the invaliding of Lieutenant Murphy, will be fresh in your recollection; but, from what I know of his pluck and determination, I entertain hopes of his yet achieving distinction and adding to our information regarding the lake-region by his single-handed exertions, should his health enable him to prosecute his journey.

Many gaps, of greater or less extent, have been filled up on the eastern side by Dr. Kirk, Captain Elton, Mr. St. Vincent Emskine, Père Horner, and others.

One of the great geographical events of the year has been the publication of Dr. Schweinfurth's Travels, the valuable results of which were glanced at in describing the grounds for conferring on that accomplished traveller the highest honour we have in our power to bestow. The enormous amount of valuable information on so many subjects, which he has collected, assures me that in his future travels he will record those astronomical determinations of distances, which alone are wanting to render his work one of the most complete, as it is among the most suggestive of modern travels.

But the main interest of the year centres in the most important contribution to geographical knowledge which we have received for many years past, in the journals of our own Livingstone. Nothing can exceed the minuteness and careful accuracy, as far as his means went, of the notes kept by Dr. Livingstone. No less than 17 pocket rough-note books, filled with careful memoranda of each day's journey, were found among his papers; and whenever he made a long halt, he appears carefully to have written out his journal in a connected narrative, and to have plotted on map-paper every portion of his track. All the voluminous data thus collected, appear, as far as can be ascertained, to have been recovered, and are now in the hands of his eldest son, Mr. T. S. Livingstone, who is preparing them for publication; and a very cursory examination of their contents shows that they are full of the most valuable geographical information regarding the whole region between the third and twelfth degrees of south latitude, and the twenty-fifth and thirty-fifth degrees of east longitude. It is more than pro-
worth much more than the grant of public money. Few men are better trained for travel than the scientific branches of our army and navy (the men, let me observe, as well as the officers), and no personal enterprise can, especially in such arduous tasks as Arctic exploration, compensate for the lack of that strict discipline which is nowhere among us found in such perfection as in our national forces. While, then, we do all that is in our own power to train our travellers, let us relax no effort to carry with us the cordial sympathy of the people and the Government of our country.

We must not separate without recording in an especial manner our obligations to the University of London for the courtesy with which they have continued to allow us the use of this magnificent Hall for the meetings of the Society. The readiness with which this facility, whenever applied for, has been accorded us, is the more gratifying, as I feel assured that a body so careful of the interests confided to their charge, as the Senate of the University, thereby recognise the desire of the Royal Geographical Society to contribute in its own sphere to the sound and thorough education of the great mass of our countrymen.
PAPERS READ
BEFORE THE
ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY
DURING THE SESSION 1873-74.
[FORMING VOL. XLIV. OF THE SOCIETY'S JOURNAL.
PUBLISHED MARCH 8TH, 1875.]

I.—Recent Discoveries at the Eastern End of New Guinea. By
Captain J. Moresby, R.N.
[Read, November 24th, 1873.]

The Basilisk left Sydney, December 8th, with orders to sup-
press the illegal employment of Polynesian natives by the
pearl-shellers in Torres Straits. This having been easily and
quickly accomplished, I found myself with much spare time
on my hands, and resolved to employ it in completing, so far
as our time, means, and ability would permit, the unfinished
survey of Captain Owen Stanley of the south coast of New
Guinea.

The information thus obtained I will divide into three sections
for clearness:—

First Section. Islands and coast of New Guinea in Torres
Straits.
Second Section. Coast of New Guinea between 146° 20' and
148° E.
Third Section. From 150° E. to east extreme of New Guinea.

First Section.

This is described in the following letter addressed to me by
Navigating-Lieutenant E. R. Connor, an officer employed on
the Queensland survey, who zealously volunteered his services
to survey the north islands and shores of Torres Straits. He
was detached in command of the Basilisk’s pinnace, on this ser-

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vice, for a period of over three months, and is therefore better qualified than anyone else could be to speak of those parts and their inhabitants. I would add, as a precautionary remark, the pearl-shellers having now for six years occupied Torres Straits, the savage characteristics of the natives have been much ameliorated by their intercourse with white men. Also Lieut. Connor having no knowledge of the copper-coloured races to the eastward, but intimately acquainted with the degraded Australian blacks, is far more favourably impressed with the black New Guinea men of Torres Straits than I am.

"My dear Captain Moresby,

"I have much pleasure in giving you such information on Torres Straits and its inhabitants as I have gleaned during my cruising there. My knowledge of Prince of Wales, Horn, Banks, and Mulgrave islands, is limited to information received at Cape York, and interviews with such few natives as came across to Cornwallis in the pearl-shelling boats. Of the other islands and coast I speak from actual observation.

"The coast of New Guinea from Bristowe Island to the Talbot Islands, and as far west as I could see from there, is one mass of mangroves and scrub, the only rise being a hill abreast of Saibai Island about 200 feet high. I ascended the north-west summit of Cornwallis Island, on a very clear day, for observations, and had a splendid view for miles; but could see nothing but a vast flat.

"The only inhabitants seen actually living on the coast of New Guinea were those at Mowatta (a village at the mouth of the Katow River), and a few at Yanga, a village abreast of the Talbot Islands. These are described below.

"Saibai and the Talbot Islands are of the same swampy nature as the coast; there are, however, a few well-cultivated patches on both large islands.

"Cornwallis Island is most remarkable. It towers far above the others, and is of a quite different formation, being covered with large granite boulders; and its summit, 790 feet above the sea-level, is clothed with dark-green trees. Its east and south-west sides are steep, but on the north, or north-west sides, there are some considerable patches of fine grassy land where the natives have some very good gardens.

"Turnagain Island is low and swampy; there are no natives.

"Warrior Island is nothing more than a sandbank with a few stunted trees; its only importance consists of its being one of the head-quarters of the pearl-shellers, who have got an immense quantity of shell from the Warrior Reef. The natives
here are almost entirely dependent on their fishing for subsistence. They, however, make occasional trips to Bampton Island for yams, &c. The water supply is scant and bad, and, during the dry season, all the drinkable water has to be procured from Turtle-backed Island, whence it is brought in long bamboos.

"The Brothers, Cap, and Turtle-backed, form a group of well grassed and well watered islands, with a moving population whose head-quarters are at the Brothers.

"The remaining islands of Torres Strait—Prince of Wales, Jervis, &c.—are hilly, with much scrub. The natives of these islands bear a marked resemblance to those of Saibai, Morsatta, &c., in language and appearance; and, where not expressly stated, the following description is general.

"The natives of Torres Strait and coast of New Guinea are dark brown in complexion, with well-shaped heads, rich brown eyes, nose good, in some cases being aquiline, good mouths (facial angle about 65°); the eyebrows are well-marked, and follow the curve of the orbit. The hair, if allowed to grow, is crisp and woolly, but it is generally kept quite close cut. They also cut the hair of the face, leaving only a small beard. The headmen of the families wear wigs made of a skull of matting with long thin curls fastened in; they are wonderfully well made, and it was only on my second visit that I found the fact out, although I had been amongst the natives for 5 weeks on a former occasion. When the hair is allowed to grow they roll it up into small curls, plaster it over thick with clay and let it dry. When dry they tease the curls out and give the hair a coat of oil. The women invariably have the hair cut close, except a ridge which is left about half an inch long and same width, extending across the top of the skull from ear to ear. The average height of the men is about 5 feet 6 inches, and women 5 feet 2 inches. One woman at the Brothers was measured 5 feet 5½ inches. The men are remarkably well made, their legs being especially good; and they display much skill in managing their canoes under sail.

"Polygamy is general, but not universal, but the practice of infanticide precludes any effort at finding out the relative number of the sexes. Few opportunities occurred for observing their diseases, but they suffer much from fever and ague, for which their treatment is novel. As soon as a man gets shaky they cut his hair close, and then bleed him well from the forehead. His back, arms, and legs, are also scratched pretty deep with a piece of glass or sharp flint. Ulcerated mosquito-bites are very frequent; and several cases of hydrocele were seen, but only five cases of elephantiasis."
"They live on the produce of their gardens, which are well kept, and contain yams, sweet-potatoes, and sugar-cane. At low water the men go out and spear fish on the reefs, and on moonlight nights go out in canoes and hunt turtle and dugong. The flesh of the dugong is very sweet, and much resembles veal. One night the men from Saibai caught seven, and the next night six, of these animals. They cut up the flesh and cook it at once over a very slow fire, by which means, and by re-cooking it each day to keep it dry, they preserve the flesh for as long as 10 days. After the first cooking it is served out equally all round. The gardens appear to belong to the various families, and all the work is then done by the women, who also climb for coco-nuts.

"The men are pretty constantly employed in making and repairing their canoes, making fish-spears, &c. The village of Mowatta alone supplies the whole of Saibai, Warrior Island, Brothers, Cornwallis, and Talbot, with bows and arrows.

"The canoes are fine boats, some being over 45 feet long, made of a single tree, with raised washboards. I saw a great deal of work done about the canoes during the time I was at Cornwallis. They get the logs, already dug out, from a village beyond Bampton Island, called Kewai. The washboards are cut out from the sides of old canoes, and the edges of the canoe and washboard are trimmed nicely. Holes are cut in each at about 3 inches interval, and a lashing made of plaited coco-nut fibre is rove. Along the joint they place a strip of split bamboo. By knocking this, round which the lashing is passed, they get a good purchase in the spring of the bamboo, as the lashing is hauled taut during the knocking. The head and stern washboards are joined by a shield-shaped piece of wood, and the joint is caulked by the inside bark of the mangrove, beaten up with a little water. The lashing goes over this, and as it soon hardens, the whole is quite watertight. Considerable taste is shown in ornamenting the canoes, devices resembling fish or stars being the most common. These are burnt out, and the edges trimmed and painted red or white. There is usually a staff in the stern, with a quantity of fine grass on it. The outriggers are very long and well stayed; the poles are about five feet apart, and on each side there is a platform, with wicker cages to hold spears, &c. They have two mat-sails, both forward and close together; when not sailing free they use a lee board under the lee bow.

"Their arms consist of bows, arrows, and tomahawks. The former are made at Mowatta, and exchanged for pieces of calico, yams, and sugar-cane. The bows are of split bamboo, very tough and heavy. The arrows are of reed, headed with hard wood,
and barbed with wallaby bone; they are all poisoned. This operation we saw performed: they take the inside bark of a tree, called by them cangat, chew it, and spit the saliva and juice out into a shell. A piece of charred wood is then mixed in, and the mixture is then smeared over the head of the arrow, two coats being sufficient. The bark is very acrid indeed. The men told me that if an arrow penetrates but half an inch, the wounded man dies in convulsions in a short time. Iron tomahawks are the only ones used, except in Prince of Wales and Horn islands. These, however, have only been quite recently used, as the old headman at Cornwallis showed me two skulls of his own killing, one of which had been smashed by an iron tomahawk and the other by a stone one.

"The men go naked as a rule, and the women have only a belt, with a bunch of grass in front and behind.

"Pigs and dogs are common about Saibai and Mowatta: the latter are quite different from the dingoe of Australia—the tail, instead of being bushy, is thin, like a pointer's or hound's.

"Although we noticed no distinct chieftainship, there are in every village some headmen who have command over the others, to a certain extent.

"The houses at Mowatta, Saibai, and one at Cornwallis, were all built on piles, and some of them at Saibai and Cornwallis had the lower part thatched-in, making a kind of day-room. At the Brothers, Talbot, Jervis, and Warrior islands they have only miserable sheds, made of branches and leaves. They all use tobacco, and the pipe is the usual large bamboo common to the South Sea Islands.

"Their ornaments are fillets of plaited grass, head-dresses of cassowary feathers, and plumes of bird-of-paradise. Many of them have pearl-shells, ground down to a half-moon or crescent shape.

"In disposition they are frank and open, but very independent. We had only two complaints of theft the whole time of our stay about there.

"Very little information was to be obtained about the men living inland on New Guinea, although I tried very hard to find out. The headman at Cornwallis, however, told me over and over again that they are 'very bad men.' There seems to be a continual feud between them and the coast and island men. Not many months ago the men from Mowatta, Sabai, and Cornwallis surprised the up-countrysmen one night and killed over twenty men and women. They brought the skulls back and burnt them solemnly, after which a pile was made near the village. I enquired particularly if they ate any part of the body, but my question was met with an unqualified look of dis-
gust and a shout of 'No, no! bad!' so I concluded that, at least, the coast people are not cannibals.

"Such is the sum of my information, and I conclude, remaining, my dear Captain Moresby,

"Yours, &c.,

"EDWARD R. CONNOR."

SECOND SECTION.

Between Yule Island and Hood Point, 120 miles, the whole of this coast-line was laid down by the running survey of Captain Stanley in 1849; but it appears that the only point landed upon was the shores of Redscar Bay, where, after a very brief intercourse with the natives, symptoms of hostility were suspected, and the party at once returned to the ship.

The Basilisk, when about 25 miles E.N.E. of Yule Island, found herself at daylight off a vast extent of drift-wood and uprooted trees of a great size; they were first reported as reefs, causing considerable anxiety, until daylight revealed their real nature. This led me to suppose that inside Yule Island I should find a large river which might prove a road to the interior of New Guinea. This was my ambition.

Yule Island lies off the entrance to a large well-sheltered sheet of water (now named Robert Hall Sound), where the Basilisk remained several days.

The island is about 550 feet in height, well-cultivated and fertile. The mainland, excepting some bold headlands, is one vast extent of low swampy ground, extending for 6 or 8 miles inland to a low range of hills. These are backed up by range after range, until they culminate in the magnificent "Owen Stanley" Mountains, 12,000 or 14,000 feet high.

I was utterly disappointed in finding no river which led to these tempting highlands. A river we found, capacious and stately enough to raise our hopes extravagantly; but, after following its sluggish course for many miles, it led nowhere, and was but the drainage of the immense surrounding fresh-water swamp. A powerful river emptied itself into this first stream, but its current was too rapid to admit of my six-oared galley ascending more than a very short distance: it was probably the parent of the drift seen at sea.

The scenery on the river-banks was monotonous in the extreme—a dense growth of mangrove and other moisture-loving trees. Excepting flying-foxes and screaming gaudy-coloured birds, there was an entire absence of animal life.

Occasionally ill-made native huts were on the banks, from which a track through the swamp led to some acres of raised
ground, like an oasis in the desert. These were carefully cleared and cultivated with yams, taro, bananas, &c. Here also were permanent houses, built, as usual, on poles some 8 feet from the ground, with one room common to the whole family. The natives hid themselves in the swamp; indeed it must have appeared to them as if we had dropped from the clouds.

It seemed marvellous how human life could exist in such a malarious, vile place: even in the glare of a noonday sun the air was thick with mosquitos.

In "Robert Hall Sound" the ship was always crowded with natives, fresh parties from distant parts of the coast arriving each day. They are a copper-coloured race, combining both dark and light shades, decently clothed—the men wearing a breech-cloth, the women wearing the usual Ti-ti or South Sea petticoat. The men have their hair frizzled out as a mop, but the women cut theirs short, and extensively tattoo their bodies, which the men never do. They ornamented themselves with black, white, and red pigments, variously laid on, bunches of flowers; and bird-of-paradise plumes fastened to their heads and shoulders. Occasionally the great beak of the "toucan" was worn as horns on each side of the head; the men's mouths were all much disfigured by excessive use of lime and betel-nut. Their weapons are bows, arrows, spears, stone and wood clubs. They were totally unacquainted with the use of iron; infinitely preferred their stone hatchets to our axes. The barter they the most liked was the polished pearl-shells of Torres Straits.

None of their villages are visible from the sea, being placed in the bush in cleared spaces, very neat and cleanly kept. In the rear of the villages are generally extensive well-fenced plantations of yams, bananas, &c. No signs of cannibalism were visible. They gladly received us at their villages, and impressed us as a friendly, intelligent people; being so distinct a race from the black, naked New Guinea men of Torres Straits, it will be very interesting to ascertain where the line of demarcation occurs. It is probably not far to the west of Yule Island; for at Cape Possession (25 miles to the west), in 1846, Lieut. Yule remarks "that the natives varied in shade, from nearly a black to a light copper-colour;" or perhaps it may be at some spot where the betel-nut first grows, to the east of Torres Straits, which the black race never use, the light race always.

Some fine specimens of steel-sand were found on the mainland near the sea.

Redscar Bay is, during the south-east monsoon, a wild exposed anchorage; the surrounding country low, swampy, and malarious, intersected by many large streams flowing from the "Owen Stanley" range. I spent four or five days in vain efforts to
reach the mountains by means of these rivers; but in every case, after ascending 14 or 15 miles, when the country began to be somewhat open, the current became so rapid, and snags and uprooted trees so numerous, it was impossible to go further. Their banks are very similar to the rivers at Robert Hall Sound; they are more frequently fringed with what (for want of knowledge) I call a bastard palm—a palm without any trunk, which flung its gigantic leaf-branches 40 or 50 feet, arching over the rivers. Some smaller species were armed with innumerable hooks on the edge of the leaf, which lacerated us cruelly, as, trying to avoid the current, we kept close to the banks.

When clear of the swamps the rivers ran between dense tropical forests, the trees of no great girth, but towering to fabulous heights: I should say from 200 to 250 feet. Even this height could not save them from the destructive climbing parasites, which, reaching to the loftiest branches, destroyed their life, and hung round the dead limbs in the most weird and fantastic shapes.

The largest of these rivers was blocked up by an accumulation of logs and snags, which, interlaced together, had bridged the river, and, being continually added to from above, had formed large vegetated islands, under which the river rushed and foamed furiously. Just below these islands it was about 80 yards broad, 20 feet deep, and very rapid.

Not a sign of native life was anywhere to be seen, but at Redscar Bay we were given to understand that a powerful tribe lived inland, of whom they were much afraid.

Redscar Bay is the ill-chosen site of a Polynesian native mission, belonging to the London Missionary Society. The unfortunate teachers, little better than children themselves, and left to their own resources, are dying off rapidly.

Immediately to the east of Redscar Head, the outlying barrier reef rears itself to the water’s edge, at a distance varying from three to eight miles from the shore, and guards uninterruptedly the coast as far as Hood Point from aught but gentle wavelets. Simultaneously with the appearance of this guarding reef the entire features of the country change. The whole coast between Torres Straits and Redscar Head is, as a rule, low and swampy, and has probably been formed during the course of ages by the alluvial deposits of the numberless large streams descending from the great Owen Stanley Range. Now precipitous, round-topped, grassy hills, openly timbered, and bearing a strong family likeness to each other, spring from the white coral and sandy beach. These hills are backed up by higher ranges inland. Fertile valleys lie between.

The coast is strewn with villages, always marked by a grove
of coco-nut trees. The houses are built after the Malay fashion, on poles, some standing far out on the shore-reefs in quiet waters, others clustering amongst plantations on the hill-sides.

It is singular this sudden change from a low, muddy, mangrove-bound coast, to boldness, coral-shells, and white sand. Perhaps it is caused by the courses which the rivers from the mountains take?

From Redscar Head to Hood Point not a single stream was seen emptying itself into the sea; small trickling rivulets were found, and water-holes—no clear running stream. The soil in the valleys is of a peaty, black, spongy nature, which probably absorbs the rain as it falls.

Close to the Fisherman Islands of Captain Stanley, the Basilisk passed through the Barrier Reef by one of those narrow, bottomless openings peculiar to these seas, and anchored in a fine roomy harbour within a harbour (now named Port Moresby and Fairfax Harbour), which our boats had previously discovered. The ship remained here some days, whilst running surveys were made and the coast explored.

In the neighbourhood of Port Moresby the valleys were intensely rich and tropical in their vegetation, but the hills, of which the greater part of the country consisted, were perfectly Australian in their appearance: they had very poor soil, covered with large stones, scattered gum-trees, and thin grass. On some of these hills large quantities of quartz were found; some of the specimens picked up being impregnated with gold, but no trace of gold was ever discovered amongst the natives.

The description of the Yule Island natives may generally be applied to the natives of this part of the coast, but these appear a more harmless and inoffensive race. I do not remember seeing more than one armed native during the month we spent amongst them. I frequently examined their canoes, trading up and down the coast for long distances and calling at distant villages, and found them equally destitute of weapons. Many of these canoes were of the kind described by Lieut. Yule, of H.M.S. Bramble in 1846, viz., double canoes, secured by a cane deck or platform passing over all and fastening the canoes together. They were propelled by large mat sails spread between two poles, in the shape of the letter V, and steered with long paddles; their length was about 40 feet, and extreme beam about 8 feet. No treble or quadruple canoes of this sort were seen by us.

In their houses they had rough-wood spears, and occasionally stone clubs, no bows.

We roamed over the country and visited their villages as freely as if they were English people. If any of our fellows
got lost in the bush, the natives took them to their villages, fed them, and offered every hospitality, before bringing them back to the ship.

Apparently they had never before seen a white man, as their curiosity was great to see and touch our white skins.

From their proximity to Redscar Bay they had learnt the use of iron, eagerly taking our axes in barter. Their fishing-nets, made from the fibre of a small nettle-like plant (I did not see its leaf) are precisely similar to an English seine, quite as strong, and are universally used from Yule Island to East Cape.

Wallabies were the only wild animals seen. Pigs and dogs the domesticated ones.

THIRD SECTION.

This commences at Heath Point, where Captain Stanley began his survey of New Guinea, distant about 40 miles from the (then) supposed south-east extremity. The chart shows an unbroken continuation of the Owen Stanley range to near the (supposed) south-east cape.

The north-east shores of New Guinea had never been surveyed, but all the charts agree in representing the eastern termination of New Guinea to be in the shape of a wedge with the D'Entrecasteaux Islands on its north-east board.

The reality we have found to be very different, as the rough tracing will show you. You will observe that New Guinea finishes its enormous length to the eastward in the form of a broad fork. Heath Point, of Captain Stanley, is a lofty island lying off the mainland: thus he in reality commenced his survey at the extreme south-east point of New Guinea without being aware of it. It was probably thick weather when his soundings were taken within two miles of Heath Island; under any circumstances, from the westward, Heath Island shuts out all view of the Straits named by me "China Straits."

The tracing will obviate my making any lengthened remarks on the unexpected configuration of the land which it has been our lot to discover. I will briefly say that the south-east extremity of New Guinea sweeps precipitously down from a height of about 2000 feet, to the tranquil shores of China Straits; those on the opposite side have Hayter Island, irregularly shaped, rising to a height of about 800 feet.

Hayter Island is separated by a narrow pass (riven asunder by some mighty convulsion of nature) from Mourilyan Island. This latter island is of a moderate height on its southern board, but to the north-east rises to about 1200 feet, and is separated
by Fortescue Straits from Moresby Island, a noble island with peaks about 2000 feet.

It is a curious question how it has come about that the mistake of supposing New Guinea to end in a wedge-like shape should have occurred. It may have been thus:—D'Entrecasteaux and the old navigators knew of the existence of the north-east fork, and placed their discoveries relatively correct with regard to it; they knew nothing of the south-east fork. Modern navigators, making the land from the south, knowing nothing of the north-east fork, and seeing the high land of that part of New Guinea over the low land of Mourilyan Island, hastily jumped at the conclusion that it must be D'Entrecasteaux Islands: thus confusion arose and the fork was shut up. It is clear enough now.

I am strongly of opinion that the route between China and Australia will eventually lead through China Straits: they are free from dangers, and have safe anchorage everywhere. A ship leaving Sydney would follow the outside route to the great north-east channel, a clear free sea, from that well-known track, leading to China Straits; thence to East Cape is a clear run. There the Basilisk was brought up by reefs. Unfortunately a want of stores and fuel prevented our looking for a passage (which will, undoubtedly, be found) to the south of Lydia Island.

I examined the northern shores of New Guinea, for about 25 miles, in my boat. Once round East Cape, New Guinea is washed by a grand, clear, reefless sea: a ship might literally sail with her sides rubbing against the coral wall which binds the shore, and find good anchorage in any of the bays where a beach is seen. How far to the westward this description would apply remains to be proved: it is an important matter, and well worth early investigation.

Of the beauty and fertility of these islands and shores of New Guinea it is impossible to speak too highly; in its general features it strongly reminded me of Jamaica. The precipitous wooded mountains are, to a considerable extent, cleared and terraced to their very summits with taro and yam plantations, in a way that even a Chinaman might envy; whilst the valleys produce coco-nut, sago-palm, bananas, sugar-cane, oranges, Indian corn, guavas, mammy apples, pumpkins, and other tropical productions. Mountain streams abound, and contain a delicious eatable fish, almost identical in taste and appearance with the English trout.

The torrents which discharge themselves from the mainland into Sir Alexander Milne Bay are very numerous and large; no fish were seen in these.
At the head of Sir Alexander Milne Bay fine specimens of steel sand were obtained. At East Cape the natives possessed large lumps of obsidian; but we did not see that it was used to barb spears or make knives, as at the Admiralty Islands.

The whole of these coasts, except where the mountains rise too precipitously from the sea to give foothold to man, which is often the case, are thickly populated.

The natives are of a lighter copper colour than those previously described, slightly limbed, and active, with bright intelligent features; many would be good-looking but for the disfigurement caused by the betel-nut. Their taste in painting themselves is peculiar; with charcoal and oil they at times make themselves a sooty black, others will paint black spectacles round their eyes, blacken their nose and lime their cheeks and chin white, giving themselves a most grotesque appearance. They are fond of wearing bright flowers, birds' plumage, and long ornamented streamers of the pandanas fastened to their shoulders. The septum of the nose was perforated and a polished bone thrust through. Occasionally they wore human jaw and spinal bones as bracelets and ornaments. The women wore their hair short, and were extensively tattooed; the men never.

They are fond of making pets of parrots, cassowaries, and different species of a sloth-like marsupial little animal, which, being somewhat like the Australian bear, we termed opossum-bears. One species, with a soft greyish fur, was very beautiful; we could not succeed in keeping them alive on board.

The men appear to do all the canoe work—fishing, and so on—leaving the field labour for the women; nevertheless, the women appeared to have their say, and make the men do as they pleased in matters of barter. The men were frequently seen nursing little children with much affection. A striking, distinguishing mark of the superior civilisation of the light-coloured race to the black New Guinea men is the acquaintance of the former with the art of common pottery. At all their villages various sizes of earthenware pots were seen, and others in the process of manufacture. They are neatly moulded by hand to the required shape, and then baked by heaping fire round the clay.

Their weapons are handsomely carved wood swords, clubs and shields, wooden spears and stone tomahawks, but no bows. They were perfectly aware of the value of iron, specimens being found in every village; doubtless obtained from the Eastern Islands, with which a constant communication is maintained by means of large trading canoes. These are from 40 to 50 feet in length, the bottom consisting of a hollowed tree, then
raised upon, the top sides secured by a strong cane lacing and large wooden knees; they are propelled by an oval-shaped mat sail, very skilfully handled, and quite capable of making long voyages. Meeting them at sea, the Basilisk going 5 knots, they easily sailed round us, and, luffing under our lee, were with difficulty prevented from boarding whilst we were under weigh.

The other canoes in use are small, and the catamaran is universal. Besides these, each village has several long, narrow, war canoes, highly ornamented after a barbarous fashion, carved and painted, capable of holding 40 or 50 men. They are kept very carefully hauled up under sheds, and bear the appearance of being but seldom used.

With these people our intercourse was of a most satisfactory, pleasant nature. At first they were a little shy; but this was speedily got over, and a free interchange of barter went on, pieces of hoop-iron being the great medium of exchange. They eagerly exchanged their handsome stone hatchets and other valuables for a piece of the coveted iron; many tons of the finest yams were also bought with it.

On all possible occasions I gave our ship's company liberty to go on shore, and mix freely with the natives; the results were all I could desire—perfect good feeling and confidence on both sides. Nor was there a single instance of our men insulting the women, or of the natives making immoral offers. The greater part of our surveys being done in boats, I had frequently occasion to land in my six-oared galley at large populous villages, 18 or 20 miles from the ship, surrounded by large crowds: yet we were always received in the same friendly, hospitable spirit as if in sight of the ship; nor do I think that they had any idea that we possessed weapons more powerful than their own.

They would, if possible, pilfer when on board, but, in bartering, were strictly honest. Take them altogether, they are as genial and pleasant a race of savages as could well be met: at the same time, I have no doubt they do a little cannibalism amongst themselves. They took pains to make us understand, as an event they were proud of, that they had eaten the former owners of the skulls (hung up in their villages) and human bone ornaments which they wore; but the skulls are few, and apparently of an ancient date. As they have a superabundance of food, I am inclined to think it is only on very rare occasions they make a raid, or do any fighting amongst themselves. I never saw a wounded man amongst them.

I think it is very likely that the inhabitants of the large outlying islands stand very much in relation to the New Guinea men as the Danes and Norsemen of old did to the ancient
Britons. On one occasion, when lying in Fortescue Straits, we were visited by some large Island canoes: immediately they appeared all the New Guinea men cleared out, and were seen no more until the strangers had left.

We could not trace any sign of religious worship amongst any of these copper-coloured races, unless stringing up thousands of coco-nuts on poles fixed on the reefs in the front of their villages—in fact everywhere—may be regarded as a propitiatory offering. They never move out after dark, and, probably, like other savages, have a belief in, and dread of, devils and evil spirits, but no knowledge of any good spirits.

At Killerton Islands, before they opened a friendly intercourse, they brought a dog on board, and, after knocking its brains out on the quarter-deck, looked upon the rite as a ratification of friendship; at least so we understood it.

The natives appeared to be subject to a sort of leprosy and other skin-diseases; elephantiasis (so common in Torres Straits), or cases of malformation, were scarcely ever seen.

The meteorology of the coast of New Guinea from Yule Island to the eastward was found, during the months of February, March, April and May, to differ materially from that of Torres Straits. Leaving Torres Straits the first week in February, when heavy rains and occasional strong breezes, with dirty weather from the north-west, prevailed, we remained in the neighbourhood of Redscar Bay until the first week in March, during which time we only had one day's wet weather and strong breeze; all the rest fine, with calms and light variable winds.

At Cape York, again in March, a constant succession of heavy rain and dirty weather.

March 30th again at New Guinea, with lovely weather; and thus it continued, excepting two days' rain (April 27th and 28th), until we finally left China Straits on May 7th.

On May 10th, off Cape Suckling, the south-east monsoon set in strong with rain; this was immediately following after three days' dead calm.

At Cape York the south-east monsoon had been blowing steadily since the end of March.

The barometer has been steady at 29·80, or thereabouts. The thermometer has ranged between 82° and 88°, but the heat has rarely felt oppressive, and our ship's company, although they have served almost continuously for the last 18 months in tropical climates, and our boats' crews much exposed in surveying the rivers and coasts, have enjoyed general good health.

I could find no trace of the missing Russian traveller M. Micklucho Maclay.
II.—Three Visits to New Guinea. By the Rev. W. Wyatt Gill, B.A.

First Visit to Mauat.
[Read, November 24th, 1873.]

On a bright morning, the 27th of October, 1872, I first saw from our anchorage at Tauan, the low south-western coast of New Guinea, like a dark line drawn across the horizon. The vast unknown land was but four miles distant. One sympathised with the exultant cry of the immortal Ten Thousand on first catching a glimpse of the Euxine, Θάλαττα, θάλαττα.

About the same distance from New Guinea, but separated from Tauan by a narrow strait of 3½ miles, lies the sister island of Saibai, as yet unmarked on charts. The chiefs of these islands are brothers. The inhabitants speak a dialect, and practise the customs of the mainland, and maintain a friendly intercourse with the people of Katau and Torotoram. And yet, perversely enough, the portion of New Guinea in sight is entirely inaccessible to strangers—the tribe occupying it being in constant feud with their neighbours on the mainland and on the adjacent islands.

Five teachers of the London Missionary Society greeted our arrival at Tauan. Next day the Rev. A. W. Murray and I sailed in a boat to Saibai, which is a low, fruitful, unhealthy, island. The interior is a vast morass, with myriads of snipes, curlews, &c., &c. The inhabitants are a fine Negrito race, suspicious of strangers. The women here, and on the mainland, are excessively timid; they are slender in figure, wear a meagre grass petticoat, and have their heads closely shaved.

On Saibai and Tauan, the houses of chiefs and warriors are ornamented with strings of skulls of New Guinea bushmen. The owners of these ghastly trophies were very unwilling that we should touch these "malakai," i.e., ghosts. In the village stands a lofty coco-palm, with two branches growing out of the parent stem at the same point. All three crowns were richly laden with fruit—a botanical fact new to me. Their war-weapons and house-building are of a superior kind, precisely similar to what we afterwards saw on the mainland of New Guinea.

At daylight on the 29th of October, we steamed for Katau, a village distant some 20 miles on the south-western coast of New Guinea. As we passed along, the eye wearied of miles of stately melancholy mangroves, very unlike the scrub bearing that name I afterwards saw in Queensland. A conical hill, some miles inland, alone relieved the monotony of the scene.

The navigation of this unsurveyed coast is most critical. At
3 P.M. we touched an unknown coral-reef, without however receiving damage. Next day, a few miles further on, we discovered at low water sunken rocks lying in the direct path of the steamer.

Our proximity to Katan was indicated by an apparently interminable forest of coco-nut palms. The dwellings composing this village—the first we had seen on the mainland of New Guinea—are but few in number, but of immense length. On the morning of the 30th we pulled ashore, unarmed, at the western mouth of Katan River. Our interpreters, Mamut and Joe, shouted to the chief Maino, and thus insured us a good reception. We were at once conducted to a covered place in the centre of the village. Unarmed natives crowded about us with smiling faces. The formidable Papuan pipe, sometimes 33 inches in length, was filled with tobacco-smoke, and politely passed round to the visitors, who however declined to swallow the fragrant vapour. This pipe consists of a piece of bamboo with a movable bowl. The smoke is drawn into the bamboo by applying the lips to the open end, which is then closed with the palm of the hand. The bowl is now removed, and friends are expected to inhale the fumes through the small aperture.

We discovered a second or eastern mouth to Katan River, thus making the somewhat elevated ground opposite to our first landing-place a picturesque island.

The village of Torotoram is larger than Katan. To reach it we had to wade more than half a mile over a bank of fine black sand. The entire population had fled into the bush, with all their valuables, excepting four or five men, who stood doubtfully in front of a house watching our movements. The very pigs had been taken out of the sty and carried off. But, as soon as it became evident to the scouts that our intentions were pacific, and especially when they heard the voice of Maino calling to them, the whole adult male population came out of their hiding-places and gave us an unmistakable welcome.

Their canoes are invariably hollowed out of a single tree, and measure 45 feet in length. Each is furnished with a double outrigger, and three mat-sails. Manut natives travel in entire families, and with all their worldly gear. In the centre of the canoe is a raised platform, on which they carry fire for the purpose of cooking fish, smoking, and for warmth at nights. In little square compartments on this raised platform they stow their property—fish-hooks, lines, firewood, women's grass girdles, &c., &c. In the body of the canoe are large water-jugs with lids. They often spend two or three weeks in fishing on one of the numerous coral-reefs near their coast.

They call us "Malakai," i.e. "ghosts" or "spirits." God is
spoken of by our teachers as "the true or great Malakai." The heathen of this part of New Guinea, and of the Straits, invariably associate the idea of whiteness with their notion of a spirit. Our gifts were elliptically designated "malakai," i.e. ("belonging to) glistening spirits." Very similar to this was the notion formed by the natives of the Mangain, in 1777, of Captain Cook, whom they mistook for a god. The skulls ornamenting the houses of warriors on Tanan and Saibai are, as already remarked, called "malakai," i.e. (belonging to) ghosts." Such was their delight at seeing the whiteness of our skins that they would, had they been permitted, have stripped us in order to ascertain whether we were really white, and not, as some imagined, painted like dolls. One actually wetted his forefinger and vigorously rubbed my arm to see if the white would come off! They said we were the first whites that had ever landed at their village.

On leaving, all the men (110) followed us; some carrying food, others helping to drag our boat into deep water. The writer had a double escort of athletic natives, anxious to put their heads under his umbrella. When the food was finally deposited in the boat, and we were ready to start, these amusing savages simultaneously raised the right-hand palm open, and most gracefully bade us, "I auá" = "Farewell."

Not a woman, or child, or decrepit man, was seen by us all that memorable day. Those with whom we had such agreeable intercourse were the fighting-men of Torotoram.

We saw Bristowe Island in the distance. Several villages on the mainland, to the east of Torotoram, were pointed out to us by Maimo. This part of New Guinea, from the western limits of the Katau district (indicated by a river opposite the uninhabited islet Kau) to Bristowe Island, is called Mauat by the natives themselves, and by the Torres Strait islanders.

Opposite to Bristowe Island is a deep navigable river, half a mile across, supposed to be a branch of the Fly. Captain Hastings went up 5 or 6 miles in search of a missing boat. He found no village whatever,—the entire country being a swamp. Yet there were evident traces of inhabitants; as here and there places had been cleared for canoes to rest at night, and baskets were still hanging on the lopped mangrove-trees. The river was swarming with crocodiles.

The aborigines of this part of New Guinea call their great island Daudai. Torres Strait islanders corrupt this into "Daudi," just as they corrupt "Torotoram" into "Tureture." Australia is known as "Great Daudai," New Guinea as "Little Daudai." Although we spent upwards of seven weeks in New Guinea waters, never once did we hear this famous island called "Papua."
The drums of the Mauat natives are, like hour-glasses, smaller in the middle than at the extremities. One end is invariably covered with iguana-skin. The other is open, but carved so as to represent a crocodile's mouth. A profusion of cassowary feathers usually adorns this remarkable musical instrument, which is about 3 feet in length. When struck with the tips of the fingers the sound emitted is very agreeable. But the songs accompanying the music are harsh and guttural.

Cassowary feathers (of which there seemed to be plenty) are also employed in adorning their grand canoes. I purchased a head-dress of these feathers intended for dancing occasions. In the centre of the forehead a stuffed bird-of-paradise (Paradisea apoda) was inserted as a plume. Their name for the beautiful bird-of-paradise is "kakaiama."

At dawn of Thursday, October 31st, we parted from our kind friends on board the steamer, and sailed pleasantly in our own little boat along the coast, carefully noting the various indentations. Two small rivers empty themselves into the Straits opposite to two islets not marked on any chart. On one of these islets once stood a populous village; but the Saibai warriors almost exterminated the inhabitants, driving the miserable remnant into the primeval forest of the mainland. The smoke of their distant fires was distinctly visible in the clear October atmosphere; but prudence forbade our landing. Here and there tall mangroves actually grew out of the open sea—their wonderful roots of course resting in some unknown sandbank. We passed several stations for spearing dugong. In seven hours we reached Tanan, a distance of 25 miles.

We asked Sauai one day where the spirits of the dead go. Pointing due west, he promptly replied, "They all go to Kipo." He told us that "Kipo" is an island in the region of the setting sun, inhabited by disembodied spirits. One would imagine it to be a mythical name for Hades, in accordance with the almost universal belief of Polynesia, that the spirit-traveller follows the track of the setting sun, and descends with the sun-god Ra into the invisible subterranean world.

SECOND VISIT TO MAUAT.

We spent a week on Tanan, awaiting the arrival of a cutter chartered for the purpose of conveying teachers and goods to Mauat and to various islands in Torres Straits.

At last the Viking, a cutter of only seven tons, arrived. On the 7th of November this tiny craft, literally packed with passengers, sailed for Mauat. Besides the captain, there was but one sailor, who also officiated as cook. Yet, with the help of
our interpreter Joe and the teachers, we succeeded in beating up to Katau the same day, and anchored by moonlight in Katau River. A native stood on the brink of the river to inquire who we were.

At dawn we were roused by a chorus of strange bird-music from the densely wooded islet at the mouth of the river. Strange palms, of immense height, looked contemptuously down upon our diminutive vessel.

Mr. Murray and I at once went ashore to see Maino and the people, who were on the qui vive. All seemed delighted at the arrival of their two teachers. A house was at once allotted for their residence (but we advised them to build one for themselves as soon as practicable). In a short time their goods were safely stowed inside—the teachers themselves keeping watch. The wonder of wonders was the landing of the teachers’ wives—the first stranger women that ever landed on Mauat. It was pleasing to note their curious, yet perfectly respectful behaviour towards these courageous women. This circumstance entirely diverted attention from ourselves, and afforded us an opportunity of meeting Maino and his brother alone, to impress upon their minds the duty of protecting the teachers left in their charge. “But what, Maino, if the wild bush-tribes should desire to molest them?” The chief smiled, and signified that his was the conquering tribe, asserting that his mere name was a terror to these bushmen. These Mauat men are a fine race, above the average height, but black. Their hair is woolly; their heads for the most part shaved. Their ears were universally slit, and elongated by means of weights, but with a regular series of holes, in each of which was inserted a short piece of the midrib of the coco-nut leaf. Their bows, upwards of 6 feet in length, are the best I have ever seen. They are made of male bamboo, highly polished; strips of which are used as string. These bows carry to a great distance. Their arrows are of reed, of which those intended for killing game (4 feet long) are pointed with hard wood, and, of course, are not poisoned; whilst those intended for war (5 feet long) are pointed with human bone, barbed, and dipped in deadly poison.

At midday we reached Torotoram; but had to wade ashore, as on the previous occasion. Auta told us that from the day succeeding our departure in the steamer he had begun to expect the arrival of the promised teachers. He vacated his own house for their accommodation. We therefore landed the two appointed to Torotoram at once; not, however, without considerable fatigue, on account of the long sandbank in front of the village.

During this visit I took a more accurate view of their dwell-
ings. Each domicile here, as at Katau, is of great length, built on lofty piles, and provided at each gable-end with a wide verandah and a ladder. To peep into one is like looking through a railway tunnel—light appearing at the other end through a small door. The object in building on piles is for security against crocodiles, serpents, and the annual inundations. In the wet season the natives are compelled to go to their plantations on the higher ground in canoes.

Their houses are thatched with the leaves of the sago-palm. We climbed up a rough ladder in the largest in Torotoram. The front verandah would seat a dozen adults. The flooring throughout was of cabbage-palm. From the verandah a door opens into the interior, on both sides of which are slight partitions of bamboo, large enough to admit a man and his wife, who sleep on the bare boards. No door or screen exists. A rough fireplace of clay is allotted to every pair of cribs, for warmth and to drive away musquitoes. Close to each berth is a shelf for tinder (bark of the Melaleuca) and firewood, which is also available as a sleeping-place for a young child. For the elder children there is no accommodation in the house. To the best of our judgment there must have been inside this building accommodation for from sixty to eighty couples. The chiefs have houses of their own. In each Mauat village there are two large houses—one for boys, the other for girls. Elderly custodians are duly appointed to keep the inmates in order. This custom obtains on Saibai and Bampton Island (Barama), proving those islanders to be colonies from “Little Daudai.”

One of our party walked into the bush at Katau for 2 miles, among luxuriant plantations of bananas and taro. The country was almost a dead level; the soil of the richest description. It had been planned that we should penetrate into the interior at Torotoram to seek for a healthier location for our teachers. To our great chagrin the natives of this village would on no account allow us to leave the coast. Yet Auta had formally given permission. We endeavoured to buy over those who resolutely stood in our path; but to no purpose. They accepted our gifts, but still opposed our further progress, shouting, “Your feet will be bitten by serpents!” This was merely intended to deter us from pursuing the bush-path. We might roam along the intolerably hot, sandy beach as much as we liked. We afterwards learned that the women and children, with their treasures, were hidden in the very locality through which we had proposed to travel. In fact, only the fighting-men were seen by us at Katau and Torotoram on this, as on our previous visit to Mauat. The population of Katau may be estimated at 400; that of Torotoram at 500.
Some miles to the west of Mauat lies Baigo or Talbot Island. There is a considerable population at Baigo, all friendly to the teachers, who paid them a visit in a canoe from Taunau a few weeks before our arrival in the Straits. Several spears were hurled at the canoe at first, under the erroneous impression that it was a descent of their enemies. Kereseano and his companion were afterwards loaded with kind presents of food. The inhabitants of the mainland near Baigo are numerous, but by no means to be trusted. The drums of this district differ in form from those of Mauat.

THIRD VISIT TO NEW GUINEA.—REDSCAR BAY.

On Tuesday, November 19th, 1872, we hove anchor at Mer (Murray Island) for the eastern peninsula of New Guinea. We soon afterwards passed through Flinders Passage into the open Gulf of Papua, thus leaving awhile the most extensive coral-reef in the world, inside of which we had been sailing for two months.

On the 21st we sighted the lofty mountain range which forms the backbone of the peninsula—which in this respect strikingly differs from the low south-western coast. We passed a great number of palms drifting with the current, the stems and fronds literally covered with sea-birds. We were much pleased with the park-like appearance of Yule Island—clear, grassy spots alternating with picturesque clumps of trees. The island is 4 miles in length, and of considerable height.

We coasted along the mainland all that afternoon and night; and early on the following morning anchored in Redscar Bay, close to the islet of Varivara (the "Parivara" of the charts). A fishing-canoe, with five men, came alongside. With difficulty we induced some of them to come aboard. The canoe was far inferior to those of Mauat. On a raised platform they had large jars of drinking-water, a bundle of arrows, and a fire to cook any fish they might catch. A few presents delighted them. Lowering the Woolahra mission-boat, we followed the canoe up the "Booria," a salt-water creek. A canoe full of natives happened to meet us. All but one old man instantly rushed ashore, and hid in the bushes. Fortunately we had one of our original visitors with us in our boat; so that on nearing the little hamlet of Kido—with about fifty inhabitants—the natives, though evidently trembling, did not attempt to run away from us. We found them busy preparing their breakfast. Some of the women were tending earthenware pots simmering over a slow fire; whilst others were scraping long mangrove-fruits ere throwing them in. Another was nursing
her naked babe, the remarkable appearance of whose skin surprised us. The mystery was soon afterwards solved by seeing a woman come in from the bush with her sleeping infant in a fine fishing-net suspended from her forehead—the child's face touching her right side, its toes her left! We laughed heartily at this ingenious contrivance. Another female reclined on the floor, and with her right foot rocked to sleep a nude boy of two or three summers, who lay coiled up in a coarse, long net, suspended from the opposite rafters of their miserable dwelling. After distributing a few gifts, we walked nearly a mile into the bush, over a level, fertile soil. The few natives we saw were unarmed, and ran away at the sight of strangers.

On leaving Kido we wished to purchase a specimen of their pottery. Mr. Murray cut off a couple of red handkerchiefs for the purpose; but the sight of that gay colour drove them, like cattle, out of their senses. A general scrimmage began, the fair sex being the ringleaders, to get possession of these wonderful articles. By dint of firmness and good temper we pacified them by dividing the whole piece amongst the villagers. The Kido ladies gladly accepted the handkerchiefs, but declined to part with anything in return. It was evident, however, that we had won their good opinion, for they gave us a very hearty farewell in their own language.

We spent a couple of hours in investigating another saltwater creek, the "Nonoo River" of the charts. We fell in with a single family, fishing just inside Redscar Head. The man gave us to understand that they came from a village outside the bay, some distance to the south-east.

We now returned on board hungry and much discouraged, for we had been pulling about in the bay (which is 22 miles across) for hours under a tropical sun with no better result than the discovery of a miserable hamlet, built in a mangrove-swamp, where our teachers could not possibly live. Our real difficulty lay in the fact that we had no interpreter to elicit from the natives the information we required. Some Kido men had fortunately preceded us on board; from them the name Manumanu was repeatedly heard; but as they invariably pointed to the head of the bay, we concluded that it must be a long way off. We resolved to devote the following day to a search for this unknown village. Two extraordinary canoes, crowded with natives, bore down upon Varivara in the afternoon. Their appearance, in the distance, reminded us of paddle-steamers. They eventually anchored under Varivara, but took no notice of us. In all probability they were on a trading or fishing excursion to the Fishermen Islands. Several other great canoes came across the bay in the course of the
evening, and, like the two former, took shelter under the islet. Bright fires were kept burning on their decks all night. At 3 A.M., the wind being favourable, they started afresh on their voyage—fires burning, drums beating, and weird figures dancing; but, unluckily, the wind fell light, and after the lapse of several hours they could easily have been overtaken by our boat. It was not until sunset that we lost sight of these unwieldy crafts, that had at first filled us with admiration.

Late in the day the Kido men were taken ashore. Amongst them was an old man who had received a complete suit of clothes. On landing he took up his little boy, who, not recognizing the sire in his new rig, cried bitterly. It was not until the old fellow set down the child and laughed heartily that the boy discovered his mistake and dried up his tears. Next day we pulled ashore in search of Manumanu. We walked a considerable distance along the shore of this immense bay, crossing a salt-water creek, designated "Manao River" in the charts. We were encouraged by meeting two or three natives, to whom we had previously given little presents. These introduced us to their companions, and smilingly led the way to the village we were in quest of. The first sure indication of our approach was a large enclosure of bananas. We now saw the mouth of Manumanu River, erroneously called the "Towton" in the Admiralty chart. The unnamed river to the north in the chart is the true "Towton," or, to spell it more correctly, the "Toutu."

Manumanu River is over a mile across at its mouth in November, which is the driest month of the year. A noble grove of coco-nut trees lined the opposite side of the river. A sharp bend brought us into a well-built village, consisting of a single long street. Delighted at the never-to-be-forgotten sight, we literally ran for joy into the evidently populous settlement. Two chiefs, "Koko" and "Auâ," met us and led us to a sort of council-house, at the near end of the village facing the long street. We rested ourselves on the verandah, the interior of the house being filled with the notables of Manumanu, whilst the space in front was crowded with men, women, and children. The people seemed perfectly harmless, and were immensely pleased with their visitors.

We estimated the population of Manumanu at 900 or 1000. The village consists of ninety-four houses, all built on high stakes (higher than is usual at Katau and Torotoram). The houses are, for the most part, two-storied, whereas those at Muaat invariably consist of but a single storey. Everything was scrupulously clean. Swords of the saw-fish (Pristis anti-
quorum) were, in several instances, suspended in front of their houses as ornaments.

Our first impression of the Redscar Bay women was that they wore some tasteful close-fitting lace-like garment; but it proved to be merely the exquisitely beautiful tattooing with which they are covered. The men are but slightly tattooed on their faces and necks—exactly reversing what we had seen in Polynesia. The girdle of the men is made of the paper-mulberry, but is a mere pretence as a covering.

Especially were the women of Manumanu interested in the “Haine” (the captain’s wife), who accompanied her husband on shore. Their evident fear at the first approach of our party now disappeared. We were permitted to wander about the village, to enter their dwellings, and to touch anything we pleased. A variety of little presents were made to conciliate them. Mrs. Websdale’s dress was carefully examined. Some of the Manumanu “ladies” tried hard to obtain part of it. One woman pertinaciously insisted upon her exchanging her wedding-ring for a common mussel-shell!

The universal occupation of the women of this village is the manufacture of red pottery. With great interest we watched the entire process, from the mixing of two kinds of clay to the slow baking of the ware, which had been for some days hardening in the sun.

The complexion of these people is nearly the same as that of the Samoans and Rarotongans. In stature and physical strength they are far inferior. In general the Manumanu natives are under the average height: some would be accounted dwarfs. Their features are good, and the expression agreeable. The men dress their hair in a peculiar fashion—tied up so as to form a mop or chignon. Over the forehead is worn a head-dress of large red cockatoo-feathers, contrasting with another of short white cockatoo-feathers close to the former. A white cowry shell is often worn on the forehead. Long nasal ornaments are inserted in the septum, which is invariably pierced (in males) for the purpose. One foppish young man gloried in a nose-jewel curving outwardly, rendering the operation of kissing highly dangerous! The sailors nicknamed these nasal-ornaments “sprit-sail yards.”

We saw no iron instruments in the hands of these natives: they did not even seem acquainted with the use of iron. A stone adze (of jade) was obtained in exchange for some red cloth. But when Joe tried to purchase a similar one for himself with some pieces of stout hoop-iron, the owner bluntly told him that the iron was useless, whilst their axes were very good. And really these adzes must be pretty serviceable, for on the
verandah of one house we saw a long plank 38 inches in width! Several were 24 inches broad. These planks were beautifully smooth. What labour must have been expended in dubbing them out! The adzes were fastened to the handles with strips of rattan, and not, as in Eastern Polynesia, with sinnet. Neither the Mauat nor these Manumanu natives seem acquainted with the manufacture of that valuable article.

Suspended from the neck of males and females were small but beautifully-netted baskets, as a repository for valuables, not unlike the reticule of a European lady. This is sometimes worn in front, sometimes behind.

We came upon a matron preparing the household repast. She seemed in no degree disturbed by our curiosity, nor did she invite us to partake of her hospitality. The viands turned out of the great earthenware pots consisted of cooked yams and half a good-sized pig. An immense lizard, measuring upwards of four feet, was resting on the live coals. It was cooked entire—claws, tail, and entrails! In every dwelling we found something stewing over a fire; but after the sight of the green lizard, although very hungry, nothing would have induced us to taste the contents.

Numbers of women and girls were filling their jars with water to drink, close to the village, thus proving the river to be fresh half a mile from its mouth. Some gracefully poised these jars on the head, whilst others carried them on the hip. Nearly a score of canoes were moored to the shore. The natives told us that we were the first white folks that had ever visited their village, and that our boat was the first that ever entered Manumanu River.

At the farther extremity of the village the scene was enchanting. An island covered with timber divides the river into two principal branches. In the distance were magnificent ranges of cloud-capped mountains. From where we stood to the farthest shore was more than three miles, and this at the end of the dry season. What, then, must be the volume of water poured down from the interminable valleys of the interior during the rainy season!

On leaving, a great crowd of men, women, and children, followed us to the boat. The little boys waded up to their armpits for a final shake of the hands with the wonderful "haine," i.e., lady. Most of them presented her with wooden dolls of their own rude manufacture.

A sandbank, with two fathoms of water on it, lies near the entrance to Manumanu River. A rush of discoloured water, near the northern shore of Redscar Bay, indicates the true
entrance to the river. Beyond doubt, a vessel of light draught might go up to the village of Manumunu.

On Tuesday, November 26th, Captain Websdale and myself set off to explore Manumunu River. We started at 6 A.M., but did not reach the village till 8, the tide being against us. The teachers assured us that they had spent a comfortable night, undisturbed by natives, but that food was scarce. How different from the Mauat coast, where they loaded us with presents of food! A native begged of the writer a fragment of a coconut he had been eating.

Our object in calling at Manumunu was to obtain a pilot. An old man, with whom we had become very friendly, agreed to accompany us up the river. Our intention was to explore the principal channel, called by our guide the Veuru, but the old fellow earnestly dissuaded us from our purpose on account of some mysterious danger. Besides, he assured us that it would prove to be only an arm of the sea. To our subsequent regret we took our pilot's advice and pulled up the Wanaba, or eastern tributary, under the erroneous impression that the Veuru and the Wanaba would unite to form one noble river at the other side of the island. Ere this decision was arrived at we had passed the Abesi on the left, and the Mapu on the right.

As soon as Captain Websdale had finished carving the name (Laelia) of the yacht on a tree, we again started on our way, this time sailing pleasantly with a fair wind. The heat of the two preceding hours was sultry in the extreme, reminding me of days spent in the Gilbert Group just under the equator.

Flocks of wild ducks Wonderingly gazed at us from long mud-flats as we glided pleasantly along the Wanaba. Two islets, well-wooded, narrowed the course of the river. Farther on, the Mareva, a considerable stream, branched out in a southerly direction. The river now became much narrower, and was called by our good-natured pilot the Taribadi. For a long while after leaving the peaceful village where our teachers had found a home, we saw nothing but the everlasting mangrove. At length the southern bank became comparatively open. It seemed to be lined with a dense grove of young coco-nut trees; but, on a closer approach, our wished-for coco-nut trees proved to be a gigantic species of palm, common throughout the Indian archipelago, but new to me. The fronds were nearly 30 feet in length, i.e. twice the length of a coco-nut frond; the fruit (I secured a specimen, weighing sixty pounds) closely resembled the fruit of the pandanus, only eight times larger. The flower, also, was gigantic. The leaves are identical with the well-known
fronds of the coco-nut—the midrib perfectly similar. Yet the Nipa fruticans never attains to any considerable height: it grows only in wet localities. I had previously picked up a quantity of seeds at the mouth of Katau River, without seeing the tree that produced them. The long leaves of this palm, carefully split into fine shreds, furnish the grass-like petticoat of the women of Manumunu. The oily kernel, of the size of a filbert, is eaten in times of scarcity.

The river now changed its direction from north to east, so that we felt certain that we had lost all chance of reaching the foot of the near mountain range in sight from the village of Manumunu, and which had first suggested the excursion. The river evidently trended towards the "Owen Stanley," being probably one of the many streams derived from its base. We had not sufficient time to explore this river to its source. Our object was simply to seek out the natives, and, if possible, to discover a healthier site for a mission station. Although the banks of the river gradually rose, the country was evidently inundated in the wet season; hence the absence of population. In our mortification we at first resolved to return, as it would be a long and weary pull against the tide into the middle of Redscar Bay. Curiosity, however, induced us to go on a little further ere we returned, and well were we rewarded, for now the scenery became exquisitely beautiful. A great variety of trees grew, not too thickly, on either bank. Vines and creepers innumerable hung in graceful drapery from the loftiest branches. Overtopping all were what we at first mistook for ancient coconut trees—sure sign of human vicinage—upwards of 80 feet high: one had fallen across the river, ready to be borne into the ocean by the next freshet. Again we were doomed to disappointment, for it proved to be the Kentia procera, with its great clusters of berries for fruit, found in New Britain and other islands in the Indian Archipelago. On the opposite bank grew a strange-looking dwarfish palm, bearing fruit. Fan-palms raised their graceful heads here and there. A large vulture, with a white neck and a very disagreeable loud croak, soared high overhead. Hawks were in hot pursuit of smaller birds that sought safety in the recesses of the forest. A tiny bird, at first mistaken for a large butterfly or moth, amused us by darting in and out of the long grass overhanging the river in search of insects. The hoarse voice of the cassowary was heard in the distance; and the cry of the cuckoo reminded us of home.

At 2 p.m. we camped on a high grassy bank hedged in by tall delicate tree-ferns, a leaf of which was as long as our boat. We were 7 miles from the river's mouth. The Taribadi was here
40 yards across, and 8 feet deep. Our camping-ground was very moist, apparently having but recently emerged from the great annual flooding. For some time our guide could not be induced to leave the boat, through fear of the "bulom," i.e. crocodile. We asked him the length of this dreaded foe: his measurement proved to be 30 feet. When at length the old guide saw us eating, hunger overcame fear, and he sat down with us to luncheon.

Our way home was pleasant, as we were in a great degree shaded from the rays of the hot afternoon's sun by the dense forest. We landed at Manumann to say good-bye to the teachers. A number of strange natives were pointed out to us: they had that day arrived in canoes from seven villages on the opposite side of the bay. All these villages are anxious to have teachers. Thus the object for which I had left the yacht early in the day was providentially realised after all. Excluding Kido, as being too insignificant, there are now in Redscar Bay alone no fewer than eight villages, with a probable population of some four or five thousand, open to the labours of the Christian evangelist.

An hour after sunset, guided by a lamp at the masthead, we got on board, and found that our friends had been anxious on our account. Another, and, to confess the truth, a tearful farewell in parting from the teachers who came to take back the boat, and we were ready to start at dawn for Bampton Island, near the entrance to the Fly River, on our return voyage. We had succeeded in landing teachers on the south-west and on the south-east coasts of New Guinea proper, at points somewhat more than 260 miles apart, and had met with only kind treatment from the natives.

It was nearly noon ere the wind favoured us on Wednesday, November 27th, 1872. As usual, we rose before the sun—this time in the hope of obtaining a farewell glimpse of the magnificent mountain range which forms the back-bone of the eastern peninsula. Two lower ranges intervene between it and the sea-coast. Mount Owen Stanley stood out in all its glory, 13,205 feet above the level of the sea—the impression upon the imagination being deepened by the excessively low coast-line. But a little to the E.N.E. rises a still loftier mountain, the highest peak in a range at the back of the Owen Stanley. This magnificent mountain is some thousands of feet higher than Owen Stanley: but one cannot speak certainly as to its height, as a cloud invariably rested on its summit. At our first anchorage, our position was highly favourable for viewing it; but unfortunately, by moving into the middle of the bay, the yacht came in a line with Owen Stanley. It is due to Captain Webs-
dale to say that he first drew our attention to this majestic mountain; and thenceforward we daily looked for the occasional pleasure of admiring its solitary grandeur. It was not until the day of leaving that it occurred to any of us to sketch its form; but it was obscured in cloud. Mount Owen Stanley was distinctly visible; but its loftier companion behind was hidden in haze.

The eastern and western coasts of New Guinea are inhabited by races which differ in colour, language, the partial use of clothing, the chewing of the betel-nut, and in the treatment of their women. The women of Redscar Bay are by no means a down-trodden race.

We were interested in tracing a likeness between the dialect used by the Manumanu natives and the Rarotongan language. In the Hebrew, **consonants** are the essential part of the word; in the middle and eastern Polynesian dialects the consonants are constantly changing, the **vowels** being the essential part of these (if one may so express it) *invertebrate* languages:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.E. New Guinea</th>
<th>Harottonan</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>S.E. New Guinea</th>
<th>Harottonan</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haine</td>
<td>Vaine</td>
<td>Woman, wife.</td>
<td>Oi</td>
<td>Koo</td>
<td>Thou.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanua</td>
<td>Enua</td>
<td>Land</td>
<td>La</td>
<td>Aia</td>
<td>He.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hai</td>
<td>Ai</td>
<td>Fire</td>
<td>Raru</td>
<td>Rauna</td>
<td>They two.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mata</td>
<td>Mata</td>
<td>Face, eye</td>
<td>Tamona</td>
<td>Tai</td>
<td>One.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utu</td>
<td>Ngutu</td>
<td>Lip</td>
<td>Rua</td>
<td>Rua</td>
<td>Two.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumuna</td>
<td>Tumuna</td>
<td>Ancestor</td>
<td>Toi</td>
<td>Torn</td>
<td>Three.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac</td>
<td>Vaevae</td>
<td>Foot</td>
<td>Ani</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Four.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mate</td>
<td>Mate</td>
<td>Death, dead.</td>
<td>Ima</td>
<td>Kima</td>
<td>Five.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pata</td>
<td>Mata</td>
<td>Great</td>
<td>Taura toi</td>
<td>Ono</td>
<td>Six.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niu</td>
<td>Nu</td>
<td>Coco-nut.</td>
<td>Itu</td>
<td>Itu</td>
<td>Seven.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tén</td>
<td>To</td>
<td>Sugar-cane.</td>
<td>Taura ani</td>
<td>Varu</td>
<td>Eight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fetu</td>
<td>Etu</td>
<td>Star</td>
<td>Ta</td>
<td>Iva</td>
<td>Nine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rau</td>
<td>Au</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Koauta</td>
<td>Ngauru</td>
<td>Ten.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where do the Papuan and Malayan races meet on New Guinea? We *know* that all the coast natives *west* of the Fly River are black, and that the Redscar natives are a light copper-coloured race. The point of contact, then, must be somewhere between the Fly River and Redscar Bay.* * We saw one black man at Manumanu—a visitor from a village lying to the west—strangely contrasting with the crowd around him.

We saw no gold whatever in New Guinea; and feel inclined

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* A recent letter from the Rev. A. W. Murray states that the dividing line on the south between the two races is the Manumam River—all villages to the west being Negrillo, and all villages to the east being Malay. This interesting fact satisfactorily explains the repugnance of our guide to permit us to visit the country west of Manumam River.
to disbelieve the stories about specks of the precious metal being seen in specimens of native pottery. A story of this kind, invented by sailors on board the Surprise a few months since, originated the disastrous Maria expedition. In the numerous specimens of New Guinea pottery we have examined, there were no indications whatever of gold. I filled a bottle with the sand used by the women in making earthenware. It was heavy and glittering; but has been pronounced by assayers of gold to be entirely destitute of minerals, being composed merely of pulverized shells. Nevertheless, I fully believe New Guinea to be rich in minerals, because it is in reality a mere extension of Australia. Little Daudai is separated from Great Daudai only by a shallow strait, which is continually traversed by canoes.

Emboldened by our success, a small party sailed up to the village of Manumanu some weeks after our visit. They spent a week in exploring that neighbourhood: the result being the certainty that the arm we went up is the true river of Manumanu, the Veuru being only an arm of the sea. They penetrated about a mile further up the true river than we did, and saw in the distance a village; but were afraid to hold intercourse with the inhabitants. Their hopes of finding gold were entirely disappointed. They suffered greatly from intermittent fever, and were glad to get back to Somerset alive.

In regard to Bampton Island, the sad intelligence has just reached us that, despite their protestations of friendship, the natives murdered the entire missionary party shortly after our departure, and doubtless ate them. How little did we anticipate so melancholy a termination of our voyage!


[Communicated, through the Admiralty, by Captain John Moresby, R.N.,
H.M.S. Basilisk, 1873.]

Banks Islands—Ureparapara or Bligh Island.—Went on shore on the west side of the island, found the natives very hostile; they fired at us with arrows, some of which were poisoned, and we had to make use of our firearms in self-defence.

Solomon Islands—San Christoval Island.—Circumnavigated the island, and found the natives inoffensive, but to be everywhere cannibals.
On Thursday, 6th August, 1872, anchored in Makira Bay. This is an excellent harbour; good water may be easily procured. H.M.S. Blanche had left this place a few days previous to my arrival. With Mr. Perry, a resident of Makira, and Wapenoco, the chief of the Makira tribe, and four South Sea islanders as a boat's crew, I went out to shoot rabbits at an island not far from the harbour.

In leaving the bay we met with several large war-canoes, and pulling alongside one of them, found it to contain a dead body, dressed and cooked whole. Perry took it quite coolly, as an every-day occurrence; and at seeing me greatly horrified, and my boat's crew with their stomachs turned, said that he had seen as many as twenty bodies lying on the beach, dressed and cooked. Those in the war-canoe had two prisoners with them in it—a boy about 14, and a girl 13 years of age. Intending to save their lives, I offered to buy them, but without avail. The blacks went to Makira, sold half of the body there, and the remainder to another tribe, and sold both the prisoners. In the course of time I came across two houses, in which were kept the skulls of those they had eaten. I saw a considerable number of them.

Simbo or Eddystone Island.—The entrance to the harbour is on the west side, between a low, outlying reef, slightly vegetated, and the mainland—easily found out. After the entrance is made out, follow the coast at a cable from the beach, taking care to give the point which forms the inner harbour a somewhat wider berth, and then steer into the harbour; there is sufficient depth in the middle for a ship of any size. I moored my schooner to the trees there. Natives friendly, but cannibals, for I found again skull-houses well stocked. A great quantity of ducks on a salt-water lake, about 15 feet above the level of the sea. In some parts the water of this lake is almost boiling, on account of subterranean fire. Smoke issues through the fissures of the rocks in many places, at which the natives cook their food. We watered here at a small rivulet, which perhaps dries in the hot season. Found out that even here kidnapping had been carried on. A great deal of rain, thunder, and lightning during my stay here.

Sunday, 1st September.—At 1 P.M. sighted New Britain; from Simbo Island to here experienced three-quarters of a knot current to south-west per hour; perfect deluges of rain fell, with thunder and lightning frequently.

2nd.—At 8 A.M. found ourselves, per compass, 12 miles distance off Cape Orford; the land is very high, and in this bearing a remarkable red spot appears on the cliffs, resembling a cutter under full sail. Steered for St. George Channel; found
it a clear, fine, and wide passage. Could detect no dangers of any kind.

New Britain—Duke of York Island.—Anchored in the north-west bay in 15 fathoms. The Duke of York Group consists of several islands, intersected by narrow salt-water channels. The natives swarmed the vessel. Kidnapping had not been carried on thus far; they are friendly, and willing to barter. Fowls and pigs are very numerous and cheap: three small plugs of tobacco for a pig of 30 lbs. weight; half a plug for a fowl. Plenty of yams and taro. Natives are cannibals, according to their own confession.

New Ireland—Portland Islands.—Found the islands well inhabited; estimated the population at 150. No passage through the islands, and no anchorage. Islands very poor, the northernmost only has some coco-nut trees on it. Natives apparently friendly; they dip their hands into the water and bare their heads when proposing friendship. Saw no signs of cannibalism.

Admiralty Islands.—11th.—Sailed among the islands, south of the large island. We were surrounded with canoes, in some of which were twenty-two men. These canoes have a kind of fighting-stage, furnished with large bundles of spears ready for use, that are neatly made, and headed with a kind of flint-stone. The natives besmear their whole bodies thickly with a mixture of red ochre and coco-nut oil; they are a superior race to those of the Solomon Islands in feature, as well as in intelligence, are of a copper colour, and have rather long wiry hair. The greater part of the male population wear the "bulla ovum," or a wrapper, but in the latter case they have the shell in a small bag round their neck; the women are decently clad with a grass petticoat down to their knees; they make well-shaped wooden and earthen vessels. The houses are better constructed and kept cleaner than at other islands. The natives came in very large-numbers, but I did not like them very much, and kept six men on the look-out, with loaded muskets, to let the natives plainly see that I watched them, and was prepared for them. All went on peaceably, and without disturbance.

Sailed from here round the large island on the north side of this, and found several good openings in the encircling recesses between the outlying islands, and pretty well-sheltered anchorages. I like these natives far better, and was several times in the midst of them. I believe them to be inoffensive and honest. To judge from the admiration and surprise they expressed when they pulled up our trousers and saw our white skins, I conclude that they cannot have been close to a white man before. Had several times a whole crowd on board, and almost every day
some of the most seemingly influential men at my table, and they behaved quite decently, especially at the island which the natives called "Andra." I formed a sort of friendly intercourse with the chief. At dinner he would watch closely how we used our knives and forks, spoons, and so forth, and imitated our doings so nicely and decorously that he could safely have passed for a man that had been acquainted with those things from childhood.

*L'Echequier Islands.*—Sailed along the east side of the islands, found no passage; tried to get round the north-easternmost island, but did not succeed. A strong current drifted us towards a reef, and I could see, though a dark night, high breakers on both sides, and a passage in the middle. A land-breeze sprung up and took me off again, but towards the morning, during heavy rain and thick, calm weather, the current swept us on to a reef close to an island, about 2 miles from the position from which we saw the reefs and openings some hours before. At daylight we saw that there was really a deep-water passage, and also one on the other side of the island, and that we had struck on a projecting point of the reef which forms the two passages.

It is a flowery coral-reef: on one side we saw the dry reef, and on the other blue water of unfathomable depth. Thought the vessel would become a wreck. Sent a party on shore to build a house for ammunition, provisions, &c. The natives had all fled from the island. In the mean time sent the blacks under the ship's bottom, with crowbars, hammers, &c., to break corals. Had all sails set; after some time the men succeeded in clearing the rudder, and now worked with a good will and new hopes. I could feel the ship now and then settle down 6 inches and more with a crash, when one of the large mushrooms had been broken.

At 11 a.m. a breeze fortunately sprung up from the land, filled our sails, and the vessel slid off into deep water. The men in the water gave three hearty cheers, which were responded to by the house-building party on shore, and all came on board.

As soon as we got off, the wind died away again, but the current drifted the vessel clear through the northernmost passage. From here we ran for about 6 or 8 miles among a cluster of islands, and came to an anchor in 6 fathoms, pretty well sheltered. We have counted fifty-three islands, but very probably there are more. Natives very shy; all fled from their islands in canoes as soon as they sighted a boat. Three women came on board, who appeared to be at their greatest ease, and, after feeding them and giving them presents, they rather reluctantly left the ship. If I had remained longer after this, I
feel sure that the natives would have come to the ship with confidence. They are of a dark copper colour, long, stringy hair, delicate figures, and reminded me very much of Chinese. Found a good passage out, and steered for the coast of New Guinea.

Galeo Straits and Salwatti Islands.—On the 10th November came to an anchor off a small island, which the natives called "Soron." There is a large settlement of Malayas and Papuans, who fly the Dutch colours, and are the immediate subjects of the Rajah of Salwatti. On the 12th November sent the two large boats, with eighteen men all told, for a three weeks' cruise, fitted out with all necessaries. My chief mate, Mr. H. Schlueter, a native of Hamburg, had the command. I could not send more men, as eleven were laid up with the climatic fever.

Friday, 6th December.—Boats not back, which made me very uneasy, all the more as I had received tidings that the two boats had been seen three days ago not far from Soron, which information, however, proved to be erroneous afterwards.

Saturday, 7th.—Boats not back. To-day a Soron native told me that a canoe had come from the southward with the news that the boats had been seen steering towards a place on the mainland of New Guinea, where the natives are very treacherous, and known to be very dangerous. The same Soron man told me that a man-of-war was lying at Gilolo. I concluded at once to man a boat and send it in search of the two missing ones. I engaged two natives from Soron Island to act as pilots.

Thursday, 12th.—Late in the evening the whaleboat returned; they had not seen anything of the boats. I had given the man in charge of this boat a letter, in which all the particulars are stated to the captain of the man-of-war, but the ship had left when my messenger arrived at Gilolo. Found out afterwards that it was an Italian man-of-war. Friendly natives had told the men that the two boats had been seen steering towards the land, and that they had not returned. They all expressed their opinion that the men must have been murdered. I could not leave this place without having tried all and every means to ascertain the fate of my men, and I concluded to ask the Rajah of Salwatti for his aid. Weighed on the 13th December, and arrived at Salwatti on the same day, but found that the Rajah was away on a cruise.

Sunday, 15th.—The Rajah returned, and from the account he gave me respecting the ferociousness of the Papuans, I lost the last hope for the safety of my unfortunate men. The Rajah granted me every assistance, and I supplied him with firearms; but he declined my company, as he thought it would place his weak party in danger.
Saturday, 21st.—The Rajah returned, and brought back six guns, a double-barrelled breech-loader, one revolver, the mate's watch, totally broken, his jacket, a compass, and a cartridge-pouch. He had recovered them in the bush, and expressed an opinion that the men had been cooked and eaten. I could not make up my mind to leave this place without having been on the spot myself, and tried to persuade the Rajah to render me his assistance. At last I succeeded, and the day for starting was fixed for that day week. In the mean time, we prepared for the expedition, made cartridges, and practised our blacks with firearms.

Monday, 30th.—The Rajah came on board with three prows, containing forty-five natives, and all their war implements. I went in the chief's prahu, my steward, a Singapore Malay, and a Fiji boy. The second mate, with two men, went in another prahu; and another Fiji man in a third prahu. All had joined the expedition voluntarily, and the firearms were equally distributed. In the evening we anchored at English or Saili Point.

Tuesday, 31st.—Went from Saili Point about 12 miles further down the coast. In going down, several prahus, belonging to different places under the Rajah's authority, had joined our party, which now amounted to nine prahus and about 120 men.

Wednesday, January 1st, 1873.—Went along the coast for at least 20 miles to two small islands, about 8 miles distant from the mainland. The native name for these islands is "Esmatal." This part of the coast of New Guinea is greatly obstructed by shoals and reefs. At about midnight got under way from there, and steered eastwardly towards the mainland.

Thursday, 2nd.—We have made now at least 2° from Salwatti, and we now steered into a large and beautiful river, named "Crabara." Pulled very fast till 11 o'clock at night, when we anchored; and I presume we were then at least 30 miles up the river, which must go a long way inland. It is here half a mile wide; the banks are adorned with luxuriant vegetation. Here the whole party divided; some remained at anchor, and some went further up the river.

Friday, 3rd.—This morning two of the prahus, with three bush natives whom they had caught, returned. One of them, according to his own confession, had been actually engaged in the murder of my men, and boasted of having killed the "white man." He said that the two boats had been seen lying at anchor at Esmatal Island. Three canoes from the mainland, in each canoe fifteen men, had gone off with bananas, pineapples, &c., which they gave to my men in the boats, and then quietly paddled off to the coast. They had behaved quite
friendly, and put the mate and men off their guard. The New Guinea men had counted the number of men in the boats, the arms, &c.

The next night the savages returned, and landed at the back of Esmatal Island. They found the men, with the exception of two boys, who had been left in the boats, camped on shore by their fires. They had divided into two parties, a little apart. The New Guinea men crawled upon them, and killed them in the twinkling of an eye, without even a cry being raised by the victims; after that, they killed the two boys in the boats, and then brought the latter to a place which nearly dries at low water, and here they burnt the boats. The savages took all the bodies up the River Crabara. There they cut off their heads, kept them for trophies, and sold the bodies to a neighbouring tribe, who had cooked and eaten them.

The three prisoners were horrible-looking fellows, especially the one who had helped to murder my men. They are a different race to that inhabiting the more civilised parts of New Guinea, and easily distinguished, and if I ever go there again I will not give them a chance of coming near me if I can help it. After the prisoners were well secured, all the prahuas went further up the river, and I hoped that we should go to the village "Crabara," which is about 12 miles further up. After having gone up for about 6 miles, we heard the shells and drums right and left in the bushes. The Rajah then commanded a retreat, for he said they might come down on us by thousands, and we made the best of our way down the river.

Saturday, 4th.—In the morning we anchored at Esmatal Island. The cannibal was brought on shore to the exact spot where he had killed the mate, and in front of where the boats had been lying at anchor. He was lashed to the very tree under which he had killed the mate, and was shot there and then. I fired the first shot, and the second mate the second, with which he dropped down dead. As soon as he was dead the natives cut his head off, and strapped the body to the branch of a tree, as a warning example to other cannibals, who will certainly visit here now and then. All the men had witnessed the execution, and the Rajah had given his sanction to it.

The two other savages remained in the Rajah's hands, and both died a most horrible death. I witnessed the execution of one of them. He was, in the true sense of the word, cut to pieces by women and children, the widows and orphans of those who were killed in the first expedition, when the Rajah went out and recovered my guns, &c.

Monday, 6th.—Arrived at Salwatti. Stated the whole affair in several letters, and left them in the Rajah's hands. One
letter directed to the captain of the first man-of-war calling there; the second to the Prussian Consul-General in Hamburg; the third to the Sultan of Ternate; and the fourth to my present owners, Messrs. Barron and Austin, of Sydney.

Aru Islands.—Dobbo Harbour.—Tuesday, 21st.—Came to an anchor in Dobbo harbour in 8 fathoms. In coming from the westward or northward the harbour is easily made out. The openings between Wassia, Ongia, and Wokan islands represent two wide, open gaps; the third opening is between Wokan and Wama islands, and forms the harbour of Dobbo. The shallow water in the entrance shows very distinctly, and is poled out. A dangerous reef exists off the south-west point of Trangan Island, at least 8 miles off the land. I passed over a patch where the sea was breaking; could see distinctly the bottom, and think there could not be more than 2 fathoms.

It was blowing hard, and I came on the reef quite unexpectedly, which prevented me from sounding. From the topsail yard I could see discoloured water for a long way off.

IV.—Geographical Notes of the Khedive's Expedition to Central Africa. By Lieut. Julian A. Baker, R.N.

[Read, January 26th, 1874.]

Having had the honour of being entrusted by Sir Samuel Baker with the topographical department, in the late Expedition of His Highness the Khedive of Egypt for the suppression of the slave trade, I venture to submit to the Council of the Royal Geographical Society the following Report of the countries visited during the expedition.

Of the journey from Cairo to Khartoum it will be unnecessary to speak; but, on arrival at Khartoum, we found that there were no vessels ready for the shipment of the corn and stores requisite for the Expedition, nor for the steel boats designed by Messrs. Samuda for the navigation of the great lake Albert N'yanza. Giaffer Pacha, the Governor-General of the Soudan, being urged by Sir Samuel Baker, at length succeeded in hiring thirty-one boats, with which we started on the 8th February, 1870.

Previous to leaving Khartoum we heard that the White Nile was choked up just above the junction of the Bahr Gazal, and that the stoppage extended for an immense distance, entirely obstructing the navigation of the river. This stoppage or "sud" is mentioned by Sir Samuel Baker in the 'Albert N'yanza, Great Basin of the Nile,' vol. ii., p. 329 et seq. It was
then in its infancy, but during the lapse of years had assumed its present gigantic proportions, which are every day being increased by the deposit of fresh vegetable matter by the river above. The traders, we were told, were obliged, in consequence, to travel by the Bahr Zaraffe, or Giraffe River, which is an arm of the Nile, leaving it in lat. 5° 20' N., and meeting it again in lat. 9° N., about 36 miles above the confluence of the Sobat.

During the last year we were told that the Bahr Zaraffe also had become obstructed, and that there were very shallow places in it, over which the boats would have to be dragged. By all accounts, however, the extent of these obstructions was very small, ranging, amongst a number of informants, from 30 to 100 yards.

We passed Fashoda, lat. 9° 54' N., long. 32° 26' E., on February 14th, 1870. This is a most unhealthy spot, surrounded by marshes. It is governed by a Bey and garrisoned by 400 men, all of whom have been sent here for punishment. After taking in some further supplies, we started again, and passed the Sobat on the 17th February. This grand river was then bank-full, and about 250 yards wide, running with such a strong stream that it banked up the Nile, the water of which was quite dead for some distance above the junction.

We arrived at the mouth of the Bahr Zaraffe on February 18th, 1870, and travelled for 272 miles up this river. At the mouth it was about 60 yards in width, but at this point it had decreased to about 20 yards. There was a raised piece of ground here, about 10 feet above the river, on the right bank, which was called by the Arabs a "dubbah." I subsequently took the latitude and longitude of this place. About a mile above the "dubbah" the river was entirely lost, and we came to a stop in the middle of high grass, without a vestige of a channel in any direction, and no signs of water even from the masthead. Here the guide declared himself to be at fault, and we were consequently obliged to return for 80 miles, where we found our fleet coming along slowly, being toed by the men on the bank. Having taken a fresh guide we proceeded again to the "dubbah," the fleet arriving before us, owing to a fair wind.

On March 8th we began to cut a passage for the boats, and on March 13th we were obliged to take the paddles off our two steamers, as the channel was too narrow to allow the paddles to revolve. The channel was cut in the following manner:—The men were placed along the line where the grass grew thinnest and the water was deepest, which was easily found by sounding with a pole pushed through the floating mass of some five feet of tangled roots and slime, and then, armed with swords, they commenced to cut through this mass, the men stationed on each
side hauling the grass out, and throwing it on to the bank which was thus formed. When the channel was sufficiently cleared, the grass forming the bank was tied back to the green grass on each side, to prevent it from rolling back into the channel again. This sort of work continued till March 29th, a few lakes intervening. We then reached the clear river, and proceeded for 13 miles, the water getting shallower and shallower, until at last Sir Samuel Baker's little dahabiah, drawing only 2 ft. 6 in. of water, could not go any further. Taking the dingy, we found that a little further on there was not water enough even for her, and she had to be dragged over a sandbank. Beyond this, the water was nowhere more than 2 ft. 6 in. deep, and our vessels required 4 ft. We were too late in the season. We ought to have started from Khartoum in the end of October, when the northerly winds commence to blow, and the river is high; but, owing to delays in Cairo, we had only started from Suez on December 5th, 1869. It was necessary to return, and Sir Samuel Baker had noticed a place on the right bank of the Nile, 6 miles below the junction of the Sobat, as a suitable place for a camp in case of necessity. Sir Samuel Baker called the officers and explained the circumstances to them, and we sadly, but the Egyptians gladly, turned our boats' heads down stream for the return journey on April 3rd, 1870. There were two "dubbahs" at this place, one on each side of the river, and a third one a little further back on the left bank. The river had fallen so rapidly, and the grass had closed in so much, that we did not get back to the "dubha" till April 10th. Here we again mounted our paddles on the two steamers, and steamed down stream, arriving at the Nile on April 19th. We met Mr. Higginbotham, the chief engineer of the Expedition, on April 21st, with eleven boats, bringing up the sections and machinery of one of the steel steamers of Messrs. Samuda.

On April 25th we chose a place on the right bank of the Nile, 6 miles below the Sobat junction, as a station in which to pass the rainy season. Sir Samuel Baker named this place "Tawillka," in honour of the Viceroy of Egypt's eldest son, Mahomed Towil Pacha. I fixed the lat. 9° 25' N., long. 31° 24' E., variation 7° 45' W. Iron magazines were erected, and all our goods and merchandise for traffic with the natives were placed under shelter.

During our stay here, we heard from the Sholloks (the natives of this part of the country) that they knew of a channel by which to pass up above the obstruction of the Nile. Sir Samuel Baker accordingly made preparations for an exploring expedition to ascertain if this were really true. A steamer and noggur (Nile boat) were loaded with picked wood of the best possible
description (Sunt, the Acacia Arabica), and, on August 11th, we started.

On August 12th, 1870, after having travelled about 95 miles from Towilikia, we turned out of the main river, up which we had been steering W.N.W., into a large branch west by south. This channel twisted and turned about very much; but at last, after a good deal of trouble in cutting through grass, we got into the Nile again, on August 14th, which was running about two miles per hour, and was 160 yards wide. I will here insert some extracts from my journal:

Sunday, August 14th, 1870.—Steam up at 5.50 A.M. We had to cut through the passage that the dahabiah took yesterday, and got into the Nile at 8.30 A.M., then had to wait until the steamer had filled up with wood from the noggur (Nile boat).

"At 1.30 P.M., got under way, leaving the noggur to wait for us. At 1.40 P.M., a mountain bearing N.N.E., about 40 miles distant. 2.40: The river divides, one branch coming from the west, the other from west by north half-north. We took the west branch 4.30 P.M., finding the river closed, numerous tofes (floating islands) obstructing the passage in different places, we returned. Water shallowed to about 5 ft. 6 in.

"At about 5.5 P.M., turned off to examine the other passage. Finding this difficult of approach, anchored for the night at 5.25 P.M.

"Monday, August 15th.—Went in the boat to try and discover a passage. Found the large river close to us on the west, running about three knots. Sir Samuel Baker went off in another boat to the north-west, and found evidences of the traders having passed there—pieces of rag, &c., lying on the broken grass.

"Got under way at 10.30 A.M., and got into the river almost immediately, without any trouble. We went on for about four miles, steering west-half-south, and then found the river closed up. A large sheet of water, however, was to be seen from the masthead, extending from the west to north-west. We found a small passage large enough to admit the boat, and through this, with some difficulty, we proceeded until we arrived in this lake, which at this point was about two miles wide, but apparently much wider to the westward, there being there a sea horizon. We then returned, there being no practicable passage for the steamer, and came back to where we had started from this morning. Here we again took the boats to search for another passage, but without success. Sir Samuel Baker then determined upon cutting a passage into the large lake that we got into this morning, and for that purpose steamed up the river again, and
anchored, at 6 P.M., opposite the small channel up which we had gone in the boat. To-morrow we shall get all hands to work, and cut through.

"Tuesday, August 16th.—Raining in the forenoon, but after breakfast got all hands to work, and began cutting a passage. Cleared about fifty yards on the lake side, and then, as it was getting late, knocked off work for the day.

"Wednesday, August 17th.—Set to work at 8 A.M., and worked till 10 A.M., then from 2 till 5 P.M., by which time we had nearly completed the passage.

"Thursday, August 18th.—A blowing morning, too cold to allow the men to work in the water; but, after breakfast, set to work and finished the passage.

"Friday, August 19th.—Up steam at 6 A.M., and attempted to get through. Shallow water, however, delayed us for a long time. We breakfasted at 2 P.M., and then at last got through at 4 P.M.: had the dahabiah in tow at 4.5 P.M., and proceeded. A river coming into the lake from the southward, stopped at 5.25 P.M. to examine it, but found it choked. Anchored for the night at 6.15 P.M. in a little harbour to the southward.

"Saturday, August 20th.—Steam at 5 A.M., under way at 5.20 A.M., and proceeded to the westward, following the curves and bends of the side of the lake. At 6.5 A.M. set the course E.N.E. to return, having arrived at the farthest limit of the lake. At 6.45 stopped as we neared the passage through which we had come, and turned off to examine the northern shore of the lake. This lake is about 15 miles long, and varying from 2 to 3½ miles in breadth. Skirted round the lake till, at 8.40 A.M., we again arrived at the little harbour that we started from this morning. Started again at 8.50, and five minutes afterwards turned into the river that we had looked at yesterday. Stopped the steamer here and went up the river in the boat, but found it stopped up about a mile from the lake. Lost our way in coming back, as the different hors (channels) are so much alike. Got back at 11.15 A.M., then proceeded to skirt the southern shore. Turned off from this at 1 P.M., to examine a large hor or river on the north side, which Sir Samuel Baker had seen this morning. Arrived at the entrance at 1.25 P.M., and proceeded up the hor till 2.45 P.M., when it was completely blocked up. Observed that another arm of this lake ran nearly parallel with the arm we had steamed up, the water of which we could see to the westward at this point. No stream perceptible. We immediately returned to the point of confluence of the two arms, and turned up the other arm at 3.20 P.M.

"Stopped at 4.20 P.M., and after consulting the reis Omar, who said that we were long past the junction of the Bahr Gazal,
turned the steamer’s head round to return. The upward course of the Nile from the Bahr Gazal being s.s.e., we must have passed that also, as our course up this arm has been w.s.w. It would be of no use going any further along this arm, which appears to extend an immense distance, as we should evidently be only going further out of our way, and burning fuel to no purpose. No stream at all. The whole of this lake, and these arms, of which there are several, are simply the accumulation of the overflow of the waters of the Nile, which extend in every direction in the shape of hors, the country being so perfectly flat. Stopped at 6.5 P.M. at the mouth of this hor.

“Sunday, August 21st.—Started at 6.5 A.M.; stopped at 6.37 A.M. opposite our cutting, in order to let the dahabiah pass first. Cutting bearing from mouth of river s.s.e. Got through the cutting at 7.5 A.M., and proceeded. Arrived opposite the noggur at 9.20 A.M., the average course having been east by north. Got through here without trouble, and having filled up with wood from the noggur, proceeded at noon. At 1.35 P.M. turned off into the Nile: 4.35 P.M. stopped to land our Shillook guides opposite their village. Proceeded again at 5.35 P.M., and arrived at our station at 12.30.”

I made a small map of this part of the Nile, but was unable to fix the positions astronomically, as there was no dry ground anywhere, and the grass was from 10 to 12 feet high. Although we had actually passed the original obstruction or dam by a side channel, we had found the river blocked up 20 miles above this by a new formation, the extent of which it is impossible to estimate. This had no effect upon the stream, which oozed out from under the floating grass, and, in the main channel of the Nile, ran from 2 to 2½ miles an hour, being perfectly clear and free from vegetable impurities. It became necessary for Sir Samuel Baker to go to Khartoum, about 700 miles from Towifikia, in order to hasten the departure of some more boats laden with the sections and machinery of another steamboat of Messrs. Samuda. Whilst there, I took the opportunity of rating the chronometers, and with them determined the longitude of Fashoda and Towifikia.

On our return to Towifikia we found that the river had risen to such an extent that our camp was surrounded with water, and most of the cultivation was flooded.

On November 5th, 1870, the river attained its maximum, being 14 feet 3 inches above the level on our arrival on April 25th. It fell a quarter of an inch on November 6th. The northerly winds had not yet commenced to blow steadily, but Sir Samuel Baker arranged everything so as to be ready for a start as soon as they should commence.
On December 1st the first division of 8 boats was started off, followed by others every day, until the last division with Sir Samuel Baker started on December 11th. We had steamed for 150 miles up the Bahr Zaraffe, and were cutting wood for the steamer, when some of our boats that we had passed arrived, and told us that a vessel loaded with machinery had sunk just opposite the Sobat River. Steam was got up immediately, and we started back, taking three boats with us. We met the Colonel in command of the troops, who had been there when the accident happened, but had not made any attempt to save the vessel.

We returned to Towfikia, and persuaded the King of the Shillooks to help us with a number of natives. While these were being collected, we went a short distance up the Sobat, where there was a suitable place, got the masts and cargoes out of our three vessels, and towed them with the steamer down to the wreck, which had about two-thirds of her masts above water, lying close alongside the west bank of the Nile, with the whole force of the stream of the Sobat rushing down upon her. Chains were passed under her bottom, and hove upon from the vessels, which were nearly filled with water. Upon baling out the water, she, of course, rose slightly, and men on the bank, assisted by the natives, hauled upon hawsers and secured her to anchors which were laid out on the bank for that purpose. By repeating this process, after working hard for two days and a half, she was safely hauled up on the bank, and baled out dry, when it appeared that the caulking had come out in several places. The valuable cargo of machinery was saved without damage.

These Upper Nile boats are most curious specimens of naval architecture. There are no ribs, but the planks are laid one on top of the other, and large nails are driven in diagonally from both sides. They are caulked with rags from the inside, and the seams are not payed with pitch. In consequence, the rats, which swarm in all these boats, pull out the rags, and the boat is constantly leaking, and every now and then there is an accident, and a boat sinks.

We arrived at the "dubbah" Bahr Zaraffe, on January 7th, 1871, and I fixed the latitude 7° 47' N.; longitude, 30° 22' E. Our old channel that we had cut the year before was now tolerably open, but gave us a good deal of trouble.

We arrived at the three dubbahs on January 29th, and I got lat. 7° 32' N., long. 32° 23' E. From this point we had the greatest difficulties from the shallowness of the water and the obstructions of the grass. In some places every available man had to turn out to haul each of our fifty-nine boats over a shal-
low place separately, and on one occasion we had to increase
the depth of a channel, 500 yards long, from two feet to four.
This, of course, was the work of many days, during which time
the water was sinking two and three inches per day. It at last
was so low, that when after an immense amount of labour we
got our fleet into a small lake, the mud oozed up above the
surface of the water, as the last boat was dragged in. We
prepared to make a dam behind the boats, to enable us to push on.
Mr. Higginbotham, the chief engineer of the Expedition, had a
number of stout posts, 4 inches square, driven into the bed of
the stream, behind the last boat, backed up by a similar row
behind them, with struts from one to the other. In the mean
time, 500 corn-sacks were filled with sand and earth to form a
foundation for the dam, and the soldiers and boatmen mixed
grass and mud together into large balls, which were piled on
each side of the river in great heaps, ready to be thrown in
on the word being given to commence the dam.

On March 13th, 1871, they set to work and threw the sacks
and clods of earth into the river just above the framework,
pounded it down with their feet, and in a short time made a
most effectual dam. The water rose directly, and our fleet was
afloat again. Still there was a great deal of hard work to be
done before we got into the Nile, which at length we did on
March 19th.

On April 15th, Sir Samuel Baker, with his dahabiah in tow
of the steamer, arrived at Gondokoro, the last boats of the fleet
not arriving till May 20th, having been delayed by foul winds
and calms. A station was formed here, which Sir Samuel Baker
named "Ismailia," in honour of His Highness Ismail Pacha, the
Khedive of Egypt. Lat. 4° 54' 30" N.; long. 31° 46' E.; var.
9° 8' W.; elevation, 1526 feet.

Ismailia is situate upon a cliff about 25 feet above the river;
it is on the east bank, and is the only spot suitable for a camp.
It has its disadvantages, however, being bordered on two sides
by marshes, and on the third by the river. The effluvium from
these marshes, after the river has risen and fallen again, is
horrible, and gives rise to a good deal of fever; but, during the
season of the low Nile, it is healthy but hot. During the
rainy season, the Nile does not rise gradually, as might be sup-
posed. It is subject to a series of sudden flushes, which, rising
in about ten or twelve hours to a height of 4 feet, fall again, in
about the same time, to the original level. The maximum
height of floods at Ismailia is not more than 4 feet 6 inches
above the lowest level. This rise always takes place after heavy
rains have been observed to the southward, and is caused by the
immense volume of water which the Ashua, Unyama, and other
streams bring down from the upper country, to say nothing of the vast quantity which pours into the Nile itself from the high mountains which line its western bank.

At Ismailia itself the rainfall is very uncertain, and the crops of the natives in the immediate vicinity are often destroyed by drought. I attribute this to the attraction of the rain-clouds by the mountains which lie at a considerable distance, as Belinian to the south-east, Lardo to the north, and Kerek and Kunifee to the south-west. Rain is constantly seen falling at these mountains, where the cultivation is naturally productive; but at Ismailia it frequently happens that the natives have to buy corn from their more fortunate neighbours.

The soil throughout the Bari country is poor and sandy; the natives are therefore obliged to manure the ground heavily to make it produce their crops. They till the ground with a sort of hoe, shaped exactly like the ace of spades, which is fixed to a handle about 9 feet long. This is pushed before them as they walk, cutting the roots of the grass, and just scuffling the surface of the ground. The corn is then sown, and the weeds left on the ground until the corn has sprouted, when they are gathered into heaps and burnt. The natives are a fine active race of men; well armed with bows and arrows and lances. Few of them carry shields.

The women are decently dressed in a sort of kilt made of dressed leather, but the men are naked. They are of a very intractable and treacherous disposition, and cannot be prevailed upon to serve as porters.

When the time came for us to depart from Ismailia for the interior, we found that we could not procure porters to carry our 50-foot steamer of 10-horse-power up to Ibrahimeya, at the point of junction of the Unyama with the Nile, so, forming a small station at the highest navigable point of the Nile, in lat. 4° 38' N., we pushed on to Loboré, a place that Sir Samuel Baker fortunately knew of, from his former experience in the country. Here we obtained porters, but not in sufficient numbers for the transport of the steamer. However, we got enough to bring on a considerable quantity of merchandise for traffic with the natives. These porters went back to our station on the river in lat. 4° 30' under the escort of forty soldiers, and in a few days returned, bringing the baggage.

From Ismailia to Loboré the soil is very poor and sandy, but beyond Loboré it is exceedingly rich, and produces large crops of dourra (Sorghum vulgare). Loboré is in latitude 4° 1' 30" N. I could not fix the longitude by astronomical observations, but I believe it to be accurately laid down in my map by bearings.

From Loboré to the Ashua River, at the junction with the
Attabbi, a distance of 27 miles, the soil is rich, but the country very thinly inhabited, owing to the depredations of the slave-hunters. The natives speak the Madi language, as also do the Loboré people, but with dialectic differences.

At the confluence of the Ashua and Attabbi, the River Ashua is about 130 yards wide, with a sandy bottom, and when we crossed it on March 1st, 1872, and also on March 24th, 1873, it was about knee-deep. Both above and below this point it is full of rocks, and is everywhere a most dangerous and formidable river in the wet season. The natives manage to cross it near Fatiko, with a rope fastened to the trees on each side, which must be laid across in the dry season.

From the Ashua to Afuddo, at the junction of the Unyama with the Nile, the route lies over hills of about 1000 feet above the surrounding country, and is stony, and covered with low open forest of scrubby trees. Upon descending the hill on the south side, there is a beautiful position for a station, on the stony dry ground just to the north of the Unyama, and east of the Nile. Close to water, but perfectly dry, with every facility for cultivation in the wonderfully rich soil on the banks of the Unyama within a short distance, and with an unlimited amount of wood for fuel in the adjacent forests, this place offers advantages for a station that very seldom occur. The latitude is 3° 34' N. I was unable to fix the longitude astronomically, but by bearings I am confident of its being rightly placed in the map. From this point the Nile is navigable into the Albert N'yanza, therefore Afuddo, or Ibrahimeya, as Sir Samuel Baker has named it, will be the great depot for all the ivory that comes down from the shores of Lake Albert N'yanza. Here Samuda's steamers will have to be constructed after they have been carried up in sections from Ismailia, and from here they will take their departure to navigate the lake. Ibrahimeya will become the capital of the country. The road from Ismailia to Ibrahimeya, 120 miles, is for the greater part of the way suitable for carts, the soil being very hard and sandy. Between Moogi and Loboré (14 miles) there is forest, through which a road will have to be cleared, but a few hundred men would very soon accomplish this.

Continuing the journey over an undulating country, for the most part covered with forest, we arrived at Fatiko on March 6th, 1872. Fixed the position, lat. 3° 2' N.; long. 32° 37' E.; var. 8° 30' W.; elevation above sea-level, 3542 feet. The natives of Fatiko speak the Shooli language, in common with the people of Lira and Umiro. The men usually wear a skin slung over their shoulders in such a manner as to form an apron, and the married women wear a long tassel behind, and a triangular piece of leather in front, but the unmarried girls are perfectly naked.
Both men and women work in the fields. The hoe is similar to that used in the Bari country; but instead of being mounted in the same way, it is fixed to a short handle in such a manner that the hoe is nearly at right angles with the handle. This makes a very powerful instrument, and with it they dig into the soil a considerable depth. They never manure their land, but sow the same ground one year after another, getting good crops every time; such is the wonderful richness of the soil.

The dry season lasts for two months, January and February; and during the rest of the year the weather is very much like the summer in England, but hotter. It may rain for two or three days successively, but rarely all day. It generally comes on to rain in a heavy shower, lasting from half an hour to three or four hours, and then clearing up. There are frequently five or six days together without a drop of rain, even in the middle of the rainy season. The whole country is beautifully watered by streams which run into the Ashua and Unyama.

From Fatiko to Atada, on the Victoria Nile, the route leads through high grass and forest, and the country is uninhabited.

At Atada, about four miles above the Karuma Falls, the Victoria Nile is 500 yards wide, but with a very slow stream. The banks are from 60 to 80 feet high, covered with most luxuriant vegetation.

From Atada to Masindi, the country is the same as between Fatiko and Atada, the richest soil, covered with high grass and forest; and swampy bottoms in every undulation of the ground.

Both men and women dress decently in Minyoro; a robe of bark-cloth round the waist, reaching to the ankles, and another cloth under the left arm, and tied over the right shoulder, and reaching to the knees, are universally worn by both sexes. The women do all the work in the fields, and use a very light hoe, similar in shape to that of Fatiko, but small enough to be used with one hand.

The soil is a beautiful black loam, is very easily turned up, and is free from stones or clods. It is exceedingly rich. The sweet-potato and banana are extensively cultivated, and form the staple of food in this country; but dourra (Sorghum vulgare) and tullaboon (korrakan of Ceylon) are also grown. There is
also a small kind of Indian corn, but in no great quantity. Tobacco is indigenous throughout the whole of the countries traversed by the Expedition, and is prepared in different ways by the natives, each tribe having its peculiar method. It being considered infra dig. for a man to work in the fields, the men amuse themselves by dancing, singing, drinking, and beating drums all night, and go to sleep for the greater part of the day, while the women do all the work.

From our camp at Masindi we could see the mist rising from the Albert N’yanza in the mornings, and with a powerful telescope could distinguish trees on the mountains on the opposite side of the lake. We could also see a waterfall on the opposite side with the telescope.

Whilst at Masindi, a native of Karagwe told us that it was quite possible to go from Chibero, on the Albert N’yanza, past Uvira to Ujiji by boat. He said that at Uvira the lake was very narrow, and that it could not be passed without a pilot who knew the way. He described the lake as varying very much in width, being immensely wide beyond Vacovia, and again contracting at Uvira. This report was confirmed by a Kisushili man, who had been living with Mtésa for many years, and who was sent by him to see Sir Samuel Baker at Fatiko. He knew both Uvira and Ujiji, which he called Uviji.

Mtésa sent messengers to Ujiji, at Sir Samuel Baker’s request, to obtain news of Livingstone, and on their return they said that a white traveller had crossed the Tanganyika (which they called Mwootanzigé, the native name of the Albert N’yanza) from Ujiji, and had not since been heard of, but that if he returned we should be informed of it. Sir Samuel Baker wrote to Mtésa, and gave him letters to deliver to Livingstone, should he find him. Mtésa has turned Moslem, and given up all his savage customs, mentioned by Speke, of slaughtering his women, &c., and he now keeps scribes, and is learning to read and write Arabic. He wrote a most polite answer to Sir Samuel Baker’s letter, declaring that he would take the greatest care of Livingstone if he should find him.

In Uganda, coffee and the sugar-cane are cultivated by the natives, who dress in the same manner as the people of Minyoro, but speak a different language.

On our return to Fatiko, we fortified the camp with a ditch and breastwork. This took us several months to complete, as the subsoil was the hardest gravel, and we had only the natives’ worn-out hoes to work with. No trace of any metal, except iron, could be found throughout the country, though Sir Samuel Baker was always examining the rocks, which all are igneous.

Having established the greatest confidence in the country
round about Fatiko, we left for Ismailia, where we arrived on the 1st April, 1873, and found that the English mechanics had constructed one of Messrs. Samuda’s steel steamers.

We started for Khartoum on the 26th May, and, found the Bahr Zaraffe very much improved since the time when we had last passed it, so that we got through without much difficulty. Below the “dubbah,” however, the river was very much narrower than before, the grass having grown in from the banks towards the middle, and I believe that in a few years the “sud” will extend about 80 miles north of the “dubbah,” where it is now clear.

In the present state of the Bahr Zaraffe, it is quite impossible to say how long vessels may be on the voyage from Khartoum to Ismailia. The troops that were sent up as a reinforcement from Khartoum were 14 months on the road, as they were obliged to pass the season of the low Nile at a station about 120 miles north of the “dubbah.” Communication being thus next to impossible, the Bahr Zaraffe cannot be considered a navigable river, and unless the whole stoppage on the Nile itself is cleared, the beautiful countries to the south of Ismailia will never be opened to civilisation.

Ismail Pacha, the Governor of Khartoum, went up in 1872, at the proper season, with a large force, and cleared away a great part of the original Nile stoppage, and he intended to go up again in October, 1873, to try and finish it. Should he succeed, and open the river to navigation between Khartoum and Ismailia, one of the greatest difficulties that we had to contend with, namely, want of communication with Egypt, will have disappeared. It will then be easy for steamers to run every month or so with the mails, or whatever is required at Ismailia, returning each time laden with ivory, and there may be a great future for the country.

In conclusion, I beg leave to express my high opinion of the merits of Captain George’s Artificial Horizon, one of which I used throughout the expedition, and which I consider to be a most perfect instrument. During the whole of the expedition I never had occasion to replenish the mercury, whereas with the common form of horizon, the mercury is constantly being wasted. The floating glass answers the purpose admirably of preventing any tremor, and the advantage of being able to fill or empty the receiver without any risk of losing mercury is very great.
### Baker's Geographical Notes of the

**Meteorological Register kept by Lady Baker.**

<table>
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<th>Place</th>
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Slight shower in afternoon.
A shower.
A heavy shower.
E. A shower.
variable Light shower at 4:30 P.M.
Two showers.
A shower.
Light shower.
Heavy rain at night.
### METEOROLOGICAL REGISTER kept by LADY BAKER—continued.

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### Mean Temperatures and Results from Lady Baker's Memoranda: arranged by Lieut. J. A. Baker, R.N.

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*Note: Rainfall is measured in millimeters.*
### Meteorological Register.—Towfikia, Lat. 9° 25' 15". 1870.

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**Meteorological Register kept at Towfikia, on the White Nile, Latitude 9° 25' 15" N., in 1870, by Lieut. Julian A. Baker, R.N., during Sir S. W. Baker's Khedive Expedition.**

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<th>Thermometer</th>
<th>Wind</th>
<th>Force</th>
<th>Weather</th>
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<td>75</td>
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*Hard rain for two hours in the afternoon.*

*Rained from 12:15 to 2:15 p.m.*

*Means of 9 days' observations: aneroid 28° 57', thermometer 75° 1'. Drizzle from 2 to 5 p.m.*

*Drizzle from 7 to 9:30 a.m.*

*Rain from 8 to 9 a.m.*

*Rain from 1 to 2 a.m., rainlight.*

*Drizzle from 2 to 5 p.m.*
Khedive's Central African Expedition.

Meteorological Register kept at Towfiqia, on the White Nile—continued.

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<tr>
<th>Date</th>
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<th>Weather</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 6 A.M.</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>S.E.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>noon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13 6 A.M.</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>calm</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>noon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14 6 A.M.</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 6 A.M.</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Means of 12 days' observations: aneroid 28.56, thermometer 75° 3'.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

General Average of Aneroid and Thermometer:

For 9 days in July ... ... ... 28.57 ... 75.1
" 11 " August ... ... ... .54 ... 76
" 12 " September ... ... ... .61 ... 75.3

32 28.573 ... 75.5
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Altitude (ft)</th>
<th>Air Temperature</th>
<th>Hypsometer, No. 1</th>
<th>Hypsometer, No. 2</th>
<th>Elevation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870. July, Aug. 20</td>
<td>Towilta</td>
<td>28,573</td>
<td>75.5°</td>
<td>290-4</td>
<td>290-3</td>
<td>290-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871. July 21</td>
<td>Gandofero</td>
<td>29-55</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>290-20</td>
<td>290-18</td>
<td>290-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872. January 25</td>
<td>River Level (3)</td>
<td>30-50</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-15</td>
<td>290-13</td>
<td>290-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tadjik</td>
<td>28-32</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-10</td>
<td>290-7</td>
<td>290-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sheik Bedan's</td>
<td>28-22</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-20</td>
<td>290-17</td>
<td>290-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Top of Gebel Begdad</td>
<td>28-22</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-15</td>
<td>290-13</td>
<td>290-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gomasyshie</td>
<td>28-30</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-18</td>
<td>290-16</td>
<td>290-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N. Light</td>
<td>28-25</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-15</td>
<td>290-13</td>
<td>290-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At junction of Assa and Aftaba</td>
<td>28-20</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-10</td>
<td>290-7</td>
<td>290-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 3</td>
<td>On River Untamah</td>
<td>28-25</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-18</td>
<td>290-16</td>
<td>290-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shooa</td>
<td>28-25</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-18</td>
<td>290-16</td>
<td>290-14</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Fadil</td>
<td>28-25</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290-18</td>
<td>290-16</td>
<td>290-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Altitude (m)</td>
<td>Temperature (°C)</td>
<td>Rainfall (mm)</td>
<td>Additional Notes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>First camp</td>
<td>26.92</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>206</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Second camp</td>
<td>26.80</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>205</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Third camp</td>
<td>26.50</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Fourth camp</td>
<td>26.55</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 5</td>
<td>Foweera</td>
<td>26.76</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Kisoma</td>
<td>26.76</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Kasija</td>
<td>26.48</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Koki</td>
<td>26.51</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Chorobezi</td>
<td>26.70</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Masindi</td>
<td>26.67</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>March 20</td>
<td>Near Shooa Hill</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>On the River Unyama</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Afuddo</td>
<td>28.13</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Laboré</td>
<td>27.79</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 26</td>
<td>Gondokoro</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Khartoum</td>
<td>28.96</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Oqasck</td>
<td>27.43</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 2</td>
<td>Cairo*</td>
<td>30.30</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*At a spot known by survey to be above the sea-level 81.3 feet.
The corrections required to be applied to the readings of the hypsometers were found at the Kew Observatory to be as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>No. 4633 At 205°</th>
<th>At 212°</th>
<th>No. 9582 At 205°</th>
<th>At 212°</th>
<th>No. 9584 At 205°</th>
<th>At 212°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1869 May</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>+0.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1869 November</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873 December</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following corrections have been used in reducing the heights in column B; they are based upon the latest verifications:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No. 4633 At 212</th>
<th>At 211</th>
<th>At 210</th>
<th>At 209</th>
<th>At 208</th>
<th>At 207</th>
<th>At 206</th>
<th>At 205</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The atmospheric pressure at the sea-level has, in calculating the heights in column B, been assumed the same as that shown on *Buchan's Isobaric Charts*; and the temperature of the air there, the same as that shown on *Dove's Isothermal Charts*.

The heights in column A were calculated on the spot, and are generally greater than those in column B.

Buchan's Isobaric Charts of the World furnish the following data for the pressure of the atmosphere at the sea-level, in inches of mercury at the temperature of 32° Fahrenheit, over the countries extending from Egypt to the Equator:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Lat. 20° N.</th>
<th>Lat. 10° N.</th>
<th>Lat. 0°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dove's Isothermal Charts of the World furnish the following data for the mean temperature of the air at the sea-level, for the coast of the same region:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Lat. 26° N.</th>
<th>Lat. 16° N.</th>
<th>Lat. 6°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The heights deduced would, of course, be more reliable if we could ascertain the values for atmospheric pressure and temperature at the sea-level for the day and hour on which each observation of the hypsometer or aneroid was made.

The hypsometer observations appear to be excellent. They have been used for checking the aneroid readings. For this purpose the equivalents of tension of vapour for the boiling points have been taken from the extensive table, based upon Regnault’s determinations, given in Sir Henry James’s Instructions for taking Meteorological Observations, and the difference of the corresponding aneroid readings from them taken. From these differences are deduced the following mean corrections for the aneroid:—

At 30 inches ... ... ... ... - .50
. . . 29 ... ... ... ... - .47
. . . 28 ... ... ... ... - .45
. . . 27 ... ... ... ... - .43

And these corrections have been used in the calculations of the heights of Towifikia and Gebel Regiaf, which are the only ones which depend upon the aneroid.

2nd February, 1874.

R. STRACHAN, F.M.S.
Table I.—Results of the Observations for Latitude.

(These Latitudes are deduced from meridian altitudes, excepting those at Towfikia, 1870, November 7, and November 10 (first result), which are obtained from altitudes taken a little distance from the meridian.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Name of Place</th>
<th>Object observed</th>
<th>Resulting Latitude North</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 13</td>
<td>Khartoum</td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>15 36 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 14</td>
<td>Fashoda</td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>9 54 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 9</td>
<td>The Dubbah, Bahr Zaraffe</td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>7 47 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 7</td>
<td>Towfikia</td>
<td>a Centauri</td>
<td>9 25 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>9 23 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>9 26 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>9 24 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>9 24 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>9 24 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>9 25 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>9 25 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>7 46 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 11</td>
<td>The Dubbah, Bahr Zaraffe</td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>7 31 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 1</td>
<td>Three Dubbahs, Bahr Zaraffe</td>
<td>Moon</td>
<td>4 56 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 28</td>
<td>Gondokoro</td>
<td>α Ursa Majoris</td>
<td>4 54 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872.</td>
<td></td>
<td>γ Ursa Majoris</td>
<td>4 53 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 20</td>
<td></td>
<td>α Crucis</td>
<td>4 53 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>α Crucis</td>
<td>4 45 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>4 37 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 8</td>
<td>Gebel Regiat...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{Sheikh Beden's, just below}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{the rapids}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{On the march from Sheik}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{Beden's to Loboré...}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Capella</td>
<td>4 28 34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Marengo</td>
<td>Capella</td>
<td>4 18 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Moqri</td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>4 6 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Loboré</td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>4 1 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 1</td>
<td>[At the junction of Asua and]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>At Attabbi</td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>3 42 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Shoon</td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>3 22 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Fatiko</td>
<td>α Crucis</td>
<td>3 7 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 5</td>
<td>Poweera</td>
<td>α Ursa Majoris</td>
<td>3 1 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Kisoona</td>
<td>α Lyra</td>
<td>2 12 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Koki</td>
<td>α Ursa Majoris</td>
<td>2 2 52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Chorobézi</td>
<td>α Ursa Majoris</td>
<td>1 59 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Masindi</td>
<td>α Crucis</td>
<td>1 44 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>β Aurigæ</td>
<td>3 2 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>3 0 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 5</td>
<td>Fowooda</td>
<td>Capella</td>
<td>3 1 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Kisoona</td>
<td>Capella</td>
<td>3 2 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Koki</td>
<td>Capella</td>
<td>3 2 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Chorobézi</td>
<td>Capella</td>
<td>3 1 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Masindi</td>
<td>Canopus</td>
<td>2 59 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 6</td>
<td>Fatiko</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results contained in the preceding Table having been combined as necessary, the following Table was formed:

**Table II. — Concluded Latitudes.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Place</th>
<th>Latitude North</th>
<th>Number of separate Determinations</th>
<th>Name of Place</th>
<th>Latitude North</th>
<th>Number of separate Determinations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khartoum</td>
<td>15 36 6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Goboor</td>
<td>4 28 34</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashoda</td>
<td>9 54 14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Marengo</td>
<td>4 18 33</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Towfikia</td>
<td>9 25 5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Moogi</td>
<td>4 6 37</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Dubbah, Bahr</td>
<td>7 47 13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Loboré</td>
<td>4 1 5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarafe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>At the junction of the</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Dubbahs, Bahr</td>
<td>7 31 51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Asua and Attahbí</td>
<td>3 42 38</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarafe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>At camp in the forest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gondokoro</td>
<td>4 54 45</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Shooa</td>
<td>3 7 17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gebel Regiaf</td>
<td>4 45 22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Fatiko</td>
<td>3 1 26</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheikh Beden's, just</td>
<td>4 37 49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Foweera</td>
<td>2 12 35</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>below the rapids</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kisōna</td>
<td>2 2 52</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the march from</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Koki</td>
<td>1 59 26</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheikh Beden's to</td>
<td>4 37 8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chorobezi</td>
<td>1 56 29</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loboré</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Masindi</td>
<td>1 44 35</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table III. — Results of the Observations for Longitudes from Lunar Distances.**

(In the reduction of these observations the ‘Nautical Almanac’ distances have been corrected for the errors of the places of the Moon and Planets as determined from the Greenwich Observations.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Name of Place</th>
<th>Object to which Moon was referred</th>
<th>Whether the Moon was East or West</th>
<th>Resulting Longitude East</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870 Oct.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Towfikia</td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>31 29 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>31 15 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Antares</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>32 42 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Saturn</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>32 1 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Aldebaran</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>31 33 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>31 43 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>31 24 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872 Jan.</td>
<td>Gondokoro</td>
<td>Fomalhaut</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>30 48 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>32 8 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>Fatiko</td>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>32 37 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>31 46 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Aldebaran</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>32 58 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Aldebaran</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>32 9 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>32 6 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>32 52 15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At one place (Fatiko) two observations of eclipses of Jupiter’s satellites were made, the results of which are given in the next Table:

**TABLE IV.—Results of the Observations for Longitude, from Eclipses of Jupiter’s Satellites, made at Fatiko.**

(In the reduction of these observations the ‘Nautical Almanac’ times have been used without correction, no corresponding observations having been found.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Phenomena</th>
<th>Resulting Longitude East.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1872. March 17</td>
<td>reappearance of 1st satellite</td>
<td>32° 37' 45&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873. Feb. 6</td>
<td>disappearance of 3rd satellite</td>
<td>32° 35' 45&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Combining together the results of Tables III. and IV., the following values of longitude are found:

**TABLE V.—Concluded Longitudes.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Place</th>
<th>Longitude East.</th>
<th>Number of separate Determinations.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Towfikia</td>
<td>31° 44' 13&quot;</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gondokoro</td>
<td>31° 28' 8&quot;</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatiko</td>
<td>32° 27' 49&quot;</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to the above, several differences of longitude were measured by means of two chronometers.

**TABLE VI.—Chronometric Differences of Longitude.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of Places</th>
<th>Resulting Differences of Longitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khartoum, east of Fashoda</td>
<td>0 21° 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashoda, east of Towfikia</td>
<td>0 30° 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khartoum, east of Towfikia</td>
<td>0 51° 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Towfikia, east of the Dubbah, Bahr Zaraffa</td>
<td>1 3° 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Towfikia, east of Three Dubbaks, Bahr Zaraffa</td>
<td>1 3° 15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interval between the observations made before leaving Khartoum, and after arriving at Towfikia (taking Fashoda on
the way) was fourteen days, and the rates determined at Khartoum agree well with those afterwards found at Towflikia. The first three results of the preceding Table should therefore be good.

The last two differences depend on rates determined before leaving Towflikia, carried on twenty-nine days for "The Dubbah," and fifty-two days for "Three Dubbahs," there being no after determination of rate. These differences are therefore less worthy of confidence, although it may be noted as a favourable circumstance that in each case the two chronometers employed gave fairly accordant results.


[Read, February 9th, 1874.]

On September 2nd, 1872, the Hon. T. G. Grosvenor and the writer of these notes started together from the British Legation, Peking, on a trip through Inner Mongolia to Dolonnor, a large town founded by the Emperor Kang-hi, as a trading mart between the Chinese and the Mongolian tribes. About 25 miles north-west of Dolonnor are the ruins of the city of Shang-tu, the ancient northern capital of the Yuan dynasty, described in such glowing terms by Marco Polo, who was there in the reign of its founder, the famous Kublai Khan (A.D. 1280-94). Having explored these ruins, identified by the existence of a marble tablet with an inscription of the thirteenth century, we proceeded eastwards to the Muran Wei-chang, the imperial hunting-grounds of the reigning dynasty, thence to the city of Jehol, where Earl Macartney was received by the Emperor Chien-lung in 1793; and returned through the Ku-pei-kou Pass to Peking.

We left Peking early in the morning by one of the northern gates, and soon afterwards passed through a gap in the earthen rampart, which is all that remains of the old walls of Cambalu, which were 60 li (20 English miles) in circuit, and extended northwards and eastwards 5 li beyond the wall of the modern city. Thence the road lay through the northern extension of the great alluvial plain in which Peking is situated, which is bounded on three sides by ranges of hills.

In the western and eastern hills there are many Buddhist temples, pagodas, and monasteries; some picturesquely situated in the recesses of rocky glens, embosomed in groves of pine, chestnut-oak, and maple; others perched on the summits of the
highest peaks, like the little monastery of Miao-feng-shan, which looks down upon the plain from an elevation of more than 3000 feet. These form most pleasant abiding-places in the hot season, when the dust, dilapidation, and decay of Peking are left behind for a time.

To the left of the road the numerous buildings of the imperial Summer Palace of Yuan-ming-yuan are visible, in a semicircular well-wooded valley. The outliers of the ranges are crowned with temples and pagodas, and in the distance the wall of an extensive deer-park is seen winding up the face of the "Fragrant Hills."

Farther on, beyond the walled city of Chang-ping-chou, a magnificent amphitheatre of hills appears on the right, encircling the scattered tumuli and sacrificial temples of thirteen emperors of the last native Chinese dynasty. The main approach to these tombs is by a wide paved road, nearly 2 miles in length, spanned by several treble marble arches, and flanked by two long lines of colossal figures of men and animals.

For the last 5 miles to Nan-kou, the walled town at the entrance of the famous pass, the way lay through a sandy, stony waste, strewn with large waterworn boulders. The rugged and precipitous hills in every direction are crowned with fortresses and watch-towers, and purposeless bits of wall are visible, winding round almost inaccessible peaks, built there, it is explained by the initiated, to exert a presiding influence over the elements, in accordance with the recondite mysteries of feng-shui or geomancy.

The Nan-kou Pass is 40 li long (3 li to the mile), from its commencement to the gates of the Inner Great Wall, which winds deep down into the valleys and over the tops of the hills of the Pa-ta-ling range. The floor of the pass is thickly strewn with masses of rock; formerly traversed by a limestone causeway, the huge fragments thereof, uplifted and scattered by the force of the mountain torrent which rushes down in the rainy season, only serve now to increase the difficulties of the ascent. About 15 li from the entrance the limestone rocks are replaced by red coarsely-crystalline granite, and the pass contracts to a narrow defile bounded on either side by perpendicular cliffs. Here it is traversed by several walls, and defended by fortresses built over the massive gateways through which the road passes. This is the historical pass of Chü-yung-kuan, so called, according to tradition, from the fact that Chin Shih-huang (B.C. 246-10) resided there when superintending the completion of the Great Wall. One of the gateways is spanned by a hexagonal marble arch, ornamented with Buddhist mythological figures carved in deep relief, with
an inscription of the date 1345, a Buddhist invocation or dharani, in the characters of six different nations, Devanagari and Thibetan in horizontal lines, and below these, Mongol, Ouigour, Niuchih, and Chinese in vertical lines. This arch was originally the basement storey of a pagoda, which was pulled down, it is said, because the superstitious Mongols refused to pass underneath.

The end of the pass, 25 li farther on, is crossed by the Inner Great Wall at Pa-ta-ling, solidly built of massive blocks of granite quarried from the adjacent mountains. This has been often described and figured.

From Cha-tao, the small fortified town just beyond the Inner Great Wall, to Kalgan, a distance of 260 li, our road followed the valley of the Yang River, passing through many walled towns and villages belonging to the prefecture of Hsuan-hua-fu. A range of hills bounds the valley on the northern side, covered sometimes to the height of several hundred feet by terraces of the "loess" deposit; the road runs along the foot of this range. There is a break in the hills at the old post-station of Tu-mu, through which passes the main road to the Tu-shih-kou Pass, 235 li distant, branching off at right angles. At the fortress of Chi-ming-yi the road strikes the bank of the river, which here cuts through the range by a precipitous gorge, winding round the base of the rocky peak of Chi-ming-shan, so called, tradition relates, by an emperor of the Tang dynasty, who heard a cock crow from its summit, when encamped beneath on an expedition against Corea. The peak is crowned by a Buddhist temple at an elevation of about 2500 feet, approached by a steep winding path. It is composed mainly of coarse yellow limestone, burnt in many places for lime; on the northern side several seams of anthracite crop up to the surface, in which the openings of mines were visible from below. The road hugs the mountain side above the river, in some places cut deeply in the solid rock, till a few li beyond the hamlet of Hsiang-shui-pu, where it crosses a low range of sand-hills, and the large and important city of Hsuan-hua-fu breaks into view, in the midst of a fertile, well-watered plain, green with groves of poplar, willow, and sophora, interspersed with prolific fruit-orchards. The prefecture is generally celebrated for the abundance and excellence of its fruit: peaches, apricots, plums, pears, apples, cherries, persimmons (Diospyros Schisae), Shan-li-hung (Crataegus pinnatifida), melons, &c. &c., flourish, while grapes are widely cultivated, the vines trained over a wooden trellis-work in the Samarcand fashion. The principal natural productions, as detailed in the Chinese statistical works, are gold and silver, rock-crystal, chalcedony, and various kinds of agate, many
variegated and ornamental varieties of building stone, white and coloured alums, and anthracite; leopard and bear-skins, wild goat and antelope; bear's gall, deer's horns, and musk—all three important remedies in the native pharmacopoea. Of the well-to-do population a large fraction is Mahometan; the neat well-kept mosque is a conspicuous feature in every city and large village, while the Mahometan inns are generally distinguished for their comparative cleanliness and comfort.

The capital city is surrounded by a wall, 8 miles in circuit, and includes some large handsome buildings with large parks, while lofty memorial arches span the main streets. It is mentioned by Marco Polo under the old name of "Sindachu," and is still famed, as in his day, for its woollen and felt manufactures. There is a considerable Roman Catholic community, for whose spiritual wants a cathedral is now in process of erection, on the grounds of the mission within the city.

Having left the city by the main northern gate, we passed through a long stretch of uncultivated ground, occupied by fine old trees, between which the ruins of extensive buildings appeared, half-hidden by the tangled undergrowth: the site of a palace founded by the third emperor of the Yuan dynasty, called Chung-tu—the central imperial residence; abandoned, however, in the reign of his successor, who built instead a residence in the north-west of the department, and surrounded it with vast fruit-orchards.

The road proceeds northwards, striking the river just before entering Kalgan, and crossing by a stone bridge of many arches, ornamented with carved grotesque figures of lions and tigers.

Chang-chia-kou, also called Kalgan, from a Mongol word "Kalga," meaning gate or barrier, is the frontier town, commanding one of the most important passes between China and Mongolia, and the main road of the overland route between China and Russia. There is a walled fortress 4 li in circuit, but the merchants' houses, shops, and inns, form a long, straggling suburb, stretching from this, for some two or three miles, up to the gate of the Great Wall, which is strongly fortified and garrisoned. Just outside the gate one sees, on the right hand, a row of houses built in semi-European style, with large warehouses in the rear, belonging to the small community of Russian merchants, who send long caravans of camels, laden principally with brick-tea, over the Mongolian plateau to Urga and Kiakhta. From this spot radiate three passes, ascending to the edge of the plateau, distinguished as the western, central, and eastern roads, along each of which flows a small river, the three streams uniting at Kalgan to form the Ching-shui-ho. Following the
western road, which runs parallel to the Great Wall, bending as it does at Kalgan abruptly towards the north-west, we traversed first a precipitous gorge through the range of trachytic porphyry hills, and then gradually climbed up the long uniform ascent, on a deep sandy and gravelly floor, between low square hills of metamorphic schists, often overlaid by more recent loamy deposits, worn by the action of water into perpendicular cliffs. In the faces of these cliffs are built in many places the dwellings—half caves, half mud-huts—peculiar to the "loess" formation of North China, sometimes in rows one above the other, like a huge pigeon-house. The sides of the hills on either side, where the slope is not too abrupt, are fringed with artificial terraces, and every available spot is under cultivation. Thirty li from Kalgan one passes a large aggregation of these huts, forming the village of Tu-cheng-tzu, and 10 li beyond this begins the sudden and difficult ascent up the precipitous face of the rocks which form the edge of the plateau.

Having surmounted this, the small village of Feng-kan-lu is soon reached. Here the Great Wall, which has hitherto followed the road in a more or less parallel direction, curves round towards the west. It consists of a mere heap of rubble, of rough unhewn fragments collected from the débris of the adjacent black volcanic rocks, and there are no traces of connecting mortar. Massive square towers, of solid brick with an earthen core, have been erected at intervals of two or three hundred feet, but they are now fast crumbling into ruin. This is known as the "Boundary Wall" by the Chinese, and was made probably during the twelfth century.

From the top of one of these towers, standing at an elevation of 5,400 feet above the level of the sea, there is a magnificent and characteristic view. Stationed on the summit of the precipitous cliff-like edge of the Mongolian plateau, and facing southwards, one looks down upon an expanse of low, flat-topped hills, weathering in white perpendicular facets, bounded by the volcanic Kalgan range, which hides from view the valley of Hsuan-hua-fu; while beyond, in the far distance, the sharp and rugged peaks of the granite range, along which runs the Inner Wall, pierce the clouds. On either side nothing but mountains, crowned by the square towers of the Boundary Wall; eastwards bending round towards the Tu-shih-kou Pass, westwards visible, range upon range, far into the province of Shansi, until they fade away in the blue distance. Towards the north the eye ranges over a prairie with long wavy undulations, the first of the grass-covered Mongolian steppes. On the fixed natural line of demarcation between a settled agricultural people and nomadic pastoral tribes, we were passing from a region of limestone, coal-
measures, and granite, to one of tertiary and recent volcanic deposits; from the fertile, well-wooded valleys of Northern Chihli, rich in corn and fruit, to a "land of grass," the support of innumerable flocks and herds, where no tree is visible in a week's journey, and "argol," the dung of cattle, is the only fuel.

There is a corresponding difference in climate, and a cold, biting north-west wind reminded us feelingly of the wide variation of temperature a few hours' journey had brought about. There are some settlements of immigrant Chinese on the border of the plateau, as well as about the stations of the north-east trade routes, but they earn with difficulty a miserable subsistence by the cultivation of oats, rape, and potatoes, which have barely time to come to maturity during the short-lived summer. There is small prospect of encroachment in this quarter; further east, where the country is hilly and the valleys fertile, as well as in Manchuria, the Chinese agricultural settlers are numbered by the million, and the aborigines are being either pushed to the north, or compelled themselves to become agriculturists.

Shipartai is the first station in Mongolia. It is a flourishing Chinese mart, situated in the midst of rich pastures, the source of the small river of Shipartai, which winds along towards the north-west to empty itself into the large lake Angoulinor. The settlement is surrounded by Mongol "yours," belonging to the Chahar tribe. It is also a depot of bullock-carts—most primitive vehicles, made of a few rough planks with angular hexagonal wheels—which traverse the steppes in interminable trains, empty or laden with corn or manufactured goods, to return with crystals of nitre, salt, or impure carbonate of soda (natron), obtained by lixiviation from the soil of various parts of Mongolia.

The surrounding country is filled with lakes and pools of water, the haunts of innumerable flocks of waterfowl. We started with fresh ponies, and a Mongol lama as guide, to visit one of the largest lakes in the neighbourhood, the Ichinor, 60 li distant, and found the water black with waterfowl, which rose in dense flocks and filled the air with discordant noises. Swans, geese, and ducks predominated, and three different species of cranes were distinguished, but it was impossible to get within shooting range, from the total absence of cover. The lake is about three miles in circumference. Ten li to the south the ground gradually rises, forming a smooth, grassy elevation, raised a few hundred feet above the general level of the plateau. This is the Tengri Obo, one of the most sacred hills at which the Mongols worship. It is crowned by a cairn of
stones, heaped up around a central pole, and hung about with strips of silk and cotton, a relic of ancient nature-worship. On one side of the cairn a wretched wooden box was placed, enclosing a porcelain image of Buddha, a curious example of the incorporation of ancient superstition into a more modern form of worship. It was odd to observe our priest's looks of unutterable horror when one of us unwittingly offended by climbing to the top of the cairn to get a better view of the country; he afterwards made not a few propitiatory kotows.

The surrounding country is interesting from historical association, and there are many ruined towns in the vicinity. Forty-five li to the west the Lake Chagannor was visible, and on the bank the ruins of Chagan Balgasun, now known by the Chinese name of Pai-cheng-tzu, i.e. White City. This was founded by Kublai Khan; it was visited and described by Marco Polo. The emperor was in the habit of staying here some days during his journeys to and fro from Cambalu to Shangtu; he kept a number of falcons in mew, and made hawking excursions to the many lakes in the vicinity. The site was explored by the Russian traveller Timbowski in 1820, and is described in his 'Journey to Peking through Mongolia.'

From Tengri Obo we rode south-westwards through the pasture-land allotted for the breeding of horses, to the Yellow Manchu Banner. The whole of this part of Inner Mongolia, extending northwards from the Great Wall more than a hundred miles, is divided into tracts, apportioned to the Government boards and the various Manchu banners. We passed many herds of mares, while the men were busily engaged in cutting grass and stacking the hay in small heaps for winter consumption.

After 40 li, we arrived at the ruins of a once famous city, the Hsing-ho-cheng,* founded during the Liao dynasty (A.D. 907-1125), and the chief city of a "In" circuit under the Yuan. The walls are 6 li in circumference, with the remains of four gates; it is completely deserted and overgrown with grass. The adjoining district is occupied by a small agricultural settlement of Chinese immigrants from the province of Shansi. Near the ruins flows the small river Bourgastai, and on the opposite bank of the river is the hamlet of Urtai, a station on the Russian caravan route. From Urtai to Shipartai is 50 li, over monotonous steppes, on the distant ridges of which a few antelopes are occasionally seen.

From Shipartai to Changmatz'ching, a distance of 130 li, the road follows the Dolonnor trade-route, and there are large bul-

* Known also by the Mongol name Kara Hotun.
lock-cart depôts at frequent intervals. The only place worthy of note is Panshantu, where there is a military station and a Buddhist temple. Towards the end the country becomes more hilly, and antelopes abound, in herds sometimes of several hundreds.

Thence to Dolonnor is 250 li. Two rivers have to be forded—first a small stream, flowing westwards to empty itself into the Kere Lake; afterwards the River Shangtu, so called from the old city on its left bank; it becomes the Lan-ho in its lower course. Here it is a sluggish stream, about 10 feet wide, and easily fordable, winding through a marshy tract. There is a Chinese village on the left bank, with two good inns. After crossing this we came upon another smaller stream at Kapachiao, pursuing a winding course through a rich pastoral country towards a small lake. We kept in the valley of this, the Harapoulaic River, crossing and re-crossing its bed, leaving it finally at Chapeng, a caravanserai 30 li from Dolonnor. The banks were dotted with Mongol encampments, at several of which we rested awhile, always most hospitably received, and given a cup of hot milk out of the caldron which occupies the centre of every tent, with occasionally a pat of fresh butter added. The Mongols of this part of the country live mainly on milk; the cream is heated till a thick pellicle forms on the surface, then folded like a pancake; the cheeses are small and round, less than 1 lb. in weight. The bullocks are large broad-ribbed animals, with long horns, usually of a red colour; in habit and appearance they resemble our Devon variety.

The general elevation of the plateau above the sea is nearly uniform, averaging 4500 feet, which is the altitude of Shipartai, while at Dolonnor it is 4300 feet.

Towards Dolonnor the ground becomes barren and sandy, and the loose sand is collected by the wind into moving hillylocks, which enclose and separate a chain of lakes, from which the town derives its name (Dolon-nor being in Mongol Seven Lakes). The road winds round and between these small lakes, until suddenly a pagoda is seen ahead in a gap between two sandhills, and soon after a large and populous town breaks into full view.

Dolonnor, commonly known by the Chinese name Lama Miao, from the large temples in its vicinity, was founded by the Emperor Kang-hi after the successful termination of his expedition against the Mongolian Prince Galdan, chief of the Eleuth tribes. It is now a flourishing town, with a trading population estimated at about 20,000, almost exclusively Chinese. A few handsome official residences, and one or two temples and pagodas, relieve the dull uniformity of the brick and mud shops
and houses, closely packed together, and separated by narrow, dirty, and undrained streets. It differs from Chinese towns in the absence of the usual battlemented wall, being surrounded only by an earthen wall connecting the outer houses, enclosing a space of about a square mile, and having tall wooden gates at the ends of the principal streets, which are locked at nightfall. Dolonnor was visited by the Abbé Huc during his celebrated journey from the Roman Catholic station at the "Valley of Black Waters" to the capital of Thibet. It is famed for its numerous manufactories of bells, idols, and the multitudinous bronze paraphernalia employed in the Lama religious ceremonies, and of the smaller figures, talismans, and gaudily painted figures to be found in every Mongol tent. The silversmiths display in tempting profusion the elaborate silver trappings and earrings, laden with coral, turquoise, lapis lazuli, and jade, with which the Mongol women love to adorn their coarse tresses, as well as necklets, bracelets, and rings, for which they exact the most extortionate prices. Other shops are filled with guns, pistols and swords, with saddles, bridles, and gay trappings, and the manifold products of Chinese civilisation, for which the Mongols barter their horses, bullocks, and sheep, and the various spoils of the chase. The average price of a good pony is five ounces of silver—the cost of a small copper idol; while a sheep is valued at one ounce—the retail price of a dozen small packets of needles, or half-a-dozen atrocious daubs of a many-headed deity. Beef, mutton, and game are in consequence cheap; but corn, fruit, and vegetables, having to be brought from a long distance, are correspondingly dear, with the single exception of potatoes, which flourish everywhere, and are peculiarly large and fine.

Dolonnor is situated within the northern bend of the Shangtu River, which is 40 li distant to the north, 30 li to the east; the latitude has been calculated by Dr. Fritsche, Director of the Russian Observatory at Peking, to be 42° 16' 48", from data supplied by a Russian traveller.

On the third day after our arrival we rode to visit the ruins of the ancient Mongolian capital of Shangtu, situated 80 li to the north-west of Dolonnor, now known by the Mongol name of Chao naiman soumè Hotun—"the city of a hundred and eight temples." The road passed first over a series of low sandhills, then crossed a steep range of volcanic hills, descending into a wide rolling prairie, covered with long grass and fragrant

* In all the maps that I have had an opportunity of consulting, Dolonnor is wrongly placed on the north bank of the river, it having been presumed, I opine, that it was built on the site of the city of Shangtu, which is really more than 25 miles distant.

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shrubs, the haunt of numerous herds of antelope. This prairie gradually slopes down to the marshy bed of the river, here a considerable stream 20 feet wide; in former times flat-bottomed grain-junks ascended from the sea to this point, bringing up supplies of rice from the southern provinces for the use of the city and court. Now the only building in the neighbourhood is a small Lama monastery, the abode of some six or seven wretched priests, while a few scattered tents belonging to the Chahar tribe stand on the river-banks. The city has been deserted for centuries, and the site is overgrown with rank weeds and grass, the abode of foxes and owls, which prey on the numerous prairie-rats and partridges. The ground is but slightly raised above the bed of the river, which flows past the south-east at a distance of 4 or 5 li from the city wall, while it is overshadowed on the opposite side by the Hingan range of mountains, trending south-west, north-east, and rising into lofty peaks farther north. The walls of the city, built of earth, faced with unhewn stone and brick, are still standing, but are more or less dilapidated. They form a double enceinte, the outer a square of about 16 li with six gates—a central, northern, and southern, and two in each of the side walls; while the inner wall is about 8 li in circuit, with only three gates—in the northern, eastern, and western faces. The south gate of the inner city is still intact, a perfect arch 20 feet high, 12 feet wide. There is no gate in the opposite northern wall, its place being occupied by a large square earthen fort, faced with brick; this is crowned with an obo or cairn, covered with the usual ragged streamers of silk and cotton tied to sticks, an emblem of the superstitious regard which the Mongols of the present day have for the place, as evidenced also by the modern legendary name—"the city of 108 temples." The ground in the interior of both enclosures is strewn with blocks of marble and other remains of large temples and palaces, the outline of the foundations of some of which can yet be traced; while broken lions, dragons, and the remains of other carved monuments, lie about in every direction, half-hidden by the thick and tangled overgrowth. Scarcely one stone remains above another, and a more complete state of ruin and desolation could hardly be imagined, but at the same time everything testifies to the former existence of a populous and flourishing city. A broken memorial tablet was found, lying within the north-east angle of the outer city amid many other relics, on a raised piece of ground, the site evidently of a large temple. The upper portion, projecting above the surface of the ground, contained an inscription of the Yuan dynasty, in an ancient form of the Chinese character, surrounded by a border of dragons boldly carved in deep relief. This tablet
was erected by the emperor Shih-tsu (Kublai Khan), the founder of the Yuan dynasty, in memory of a Buddhist chief-priest of high rank, head of the monastery. The lower half of the massive marble slab lies doubtless buried beneath the grass, but we were unable to get at it for want of proper tools.

Outside the city proper as described above, there is yet a third wall, smaller than either of the others, but continuous with the south and east sides of the outer city wall. This is now a mere grassy mound, enclosing an area estimated at 5 square miles, to the north and west of the city. This must be the park described by Marco Polo, inside which were "fountains, and rivers, and brooks, and beautiful meadows, with all kinds of wild animals, which the Emperor has procured and placed there to supply food for his gerfalcons and hawks which he keeps there in mew. The Khan himself goes every week to see his birds sitting in mew, and sometimes he rides through the park with a leopard behind him on his horse's croup; and then if he sees any animal that takes his fancy, he slips his leopard at it, and the game when taken is made over to feed the hawks in mew."

The city of Shangtu is referred to by Coleridge in his "Dream of Kublai's Paradise":

"In Xanadu did Kubla Khan
A stately pleasure dome decree:
Where Alph, the sacred river, ran,
By caverns measureless to man,
Down to a sunless sea.
So twice five miles of fertile ground
With walls and towers were girdled round:
And there were gardens bright with sinuous rills,
Where blossomed many an incense-bearing tree;
And here were forests ancient as the hills,
Enfolding sunny spots of greenery."

A Chinese traveller, Wang Yun, who went in the suite of the emperor to Kai-ping-fu (the original name of Shangtu) soon after its foundation, says, "The walled city was founded in the cyclical year 'ping chen' (A.D. 1256), to the south of the Dragon Hill, with the Lan River flowing by on the opposite side. Encircled on four sides by mountains, it stands on a well-chosen site in a luxuriant and beautiful country. To the north-east of the city, not more than 10 li distant, are large pine-forests, the habitation of many kinds of birds, especially the species called chapiku (a celebrated kind of falcon). The mountains are covered with fine trees; fish, and salt, and the hundred kinds of valuable natural products abound; and the

* Colonel Yule's 'Marco Polo,' ch. lxi.
flocks and herds flourish and multiply, so that the inhabitants have at hand an abundant provision of food. The river, though shallow, is broad; the water is frozen down to the river-bed in the cold season. The climate is cool in summer, extremely cold in winter, and altogether it is the coolest station in the north-eastern part of the empire. This, according to the geographical records, was part of the Wu-huan territory during the eastern Han dynasty. It is distant 45 li from the new city of Huan-chou.

Widely different, however, is the condition of the country in the present day. All around is dreariness and desolation. Even the natives were rude and inhospitable—the rarest case among the Mongols. The gates of the small monastery, where we had hoped to pass the night, were barred at our approach, and the priests on the other side obstinately deaf to arguments or bribes. Late as it was, we were perforce compelled to remount our ponies and gallop back as fast as they would carry us over the twenty-seven miles of hill and dale which separated us from Dolonnor.

The following day, September 17th, we devoted to the examination of the magnificent Lama temples and monasteries situated in the plain about a mile north-west of Dolonnor. The larger of the two, the Hui-tsung-ssu, was built in the reign of Kang-hi by contributions from the Mongol tribes. The emperor bestowed a name upon it in the 30th year of his reign (A.D. 1694), having erected at the same time in one of the principal courts a marble monumental tablet, inscribed in the characters of three languages—Manchu, Mongol, and Chinese—with verses commemorating his victories. The other temple is about a li distant towards the south-west; it was completed in the 7th year of Yung-cheng (1729), called by the emperor Shan-ying-ssu, and presented with a similar monument, having also a tri-lingual inscription. The temples are both surrounded by monasteries, long parallel lines of brick dwellings, enclosed by a low wall, in which the Lama priests live, in number amounting altogether to nearly three thousand. They are an ignorant, lazy, illiterate class, and collected round the strange visitors in crowds, open-mouthed and staring. The wide square faces, with projecting jaws, large mouths, and small porcine eyes, the foreheads low and receding, and the small bullet-like shaven skulls, were curious studies, exaggerating the more repulsive features of the Mongolian type. The vacuous, semi-idiotic expression of many—the large admixture of the maimed, halt, and hump-backed—the occurrence of faces deeply scarred and eyes destroyed from the ravages of small-pox, and of noses eaten away by caries—all combined to show that it is not the most intelligent of their
sons, nor those without blemish or spot, whom the Mongols devote to the service of Buddha. The temples, on the contrary, are truly gorgeous and well appointed, with lofty halls supported by pillars in the ordinary style of Chinese architecture, and interiors richly decorated with vermilion and gold. Thibetan scrolls are engrossed on the walls and roof and cover the rich silk hangings and tapestry, and the Sanscrit characters of the mystic formula, "Ommané padmé oun," meet one at every turn. The huge images and prayer-machines, the yellow robes and Grecian helmets of the officiating priests, the musical instruments of the band, and all the paraphernalia of the Lama ceremonial, have been often described, and may be seen any day at the Great Lamassery of Peking. The reigning dynasty of China has always favoured its development, from the powerful hold it gives them over the superstitious Mongols. In few countries are the outward evidences of religion so universally apparent. Even the "heathen Chinee" of these parts palms off his sham jewellery, wrapped up in paper, inscribed "Ommané padmé oun," and prefaces his most exorbitant hotel bill with the same comforting formula.

From Dolonnor we journeyed eastwards, riding over a grassy plain till we came to the ridge of sandhills which separates the plain from the river valley. The river here averages 30 feet in width, still shallow and sluggish. We forded it at the hamlet of Ta-ku-shan. Twenty li farther on we traversed a pass in the volcanic range which forms a portion of the western boundary of the imperial hunting-grounds, and entered upon a wide uncultivated prairie, studded with patches of dwarf willow and elm, the feeding-ground of many herds of antelope. Having crossed this we struck the right bank of the Hsiao Lan River, and put up for the night at a large stockaded house.

The next day’s journey was more than 40 miles, all through the hunting-grounds, during the whole of which not a single house was seen. After crossing the small river the country became gradually more and more broken till we came to another range of mountains trending north and south; the crest of this range, elevated nearly 5000 feet above the sea, we reached after a long gentle ascent, and descended by a winding rocky path the opposite face, steep and precipitous. From this point there is a most complete change in the scenery and general aspect of the country. The monotonous undulating plateau, sandy or covered with short herbage, treeless and barren, is replaced by a broken hilly district, the mountains green to their summits with abundant vegetation, clothed with an undergrowth of hazel-nut, wild rose, wurana (oulana), and other berried shrubs, and fragrant with artemisia, the shady recesses filled with clumps of
elm, birch, maple, pine, and oak, while the numerous valleys of rich peaty soil are occupied by deeply-winding streams, and support a thick tangled growth of grass and legumes, two to three feet high, with groves of willow and poplar at frequent intervals.

This brief description may serve to give an idea of the nature of the country chosen and marked out by the Emperor Kang-hi, the second of the reigning dynasty, to be guarded and preserved for the autumn hunting expedition, which started annually from the summer palace at Jehol. Having ridden down several gently sloping and tortuous river valleys, we arrived at last late at night at the stockaded station, called Manitu Kalun, one of the Manchu guard-houses of the centre of the southern boundary of the hunting-grounds, situated at the head of the valley of the Yimatu River. There were stationed here a petty officer and four private soldiers of the Bordered White Manchu Banner. After a long parade they were induced to unbar the massive timber gates, and finally ensconced us in the best part of the house. We were most hospitably entertained for two days by the sergeant, a fine-looking veteran, who took great pride in a set of unusually large tiger’s claws, the relics of an ancient adventure, which he wore at his girdle. He was even complacent enough to tell off one of his men to act as our guide on a shooting excursion.

The imperial hunting-grounds, styled the Muran Wei-chang—"muran" signifying deer-hunting in Manchu, "wei-chang" hunting-grounds in Chinese—are described in the Chinese statistical works as lying outside the northern boundary of the prefecture of Cheng-te-fu (Jehol). They are surrounded by the territory of Mongolian tribes, having the Kalachin Banners on the east, the Chahar Banners on the west, the Parin and Koshihkoteng Banners on the north; bounded south-east by the Kalachin, south-west by the Chahar Blue and Bordered White Banners, north-east by the Ongniout, and north-west by the Chahar Blue Banner. The circumference is more than 1300 li, the diameter from east to west being over 300 li, from north to south over 200 li. The territory originally belonged to the Kalachin Aohan and Ongniout tribes, and was handed over by them to the Emperor Kang-hi during one of his autumn expeditions outside the Great Wall. The boundaries were then fixed, and willow stakes were afterwards set up to mark off the ground as sacred, while a decree was issued threatening severe punishments on any Manchu, Mongol, or Chinese who should thereafter be discovered hunting or shooting within the precincts. The grounds are guarded by a detachment from each of the eight Manchu Banners, which watches a certain portion of the boundary line. Each detachment is divided into five sub-divisions, and occupies five
kalun or guard-houses, so that there are in all forty kalun, situated in the river valleys and mountain passes, the channels of communication with the surrounding country. Where the ground is suited to agriculture, a certain portion was allotted to each station for its support, otherwise they were allowed a certain number of horned cattle. The Manchu officer in command of the whole has his yamen at Chang-san-ying, a large village situated about 30 li outside the southern boundary, in the valley of the Yisun River.

The accompanying map, based on the old Jesuit survey, and filled in from more recent Chinese sources, shows approximately the position and boundary (marked by a dotted line) of the Muran Wei-chang. The chief stations of the Manchu Banners are also indicated. The whole district is mountainous, the mountains increasing in height towards the north-west, where they merge into the Hingan range, which is described as of unknown breadth and extent, with peaks stretching far into the clouds, and as clothed for some distance from the base with trackless forests. The Mount Pecha of our maps, said to be 16,000 feet high, ought to be somewhere in this neighbourhood; the name, however, as applied to a mountain, was not known to the inhabitants of the districts we passed through, and I have failed to find it in the official geographical records. There is, however, a River Paicha flowing from the north of the Hairahan Mountains. The hunting-grounds give rise to an immense number of rivulets and streams, which may be collected into two groups—the one flowing southwards towards the Shangtu or Lan River, the other north-eastwards towards the Sirgai River, an affluent of the Siramuren.

During the reigns of Kang-hi and his immediate successors, an annual expedition was organised at the palace of Jehol, after the expiration of the hot summer months, in which the emperor was accompanied by his whole court, a long train of princes and mandarins, and an army of soldiers. The purpose of the expedition was to train and exercise the army in military manoeuvres, more than purely for hunting. The princes of the neighbouring Mongolian tribes were also required to be in attendance, and to bring with them some thousands of mounted followers to assist in the grand battue. At the same time they were to be impressed with the military power of China, so as to be convinced of the uselessness of rebellion against the power of the emperor.

At the town of Huang-ku-tun (Porot Hotun), 120 li from Jehol, the road to the Wei-chang branches into two. The eastern road was the one usually taken, following the valley of the Yisun River, and entering the grounds just beyond Shih-pien-tzu, a village 90 li beyond Huang-ku-tun. The Wei-chang
is divided into sixty-seven smaller hunting-grounds, each one a
plain at the source of one of the many smaller rivulets, distant
from 2 or 3 to 50 li from each other, and named usually after
the particular stream which flows from its borders. The names,
distances, boundaries, bearings, principal hills, &c., of all these
are minutely detailed in the Chinese work before me, but it
would be tedious to recapitulate them here. Having entered
the hunting-grounds, the imperial party proceeded in its tortuous
course from one to the other of these plains, halting at each
while the many horsemen and foot-soldiers, formed into a huge
ring enclosing mountain and valley, gradually converged, driving
before them the game towards the place selected, where it was
brought down by the spears and arrows of the emperor and his
courtiers. The circuit completed—a task of at least a month—
they emerged from the grounds at Pan-chieh-ta, distant 180 li
from Huang-ku-tun, by the valley of the Yimatu River. After
the reign of Chien-lung the expedition began to be made only
at irregular intervals, and since the time of his successor Chi-
ching, who died in 1820 on his return from hunting, no emperor
has undertaken the journey. The Emperor Chien-lung built a
succession of "travelling palaces" along the whole route, from
the Great Wall at Ku-pei-kou to the two entrances into the
grounds, at distances from each other of about 60 li—an easy
day's journey. They are situated in picturesque spots on the
sides of the hills, embosomed in groves of fir, and consist of a
series of halls and open courtyards, with a shady arbour on the
hill behind, in addition to side buildings and barracks in front
for the guard. Of late years they have been sadly neglected,
and they are now fast falling into ruin.

The wild fauna of the district is extensive and varied. The
carnivora include the tiger (Felis tigris, L.), the leopard (Felis
pardinus, L.), and the Felis irbis, Müll.; the common wolf (Canis
lupus, L.), the Canis rutilus, Pall., and the Canis procyonoides,
Gray; the fox (Canis vulpes, L.), and two kinds of bears (Ursus
sp.). The tiger is of large size, lighter in colour, and with longer
and thicker fur than its Indian congener. Two fine stuffed
specimens, with conspicuous fangs and prominent claws, are to
be seen mounted in one of the side halls of every large Lama
temple. The leopard, however, is more common, and especially
feared by the country people, who always carry on their journeys
a stout dagger-blade, mounted like a spear at the end of a stout
pole, to defend themselves against its attacks. Every house is
enclosed in a stout corral or timber palisade, into which the
cattle and pigs have to be driven at night, safe from the assaults
of the wolves which come down from the mountains, howling up
to the barrier and making night hideous.
Among the ruminants are found the huangyang (Antilope gutturosa, Pall.), and the shanyang (Antilope crispa, Temm.), the alu (Cerus capreolus, L., var. pygargus, Pall.), and two other species of Cerus (C. elaphus, L., and C. xanthopygus, M. Edw.), the argali (Ovis (Aegoceras) argalis, Pall.), and the musk-deer (Moschus moschiferus, L.).

Hares are very numerous, belonging to the species Lepus variabilis, Pall.

Feathered game is also most abundant. Of pheasants four species occur: the Phasianus torquatus, Gm. (sinicê yeh chi), found in every valley; the Phasianus Reevesii, Gr. (sin. chih chi), with magnificent tail-feathers, six feet long; the Pucrasia xanthospila, Gr. (sin. sung chi); and the gorgeous Crossoptilon mantehuricum, S. W. (sin. huo chi). Of partridges there are two species: the Perdix barbata (sin. pan chi), and the Perdix chukar, Gould (sin. shih chi). Quails (sin. an chun) also abound. The lakes and pools are filled with an infinite variety of wildfowl, of all sizes and many-coloured plumage.

After a short stay we left our comfortable quarters at the Manitu station with much regret, and followed a south-easterly valley for a few li, till we reached a square brick round-topped tower, called Pan-chich-ta. This marks the limit of the Wei-chang in this direction, and at this point begins the large and rich prefecture of Cheng-te-fu, which extends southward to the Great Wall, eastward to the Palisade boundary of Manchuria. We proceeded down the valley of the Yimatu River, a populous agricultural district, varying in breadth from a few hundred yards to more than a mile, bounded on either side by lofty hills of secondary limestone and coarse conglomerate. Towards the end of the second day we left the valley, crossed the eastern range of hills, and descended upon the important and picturesque town of Huang-ku-tun, formerly known by its Mongol name of Poro Hotun. This occupies the valley of the Yisun River, the houses clustering about the left bank and swarming up the hill-side, with one of the imperial hunting-boxes, surrounded by groves of pine and larch, in the back-ground. It is situated at the point of junction of the two main roads from the hunting-grounds.

The river valleys of this district are densely populated by Chinese immigrants, and flourishing well-built villages, each with its Buddhist temple, two or three inns, and comfortable tiled cottages, occur at intervals of a few li. The ground is fertile and well cultivated, often channelled for artificial irrigation, while the steep hills are terraced to the height of several hundred feet. Rice, wheat, barley, maize, and buckwheat, the various kinds of millet, and other cereals; the many varieties of
pulse; linseed, hemp, castor-oil, and other oil-producing seeds; tobacco and the opium-poppy, the yam or sweet-potato; in short, all the plants cultivated in the plain of North China, flourish abundantly. The castor-oil plant, which usually borders the roads and pathways, grows often to the height of 10 feet, indicating the fertility of the soil.

The aboriginal Mongolian tribes of this part of the country have been altogether expelled. Farther north they are being yearly pushed back more and more by the rapidly encroaching peasant hordes. Eastward in the district of Pa-kou the Mongols themselves have taken to agriculture, and build permanent villages of small hive-like mud huts, modelled after the form of their old felt tents. In these river valleys, on the other hand, not a single Mongol remains, where two centuries ago the land belonged to them exclusively. The rivers, hills, and natural features of the country all retain their original names, though often disguised by the vile Chinese pronunciation. The common name "Shipartai," for instance, meaning originally "plain meadowland," has become, both in the spoken and written tongue, "Shih-pa-li-tai," which signifies "eighteen li terrace;" and if you ask a Chinaman the derivation thereof, he will certainly tell you, "Why, of course, because it is 18 li from Huang-ku-tun." It happens to be about eighteen li from the town; but this is not the correct solution of the problem for all that. Similarly of many other places—if you enquired for Manitou station you would perhaps not be understood; every Chinaman knows it as Mantou (bread) station. The majority of the new towns and villages, on the other hand, are provided with more prosaic names of purely Chinese derivation, but chosen on no regular system, so that there may be a dozen villages of the same name in different parts of the country.

After leaving Huang-ku-tun we followed the road which leads to the valley of the little river of Shipartai, and kept parallel to the river till we arrived at the large village of Chung-ku-pan. From this point we proceeded down the picturesque valley of the Je-ho—"the hot river"—which takes its name from the numerous hot springs from which it derives its source, till we reached the city of Cheng-te-fu, the capital of the department.

This department was founded and its divisions and boundaries established in the reign of the Emperor Kang-hi. It was originally divided into five "ting": Je-ho-ting in the centre, Kara Hotun-ting to the south-west, Ssu-chi-ting to the north-west, Pa-kou-ting to the east, and Tatzu-kou-ting to the east of the last. Afterwards a separate district was made out of the northern portion of Pa-kou-ting, and styled Wulan Hata-ting,
while the eastern part of Tatsu-kou-ting was cut off to form San-tso-ta-ting.

In the 43rd year of Chien-lung (A.D. 1778), the system was remodelled and assimilated to that of the Chinese provinces, the names being changed to those which they still have. Je-ho-ting was elevated to the rank of chief city of a prefecture, styled Cheng-te-fu, including within its bounds the remaining six, of which Pa-kou-ting was made a city of the second order, and called Ping-chuan-chou; the other five cities of the third order, and their names changed to Lan-ping-hien, Feng-ning-hien, Chih-feng-hien, Chien-chang-hien, and Chao-yang-hien. The prefecture forms part of the province of Chih-li. These changes were made nearly a century since, but the obsolete names are still retained in our maps.

The accompanying table, compiled from the official statistics of the department, will give an approximate idea of the relative sizes, distances, and population of the various districts:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modern Name</th>
<th>Ancient Name</th>
<th>Diameters in Chinese Li.</th>
<th>Distance from Chief City.</th>
<th>Population Census of 1792.</th>
<th>Population Census of 1827.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N. to E.</td>
<td>E. to W.</td>
<td>Direction</td>
<td>Li.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheng-te-fu</td>
<td>Je-ho</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ping-chuan-chou</td>
<td>Pa-kou</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>E.</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lan-ping-hien</td>
<td>Kara Hotun</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>S.W.</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feng-ning-hien</td>
<td>Sau-chi</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>N.W.</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chih-feng-hien</td>
<td>Wulan Hata</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chien-chang-hien</td>
<td>Tatsu-kou</td>
<td>685</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>S.E.</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chao-yang-hien</td>
<td>San-tso-ta</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>N.E.</td>
<td>640</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total             | ...          | ...      | ...      | ...       | ... | 109,795   | 477,404     | 144,646   | 883,879     |

It appears from this table that the aggregate population of the department increased from 477,404 to 883,879 in 35 years, and if, as is probable, it has since continued to multiply in like ratio, it must now (1872) amount to nearly two millions. Ping-chuan-chou is an exception to the rule of rapid increase; in fact, although there is a slight increase in the population, the number of families appear to have decreased by nearly one-third in the same period, a result to be explained only by the occurrence of large emigration. This district is inhabited principally by Mongols, who are gradually taking to agricultural pursuits.

The next table shows the area of ground under cultivation in the first four districts in "ching" and "mon," the "ching"
being equivalent to about 16.7 acres; and also the amount of the land-tax in taels, one tael equivalent to six shillings of our money.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Ground Cultivated by</th>
<th>Land Revenue in Tael.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bannermen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bannermen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheng-te-fu</td>
<td>Ching. Mon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ping'-chuan-chou</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lan-ping-hien</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeng-ning-hien</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, in the year 1827, more than 380,000 acres of cultivated ground were taxed, in these four districts alone. The immigrant Chinese, coming mainly from the three provinces of Shansi, Shantung, and Chih-li, push on year by year up the fertile river valleys. The larger carnivora, the deer and antelope, are being driven to the mountains and gradually exterminated, and the Mongols deprived of their favourite hunting-grounds.

In addition to the crops mentioned on a former page, the indigo plant and silkworm mulberry are largely cultivated towards the south, and Ping'-chuan-chou is specially famed for the excellence of its silk manufactures, produced from the silk of the worm which feeds on the leaves of the wild "Po-lo-shu," the *Quercus obovata*.

The approach to the city of Cheng-te-fu from the north, by the winding valley of the Je-ho, is most effective and picturesque. Emerging from the gorge through the bold precipitous hills, which weather into the most grotesque forms, with huge oblong masses of conglomerate supported by a needle-point on the apex of a crag, or overhanging the brink of a precipice, one comes suddenly upon a beautiful scene. The valley in front widens out and branches off into several smaller transverse gullies, between round-topped gravel hills, covered with pine and elm, enclosing some scores of Lama monasteries and temples, which meet the view in every direction; to the right the long wall of the imperial palace winds over hill and valley, enclosing lofty well-wooded peaks, on the tops of which are perched small arbours; while below and in front, at some distance, are seen the straggling houses of the large unwalled city filling the narrowing end of the valley.

The largest and most important of the Lama temples is the Putala-ssu, built in a peculiar and striking style of architecture, on the model, it is said, of the palace of the Grand Lama of
Thibet at Putala, in the neighbourhood of Lassa. The principal building of this temple is a huge square erection, with eleven rows of windows, the storeys coloured alternately red, green, and yellow, surmounted by a row of five gilt dagobas, and with the roof covered with enamelled tiles of a bright turquoise-blue colour. The general effect is inexpressibly bizarre; but the whole is an elaborate sham, the windows are mostly false, and the building a mere shell, enclosing and concealing a hall with the roof supported by wooden pillars in the ordinary style of Chinese architecture. This is described in Staunton's 'Account of Macartney's Embassy,' and there is a fair representation of the external aspect in the accompanying 'Atlas.' The next largest temple is a similar imitation of the Palace of Teshu Lhumbo, the residence of the Teshu Lama of Thibet. The numerous other temples on the hill-sides and in the adjacent valleys do not call for a detailed description.

Having struck the palace-wall, one rides along it for about a mile on the solid stone causeway raised above the bed of an old lake, and arrives at the city after crossing a substantial stone bridge. The palace, called the "Pi-shu-shan-chuang," the "mountain lodge for avoiding heat," was constructed in the year 1703, on the plan of the Summer Palace of Yuan-ming-yuan, near Peking. It is surrounded by a substantial brick wall more than six miles in extent, running along the summit of the range of hills which encircles the valley towards the west and north. This wall encloses the many halls and pavilions, the temples and pagodas, the gardens and rockeries, which constitute the typical Chinese palace. It was in the interior of this that Earl Macartney was admitted to an audience by the Emperor Chien-lung, in 1793, "in a spacious and magnificent tent supported by gilded, or painted and varnished, pillars. His Excellency and suite were conducted through the pleasuregrounds of a vast enclosure, forming however only a part of those great gardens, the remainder being reserved for the use of the female part of the imperial family. They rode through a verdant valley, in which several trees, particularly willows, of an uncommonly large girth, were interspersed, and between which the grass was suffered to attain its most luxuriant height with little interruption from cattle or the mower. Arriving at the shores of an extensive lake of an irregular form, they sailed upon it till the yachts, in which they were embarked, were interrupted by a bridge thrown over the lake in the narrowest part, and beyond which it seemed to lose itself in distance and obscurity. The surface of the water was partly covered with the 'lien hwa' (Nelumbium speciosum). The party stopped at a number of small palaces, near the water-edge, there being no
one very considerable edifice. There were other buildings erected on the pinnacles of the highest hills, and some buried in the dark recesses of the deepest valleys. They differed in construction and ornament from each other, almost every one having something in the plan of it analogous to the situation and surrounding objects, but within each was generally a public hall, having in its midst a throne, and a few side-rooms: the whole furnished with works of art from Europe, and rare or curious productions of nature found in Tartary. In continuing their ride, the party found that the grounds included the utmost inequality of surface; some bearing the hardy oaks of northern hills, and others the tender plants of southern valleys. Where a wide plain happened to occur, massy rocks were heaped together to diversify the scene; and the whole seemed calculated to exhibit the pleasing variety and striking contrast of the ruggedness of wild, and the softness of cultivated, nature." This vivid and accurate description is some compensation to the modern traveller for not being allowed personally to explore the sacred precincts.

The city of Cheng-te-fu or Jehol consists of one long tortuous main street, extending for some 2 miles from the river-bank, with many smaller streets jutting out at right angles. The official yamens, temples, inns, shops, and private houses are precisely similar to those of a flourishing Chinese city of the same rank, but, like other Mongolian cities, it is not surrounded by a wall. It is noted for the manufacture of a peculiar kind of inlaid mosaic work, and large quantities of boxes, tables, and other furniture, in which the walnut, elm, and variously coloured woods in which the surrounding country abounds, are worked into intricate patterns, are made here for exportation. The population is almost exclusively Chinese, with the exception of the large community, to be numbered by the thousand, of the priests of the Lama temples and monasteries, who are generally either of Mongolian or Thibetan extraction. The citizens collected in crowds to attend the strange men from the West in their walks through the streets, and unwelcome shouts of "foreign devils" were raised by the rabble on the outskirts of the crowd, but the more respectable people at once checked all hostile demonstration on being appealed to. A Chinese mob is troublesome from its insatiable curiosity, following one into shops, and particularly fond of examining the texture of one's clothes, speculating wildly on the original cost thereof; all of which would not be so unendurable, were it not for the overpowering fumes of the garlic with which it is always saturated. It is, as a rule, peaceable, and even when otherwise disposed it is peculiarly susceptible to a seasonable joke or an appropriate
touch of satire, which the bystanders will appreciate, even if the victim does not.

The road to Lan-ping-hien, which is only 40 li from Jehol, follows first the south wall of the palace, and then ascends the steep and rocky side of the ridge of Kuang-jen-ling, "the peak of broad benevolence," so named, as commemorated by the inscription on a marble tablet on the top, by the Emperor Kang-hi, after the road had been made by him at vast expense, the rocks, of hard coarse conglomerate, having been chiselled in some places to the depth of several feet. The descent on the opposite face is no less steep; after accomplishing which we rode for some miles over an undulating agricultural country, till we came again to the Lan-ho, the same river which was so often forded about Dolonnor. Here it is much wider and more rapid, and we had some difficulty in fording it to cross to the town of Lan-ping-hien, situated on the right bank of the river. This is also an unwalled city, of the third rank, the capital of an agricultural district; it was formerly known by the Mongol name of Kara Hotun, which is totally unfamiliar to the natives of the present day. The city is dull and uninteresting, the only picturesque point being an imperial travelling palace, with its usual halls and pavilions, environed by a thick grove of trees, on the side of the hill across the river.

From Lan-ping-hien to Ku-pei-kou is a distance of 100 li by the most direct route. The road passes through valleys and over several ranges of hills, but on the whole gradually descends. The most difficult pass is about 10 li beyond the village of Ma-chuan-tzu, where the road ascends to the top of a ridge of more than 2000 feet, surmounting one after another the "eighteen platforms" thereof, and descends on the opposite face, along the rough bed of a mountain torrent, of the steepest and most difficult description, filled with huge boulders of granite, limestone, and conglomerate heaped one above the other. This excels even the Nankou Pass in roughness, and, as in that, the remains of a stone causeway are mingled confusedly with the débris of the overhanging cliffs, and only a few of the more solid bridges across transverse torrents yet remain in tolerable preservation.

The road soon became easier, and we passed into one of the frequented trade-routes, meeting and overtaking many large caravans. The principal cargo appeared to be wood, previously sawn into beams and planks, and carried southwards by powerful camels. The approach to Ku-pei-kou on this side is by a broad, level, and sandy river-valley, crossed by the Great Wall. The Wall here has been well described, and plans and sections given in Staunton's book quoted above.
Branches jut out in all directions, reaching to the various summits of the basin of hills, deep down in the centre of which lies the walled and fortified town of Ku-pei-kou, with a wide, sluggish river winding along close under its walls, towards the precipitous gorge by which it finds its way into the great plain of China. It is a bustling commercial mart, but chiefly famous, at least according to our notions, for its delicious fragrant honey, produced by the wild bees which swarm in the mountains surrounding the Tung-ling. On the heights to the south of Ku-pei-kou a large garrison is stationed; and here is the last line of fortification, through the massive stone gateway of which, rejoicing in the name of "the gate of the southern paradise," we had to pass.

Having forded the river, which flows by just beneath these heights, we made all speed to get over the 240 li of familiar and uninteresting country which separated us from Peking—an arable district, with many walled cities and villages. We reached one of the western gates of the celestial capital on the afternoon of the second day, both ourselves and our ponies well pleased to arrive at comfortable quarters after one month's constant travelling.

APPENDIX.

1. Itinerary of Journey.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>Li</th>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>Li</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peking (Anting Gate)</td>
<td>Ch'ing ho</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Dolonnor</td>
<td>Chao naiman soumé Hotun (Shang tu)</td>
<td>80</td>
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<td>Ch'ing ho</td>
<td>Sha ho</td>
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<td>Dolonnor</td>
<td>Ta ku shan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sha ho</td>
<td>Nan k'ou</td>
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<td>Ta ku shan</td>
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<td>Chü yung kuan</td>
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<td>Liu ku ying tsü</td>
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<td>Pa ta ying tsü</td>
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<td>Shiptartai</td>
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<td>Hsin pao an</td>
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<td>San tao ho</td>
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<td>Chi ming yi</td>
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<td>Ch'eng te fu</td>
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<td>Chang chia k'ou</td>
<td>(Kalgan)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Chang chia k'ou</td>
<td>Feng kan lu</td>
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<td>Shiptartai</td>
<td>Iehinor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Iehinor</td>
<td>Hsing ho ch'eng</td>
<td>45</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Iehinor</td>
<td>(Kara Hotun)</td>
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</table>
### 1. Itinerary of Journey—(continued.)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>From</th>
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<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>Li</th>
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### 2. Tu shih k'ou Route.

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<td>T'u mu</td>
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### 3. Direct Trade Route from Dolonnor to Ku Pei k'ou.

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Pai yang kou</td>
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[Read, February 9th, 1874.]

During the past ten years two editions of Marco Polo’s Travels have been given to the public—one by M. Pauthier, a great Chinese savant, the other by Colonel Yule, a great Oriental scholar. Both of these editions are full of the most varied

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Oriental learning and most recondite notes, reflecting the highest credit upon the industry and attainments of their respective editors, and leaving nothing, it would seem, for future critics to comment upon. There is, however, one part of the book that has not met with such accurate commentary as it deserves: I allude to that part which treats of the cities of the southern division of Mangi, passed through by our traveller on the way to his port of embarkation, Zayton, which cities have nearly all been erroneously identified. I purpose, therefore, in a few short notes to bring forward my arguments in support of what I consider the correct identification of the particular places in question, which I feel I am justified in doing from the fact of having personally gone over the greater part of this ground described by our great medieval traveller, and also from the fact of having for a long time past made the history of the localities in question my especial study.

For the cause in hand, I will take up our traveller's history at Que-lin-fu, which can, I think, without fear of contradiction, be identified with the present city of Kiennung-fu. After three days' journey from this city of Que-lin-fu (Kiennung-fu), our traveller informs us that he reached a city called Unguen, or Unken, where there is an immense quantity of sugar made. This Unguen or Unken I identify with the present city of Yung-chun-chow, locally called Eng-cheng. The distance from Kiennung-fu to Yung-chun-chow is 300 Chinese li, a space easily travelled over in three days, which agrees with the time occupied by Marco Polo in passing from Que-lin-fu to Unguen. The resemblance in sound between Eng-cheng and Unguen is also very near. Sugar is largely grown in the neighbourhood.

Fifteen miles farther from this city of Unguen, mention is made of a city, called by Ramusio in his edition of our traveller's work, Kangiu, and in almost all others, Fuju.

Fuju has been the reading accepted by most commentators, and from its great resemblance in sound to Fouchow, has been identified with that city. From the accepting of this reading as the correct one, and the ignoring of Ramusio's reading, Pauthier, in his edition of Marco Polo, has fallen into some amusing errors, altering, in one case, the course of the Fouchow River to suit his particular views, concerning which he gravely informs us that this river (the Min) does not flow by Fouchow now as it did in Marco Polo's day; while, unfortunately for his theory, a magnificent bridge, first erected long before Marco Polo's time, spanned then, as now, the river at Fouchow, connecting its northern and southern shores.

I am in favour of Ramusio's reading, and consider his Kangiu to be the correct one, and have no hesitation in identifying it
with the city of Chuan-chow-fu, locally called Choan-chin, and commonly known among Europeans as Chinchew. There is sufficient resemblance in sound between Kangiu* and Choan-chin, to justify us in considering it one and the same place; but, apart from this, I will, from internal evidence, taken from the various descriptions of the place, prove that this Kangiu, otherwise Fuju, cannot possibly have been Fouchow.

For example, in some editions mention is made of Fuju being the capital of the kingdom called Chonka. By this Chonka, Fookien appears to be meant. Now, Fouchow or Fuju was not the capital of Fookien in Marco Polo’s time, but Choan-chin was.

Further, “many vessels arrive at this port from India, freighted by merchants, who bring with them rich assortments of jewels and pearls, upon the sale of which they obtain a considerable profit.”

This statement alone destroys all claims that may be brought forward in support of Fouchow being considered the Kangiu or Fuju of Marco Polo; for ships from India did not frequent Fouchow in Marco Polo’s time, nor was there ever any foreign trade carried on there till the commencement of the 18th century.

The only ports in Fookien carrying on trade with foreign countries in Marco Polo’s day, were Choan-chin and Geh-kong, of which latter place more anon.

After five days’ journey from Kangiu, our traveller arrived at the noble and handsome city of Zaitun, which has a port on the sea-coast celebrated for the resort of shipping loaded with merchandise, which is afterwards distributed through every part of the province of Mangi.

Klaproth identifies Zaitun with Tsze-tung, an ancient name of Choan-chin.

I cannot accept this theory, feasible as it may appear.

Fortunately for us, in the edition of Marco Polo, published by the Geographical Society of Paris, there is a list given of the various readings of places as found in other editions, and among the names given to Zayton, we find Carcon, Caykong, Sarcam, and Tarcam.

These several editions of Marco Polo are not singular in giving other readings of this name Zayton.

In D’Herbelot’s ‘Bibliotheque Orientale’ we are informed that it is a maritime town of China, also called Scheikham by the Arabs, and, more curious still, Schengiu by the Chinese.

* The name in Ramusio is Cangiu, or rather Cagu. The name in the other and older forms of the work is Fugui or Fugi, which, rendered in English spelling, is Fuju. But if we write Fuji, we should also write Kangiu. So also, further on, Tingiu should, on the same system, be Tinju.—H. Y.
Friar Odoric makes mention of the place under the names of Carchan, Caiton, and Zaiton, and speaks of it as a city twice as large as Bologna.

With such readings of the place as Caykong, Carcam, Carchan, and Scheikham, I am enabled to fix with almost positive certainty the locality here indicated.

During the Middle ages, Chinese local histories inform us that there was situated near the mouth of the Changchow River, about twenty miles from the present treaty port of Amoy, a large commercial emporium trading with foreign countries, called Yuch-kiang, and in the dialect of the place Geh-kong. In this Geh-kong I recognise Marco Polo's Caykong, the Arab Scheikham, and Friar Odoric's Carchan.

I am unable to give any satisfactory solution as to the derivation of the name Zayton, which appears to have been the name by which Geh-kong was so well known among traders and travellers in the Middle Ages.

D'Herbelot also states that the Chinese called it Schengiu, which is really no other than the city of Changchow, situated about fifteen miles further up the river, of which Geh-kong, at its mouth, was the port.

Edrisi, in his 'Geography,' makes mention of Changchow under the name of Djankou, and speaks of it as a town remarkable for the beauty of its buildings and its fine markets, and of the fruitfulness of its gardens and its orchards. Mention is also made of its great silk manufactures, and that everything is as readily procured there as at Kanfu (Canton).

This account of Changchow given us by Edrisi dates back as far as the middle of the twelfth century; and, as early as the end of the ninth century, Chinese records inform us that foreign ships resorted to this neighbourhood.

It was about 1086 that the marshes in the neighbourhood of Geh-kong were first drained, and a commercial city founded there.

After the middle of the sixteenth century no mention whatever is made of Geh-kong, for at the time above named the city of Hai-teng was built upon its site, and the whole district was from that date known as Hai-teng, which name it bears to this day.

The great manufacture of this district in Marco Polo's time was silk, and Ibn Batuta is very truthful when he says, "In it they make the best flowered and coloured silks, as well as satins, which are therefore preferred to those made in other places." Local histories inform us that Changchow did for a long time excel the cities of Hangchow and Soochow in its silk manufactures, but its great speciality was a kind of embroidered velvet, and this, no doubt, is what our traveller
alluded to when, speaking of Zaitun, he said, "In it are many artificers in embroidered and arras work."

Silk manufactories still exist in the city of Changehew, but, owing to the devastations committed by the Taiping rebels there in 1864, this branch of industry is nearly stamped out. I saw, whilst visiting the city last year, a few looms still working, but I question very much whether this manufacture will ever again flourish there.

Tingiu, a place mentioned in the neighbourhood of Zayton as famous for its porcelain manufacture, next demands our attention. This Tingiu is, I consider, the city of Tung-gan, locally called Tengwa, which is situated on another river to the northward of Amoy, and lies on the high-road between Choan-chin and Changchow, and must have been passed through by Marco Polo on his way from Kangiu to Zayton. Much coarse porcelain (especially bowls) is made there, which finds its way to Singapore, Java, and other places in the Eastern Archipelago.

A few other notices of Zayton are to be met with in other mediaeval travellers, but I will satisfy myself with a short notice of Maundeville's account of it.

As many are apt to look upon the travels of the good Knight of St. Alban's with a wary eye, I wish it fully to be understood that I am not anxious to enter the list and throw down the gauntlet to those who question our worthy knight's veracity; all I ask is that he may have fair play in regard to his account of Zayton, which contains facts that are wanting in the histories of other travellers. And I am prepared to prove that, if he really did not visit China himself, he must have had access to the notes of other travellers whose histories have not come down to us.

In speaking of Zayton, which, by some error in transcription, appears under the name of Latoryn, he says: "It is a day from the sea, and much larger than Paris. That in that city is a great river bearing ships, which go to all the coasts of the sea; for no city of the world is so well stored of ships." Further: "There are also in that country beasts taught by men to go into waters, rivers, and deep ponds, to take fish; which beast is little and called Loyres, and when men cast them into the water, anon they bring up great fishes, as many as men will."

This description of Zayton being upon a river, a day's distance from the sea, is very accurate. The main features of Maundeville's description of this city are so like those given by Odorie that they appear to have been copied.

Maundeville's description of the fishing cormorant is also to be met with in Odorie, but Maundeville tells us that men call these birds (beast he has it) Loyres. This is an important
addition to Odorie's version, for this word Loyre is, I consider, Maundeville's manner of writing Lauwa, the name given to cormorants by the natives in the district where Zayton formerly stood.

Allowing for all errors of transcription, this seems to me a most interesting fact, and goes far to show that a valuable substratum of truth underlies the gross absurdities that abound throughout our worthy knight's book.

I will, in conclusion, make a few short remarks concerning Chincheo, which Colonel Yule identifies with the "old Zayton."

The learned commentator of Marco Polo is quite right in this assertion, but Chincheo represents the city of Chang-chow-foo, and not Chuan-chow-foo.

The derivation of the name Chincheo is thus given by Navarette, in his description of Chang-chow-foo: "This city, says he, is very famous in China. All the Chinese who trade with Manilla come from this district. On this account they are called Chin-cheos (and the town Chincheo and Chinchew) by the Spaniards."

Portuguese and Spaniards with whom I have conversed at Amoy, when speaking of Changehau, always called it Chincheo. In 'Kerr's Travels,' vol. vi. p. 382, we are informed—"That the Portuguese, on being driven from Liampo (Ningpo), obtained leave in 1547, by great presents, to settle in the province of Chincheo, in a village which began to flourish in consequence of a rich trade."

In the history of Changchow there are to be found scattered notices of the Portuguese resorting to this neighbourhood. Among other matters we find that, on being driven away from the Canton waters, they tried to carry on a trade in the Chang-chow prefecture, which they succeeded in doing by bribing the authorities.

The rendezvous of this trade was on the island of Wuseu, one of the six islands at the entrance of the harbour of Amoy.

In 1548, the existence of this trade coming to the ears of the viceroy of the province, orders were given to attack and drive away the Portuguese vessels anchored at Wuseu, and Chinese merchants and others who had dared to trade with them were, to the number of ninety, cruelly put to death.

It does not come within the province of this paper to accompany Marco Polo further than his port of embarkation, Zayton, but one could easily do so, and find many new and interesting coincidences in the works of mediaeval Chinese navigators, wherein are described every country mentioned by Marco Polo, from Zayton toOrmus, in the Persian Gulf, in the same order, and in almost our traveller's own words.
From this fact I am inclined to consider that Marco Polo, when dictating his book, did, in the description of these particular places in question, now and again refresh his memory from some Chinese geographical treatise; and, if such were the case, Chinese will have to be numbered among his linguistic acquirements. I would, in conclusion, be allowed to state that I consider that a careful study of the works of Chinese geographers will throw great light upon many curious passages met with in the works of medieval travellers: one example alone will be sufficient for our purpose.

It will be remembered by those acquainted with the works of travellers to the East in the Middle Ages, that the Pole-star is spoken of as being so many cubits, and, by Friar Jordanus, as so many digits high. Now, this expression is purely a Chinese one, and I have in my possession a set of Chinese maps, published, I believe, in the tenth century, in which the latitude of places in India indicated thereon is shown by the number of digits that the Pole-star appears to be above the horizon.

**Remarks on Mr. Phillips's Paper.** By Colonel Henry Yule, C.B.

As Mr. Phillips's Paper will appear in the 'Journal' of the Society, it seems desirable not to let it pass without reply, though I am afraid the reply will occupy more space than the subject may seem to deserve. Mr. Phillips is wrong in calling me an Oriental scholar; it is a character to which I have no pretension, and which I have expressly disclaimed in the preface of the book to which he refers. But, at the same time, Mr. Phillips does surely misapprehend the amount of care and labour which were expended in arriving at the conclusions expressed in that book, when he judges that they can be so lightly upset.

It may seem presumptuous to reject a correction by a gentleman who is acquainted both with Chinese language and with Chinese topography. And it may easily be imagined by those who do not care to enter into such matters as are under discussion, that as with the Abbé Vertot, my conclusions are published, and I will not have them disturbed. This would be a mistake, however, for "mon siege" is under revision for a second edition, and sundry corrections received from Mr. Ney Elias, the Baron von Richthofen, Mr. Wylie, and others, have been gratefully welcomed and adopted. I cannot, however, adopt Mr. Phillips's views except in one point. I see strong reason to believe that he is right in judging the Chinechu of the old Portuguese navigators to mean Changchau, and not Tsuanchau (or Thsuanchéon)
as the French write it). We shall recur to this point, which is worth settling; but it has nothing to do with Marco Polo, who claims our first attention.

The identifications of which Mr. Phillips treats are, in great measure, interdependent. Let us take Fuchau first.

Marco Polo’s Itinerary from Hangchau (his Kinsay) to the coast of Fokien, after crossing the frontier of that province, which he calls the kingdom of Fuju, or the kingdom of Chonka, reaches in three days the city of Kienningsfu, which he calls Quelinťu, i.e. Kelintu. “Quelinťu,” says Mr. Phillips, “can, I think, without fear of contradiction, be identified with the present city of Kienningsfu.” What Mr. Phillips should have said was, “More than two hundred years ago Padre Martini showed that Quelinťu must be Kienningsfu, and nobody has ever doubted it.”

From Kelintu Polo arrives in three days at a city which all the MSS. of the slightest value call Fugiu or Fuqiu, i.e. in English spelling Foojoo or Fuju. Ramusio’s printed text alone, of which the original has never been found, has Cangiu, or rather Cāqiu. Let us stick to Fuju for the present, and see what rational interpretation can be put on it.

The city which then was, and still is, called Fuchau has certainly the first claim, as the names are identical.* That is one point to score.

The next question is, could Marco Polo have reached Fuchau in three days from Kienningsfu?

Mr. Phillips, indeed, has no right to ask this, because he makes Marco Polo go twice as far in the three days.

If the road lies near the river, as is probable, the distance will be about 90 miles. Thirty miles, besides winding, makes a long march for Marco Polo, whose journeys, under ordinary circumstances, are somewhat short, as Baron Richthofen, after treading many hundred miles in his footsteps, has observed. But it so happens that on this particular occasion he has indicated 30 miles as the estimate of his day’s journey; for he speaks of a place that was two days and 15 miles from Kelintu, and 15 miles from Fuju. Therefore Fuchau could be reached by him in three days from Kienningsfu.

Again: In chapter lxxx.† Polo speaks of the city of Fuju as the capital of the kingdom of Fuju. In the next chapter this kingdom (or province) is called Chonka, and it is said, “Fuju is the key of the kingdom of Chonka, which is one of the nine

* The termination chau, chou, tchou, or tchéou, as it is variously written by modern Europeans, is almost invariably represented by gis in Marco Polo. Hence Fugiu is precisely Fuchau, or, as Mr. Phillips writes it, Fouchow.
great divisions of Manzi; and a large garrison is maintained there to keep the kingdom in peace and subjection. For the city is one which is apt to revolt on very slight provocation." The last is a characteristic, I believe, of Fuchau to this day. But let that pass.

Now, Mr. Phillips says, "Fouchow (Fuchau) was not the capital of the kingdom in Marco Polo's time."

I feel disposed to answer, "Anyhow, Marco Polo says it was!" But I suppose Mr. Phillips will not accept that. Let us turn to Rashiduddin, the great minister and historian of the Mongol dynasty in Persia. In his short account of the twelve provincial administrations of Cathay, the seventh is—"Fuchú (or Fújú). This is a city of Manzi. The sing (provincial administration) was formerly located at Zaitún, but afterwards established here, where it still remains. Zaitún is a great shipping port, and the commandant there is Bohá-uddín Kandári."

For Chinese authority I must go to Pauthier. In his list of the twelve sīngs under the Mongols, Fokien does not appear at all. But this is explained by what follows. Pauthier quotes from the Yuen-ssé, or official history of the Yuen or Mongol dynasty, that under them Fuchau "was the chief place of the circuit so called—viz., Fuchau-hù, established in (1278). Three years later (in 1281) the seat of the government of the province was transferred from Thsiuanchéou (T'swanchau), where it was, to Fuchau; in the next year (1282) it was removed back to T'swanchau; and in 1283 it was again recalled to Fuchau. Finally (in 1285) this government was united to that which had its seat at Hangehau, viz., Kiang-ché." The last clause accounts for its non-appearance among the twelve sīngs. Polo, no doubt, had first known the province when it was separate, and governed from Fuchau.

Thus the Yuen annals, the Persian historian, and Marco Polo, all agree in saying that Fuchau was the capital of the kingdom, and we therefore must reject Mr. Phillips's criterion.

Polo says further:—"There flows through the middle of the city a great river, which is about a mile in width, and many ships are built at the city which are launched upon this river."

Fuchau, strictly speaking, stands on the north bank of the Min, as London stands on the north bank of the Thames. But, as Mr. Phillips notices, a fine bridge connects Fuchau with its southern suburb, just as many fine bridges connect London with Southwark. Yet Polo himself when proceeding says, "When you quit Fujú and cross the river . . . . " Fortune

* 'Cathay, and the Way Thither,' p. 268.
notices the great amount of ship-building at Fuchau, for which the pine-wood floated down the river affords facilities.

Again: "Enormous quantities of sugar are made there." Padre Martini says of Fuchau, "There is made in the district belonging to this city a huge quantity of very white sugar, and it is the first city in the eastern provinces of which this can be said."

Further, Polo says of Fuju: "Many ships of India come to these parts, bringing many merchants who traffic about the isles of the Indies. For this city is, you see, in the vicinity of the ocean port of Zayton, which is greatly frequented by the ships of India with their various cargoes of merchandise; and from Zayton the vessels pass on to the city of Fuju by the river I have told you of; and 'tis in this way that the precious wares of India come hither."

Martini observes that there was access in his time for the great Chinese junks right up to the walls of Fuchau.

Mr. Phillips asserts that "ships from India did not frequent Fuchau in Marco Polo's time, nor was there ever any foreign trade carried on there till the commencement of the 18th century."

Here, again, I might say: "We have already proved that Fuju was Fuchau (i.e. that Fuchau was Fuchau!), and we must be content to put Marco Polo's evidence against Mr. Phillips's." I have, indeed, no other evidence to adduce of the foreign trade of Fuchau in the 13th century; neither, indeed, has Mr. Phillips adduced any against it. But the capacity for trade was there, in a large city, the heart of a fertile district, with a fine navigable river, and apparently Western Asiatics at the head of the provincial administration; and the negative evidence would need to be strong.* But we see at the same time that Fuju, as regards Indian trade, is only represented as subordinate to the great ocean port, Zayton. The ships came from India to Zayton, and then they, or some of them, go on to Fuju, probably to take in that sugar which got in India the still prevalent name of Chai. It is possible that Mr. Phillips is misled by the notion of "foreign trade." It is evident from Ibn Batuta that the trade with India was chiefly carried on by Chinese junks and Chinese merchants.

* Since this has been in type, I have seen, through a correspondent in China, Mr. Phillips's original papers on this subject in the "Chinese Recorder." And I gather from these that the core of the negative evidence is the absence of any appointment of a collector of customs at Fuchau in the age with which we have to do. But, according to Polo's account of the secondary part played by Fuchau, one can readily understand that all such payments might be acquitted at Zayton.
Not only in name, then, but in everything else, may Fuju and Fuchau be identified.

Now as regards Zayton.

This was 5 days' journey south-east from Fuju. Polo's bearings cannot be taken strictly, for his reckonings are always on long traverses, and his whole journey from Peking to Zayton is stated as bearing south-east.

Now, we shall first show reason why T'swanchau is Zayton.

(1.) The distance as the crow flies from Fuchau to T'swanchau is about 115 miles. Add one-third for road-distance, it will be 153 miles, giving about 30 miles a day. Martini says the distance was just about 5 days' journey. I have no actual itinerary.

(2.) Zayton, according to Polo, was under the Government of Fuju. We have seen that Fuchau was the head of the province; but as this statement about Zayton would apply to every city in Fokien, this is no argument for one or another in particular.

(3.) Zayton, it is admitted, was the great harbour and focus of Indian trade.

Now, T'swanchau was the great focus and harbour of Indian trade.

It was the habitual port of arrival of ships from Ma'bar or Coromandel (Pauthier, p. 604).

It is mentioned by Matwanlin, "the Chinese Pliny," as the port of departure for Cochin China and Java (Id. 559).

In 1370 a mission sails from T'swanchau for Borneo (Id. 653).

In 1282 envoys arrived from sundry kings of India, including one from Kulang, i.e. Colom of Polo, or Quilon (Gaubil, p. 196).

In 1286 vessels arrived at T'swanchau from more than 90 foreign states, the names of several of which that are given belong to Southern and Western India (Gaubil, 205).

In the Yuen annals the distances to the kingdoms of Southern India are estimated from T'swanchau (Pauthier, 603, 643).

In 1281 envoys sent to Quilon embarked at T'swanchau (Id. 603).

Deguignes says, I presume on sufficient Chinese authority, that Kublai's expedition against Japan started from T'swanchau. Polo says that the expedition was fitted out at Kinsay (Hangchau) and Zayton.

The expedition against Java was fitted out from T'swanchau (Gaubil, 217; Pauthier, 570). This was just after Polo's departure. But he mentions the great profits drawn from Java trade by the merchants of Zayton (ii. p. 217).

(4.) T'swanchau was the chief port of foreign commerce in Fokien.
In Pauthier's treasury of valuable quotations, again, we find Kublai issuing customs regulations in 1293, in which are named, as the seven ports of foreign commerce—T'swan-chau, Shanghai, Kan'pu (in Hangchau River estuary), Wenchau, Canton, Hangchau, and Khing-yuen (i.e. Ningpo).

Can anyone who has read of Zayton believe that it would be omitted from such a list? But if T'swan-chau be not Zayton, then Zayton is omitted.

(5.) It was T'swan-chau, as we have seen above from the Yuen annals, that had alternated with Fuchau as the seat of provincial government.

It was Zayton, as we have seen from Rashid, that alternated with Fuchau as the seat of provincial government.

(6.) Abulfeda says that the Chinese name of Zayton was Shanju. This I take to represent T'swan-chau, but, as it might also represent Changchau, I will not lay stress on it.

(7.) The origin of the name of Zayton or Zaitun, from an old name of T'swan-chau, Ts^e't'un or Ts'eu-f'un, which Klapperth quotes from the 'Imperial Geography,' is at least fairly probable.

We may more briefly show reason why neither Changchau nor Geh-kong is Zayton:—

(1.) Because these towns are a great deal more than 5 days' journey from Fuchau, which we have shown to be Fuji.

(2.) Because neither of these towns was ever in the time of the Mongols chief city of the province of Fokien.

(3.) Because neither of these towns is mentioned among the seven great ports of foreign trade in Kublai's customs regulations of 1293.

(4.) Because neither of them is mentioned as a port of trade with India, or otherwise, in the numerous translated passages from the Mongol annals given by Pauthier; nor in Gaubil's 'History of the Dynasty;' nor in Rashiduddin's account of Cathay, so far as it is translated or published.

And T'swan-chau being Zayton it cannot be Fuji, or Cagiu as Ramusio has it. If Cagiu were the right reading, still Cagiu is not particularly suggestive of T'swan-chau. The probability is that Cagiu is a mere clerical error for Fujiu. Even in Ramusio the city is called Fujiu in a previous chapter.

I cannot admit, then, that Mr. Phillips has had any solid justification for his endeavour to disturb the identifications of Fuji and Zayton hitherto accepted. He has jumped to his own conclusions over several of the most essential facts: for all these passages that I have quoted were open to him, but he has taken no notice of them.*

* I find that Mr. Phillips has quoted several of these passages in the 'Chinese Recorder;' but they do not seem to have made their just impression on him.
There exists a stronger argument than any that Mr. Phillips has produced, for Zayton being Changchau; though it loses all real force after the grounds for identifying Zayton with Tswanchau have been fully stated. This is the circumstance that the Jesuit missionaries of the seventeenth century found at Changchau a variety of Christian sculptures, such as images of the Virgin and marble crosses, and also a medieval Latin Bible. This is remarkable, because Zayton, some years after Marco Polo had left China, became the seat of a Catholic bishopric and of several Franciscan convents. Indeed, the worthy Padre Martini, who tells us about the Christian relics found at Changchau, is evidently perplexed between its claims and those of Tswanchau to represent Zayton, and appears to give a somewhat impossible verdict in favour of both cities!

Mr. Phillips does not seem to have realized what is meant by the existence of various readings of names in the medieval authors to whom he refers, such (e.g.) as Cayton, Carcam, Sarcam, Tarcam, for "Zayton." He cannot surely think that the travellers put down all these forms to accommodate their readers in after generations with a choice, and that he, as a reader, may adopt any one of them that suits his fancy without reference to the evidence for the correct reading, or that he may adopt now one and now another? But yet he acts as if he thought so. It is as if we found in five various copies of a medieval Italian manuscript that the great city and port of England was called Lundun, Loudon, Lordor, Toudou, Dundu; and an Italian who had been in England should say, "People fancy Lundun means London; but this is very inaccurate. I have been over the ground, and I am in favour of the reading Dundu. This Dundu I identify with Dundee."

Now there is no more real doubt about Zayton (or Caiton) being the correct form, than there would be in the imagined case about Lundun or London being the correct reading. And I will add, that I at least do not feel more real doubt that Zayton, the great Indian port of the Yuen, was Tswanchau, than there would be doubt in the imagined case that the great city intended by the Italian's various readings was London.

I admit that the aspect of the magnificent estuary now called Amoy Harbour, answers better to the strong language of medieval travellers regarding Zayton—e.g. of Ibn Batuta, when he calls it the greatest harbour in the world—than anything we know of the harbour of Tswanchau in these days. But this will not stand in the face of positive proof such as has been adduced on the other side. All the rivers of that coast, as I learn

* And Mr. Phillips has referred also to this matter in the 'Chinese Recorder.'
from a valuable letter just received,* are rapidly silting up; and probably the deterioration of T'swanchau began long ago, and sent the foreign trade to T'sangchau, as the deterioration of Changchau has sent it down to Amoy. Yet even in the seventeenth century, testa Martinio, the largest ships (junks no doubt) could anchor beneath the walls of T'swanchau.

Mr. Phillips is hasty, again, when he attributes value to Sir John Maundeville’s chapters about Cathay, and says “he is prepared to prove that, if Sir John really did not visit China himself, he must have had access to the notes of other travellers whose histories have not come down to us.” I went into this matter some years ago very carefully, and the conclusion come to was expressed in these words: “The substance of his travels to the Indies and Cathay is entirely stolen from Odoric, though largely amplified with fables from Pliny and other ancients, as well as from his own imagination, and garnished with his own wonderfully clear astronomical notions.”† The account of the fishing cormorants under the disguise of beasts is taken from one version of Odoric’s ‘Travels,’ corrupted probably by the conceit of the scribe who did not believe about the birds. This may be seen in ‘Cathay,’ p. 112, note. The scribe there converts the cormorant into a sea-calf or seal. Maundeville has taken another view. The little beast called Loyre, is meant for the beast modern French calls Loutre, i.e. an otter. A reference to Littre’s great Dictionary will show that in Provencal the word took the forms Luria, Loiria, so that probably Loyres is not even a clerical error for Loutres, as it might be. So we must acquit Sir John of knowing the Fokien dialect.‡

I will conclude with a few words about the application of the name Chincheo. In our maps and sea charts, Chincheo, or Chinchew, is applied to T'swanchau; and I never doubted, till I read Mr. Phillips’s paper, that the Chincheo of the old Portuguese writers was the same. But his remarks have induced me to turn to such references as are accessible to me; and though these are not enough for the thorough understanding of the matter, I am happy to be able to say that, so far as they go, they entirely corroborate Mr. Phillips’s statement that Chincheo really meant Changchau.

Thus in Astley’s ‘Voyages,’ vol. iv., plate 10, is ‘A Chart of

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* From the Rev. Carstairs Douglas, l.l.d., of Amoy, who himself favours Mr. Phillips’s view.
† ‘Cathay,’ &c., p. 27.
‡ I may add, that I have seen “the little beasts called Loyres” employed by fishermen in the Ganges Delta. Bishop Heber describes the same, vol. i. p. 81, edition of 1844.
the Bay of Chinchew or Changchew, in China, from Montanus. This is, in fact, a chart of Amoy Harbour. The river, entering the harbour on the western side, i.e. the Chang River, coming from Changchau, is marked 'R. Chinchew;' and an eminence at the south-west point of the bay, called in the modern Admiralty chart Chinha Point, is marked 'Chinchew Hill.' T'swanchau does not come within the chart; the editors of Astley call it Suenchew and Tsuenchew.

In the 'Arcano del Mare,' by Sir Robert Dudley (by creation of the Emperor, "Duke of Northumberland"), published at Florence in 1647, there is a chart of the Chinese coast, in which also Chineho occupies the position of Changchau. There is no place on this chart that I can certainly identify as intended for T'swanchau; but a place marked Suadechijo, on the north side of Amoy Harbour, is, I fancy, intended for it. The text of this work (vol. i. book ii. p. 43) says: "At the most easterly cape of the Gulf of Canton, in lat. 22° 40', you should keep 5 leagues to sea, towards the south-east, to avoid certain little islands and rocks on the coast; and then running north-east by east (seguendo il vento Greco verso levante) you will find the harbour and beautiful city of Chineho, in China, in lat. 24° 15'. This is a place of trade, and a charming place; there is especially a great trade with the city and port of Manilla." This must, I think, be Changchau, the latitude of which is about 24° 28'; whilst that of T'swanchau is close upon 25°.

In Linschoten's 'Grand Routier de Mer,' also, I have tried to follow his sailing directions (chap. xxx.) from the Canton River to Liampo (i.e. Ningpo), and though this is not an easy matter, I am satisfied that his Havre de Chinchon (as it is printed) is Changchau, or rather Amoy, Harbour. Also in the rude 'Map of the Sea Coast of China,' &c., in the book of Captain Alexander Hamilton, Chineho manifestly represents Changchau.

It is a curious question, then, how Chineho came to be applied by our navigators to T'swanchau; or, if (as is possible) that was the original application, how it came to be transferred to Changchau; and I suppose the examination of a series of charts of the last two centuries might throw light upon it, but I have no access to such a thing where this is written. Perhaps Admiral Collinson, who has mapped the approach to Chwanechau as Chineho, will try to solve the question.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Phillips has not given us some

* In Dudley's map, the latitude is much further from the truth. I have attached to these notes a rough reduction of Dudley's chart placed alongside of a modern outline of the coast.
translation from those medieval works of Chinese navigators to which he refers in the latter part of his paper.

H. Yule.

Note.—After this was in proof, I received from Dr. C. Douglas further notes, ably supporting the substance of Mr. Phillips’s views; and which have modified mine, not about Fuchau, but about Zayton, so far that I admit the likelihood that Amoy Harbour may have been embraced by the terms Port of Zayton or Port of Tsowancheau, though the Zayton city of Polo I must continue to regard as Tsowancheau.

Palermo, February 22, 1874.


The rival claims of Chang-chau and T’swan-chau to represent Zayton, supply a good example of a question where much can be said on each side, and where, indeed, on each side there are some points very difficult to explain away. To me the balance seems decidedly in favour of Chang-chau, or rather of Chang-chau city, along with some port or ports near Haiteng or Chioh-bey. But this solution is not complete without the additional position, that from a very early date the cities of Chang-chau and T’swan-chau had been confused by merchants and travellers. It is now established beyond question that the Portuguese “Chin-cheo” is not T’swan-chau but Chang-chau; though, in recent times, the name “Chin-chau” or “Chin-chew” has become the regular foreign name of T’swan-chau, Chwan-chau, or T’sieuen-chau. Now, as this confusion has unquestionably prevailed for several centuries, may not a similar cause have produced a similar confusion in the time of Zayton’s glory? It might thus well happen that authorities which seem to be on the side of T’swan-chau, are really for Chang-chau. In a similar way it is not at all improbable that, after the lapse of centuries, the first edition of Colonel Yule’s “Marco Polo” may be quoted as proving that Zayton is Chang-chau; for he identifies Zayton with the Portuguese “Chin-cheo,” which is unquestionably Chang-chau, as nearly as possible.—Q. E. D. Also the view which Colonel Yule gives of the harbour of Zayton is really a view of the mouth of the Chang-chau River. Doubtless Captain

* N.B.—It ought to be said that Dr. Douglas gave no authority to print these notes; but I feel confident that he will not object to my doing so, and they ought to be printed in this volume, because they do more justice to Mr. Phillips’s thesis, perhaps, than his own paper does. What further I have to say on the subject will be said in the second edition of “Marco Polo,” about to issue; it is undesirable to prolong the discussion here.—H. Y.
(now, I think, Admiral) Stoddart had been misled by the usual confusion between Chin-chew and Chin-cheo.*

But there are two other powerful causes tending to produce the confusion, namely: (1) The islands of Amoy and Quemoy belong to T'swan-chau; and (2) The harbour of Amoy, &c., serves to a large extent as the harbour of T'swan-chau.

The islands of Amoy and Quemoy, which lie at the mouth of the Chang-chau River, belong, and always have belonged, to T'swan-chau. Indeed, Aw-su-kio, on the north shore of the Chang-chau River, just opposite Hai-teng and Chioh-bey, belongs, and has always belonged, to T'swan-chau.

The channels, creeks, and bays, about the islands of Amoy and Quemoy (forming, as a whole, one of the best harbours in the world) are used, and must always have been used, as a harbour for T'swan-chau as well as for Chang-chau. At present a great part of the trade of T'swan-chau is carried on through Amoy, partly by junks touching here on the way, or transhipping their freight into smaller junks, partly by the shorter seapassage to An-hai, which was in ancient time an important city, and which still has a magnificent bridge a mile and a quarter long. It is true that the town of Amoy does not appear to have been famous in ancient times; but the harbour must always have been the same: and, on the other hand, the harbour of Chin-chew must always have been inferior, because the channels at the mouth are narrow and rocky. At an earlier date Chang-chau itself, with all the neighbouring country, belonged to the Department (Chau) of T'swan-chau. At that time Chang-chau was not the chief city of a Chau or Department, but was merely a Hien or District, named Lioung-khe. It is, therefore, quite probable that even after Chang-chau became the chief city of a Department, the management of trade on the sea-board may have remained with the T'swan-chau authorities. It is quite common in China to have such overlapping of the boundaries, e.g. of the civil and military officials, or of the civil government and the customs' service.

Such considerations seem very much to weaken the argument for identifying Zayton with T'swan-chau, because T'swan-chau is always spoken of as the great foreign port of Fuhkien. My

* This is a fair hit: for Dr. Douglas is, I find, quite right as to the fact; but there was no error on the part of Admiral Stoddart, who has now been consulted. Some of Admiral Stoddart's sketches were made use of by Fisher, Son, and Co., in their 'China Illustrated,' published some 30 years ago. One of these was a view from the island at the mouth of Changchau River (vol. iv. p. 43). But Fisher's editor converted this into 'Entrance to the Chinchew River,' and, to bar all doubt, identified that, in his text, with the river of 'Tseuen-tcheou-foo.' And I adopted this for 'Marco Polo,' trusting to the name of the sketcher on the plate for its genuine character.—H. Y.
explanation would be that the "Ocean port of Zayton" was so intimately related to T'swan-chau, that the two were spoken of as one.

In the same manner, expeditions really starting from Amoy harbour might most properly be said to go from T'swan-chau, as Amoy itself is in the Department of T'swan-chau, and such a phrase as "T'swan-chau," in Chinese, bears equally the meanings of the chief city or any part of the Department governed by it. Thus, by the existing Treaty, the ports of Chau-chau-foo, Teng-chau-foo and Tai-wan-foo are opened to trade, while the actual ports for the first two are Swatow and Chefoo; and Tai-wan again covers not only its own roadstead, but also the subsidiary ports of Ta-kao, Tam-suy, and Ke-lung. Still more analogous is the case of New-chwang. That city lies some twenty miles up the Liao River, while the very name of New-chwang is regularly applied by foreigners to the port of Ying-tse, at the mouth of the river, where foreign trade is carried on.

As regards the expeditions from Zayton, cited as from T'swan-chau, it seems to me very improbable that, with such a magnificent haven as Amoy close at hand, the authorities of the province would have collected vast armaments in the inconvenient harbour of T'swan-chau. I suppose that an expedition which sailed from the Mutlah might well enough be said to be sent from Calcutta.

The close relation which Marco Polo indicates between "Fuju" and the "Ocean port of Zayton," thus suits admirably for T'swan-chau and some port in the neighbourhood of Amoy. But the distance between Fuh-chau and T'swan-chau, with other circumstances about the nature of the harbours and the intervening coast, make such a relation very unsuitable and unlikely between them.

Marco Polo seems to distinguish clearly between the city of Zayton and the haven or ocean port of Zayton. The total absence of all notice of foreign trade at Fuh-chau, in the Mongol period, seems to destroy the possibility of its being the "Fuju" of Marco Polo. Its omission in the lists of foreign trading-ports in Colonel Yule's criticism on Mr. Phillips's paper, seems incompatible with Marco Polo's glowing description of its foreign trade. For though T'swan-chau and a port near Amoy might very well be counted as one, such an explanation cannot serve for two ports so far separate as Fuh-chau and T'swan-chau.

Again, the statement that Fuju is the capital and the key of the kingdom or province of Fuh-kien, will not suit for Fuh-chau; for the very authorities quoted by Colonel Yule prove that, during the time Marco Polo was in China, Fuh-chau was the capital only for three years, while T'swan-chau had been the
capital from time immemorial, and in the latter part of the time neither was the capital. It is a mere "petitio principii" to say "Marco Polo says it was;" for the very question at issue is, what city does he designate by Fuju? The name is, doubtless, a very strong argument on the other side; but it is not safe to depend on that—e.g. Ma’abar and Malabar, or the two Babylons. Possibly Marco may have confused the names of the two cities, or T’swan-chau may have sometimes been named "Fuh;" for it is common in China to speak of the capital of a province, and the province was then, as now, named Fuh-kien. There is also one part of the description of Fuju which does not suit Fuh-chau. The river does not flow through the middle of that city, and in all probability never did. The River Min is now about three miles from the city, and the noble bridge proves that it was always there in the same channel, since the Sung dynasty at least. There is, indeed, a large suburb, but it is on the north side of the river, connected with the city by a straggling street; there is scarcely anything on the south side except the foreign houses and hongs, and their appendages. But the description of the river flowing through the city applies to T’swan-chau even now. The river flows within a few hundred yards of the walls, and the intermediate space is occupied by a dense suburb, running about a mile and a half along the banks; and even now there is a very considerable suburb on the south side. When the city was the capital of the province, this suburb, doubtless, was much larger, and the description would be extremely accurate.

I need not dwell on the Christian remains, admitted on all hands to be a strong argument for Chang-chau. But I may remark, that though I have been scores of times at T’swan-chau, I never heard of the slightest trace or tradition of Christianity: nor even now are there any Roman Catholics within forty miles of T’swan-chau.*

The statement of Rashiduddin, that Zayton alternated with Fuh-chau as the capital of the province, seems at first sight to fix T’swan-chau as Zayton: but he may, like other people, have confused the Chang-chau and T’swan-chau. And, certainly, his information about Zayton was extremely inaccurate, as he places it at the end of the Great Canal. (Yule’s 'Marco Polo,' ii. 137.) So that his testimony is not very formidable.

But to return to Chang-chau; the notice of Ibn Batuta’s journey from Zayton to Canton and back, both times by the river, is sufficient of itself to settle the question: for that is a common route between Chang-chau and Canton, all by river.

* Martini’s Atlas shows Roman Catholic churches in and near T’swan-chau-Fu, none in Changchau-Fu (circa 1650).—H. Y.
with the exception of some short portages. But no one could possibly go by river to or from T'swan-chau, for there is no river communication. Again, when Ibn Batuta goes on from Zayton towards Hang-chau, he still travels by the river, a most natural thing if Zayton be Chang-chau, as the North River gives an excellent route (with but short portages) to the centre of the province, en route for Hang-chau, with a choice of roads afterwards. This will suit whatever “Kan-ján-fu,” or “Fan-jan-fu” may be: whether it be Fuh-chau, or Kien-ning-foo, or some place in Kiangsi, the North River would equally give a good route from Chang-chau. But no one going from T'swan-chau to Hang-chau could travel by river, whatever route he might take.

The Arabic expression of the Chinese name of Zayton, namely Shan-ju, or Shangsiou, or Shengiu, is a very strong argument for Chang-chau. For, both in Mandarin and in the local vernacular, the name of T'swan-chau begins with TS; the spelling with Ch is an English blunder; the sound of TS is unmistakable, and that is a sound quite familiar to Arabs and easily expressed by their alphabet: on the other hand, the Ch of Chang-chau (exactly the same as the English Ch) would perplex them, and be naturally expressed by Sh. We have, therefore, the distinct contemporaneous statement that Zayton is Chang-chau. The silk-manufacture of Chang-chau is also a strong argument. Just as Zayton gave the name to Satin, so at present there is a sort of silk-stuff named from Chang-chau.

The derivation of the name Zayton is very uncertain. The idea of its derivation from “Tsen-thung” is a pure myth. T'swan-chau was never named “Tseu-thung,” any more than Calcutta is named “Palaces,” or New York named “Empire.” It was, indeed, designated “Thung-ching” or “Tseu-thung-ching,” but never without “ching,” i.e. “city,” that is, “the city of thung trees,” but that, not as a name used in speaking of it, but as an elegant designation in polite literary composition; just as Chang-chau is the “City of Banians” and Canton the “City of Rams.” I cannot speak with quite so much confidence about the hypothesis that “The City of Olives” is a translation of “Thung-ching;” but this also is very improbable, for the “Tseu-thung” or “prickly Thung,” which the Chinese say was planted round the walls, is not the species of Thung from which oil is made.

If Zaitun be a translation, it is a strong argument for Chang-chau: for there is a tree which abounds in the mountains of Chang-chau, a sort of Canarium, called by the Chinese “Kam-lam,” the fruit of which is so like an olive that foreigners all call it the “olive.” The Chinese eat it pickled as a condiment, much like olives. At present this tree is found in great abundance among the mountains, and but rarely near the river;
but there are proofs, in the names of places, that it was formerly abundant where it is now less common; and even now the stalls in the streets of every town and village, and at every wayside rest, are full of these pickled “olives.” What more likely than that, as we now call this Canarium the “olive,” the Arabs had done the same, and called it the “City of Olives”? But in T’swan-chau, even in the mountains, the tree is not found.

If it be, on the other hand, an imitation of the sound of a name, perhaps Hai-teng is the most likely. It was not indeed till the Mong dynasty that the district (Hien) of that name was erected out of parts of three old districts; but the name might well have been in use long before the district was removed from it. But all these suggestions about the name Zayton are made as simple conjectures. That from the Canarium seems the most likely.

In Marco Polo’s description of “Fuju,” the ship-building suits about equally for either. The tendency to sudden disturbances or commotions cannot be used as the differentia of either city. The sugar suits better for T’swan-chau than Fuh-chau.

The more I consider the very strong language about the extraordinary excellence of the haven and harbour, the more it appears that T’swan-chau does not suit; for it would be a sad case for the commerce of the world if there were not abundance of harbours incomparably better than T’swan-chau can ever have been; while really few can be found to equal the noble estuary which forms the outer harbour of Amoy, where the whole navies of several kingdoms might anchor in safety.

I trust that I have shown sufficient reason, if not to substantiate the claims of Chang-chau and its ports, at least to support Martini in his double verdict for both; yet with the balance in favour of Chang-chau.

There is abundant evidence to prove that Chang-chau rose to great importance in and near the Mongol period. Formerly the city now named Chang-chew was named Liong-khe (Mandarin “Lung-ki,”) the “Dragon River,” while the name of Chang-chau belonged to the city of Chang-poo, which was then the capital of the Chau or Department. Originally Liong-khe belonged to the department of Tswan-chau; but in 731 Liong-khe was transferred from Tswan-chau to Chang-chau, i.e. placed under Chang-poo. About 790 the name of the city was changed from Liong-khe to Chang-chau, as it was then made the capital of the Department. I should hardly say changed, for Liong-khe is still the name of the city when viewed as a hien or district. Again in 1296 it was raised to be the capital of a loo,—a word sometimes used to mean a subdivision of a province, containing several Chau departments, somewhat like the “circuit” now governed by a Tau-tai; but
the word Loo sometimes seems to have a higher rank, almost like a province. A few years later we find officials at Chang-chau almost of the rank of the provincial authorities; for at the time of the downfall of the dynasty it was the residence of a Commander-in-Chief (Yuen-shwae). It is not, therefore, at all strange if a writer at a distance might have spoken of Chang-chau, under the name of Zayton, as the capital of a province.

About 1325 the region was so prosperous that a new district, Nan-tsing, was erected on the west of Chang-chau; and under the Ming dynasty the new district of Hai-teng was erected.

Chang-chau is now the seat of a Tau-tai, who governs about a quarter of the province. T'swan-chau is the seat of the General (Ti-tuh) who commands all the Chinese land-forces of the province. The city walls have a circuit of seven or eight miles, but a great deal of the interior is vacant ground. The mission of the English Presbyterian Church has had a chapel in the city for about ten years.

The city of T'swan-chau, when spoken of as a Hien district is called Chin-kang, which may perhaps be the original of Marco Polo's Chon-ka (for the syllable Chin is, in Cantonese, pronounced Tsun), and is probably the cause of the name Chin-chew, as used by foreigners. On the other hand, the people of T'swan-chau call Chang-chau "Cheng-chau," which would help to create the confusion of the names of the two cities.

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[Read, February 23rd, 1874.]

I will first describe the route between al-Hudaidah and Sana'a, the immediate object of my tour, and will then dwell at somewhat greater length on the tract of country travelled over on the return journey from Sana'a to al-Hudaidah by way of Kaukabán, Tawilah, and the valley of the River Sardūd.

Starting from al-Hudaidah, we followed the usual caravan-route across the Tihāmah, passing the villages of Marawah and Kuttāy, and halting at Bājil at the foot of the hills. The Tihāmah, or plain between al-Hudaidah and the hilly country, is about 30 miles in breadth: it is sandy, and slopes gradually toward the sea. The first half adjoining the coast is desert; the well-water is brackish, and the rainfall is scanty. The other half, however, from its vicinity to the mountains, participates in the frequent showers which fall on them throughout the year, and especially during the heavy summer rains. Hence cotton,
Map of Part of Yemen (from Niebuhr) to accompany the Paper by Dr. C. Millington.
dhurrah, and millet are extensively cultivated, as well as indigo, sălab (a plant from the fibres of which are made the bags in which coffee is packed), and other useful plants in various parts of this portion of the plain. Date-trees abound in the neighbourhood of Zabid. As a natural consequence, numerous villages are scattered all over the plain, and the markets, which are held on fixed days at the various hamlets, afford every facility for disposing of the produce of the land.

Bajil, situated as it is at the entrance of the valley which is the highway to Sana'a, is a village of some importance, and is garrisoned by Turkish soldiers. Leaving Bajil, one proceeds in an easterly direction to the village of Buhay, in a valley at the foot of Jabal-Thamur, and soon after enters the Wadi-Saham, bounded by Jabal-Buriah on one side and by the Haraz mountains on the other. At Ubbal the road takes a south-easterly direction, and, leaving Jabal Buriah, skirts the base of the Haraz mountains, along the left bank of the River Saham as far as the village and military station of Safur. Crossing the stream at this spot, one leaves it to enter a narrow gorge several miles in length, in which are the caravan-stations of Baitu-sh-Shaikh and Saham. At length one leaves the gorges of the Jabal-Haraz and comes to open country at Mifhak, formerly an Arab shaikh's stronghold, but since 1871 a Turkish fortress. The castle is on a basaltic rock, 200 feet in height. Another route, shorter by six hours, is sometimes followed from Bajil to Mifhak; it branches off at the village of Buhay, and, after many ascents and descents, leads to the large village and military station of Munakhah, in the Haraz district—Mifhak being distant 18 miles from it. The road along the Wadi-Saham is preferred by most travellers, as being less mountainous. Camels laden with merchandise invariably take the Wadi route; on arriving at Safur, the camels of the Tihamah are exchanged for those of the Jabal, as the former, from their unwieldy proportions, are very liable to fall and sustain irreparable injury in the hilly country. The mountain camels are very different in appearance, and are light and surefooted. It is the same with the donkeys of the Tihamah and those of the Jabal.

From Bajil to Mifhak, which must be about 2000 feet above the level of the sea, one rises higher and higher, but almost imperceptibly. At Saham and Mifhak the temperature was most agreeable, the nights cool, and the mountain air bracing. The country is everywhere green, well wooded in some parts, the hill-sides covered with shrubs, and the mountains, even the highest, are clothed with coffee-trees, Kat, and cornfields. Acacia-trees of various species, tamarisk, tamarind, and many other trees, new to us, adorn the valleys. There are numerous
species of euphorbiaceae and asclepias. A remarkable tree is the Oleander obesum, growing on the rocky hill-sides; its trunk is like a huge pear or turnip, from which issue branches as thick as a finger. The natives call it Adânn [which means a dwarfish plant], and ascribe poisonous properties to it. The flowers are smaller than the common oleander, of a rose colour, and possess a fragrant smell. In the Wâdi-Sâham we saw a few screw-pines, Pandanus odoratissimus. The flowers are much prized by the Arabs, and they are in the habit of wearing them in the folds of their turbans, along with jessamine and other flowers.

A tree, called Thalûj, a species of Ficus, has large leathery leaves, and of all trees affords the most grateful shade. Between Sâham and Mîfhâk there is an enormous Thalûj tree, many hundred years old. On the road between these two villages there is a small coffee-plantation; they are the only coffee-trees that one sees between al-Hudaidah and Sana'a. Game, such as guinea-hens and red partridges, abound in the wooden ravines; bustards are rare. The red partridge, called Kabj, resembles the European red-legged partridge; it is, however, much larger, and the plumage is different. It is widely distributed throughout Yemen and the Hijâz. Gazelles and antelopes are scarce. As regards beasts of prey, such as leopards, hyenas, &c., we fancy that they have long since been exterminated; the country is everywhere cultivated, there are no forests, and man inhabits the most inaccessible mountains. Monkeys, the species of Pithicus found throughout Arabia, from al-Medinah to Aden, we saw and heard at times in the Harâz mountains. Lizards, especially one of a dark-blue colour, often attracted our attention, but we never chanced to see a snake.

Leaving Mîfhâk one ascends a steep mountain, well cultivated with cereals, and after passing several villages one reaches the summit of the pass, about 6000 feet above the sea. A northerly wind was blowing and it was bitterly cold, and we much envied the sheep-skin coats which the peasants, whom we met, were wearing. Descending to Bua'ân we crossed over a bridge, a stream flowing westward—according to Niebuhr, a tributary of the Sâham. We now travelled over level ground, halting at the village of Mîthna, and, after a ride of 10 miles, descended about 1000 feet into the plain or valley of Sana'a. The country between Mîfhâk and Sana'a affords a contrast quite as striking as the Tihâmah to the wooded valleys between Bâjil and Mîfhâk. One sees nothing but bleak mountains, treeless plains, and black volcanic stones and scoriae. The air is quite chilly at night, and the sun's heat by day is moderate. Cruttenden estimates the height of this plateau at 5000 feet. The land, however desolate the scenery may be, is well cultivated
with wheat, barley, beans, clover, and mustard—the oil expressed from the seeds of the latter being used for lighting purposes. On the sandstone and basaltic hills which border the plain are several villages: the houses, two and three storeys high, in the form of square towers, are built of hewn stone.

Sana'â lies in a valley at the foot of Jâbal-Najûm, and is bounded on the west by a range of sandstone hills, known as the Jumlân and 'Usûr mountains. The soil consists of sand and pebbles, with volcanic stones containing iron. The plain at Sana'â is about three miles in width, but toward the north it widens, while toward the south it rapidly contracts. A small stream runs northwards, but is entirely used up in watering the various orchards. Sana'â is a walled town, about two hours in circuit: it is divided into the Jewish quarter at the west end, Biru-l'-Adzb, and the city proper, with the citadel, at the east end. There are many handsome houses, but many quarters of the town are in ruins, and the population at the present time, including the Turkish garrison of 1000 men, is scarcely over 20,000.

Jâbal-Najûm consists of sandstone rocks, through which masses of basalt have been upheaved: in some parts they form large polygonal columns. Iron pyrites, and black stones containing iron, are very abundant. Many fine agates are found in the rocks. Gypsum, alabaster, and marble are found in the neighbouring hills. The salt used at Sana'â and the uplands of Yemen is rock-salt, which is brought chiefly from Mârib, in the Jauf country. This latter district also furnishes horses.

During three of the four days that we spent at Sana'â it rained incessantly, the temperature falling to 59° Fahr. Generally speaking, the climate of Sana'â is subject to great variations, cold nights succeeding upon hot days. Water freezes not unfrequently in winter, and the natives are obliged to use furs and sheepskins. The Turkish medical men who have resided some time at Sana'â, all agree in considering its climate as very trying, and positively unhealthy.

Sana'â has been so well described by Niebuhr, Cruttenden, Hulton, Seetzen, and other travellers, that it is superfluous to enter into details concerning it, and the more so, as with the exception of the presence of Turkish troops, I believe Sana'â is very much what it was a century ago; if anything, the town has fallen off, and the population has dwindled down considerably.

The distance from al-Hudaidah to Sana'â is about 130 miles.

Until the Turkish troops occupy the Jauf and Najrân, travelling in those districts will be fraught with danger (witness Arnaud and Halwy's journeys); hence the ordinary traveller
must forego the pleasure of exploring regions so interesting from the numerous Himyaratite remains that they contain.

Leaving Sana‘a, we determined to return to Hudaidah by way of Kaukbān, Tawilah, Jābal, Hálash, and Bājil.

We first visited Raudhah, 5 miles to the north of Sana‘a. Here are the summer-houses of the wealthier Sanāwis; going across the plain in a westerly direction, we saw in the distance the village of Jadr, and passing near other villages we reached the hills and entered the gorge of Wādi-Thaur, in which is a walled town of the same name. Al-Wādi is a narrow winding gorge, shut in by hills of sandstone of a reddish hue; its length must be about 10 miles. A considerable stream which has its source in Jābal-Hāthūr, also called Jābal Nābi-Shāib, flows north-eastwards towards the plain, watering several miles of orchards. The Wādi-Thaur supplies Sana‘a with fruit, such as grapes, figs, walnuts, peaches, plums, apricots, pears, apples, lemons, oranges, mulberries, and quinces. There are a few date-trees, but the dates do not ripen. Najrān sends dates to Sana‘a. The natives are very proud of Wādi-Thaur, and liken it to Damascus; it certainly is a fertile and beautiful valley with abundance of water.

From al-Wādi we rode to Shibām. Ascending the hills which border the valley on the west, we travelled for several hours over a stony plateau, cultivated partially with cereals. From the most elevated part of the table-land we had a good view looking west of a long range of cliffs running from north to south, and we could faintly discern on one cliff the town of Kaukbān. To the south was Jābal Nābi-Shāib, one of the highest mountains in Yemen (snow falling on it at times in winter. Descending we reached the plain, and at length the walled town of Shibām at the foot of the cliffs on which is Kaukbān. To the north, on the heights of the sandstone range, is the fortress and village of Thāllah, and beyond it, on the plain, the village of 'Amrān. The plain of Shibām is very fertile, cereals, clover, beans, and mustard being the chief products. There are a few willow-trees and fruit-trees near a spring outside the town. On the face of the cliff are numerous grottoes hewn in the rock; we also noticed many in the Wādi-Thaur.

Some are inhabited, others being used for storing hay or as stables. It is impossible to say at what period these chambers were constructed, but it is probable that they date from the earliest times.

A causeway bordered with rose-bushes, ferns, nightshades, &c., leads up to the summit of the cliff, 800 feet above Shibām. Beasts of burden ascend and descend with the greatest facility, so well has the road been made. It reminded us of the Arab
causeway leading to the peak of Jábal-Shamsân, at Aden. Once at the top, one soon reaches the walls of Kaukabán. This famous Arab stronghold, which surrendered to the Turks in 1872, after a siege of seven months, is built on the edge of a sandstone plateau called Jábal-Dhála’. On two sides of the town are yawning precipices; at the bottom of one is Shibám, and of the other a ravine, called Wádi-Náā, the third side of the triangle being formed by the table-land, the only vulnerable side. The view from the heights of Kaukabán comprises the plain of Shibám, a portion of the plain of Sana‘á, Jábal-Najúm and in clear weather the minarets of Sana‘á, distant 18 miles in a direct line; besides a wide table-land, the heights of Gumlañ and Jábal Nábi-Sháib. Towards the south, far below, are the Harâz and several other mountains. Looking west one sees nothing but a stony table, and to the north are Jábal-Mithnary, Thallah, and ‘Amrán. The water supply of Kaukabán is inexhaustible, from the extensive reservoirs that have been hewn in the rock; rain falls very frequently. The temperature is at times very low; during our stay the thermometer showed in the middle of May only 50° Fahr. before sunrise; during the day it rose to 68°. The table-land of Dhála’ must be about 6000 feet above the sea. The Turkish troops suffered much from the cold and from the frequent rains. Kaukabán is garrisoned by about 200 Turkish troops; the walls, gates, and many of the houses show that the bombardment was well sustained; the fire seems to have been principally directed on the palatial residences of the Imâms of Sana‘á. About a quarter of a mile from the town, on ground commanding it, one sees the trenches and parallels of the Turks; 700 Turks who perished during the siege lie in an adjoining field. The cemetery of the town is without the walls, the graves are marked with upright tombstones, but without epitaphs; the same fact struck us at the cemeteries of Sana‘á and Wádi-Thaur.

A ride of 6 miles over stony ground intersected by ravines brings one to the head of a valley, which lower down is called Wádi-Lá‘ah. The descent is very steep. Almost immediately the face of nature changes. The air is warm and laden with the perfume of flowers; the hill-sides are covered with underwood; aloes, euphorbias, oleander, geraniums, labiate, ferns, mosses, &c., grow luxuriantly; instead of vultures, one hears and sees many a songster—in short, after wild, bleak, and stony deserts, one is again in Araby the Blest.

Jábal-Mísvar bounds the opposite side of the valley, the road to Tawilah being carried along one of the spurs of Jábal-Dhála’. Tawilah is a walled town with fortresses on three of the seven basaltic masses, which rise to the height of 50 to
200 feet above the town. It was in former days a stronghold of the skaikhs of Kaukabân. The town overlooks a portion of Wâdi-Lânâh, and we could see on the slopes coffee-plantations and several villages. Looking south one sees range after range of mountains running from east to west. Jâbal-Burâah in the distance, then Harâz, al-Khaimah, Sarâ, Háfash, and Milhân. We next rode to Rujûm, 15 miles distant from Tâwilâh, and several hundred feet lower. The country is well cultivated, the sides of the hills being terraced with stone walls wherever there is earth. The fields are ploughed with oxen, which are humped like the zebu of India. Thousands of cattle have perished in consequence of a murrain, which for the last eight years has committed dreadful ravages throughout the hill-districts of Yemen.

Rujûm is a walled town built on a basaltic rock that rises above a marshy plain; twice a week a market is held in the plain. 15 miles from Rujûm is Muhwit, a walled town with a Turkish garrison. The Jewish quarter is below the town. The climate, from the position of the town on the slope of a mountain, is cool. A spring of water in the neighbourhood is led into a few tanks, which the natives use for bathing. A bath in the cold spring-water of Muhwit is supposed to cure a number of diseases. It was recommended to us for intermittent fever.

It had been our intention on leaving Muhwit to ascend the eastern slope of Jâbal-Háfash, make a halt at Saâkain, a Turkish military station, descend the western slope to Rubûâ'ah, and thence to Bâjîl. We might have seen many coffee-plantations, the culture of kaat, Celastrus edulis (a plant whose young shoots are extensively chewed throughout Yemen, in the same way and with the same advantages as the natives of Peru use the coca-plant), besides much that is interesting; but we were so weakened by a fever caught at Rujûm, that we chose the easier route to Bâjîl. After a long and steep descent we came to Wâdi-Muâhir, through which flows a stream of water teeming with fish, very like trout. This stream rises in Jâbal-Háfash, and flows in a southerly direction; in some parts it is bordered with stately trees, and there are also a few coffee-plantations. Leaving the stream and passing the village of Sarâ we halted at Ghaffâr, and on the following day rode to another market-village called Sûku-1-Juma'ah, at the foot of Jâbal-Sarâ, with Jâbal-Háfash to the west.

The valley between the two mountains is called Wâdi-Ghaffâr, and it extends for some 15 miles in a south-westerly direction, till it joins the Wâdi-Hârrah, at Suku-1-Khamis. It is well wooded with tamarisk, henna, nabuk, tamarind, and acacia
trees, and there are many fields of dhoura and dúhn. We were now in the hot valleys bordering on the Tiḥāmah. The natives were no longer the pure Arabs of the mountain districts, but a mongrel race, of an olive complexion, some of them with woolly hair or thick lips; their Arabic differs much from that spoken by the pure Arabs, containing as it does many foreign words. The inhabitants of the Tiḥāmah belong to the same race. They are somewhat despised by the Arabs. The women when out of doors wear hats like those worn by Welsh women, made of palm-leaves, and some of the men wear helmets made of the same material.

Just before reaching Sāku'-l-Khamis we forded a considerable stream, the Sardūd. We were told that it rises at the foot of Jābal Nábi-Sháib, flows through one of the gorges in the Háraz mountains, called Wādī-Bishah, next along Wādī-Hárrah, and then along Wādī-Sardūd. It drains the watershed of Nábi-Sháib, Háraz, al-Khaimah, and Jābal-Sará, and other mountains, and contains in consequence a large body of water. From Khamis we went to Hamrā along Wādī-Sardūd. The first half is a narrow winding gorge shut in by granite mountains. The bed of the stream is so narrow that one is obliged to ford the water many times; after heavy rains the stream is so broad and violent, that communications with Hamrā become impossible. At the second half one emerges from the hills and reaches a plain bounded to the north by Jābal-Háfash, but chiefly by Jābal-Milhán. From Hamrā the river flows west through alluvial soil, till it reaches the Tiḥāmah at a village called Zhúbah; after the summer rain it sometimes flows to the sea to the north of al-Hudaydah. Leaving Hamrā and the Sardūd, we went due south through Wādī-'Azzān to Bájil, a distance of 12 miles. From Bájil we revisited Kuttāy and Marāwah in the Tiḥāmah. This village has a large market twice a week, at which mangoes, bananas, kát, dhúrrah, milk, and the produce of the neighbouring hills are sold; besides rice, tumbak, spices, &c., which are brought from al-Hudaydah. A Sayyid resides at Marāwah, who is held in such esteem that people come from long distances to converse with him. The Turks honour him so much that the village of Marāwah is exempted from all taxes. A four-hours' ride brought us back to al-Hudaydah again. Thus, from the uplands of Sana'ā and Kawkabān, the zone of cereals, we had passed to the zone of coffee, and thence to the tropical lowlands and Tiḥāmah, the zone of dhúrrah, cotton, and date-trees, and from that to the desert shores of the Red Sea.
### Route from Al-Hudaidah to Sanââ.

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* 800 feet above.
VIII.—Railroad and Steam Communication in Southern Peru.
By Clements R. Markham, C.B., F.R.S., Secretary R.G.S.
[Read, March 9th, 1874.]

The central region of the Peruvian Andes presents an aspect very different from that to the south and on the Bolivian frontier. In the centre the space between the Maritime and Eastern Cordillera is comparatively narrow; it is broken up into deep, worn valleys and profound ravines, where wheat, maize, and even sugar-cane, are grown in the different zones of elevation. But the southern part of the Peruvian Andes and the northern portion of Bolivia present a very different character. From the Vilcanota knot, the Andes separate into two distinct chains, namely, the Maritime Cordillera and the Eastern Andes, which includes the loftiest peaks in America. The region between these two ranges contains the great lake of Titicaca, and consists of elevated plains intersected by rivers flowing into the lake, at a height never less than 12,000 feet above the sea. It is usually called the Collao, from one of the tribes which occupied it in ancient times. The surrounding mountains contain inexhaustible stores of copper and silver, the plains afford pasture for large flocks of alpacas, while the inner slopes of the Eastern Andes produce the best Peruvian bark, coffee, cocoa, coca, arnottino, and are watered by streams containing gold-dust in large quantities.

It has long been an aspiration of the best Peruvian statesmen to see all this wealth borne over Lake Titicaca by steamers, and across the frozen plains of the Maritime Cordillera by some more expeditious means than is afforded by the backs of llamas and mules. Nearly thirty years ago Don Manuel Costas, the present Vice-President of Peru, made an attempt to place a small steamer on the lake. He foresaw that, if this could once be done, a most important trade would spring up, which would give fresh life to the people of this classic land. All the products of the Bolivian forests—timber, chinchona-bark, chocolate, coffee, coca, fruit and arnottino—would be conveyed to Puno; and European manufactured goods, the aguardiente of the coast valleys, and the sugar of Abancay, would be sent in exchange to the Bolivian ports. There would also be a brisk trade in wool, silver, and copper, and a traffic in provisions of all kinds between the Indian villages near the shores of the lake. Timber in vast quantities might be felled and sawn in the forests of Caravaya, and floated down the rivers during the rainy season, which, with the coal on the island of Loto, would furnish supplies of fuel. A railroad across the Andes, connecting the steam navigation of the Titicaca Lake with the ports of the
Pacific, was a stupendous undertaking which, even 15 years ago, was scarcely dreamed of by the most enthusiastic speculator. Yet the whole of these schemes have not only been undertaken, but are now completed and actually in working order.

The railroad from the port of Mollendo to Arequipa has been completed some years. Mr. Meiggs accepted a contract to construct a railroad across the Andes, from Arequipa to Puno, for 32,000,000 soles (6,400,000£), or 29,500£, a mile. The cost of transport, labour, materials, and provisions was, of course, enormous. The distance from Arequipa to the shores of Lake Titicaca is 217 miles, and the works were commenced on June 7th, 1870.

After leaving the city of Arequipa the line crosses the River Chilé by a superb viaduct 1505 feet in length and 70 feet above the river-bed; and there are three other viaducts of equal magnitude, all constructed in the United States, and conveyed to their sites with infinite difficulty. Embankments of various heights, from 50 to 500 feet, are numerous, and, in some cases, the rough and steep slopes are overcome by reverse tangents. In one place there is a cutting, 84 feet deep, on the side of a precipice, with the roadway 1000 feet in perpendicular height above the valley. The longest tunnel is only 300 feet from mouth to mouth. Extraordinary difficulties had to be overcome, as may well be supposed when the inaccessible nature of the country is considered, the long distances without water, the heavy snowstorms, the absence of roads, and the intense cold of the loftier portion. From Arequipa to the baths of Yuva, a distance of 17 miles, there is no water, and up to this point the costly expedient was adopted of conveying it to the works on mule-back. The same thing was necessary from Caniaquas for 25 miles. From 4000 to 5000 labourers, chiefly Chilians and Bolivians, have been constantly employed during three years and a half, and on the 1st of January, 1874, the first locomotive reached the shores of Lake Titicaca. The highest point on the old road from Arequipa to Puno is 15,590 feet above the sea, and that of the line selected for the railway cannot have been much less.

Meanwhile active steps have been taken to establish steam navigation on Lake Titicaca. In 1861 the Peruvian Government ordered two screw steamers in London (20 tons, 40 H.P.), called the Yavari and Yapura, which were sent out to the port of Arica, thence to Tacna by rail, and, finally, the pieces were carried across the Andes on the backs of mules to Puno. But several pieces were lost, and the project remained in abeyance until 1868, when Captain Melgar, of the Peruvian Navy, was appointed to put together and launch the steamers. He set to
work with zeal and energy. Those who have crossed the Andes, and seen the total absence of all resources at Puno, can form an idea of the difficulties that have been overcome by Don Manuel Melgar. He had to build a factory and a stone mole, and to bring up all the workmen and materials from the coast, the lake being 12,000 feet above the sea. The Yavari was launched in June, 1871, and the Yapura on the 19th of March, 1872.

Their presence on these inland waters, together with the railway, will revolutionise the commerce of the surrounding provinces, knit the people of Peru and Bolivia together by common interests, and put new life into the inhabitants of the shores of Titicaca, the sacred lake of the Yncas. Markets and rapid means of communication having been secured, the trade of this region may be expected to increase rapidly on all sides. The face of the country will be entirely changed; the people, finding new wants, will become more civilised, and Puno, instead of a town with empty, silent streets and half-a-dozen reed balsas at its anchorage, will soon be a flourishing and busy port. When I was there, now nearly 14 years ago, these prospects seemed far distant. But now, thanks to the energy of the Peruvian Government, and of the great contractor Mr. Meiggs, they seem to be close at hand.

The cause of geography will be wonderfully advanced by these undertakings. At present there is no complete survey of the basin of Lake Titicaca, which, in some important respects, possesses special geographical interest. Lake Titicaca covers a superficial area of about 2500 square miles, being 100 miles long by 35 wide, and the surface is 12,196 feet above the sea. It is divided into two parts by the peninsula of Copacabana, the south division being 8 leagues long by 7, and united to the larger portion by the Strait of Tiquina. A number of rivers, which are swollen and of considerable volume during the rainy season, flow into the lake; and the water is carried off by the drain or Desaguadero, which, after a course of 160 miles, empties into the salt lake and swamps of Pavia or Aullagas.

The Desaguadero, connecting Lake Titicaca with the Aullagas, is a very remarkable feature. At this great elevation land vegetation is stunted and scanty, but in the waters of the lake there are acres of tall rushes. The constant east winds blow all the dead rushes to the western side, where they mix with the living beds and form a dense tangled mass. Out of them flows the drain, with the surplus waters of the lake, and so, by a channel 160 miles long, connects Titicaca with the salt swamps of Aullagas. Davalos y Figueroa, a native of the country, who wrote in 1601, even speaks of the whole as one lake,
saying that in one part, where it is called the Desaguadero, or drain, it becomes very narrow.

These features cannot fail to remind the Meeting of the interesting discussion, in which Sir Samuel Baker took part on January 26th, on the subject of the supposed connection between the African lakes Tanganyika and Albert Nyanza. The surface waters of Titicaca, like those of Tanganyika, are fresh; and, in Sir Samuel Baker's view, Tanganyika is connected with the Albert Nyanza, which is at the same level, by a channel analogous to the Desaguadero, flowing from Titicaca to the Aullagas swamp.

The Aullagas, which is the final receptacle of all the drainage of the Titicaca basin, is of course utterly unlike the Albert Nyanza, because it has no outlet and is surrounded by Cordillerias of the Andes. It is salt, but it has always been doubted whether the large volume of surplus water flowing along the Desaguadero can be disposed of by evaporation alone. Cieza de Leon, an accurate and trustworthy old soldier, who was in Peru shortly after the conquest, and wrote in 1553, mentions a report that, in some of the coast valleys of Tarapaca, there were streams which were believed to be the waters of Lake Aullagas, opening for themselves a way through the bowels of the earth. In his recent exhaustive report of the Tamarugal plains, in the Tarapaca province, Don Miguel Valle Riestra suggests a similar explanation, namely, that the waters of Titicaca, after draining into the Aullagas Lake, find their way by filtration to the lower level of the Tamarugal.

I have referred to these points in order to indicate how much there is of real geographical importance and interest which still awaits investigation in the region now at last brought within easy reach of the sea-coast by railroad. A thorough survey of the great lake of Titicaca, and of its whole drainage area, is still a desideratum. Pentland went round the lake and fixed numerous positions, many years ago, but his was only a route survey; and D’Orbigny mapped the southern shores of the lake. When I first crossed this region, my duty obliged me to follow very much in the track of Pentland; and my latitudes and hypsometrical observations agreed satisfactorily with his, my heights being a few hundred feet less. But in returning, as soon as I went off Pentland's track, I came upon new features. Among these is the lake of Arafa, north of Titicaca, which is not on Pentland's map, though it is mentioned by Castelnau. Captain Melgar, the introducer of steam navigation on Lake Titicaca, has made a survey of the coast from Puno to Juli, and also confirms the accuracy of Pentland's observations for latitude. He has carefully examined the islands on the lake, especially
that of Titicaca, the beautiful sacred island of the later Yncas, where artificial terraces, full of flowers, rise from the water's edge, tier above tier, to the hill-tops, irrigated by channels drawn from the royal bath. All these classic spots around the sacred lake will now be explored and correctly mapped; and we shall at last get an accurate knowledge of this, the most interesting region, next to the Cuzco Valley, in all South America.

The valleys and wide forest-covered plains to the east of the Andes, in Caravaya and Bolivia, will also be explored. Beyond the work done by Don Antonio Raimondi and by myself, the vast and rich province of Caravaya is, so far as accurate geographical data are concerned, unmapped and unknown. Its wealth is enormous and inexhaustible. Its rivers diverge to the point in the vast South American wilderness where Colonel Church is so ably and resolutely working to complete a railroad round the rapids of the Madeira. Its more complete exploration will be a memorable geographical feat.

Now that the Peruvian Government has provided the means of rapid communication from the coast to the interior, its enlightened President, Don Manuel Pardo, has resolved to invite European explorers to judge for themselves of the resources of the ancient empire of the Yncas. An important decree was issued at Lima on January 13, 1874, enumerating the lines of railway that are now actually open, as well as those in progress.

1. From the port of Ylo to Moquegua.
2. From the port of Mollendo, by Arequipa, to Puno.
3. From Pisco to Yea.
4. From Callao to San Mateo (on the way to Oroya).
5. From Chimbote to Taquilpon.
6. From Pacasmayo to La Viña (on the way to Caxamarca).

The decree announces that, as the districts traversed by these railways abound in mineral wealth, it is desirable to bring to the notice of European enterprise the character and extent of the riches to be found within the territory of Peru, and the means of communication which place these riches within the reach of private enterprise. With this object, lithographed plans of the Peruvian railroads, accompanied by sketches of the most prominent engineering works on them, and brief descriptions, are to be published in English, French, and German. Collections of samples of the principal minerals and coal found in the districts traversed by the railroads are also to be made in triplicate, by Don Antonio Raimondi, the State Geologist, and placed on exhibition in London, Paris, and Berlin.

The Fellows of this Society will heartily applaud the action thus taken by the Peruvian Government; for not only will it
at once supply us with a large amount of new geographical information, but, it will tend, in its results, to the mapping and exploration of regions now little known, but which yield to none in the world in interest and importance; whether we regard their physical structure, the magnificence of their scenery, the grand scale on which nature has worked within their limits, or their inexhaustible riches.


[Read, March 23rd, 1874.]

In the course of last summer I had an opportunity of passing six weeks in the island of Yezo, the most northerly of the three chief islands of Japan, and of making a journey of about 300 miles in the interior. As the route I passed over is included in that of Captain Blakiston, a detailed description of which was read before this Society in 1872, I should not have thought of inviting your attention so soon again to Yezo, but for the marked changes which have occurred in that island, and the discoveries which have been made there since the date of Captain Blakiston’s journey. To an account of these changes and discoveries I shall mainly confine my remarks. Yezo, though one of the three main islands of Japan, is placed on a different footing from that of all the other portions of the Mikado’s dominions which lie to the south of it. It is considered rather to be a colonial possession, and its entire administration is placed in the hands of a distinct office, called the Yezo Colonization Department, which has its head-quarters at Tokei or Yedo, and the Chief of which is likewise the Governor-General of Yezo. Although the island of Yezo may, perhaps, be somewhat larger than Ireland, the number of its inhabitants, as estimated by the Japanese authorities, does not exceed 124,000, of which number about 16,000 is assigned to the Ainu or aboriginal population of Yezo and the islands adjoining it to the north. Of these islands, that of Saghalien has of late years been to some degree colonised by Russia, as being to a great extent uninhabited land, although a portion of that island has been always claimed by Japan and is still occupied by Japanese. It was probably the colonisation of a part of Saghalien by a foreign Power, and the fear of the plea of non-occupation being likewise set up in favour of the occupa-
tion of a portion of Yezo, which induced the Japanese Government some three years ago to concert an extensive scheme, with the object of opening up this island and colonising it from the central and southern districts of Japan. Accordingly the Japanese representative in the United States was instructed to enter into engagements with a number of American scientific officers, who arrived in Japan two years ago and were placed at the disposal of the Yezo Colonisation Department. The chief of this mission, General Capron, at once set about the task of developing the resources of that island. He established at Yedo three model farms, and took measures for obtaining stock, seeds, grasses, and plants from America, with the object of their being introduced into the northern island of Japan.

In the spring of 1872 he and the gentlemen with him proceeded to Hakodate and began to explore the island which was to be the scene of their operations. Previously to their arrival the Japanese authorities had established the future seat of government of Yezo at a locality called Saporo, distant about 140 miles from Hakodate, and about 20 from Utarumai, the nearest port on the Western coast. At this spot a town, covering about a mile square, has sprung up within the last three years, and an excellent road has been constructed by American engineers connecting it with either coast.

The first section of this road extends from Hakodate to Mori, on Volcano Bay, and is 30 miles in length. There then occurs a break in the continuity of the road, and at Mori one has the choice of going round the bay to Endermo, some 60 miles, by the old Japanese mountain-path, or of crossing the bay in a junk or open boat, or by the steamer which plies twice a month either way across. Of the country between Hakodate and Mori I need not give a detailed description, as I find it has already been described in the 'Journal' of this Society by Captain Forbes, R.N. I would only remark that the cuttings which have been necessitated for the construction of the new road have afforded much insight into the geological formation of the region. The country for many miles is overlaid with several ranges of pumice which has been from time to time thrown out by the overhanging volcano of Homogataki. The relative depth of the layers of pumice affords the means of arriving approximately at the respective dates of the successive eruptions of the volcano. At some points of the cutting there are from five to six inches of mould above the latest stratum of pumice, below which again there are some 18 inches of mould, and then another substratum of pumice.

The last eruption of the volcano is said to have occurred eighteen years since, and therefore it may be inferred, assuming
the correctness of this date, that there was a previous eruption about sixty years before. From this it will be perceived that Yezo enjoys no exemption from the volcanic influences which make themselves so often and so markedly felt in other regions of Japan.

Opposite to the village of Mori, on the further side of Volcano Bay (which is about 20 miles in breadth), is situated the admirable harbour of Edomo, or Endermo, or Moraran, one of the finest natural harbours which could be anywhere met with. From the entrance to the innermost point is a distance of about 7 miles, and in the middle of the entrance is a small island, which, were it fortified, would completely command the approach to the harbour. As Endermo possesses such manifest natural advantages, and is, moreover, situated on the mainland of Yezo (Hakodate being on a tongue), it seems somewhat singular that the Japanese Government, in framing their scheme for opening up the island, should have overlooked the facilities which would be afforded towards the realisation of that scheme, by transferring to Endermo the seat of the local government, which is now at Hakodate, and by opening the former port to foreign commerce. Endermo is equally accessible with Hakodate from Yedo and Yokohama, and were shipping to go there direct a manifest economy would be effected to persons engaged in trading transactions, in the saving of the 30 miles of landpassage from Hakodate to Mori, and in avoiding the conveyance of goods across Volcano Bay. These considerations are so manifest that, should Yezo ever become settled to any considerable extent, Endermo must of necessity supersede Hakodate. At Endermo the road to Saporro recommences, and continues to that place, first along the coast for 45 miles, and then in an almost direct line through the forest which covers the hills for a similar distance. The entire distance lies through a region clothed with the richest vegetation, the neighbouring hills being covered with splendid forests, containing trees of the most serviceable varieties—the oak, maple, walnut, birch, and pine being prominent amongst them, whilst the geniality of the climate is attested by the presence of the magnolia and other trees, natives of southern or tropical countries. This contrast of trees forms, indeed, one of the most marked features in Japanese scenery. Everyone who has passed through the Inland Sea must have been struck by the unusual combination of pines and cedars on the one hand, with palm-trees and bamboos on the other. To the right of the first half of this road from Endermo, and lying between it and the Pacific Ocean, are a number of the Ainos' villages, all more or less counterparts of each other. The houses or huts, which are covered
over with straw on the walls as well as on the roofs, are ranged round a square, on one side of which there is a large oil-pressing house, from which the dried fish is taken to be exposed in the adjoining square when the oil has been extracted. The fish (sardines), after having been dried in the sun, is exported to serve as manure. An Aino village is almost invariably built on the sea-shore, and in each village there is an elevated look-out post, perched on strong poles, from which the approach of a shoal of fish may be discerned. There is also another lower look-out in the village, from which warning may be given of the approach of bears. Each Aino hut has but one outer door and no windows, but there is a hole in the roof to admit of the escape of smoke. The hut is divided into two compartments, the inner being larger than the outer one, and being piled round with fuel, dried fish, and utensils for cooking, &c. The Ainos’ food is fish, roots, and venison. There is in each hut a loom, and on the whole the interior presents more appearance of comfort than one would expect from the rough appearance of the Ainos themselves. The women carry the children strapped on their backs, the front of the strap passing over the mother’s forehead. The women wear their hair cut short at the back of the neck, and their upper and lower lips are tattooed and stained in imitation of moustaches. The married women do not adopt the Japanese married women’s custom of blackening the teeth. The Ainos have a very peculiar mode of equitation, balancing themselves on the horse’s bare back, their legs dangling on a level with his neck. They are well-grown men, with good features, and an immense quantity of coarse black hair covering nearly all parts of the person. The men wear coats of bark.

The origin of the Aino race, which, like other wild races, is said to be fast disappearing, is a disputed question. Japanese records prove them to have at one time inhabited districts as far southwards as Yedo, and they are known to have even recently existed in considerable numbers in the province of Sendai; but now they are confined to Yezo, Saghalien, and the Kurile Islands. M. Goskavitch, formerly Russian Consul-General at Hakodate, the Abbé Mermet, and M. Sindau, have devoted much attention to this subject, but the absence of any Aino written language reduces its investigation almost to conjecture. They are a remarkably strong race and are individually very courageous, though collectively in abject terror of the Japanese. Their language is mellifluous, and their manners are gentle towards strangers, abject to Japanese officials. Though formerly oppressed, they have been better treated since the revolution of 1868. They worship the sun and the idea of
a Japanese power which means merely force: they likewise adore their ancestors. They have no idea of computation, and refer dates to certain events, such as the catching of a whale or the advent of a great shoal of fish.

The Ainos have not escaped the attention of the Japanese Government, in their efforts towards the reconstruction of all things throughout the empire. The scheme as affecting the Ainos is said to provide that they shall be civilised by Japanese wives. There is in the Yezo Colonisation Department a school at which 50 Japanese girls (daughters of officials) are being educated at the public expense by Dutch instructresses. These girls are, I was told at the school, destined to be the wives of Ainos. This is—supposing the scheme to be carried out—as if a number of girls were to be taken from a London ladies' school, and sent to be married to Gaelic-speaking Celts of Connemara. It is to be regretted that up to the present time no foreigner should have undertaken the task of mastering the Ainos' language, but it may be hoped that ere long one or other of our Japanese scholars will turn his attention to a study which could not fail to throw much light on the comparative philology of that region of the world.

The road from Endermo to Saporō leads over several considerable streams, at which one may have excellent fly-fishing, and some idea of the amount of game which sportsmen would find in Yezo may be gathered from the fact that 30,000 pairs of deers' horns are each year exported from Hakodate. From the point at which the road leaves the sea-coast it leads, through continuous vegetation, to Saporō, the traveller at one time passing through miles clothed with lily-of-the-valley, and at another through fields of wild roses in bloom. The town of Saporō, being built entirely of wood, presents a much more finished appearance than a town of such recent date could present under other circumstances. It is connected by a small canal with the Ishikari River, which is 15 miles distant.

The main industry now apparent in Saporō is the preparation of wood, two steam sawmills being constantly in operation under American superintendence. The forests of Yezo constitute one of the chief sources of the wealth which might be obtained from the island. It is estimated that, by a total outlay on setting up machinery of about 5000£, there might be prepared daily in these forests a quantity of timber worth about 250£, or 78,000£, worth in the working year of 312 days, less the cost of working the machinery for ten hours daily; and the above figures might be doubled were the machinery worked by two relays of men in the twenty-four hours. According to the estimates which result from inquiries instituted by General Capron,
one average acre of Yezo forest may contain about 42,500 feet of planking. It will thus be seen that a grant, say of 1000 acres, would afford the elements of very considerable profits; and when it is considered that these profits extend over an area perhaps equivalent nearly to that of Ireland, it will be seen what an extensive resource the Japanese Government possess at their command in the forests of Yezo alone. I may add that, whilst this source of wealth continues undeveloped, timber of qualities similar to that found in Yezo is being each year imported into Japan from Oregon, and elsewhere in the United States, over a distance of between 5000 and 6000 miles. Timber, of qualities which might be procured in Yezo, is likewise being constantly brought from the United States to Hong-kong. The natural development of its forests is perhaps the most obvious, but it is by no means the sole, source of the wealth which might be produced in Yezo. I travelled for some short distance up the Ishikari River, and then proceeded down the river to its mouth, where I had an opportunity of seeing the establishments there, connected with the salmon and other fisheries. Salmon and other fish are caught in the rivers and on the coasts of Yezo in enormous abundance. Salmon is there so cheap as scarcely to have a price, according to our idea of the word; and I was told by an English merchant of Hakodate that, were the fisheries of Yezo open to foreign enterprise, tins of prepared salmon, which would now sell in London for about 9d., might be placed in London for about 2½d. per tin. As it is, the fisheries of Yezo, as at present managed on behalf of the Japanese Government, although they even now supply a great portion of the revenue derived from the island, afford but a very small proportion of the revenue which under better management ought to be extracted from them. The revenue system adopted is that the Government receive one fish in so many, and, in order to ensure that the Government should receive its due proportion of fish, there is employed at the fisheries a host of Government officials. As one of the American officers expressed it to me, in answer to my inquiries, “Sir, there’s an official for every fish caught.”

In addition to its forests and fisheries, Yezo possesses a source of future wealth in its mineral productions. I had an opportunity of travelling on the Ishikari River with Mr. Lyman, the geologist of General Capron’s Mission, and who was formerly employed by the Government of India in surveying the Punjab in search of petroleum. He informed me that he had found in different parts of Yezo traces of silver and lead, manganese, iron-pyrites, iron-sand, copper, zinc, rock-oil, and gypsum, as well as sulphur in abundance. By far the most
important mineral production of Yezo, however, consists in its fields of coal. As the mines of Iwanai have been described by Captain Blakiston, I need not go over the same ground. Mr. Lyman, at the time I met him (in July last), seemed to think it probable that these coal-fields might be found to contain, perhaps, 3,000,000 tons in each layer, there being six transverse layers. I was also informed, subsequently to my leaving Yezo, that Mr. Lyman had lately discovered vast fields of coal on or near the Ishikari River. The Yezo coal, though not of the finest description, is perfectly serviceable for steaming purposes, and were these coal-fields thrown open to the general markets of the world, there can be little doubt that, from their accessible situation, their produce would be in great request, and would, whilst affording large returns to Japan, greatly cheapen the price of coal on Eastern seas.

It may naturally be asked why, if such be the resources of Yezo, are they not turned to immediate practical account? I shall endeavour to explain the political conditions which overrule the commercial interests of the island. Yezo is, in common with the rest of Japan, a closed land to all foreigners beyond what are known as the Treaty Limits, that is to say, beyond a distance of 30 miles from Hakodate, which is the only open port in Yezo; so that, until the restriction on the free admission of foreigners into the interior be removed, foreign independent enterprise and capital must alike be excluded from everywhere but the one open port—a state of things which is the more to be regretted on account of the existing management of the island. It would be easy to cite numerous instances which came under my own observation, as well as many more which were repeated to me, showing how money may be thrown away; but one instance will serve as a sample of many. The Japanese administrators in Yezo, with other branches of the foreign civilisation which they have adopted, have not overlooked the custom of giving out contracts to persons who may have the means of making themselves believed in by men in power. It is on this hypothesis alone that I can explain the existence of four admirable breakwaters which I saw: one at Mori, on Volcano Bay; and three near the mouth of the Ishikari River. The one at Mori, which I paced, is 500 yards in length, and is said to have cost the Government 80,000 dollars, yet at the extreme end of this pier the depth of water is only 7 feet, so that not even a junk, far less a steamer, can, even in the most favourable state of the tide, be brought alongside it to be loaded. For all practical purposes the pier might as well have been constructed in the interior of the country. The three piers on the Ishikari River afford even a more striking example of mis-
management, to say the least. Near the mouth of the river in question there is on one side of the stream a depth of from 70 to 80 feet of water, whilst at the other side the depth for some distance from the shore does not exceed from 7 to 10 feet, yet the piers are on the shallow side of the stream. The restrictive policy of the Japanese Government with regard to foreigners—which is applicable to Yezo as to the rest of Japan—is not now, at any rate, dictated by any antipathy to foreigners, but solely by the reluctance of the Japanese Government to extend beyond its present limits the extra-territorial jurisdiction which treaty powers exercise over their respective subjects or citizens throughout the dominions of the Mikado. The Japanese Government has announced its willingness to admit foreigners freely into all parts of Japan on the sole condition that, whilst beyond the present treaty limits, they are to be subject to Japanese jurisdiction; but this condition the Treaty Powers have not accepted. It may reasonably be hoped, however, that ere long some compromise will be arrived at which, while it will save the susceptibilities of the Japanese Government, will at the same time afford the Treaty Powers a sufficient guarantee for the full protection of the persons and property of their respective subjects throughout the interior of Japan. Whenever the period arrives that shall see Yezo opened to foreign colonisation, I should imagine that its excellent climate and great resources would attract to it a fair share of European immigration. Its climate, though considered by the Japanese to be too rigorous, is admitted by Europeans to be excellent. Throughout the month of June last, and up to the 4th of July, I was glad to sit over a fire even at noon, and to sleep under a thick quilt at night. The Japanese are so averse to subjecting themselves to what they call the rigour of the Yezo winter, that many thousands of fishermen, labourers, and others, who come to Yezo from other islands for the summer months, quit it for their homes on the approach of winter; but winter, in an island which produces rice, hemp, and maize, would scarcely seem formidable to Europeans.

The entire island of Yezo is now being surveyed under the direction of Mr. Wasson, one of General Capron's officers. I visited his field establishment at Yubutz, and he informed me that he hoped that by the end of the present year (1874) his operations would be so far advanced as to admit of his laying down accurately the more prominent points of Yezo, and framing for the first time a correct outline map of the island. His labours will, no doubt, in due time be appreciated by this Society.

I returned from Saporos, or rather from the mouth of the Ishikari River, to Hakodate by the western coast, passing several
considerable ports, in one of which, Utarunai, I counted 102 junks. The coast for a great distance is faced with abrupt rocky cliffs, and nothing could be more delightful than the scenery. The road above the cliffs winds over undulating grassy ground, the forest being everywhere visible at a short distance in the interior, and the villages are so numerous as to make it difficult to believe that the Japanese authorities do not greatly under-estimate the population of the island. I presume that the explanation of the low figure at which it is stated is, that the inhabitants of these villages quit them for the adjoining island on the approach of winter, and are not included in the census of Yezo.

The coast of the island of Yezo has within the last three years been surveyed by Captain St. John, of Her Majesty's ship *Sylvia*. The western coast of Yezo, and more particularly the neighbourhood of Matsumai, has an interest of its own, as having been the scene of the captivity and wanderings of Captain Golownin, of the Russian navy, whose narrative of his captivity in Japan during the years 1811, 1812, 1813, affords, I think, in a greater degree than almost any other work a comprehensive insight into the manners of the Japanese and into their former governmental system. The work of Captain Golownin is unique of its kind, owing to the very peculiar circumstances under which it was written, in affording information drawn at first hand, and not by hearsay, of Japanese manners and customs. Captain Golownin, whilst on a surveying cruise in the Northern Japanese waters, was treacherously taken prisoner by the Governor of Kunashier, on account of some depredations which had previously been committed on Japanese soil by another Russian naval officer. Captain Golownin and the three officers who had been seized along with him were detained for twenty-six months at various places in captivity, and it is most surprising that, under the very strict and constant surveillance to which he was subjected, he should have found the means of registering the notes forming the basis of his highly-interesting narrative. It affords alike an evidence of the amiability inherent in the Japanese character and of the candid disposition of Captain Golownin in that, notwithstanding the treacherous circumstances which attended his capture, he should express himself in terms of so much admiration of the Japanese and of their institutions.

Having now concluded my remarks on the island of Yezo, I will submit a few observations on the subject of geographical progress in the empire of Japan in general. The Japanese Government are fully alive to the utility of having the whole
of the Mikado's dominions accurately surveyed by duly qualified scientific officers, and for this purpose they last year sent to England their chief surveyor, Mr. Macvean, who was instructed to engage the necessary officers and to procure the requisite instruments. How far Mr. Macvean may have proceeded in his arrangements I have no means of knowing, as he had not returned to Japan at the date of my departure in December last. Previously to his leaving Yedo he had been engaged in preparing a survey of that city, which work in his absence is now being carried on by the subordinate English officers of the same department.

I have already mentioned that the coasts of Yezo have been surveyed by Her Majesty's ship Sylvia, and I should add that other portions of the Japanese waters, more particularly of the Inland Sea, have likewise been surveyed by British or French surveying vessels. As the Japanese Government have recently engaged the services of Commander Douglas, R.N., with forty-one other officers, petty-officers, and seamen of the Royal Navy, as instructors in the Naval College at Yedo, and have established at that place a hydrographical department, it may be hoped that, ere long, the Japanese will be perfectly competent themselves to undertake the survey of such portions of their coasts as may not have already been accurately laid down on charts.

Apart from scientific geographical explorations properly so called, there has of late years been in Japan an immense progress in general acquaintance on the part of foreigners with all regions of the country. Although the rule as originally framed is still in operation, by which no foreigners, with the exception of ministers and their suites, are permitted to travel in any part of Japan outside the Treaty limits, yet, owing to a variety of circumstances, foreigners of one or other nationality have in fact visited nearly every province of the Mikado's dominions.

Her Majesty's first minister in Japan, Sir Rutherford Alcock, whose valuable notes of travel throughout a very large portion of the country are included in the 'Journal' of this Society, was the pioneer amongst modern explorers of that empire. Her Majesty's present minister, Sir Harry Parkes, has likewise travelled across the country, and visited all the most important localities in it. The late minister of the United States, Mr. De Long, travelled from a point on the main island opposite to Hakodate, overland to Yedo, a distance of some 500 miles.

In August 1867, Messrs. Mitford and Satow travelled across country from Nanao, a harbour of the Prince of Kaga, on the western coast, to Osaka, on the eastern. They passed through the rich provinces of Kaga, Echizen—famous for silk and
cutlery, the province of iro Kamon no Kami, and the country about Kioto. This journey was performed without any escort, these gentlemen throwing themselves on the hospitality of the Daimios through whose dominions they passed, written receipts for their persons being required and delivered at each frontier post.

Probably no one has travelled more in the interior of Japan than Dr. Willis, formerly physician to her Majesty's Legation, and whose journeys have always been undertaken from motives of charity. In the years 1868-69, he made a journey under peculiarly difficult circumstances, in the depth of winter, in order to attend the wounded troops at Wakamatsu, the capital of the rebel Prince of Aidzu, in the north of the main island, which was then being besieged by the imperial troops. Amongst the foremost Japanese travellers should be named Mr. Aston and Mr. Wirgman.

The journeys of Mr. Adams are included in the records of this Society, and two gentlemen of her Majesty's Legation, Messrs. Lawrence and Satow, have been the first Europeans to travel over and describe the mountain-road (the Nakasendo) between Yedo and Kioto, the southern capital; the Tokaido, or sea-coast road between the two capitals, having been previously explored. Mr. Lawrence's description of the Nakasendo route is likewise in the possession of this Society.

The most famous mountains of the country have been, one after the other, ascended by our countrymen: the peak, second in fame to Fuzi Yama alone having been last year climbed and measured by Mr. Lawrence. The results of many of these expeditions are now chronicled in the 'Journal of the Asiatic Society of Japan,' which Society was founded about twenty months ago, and their comparison will no doubt in due time lead to the furtherance of the knowledge of the geography of the country. The Japanese Government have in their employment a very considerable number of foreigners, and an exception is made in the case of these gentlemen to the rule which prohibits foreigners in general from travelling in the interior of the country. The result is that a large amount of scientific and general information has been acquired through them respecting the interior of Japan. A survey, for instance, has been made of the line of country lying between Osaka and Kioto, and of that between Lake Bewa and Tsuruga, on the western coast, and likewise an inspection by Mr. Boyle, C.S.I., the chief engineer, of the route from Kioto to Yedo; all of these being with a view to the construction of railways between these places, respectively. From what I have said, I think it may be inferred, that even should the present policy of con-
fining foreigners in general within the Treaty limits be persisted in, there are fair grounds for hoping that ere long the scientific world will be in possession of the fullest geographical information of the Islands of Japan—an empire which so recent a writer as Dean Swift coupled with the visionary regions of Lilliput and Brobdingnag. There can be no doubt, however, that geographical discovery in Japan would be greatly accelerated were the country freely thrown open to foreign travellers, and the date at which it will be so is, I think I may say, merely a question of a few months more or less.

Meanwhile, such foreigners as may have the privilege of travelling in any part of the interior of the country meet with the utmost possible cordiality and good-will. All obstruction in the way of the circulation of foreigners throughout the country proceeds from the Government, and by no means from the Japanese people. The state of things which I describe with reference to the mutual relations between Japanese and foreigners, is so opposite to that which notoriously existed between them but a very few years ago, that persons whose experience of Japan may not be of so recent a date as my own, may have some difficulty in realising that my description is not over-coloured.

Facts, however, speak for themselves, and from one or two which I may mention, I think you will draw but one conclusion. When I arrived at Yedo, in May 1872, I found at Her Majesty's Legation a Japanese mounted escort for our protection, of forty-three men; and wherever any of us went, on foot or on horseback, in the city of Yedo, or within a distance of many miles around it, we could never, unless when in-doors, escape the surveillance of these guards, whose lives, had anything happened to us, would have been forfeit for ours.

Being convinced that the anti-foreign feeling which had called for such measures of precaution in the case of members of a foreign Legation had almost entirely passed away, I readily met the Japanese Government in a proposal that these guards should be withdrawn; and within two months of my arrival at Yedo they were so. From that time onwards I was in the habit of going about Yedo in all directions, at any hour from dawn till midnight, having no person whatsoever with me, excepting a groom to hold my horse or to carry a lantern, if at night. I slept, in summer, in a room with windows and doors open. I never carried a stick or whip for defence, and never once had my revolver loaded.

I have visited all of the seven Treaty ports, viz.: Yedo, Yokohama, Hiogo, Osaka, Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hakodate; and have further visited the southern capital, Kioto, and like-
wise made a journey to the Tombs of the Tycoons at Nikko, in addition to excursions in the neighbourhood of Yedo, and I may say that in no country in the world in which I have travelled—in Asia, Europe, or America—have I, wherever I went, been received with such unmistakable and invariable welcome; whilst I never, under any circumstances, was subjected to a single unpleasant look or word.

Nor is this experience my own alone. I had ample opportunities whilst in Japan of conversing with, or hearing from, or of, such foreigners as were permitted to travel in the interior of the country; and so far as I know, the experience of one and all, during the last two years, entirely coincided with my own. Nor, I apprehend, is it in the least degree probable that the present existing feeling of cordiality towards foreigners is of a transient or ephemeral character. Such a supposition may be at once rebutted by a reference to the statistical fact that there are now under instruction some 430,000 Japanese on the Western system of education, whilst the number of youths who are receiving instruction on the formerly adopted Chinese system number only some 300 in the entire city of Yedo.

The rising generation are being taught to sit on chairs, to write at benches, thoroughly to understand English, and to master the various branches of Western education.

Such being the case, it may, I think, fairly be assumed that the interior of Japan will not long remain a region into which foreigners are forbidden to enter. Many persons seem to consider that the progress of new ideas and the adoption of Western customs amongst the Japanese has been so unprecedentedly rapid, that it therefore cannot be lasting; but, whilst it must be admitted that the history of the world furnishes no parallel to the recent civil revolution in Japan, it should, I think, be at the same time allowed that it would be contrary to the lessons of history to expect that an empire, which has adopted such institutions as those which Japan now possesses under a central government, should revert to the feudal system.

For my own part, in so far as I may be capable of forming an opinion, I entertain no apprehension whatsoever regarding the stability of the present order of things in Japan. However rapid may have been the progress onwards, that progress has been continuous. Although the manners and customs, the laws and institutions, of an ancient people, may not be changed in a year, or in a decade, there has still, since the adoption of Western civilisation was decided on, been a continuous advance towards the goal in view; and popular sentiment seems to go hand-in-hand with the progressive statesmen of the country,—with one instance of which feeling I may bring this paper to a
conclusion. As is well known, it has during many centuries been the custom that Japanese nobles and gentlemen should, whilst beyond the precincts of their houses, carry on their persons the two swords which were the badges of their rank. This custom, indeed, on the part of these privileged classes, had become so ingrained in the ideas of the entire inhabitants, that the Government, at a very recent period, expressed themselves as believing, that were any order to be issued which should prohibit the carrying of swords, such an order might cause a revolution. Accordingly no order on the subject was issued, but the compromise was subsequently tried of issuing a Government notification to the effect that for the future the nobles and the Samurai need not, unless by their own preference, continue to wear their swords.

The result was that in an almost inconceivably short space of time the usage of wearing swords was abandoned, and it is now almost as unusual to meet in Yedo a Japanese wearing the old two swords, as it is to meet a gentleman in London attired in the Highland costume. Indeed, last year when the senior Prince of Satsumia, who is at the head of the small anti-foreign party in Japan, visited Yedo, with a large retinue of followers, their now almost obsolete custom of carrying swords afforded so constant a source of ridicule, as these Satsumia men passed through the streets, that they soon found it convenient to keep within doors. Their Prince, though still preserving his antipathy to the intruders from the West, has established, at Kagoshima, a medical school for the instruction of Japanese youths by two foreign doctors, engaged by the Prince of Satsumia; thus showing that even the head of the anti-foreign party himself recognises the fact that, however unwelcome to the ex-Daimos, of which he is the representative, the new order of things in Japan must be accepted as being inevitable.

X.—Narrative of a Visit to the Kuh-i-Khwajah in Sistan.
By Major Beresford Lovett.

In March, 1872, I proceeded from our camp at Banjar, near Nasirabad, the chief city of Sistan, to visit a remarkable isolated hill to the west, called the Kuh-i-Khwajah. It is so called because Pir Khwajah, a holy dervish who existed I do not know how long ago, is said to be buried there; and it is renowned in the history of Sistan as having been the place of refuge of many of the famous heroes that figure in the historic annals of that country. I started from Nasirabad, where I had called to obtain a guide
and to collect an escort, about 4 p.m., and arrived about one hour after dark at the village of Dadeh. I was not able therefore, to notice much about the details of the country intervening between Nasirabad and Dadeh, a tract of about 10 miles in a straight line. I ascertained, however, to my cost and to the disgust of servants and escort, that the irrigation canals near Dadeh were not only numerous but deep.

Dadeh I found to be a village of the usual mole-hill order, a congeries of vaulted hovels with holes at top for the escape of the smoke, with one or two square-built houses of greater pretension, with flat timber roofs and wooden doors. I was shown into one of the latter by the chief of the escort, a Persian from Kain, one of the most remarkably glib "fareurs" (not to use a stronger term) that I ever met. I, however, on hygienic grounds, declined the preferred accommodation and had a bell-tent pitched outside the village, and there passed the night. We had no difficulty in procuring all that was necessary for man and beast.

The next morning early I arose and made a sketch of the Kuh-i-Khwajah. The morning then, at that early hour, was tolerably clear; and the hill viewed thus close (we were not more distant than about 5 miles) was very remarkable. Owing to the haze, which even thus early was slowly rising, I could not see far down the sides of the hills on the western side of the desert.

Our mendacious "chef d'escort" having now collected a sufficiency of guides and provisions from the villagers, for which he paid his own price, but for which he charged me according to a different tariff, now stated he was ready; so off I started, accompanied by the Khed-Khoda, or headman of Dadeh, who rode a very fine powerful Turkoman mare, which took him over the irrigation cuts in a very nimble manner. He told me he was obliged, about ten days after the Nao-roz, or the vernal equinox, to stable her in a perfectly dark stable, and cover her up completely in clothes, legs and all, and this because of the horse-flies, which in Sistan are very numerous and venomous, and make it peculiarly hazardous to keep horses. These flies feed, as grubs, on a saccharine gum that exudes from a dwarf tamarisk which abounds in the valley of the lower Helmund.

We passed through cultivated country for several miles, and, on nearing the margin of the lake-area, we noticed that what remained of tamarisk-jungle was being rapidly cleared previous to ploughing. It appears that of late years, owing to the paucity of rainfall in the basin of the Harud, Ferah Rād, and the Helmund, the size of the annual inundations of the Sistan lake-area has much diminished, and yearly the waters have receded, till
this year (1872) access to the Kuh-i-Kwajah is effected entirely on dry land; whereas Conolly, my solitary European predecesor, in 1842, when he visited this island, was conveyed there on a raft from the mainland, and through lanes cut and kept clear in the Naizar, or reed-field, intervening between the island and the mainland.

Now, however, cultivation has advanced to within two miles or so of the island: in fact, has been developed, pari passu with the retreat of the waters, which has been assigned as the cause; whereas it is due more to the fact that the comparatively civilised and strong rule of Persia has of late years supplantied internal anarchy or Afghan misgovernment, that these signs of prosperity have become manifest. The crops were principally corn. Irrigation canals, feeders from the main trunk-canal which passes the village of Chiling, were numerous; and, in all places where the road crossed, they were provided with frail wooden structures that served as bridges. Our friend the Khed-Khoda, on his big Turkoman, spurned the bridges and took his brooks in good style. As I had a chronometer in my pocket, I was prevented from doing the same. On the left of our road I perceived the tall tower of Chiling situated on the main canal that is led off from the Helmund. I also descried about eight other villages, each provided with its watch-tower. Their names, like small Persian villages generally, I found varied with the name of the then Khed-Khoda; so that Aliabad becomes in a few years Husainabad, and so on.

At Divanah, the last village we passed to the west, and which we found to be a wretched little assemblage of reed-huts inhabited mostly by herdsmen, who pasture their cattle in the marshes of the lake-area, we engaged guides to lead us through the labyrinth of tamarisk-jungle that fringes the borders of the now dry lake-area which represents what is usually submerged.

Once through this brushwood, composed almost entirely of tamarisk-bushes, we emerged upon the clayey dry bed of the lake, a perfectly flat boundless plain as far as the eye could reach to the south-west and north; but the haze had by this time so much increased, that the western mountains on the other side of the lake-area were with difficulty discerned. This lake-area was dotted irregularly along its eastern shores with patches of tall reeds, which were then just gone to seed. The reeds were about 10 feet high, and stood very thick together. They are very useful to the Sistanis, serving them in their green state as pasture for cattle, and on arriving at maturity for various uses, such as for making rafts capable of bearing two or three persons, for thatching purposes, for mats, screens, sieves,
pipe-stems, &c. Parts of this reed-field had been fired for the sake of the after-grass, and from these fires arose vast columns of smoke into the still air. These served as tolerable indications of the limits of the eastern shores of the lake-area, for a considerable way to the north of our path.

We found close to the island (if I may apply this term to the elevation we are considering) a large pond of somewhat brackish water, partly environing it on the eastern side. We were obliged, therefore, to make a détour round the north of this residual lake, and then we skirted the eastern cliffs of the Kuh-i-Khwajah till we reached its south-eastern extremity. The cliffs are steep and rugged, and have an altitude of, I suppose, about 220 feet. They were perfectly bare of vegetation except a few lichens. I remarked the débris at the base of the cliffs was not much water-worn, but preserved its angular sharpness and clean cleavage. I was able to recognise the fact that the water had risen, at some previous time, fully 10 to 12 feet above the general level of the clayey bed at the base of the cliffs.

When we reached the south-eastern extremity of the island, we found we had arrived at the base of a most interesting ruined fortress, or village tower, as I suppose, by comparison with existing villages in Sistan, I should term it. These ruins were those of Kuleh Kahgah, which was constructed apparently in terraces up the steep face of the cliff. The walls composing these ruins are of rubble-masonry, being the stone composing the rock set with mud-plaster; and, judging from the proportion of some of the remains, it is evident there existed formerly several large buildings in the town. One, in which we took up our temporary quarters, afforded ample space to our men and horses, and consisted of a courtyard surrounded by various large and small rooms; but access to this yard was rather difficult, and the devious path passed over the vaulted roofs of the buildings of the lower terraces. One of these vaults—dome-shaped arches of about 10 feet diameter—whilst one of our horses was going over it, suddenly collapsed, and the unfortunate animal (who luckily was then riderless) was precipitated into the chamber below, performing a half-turn in his transit, as he came down on his back and his legs sticking up in the air. We rescued him with difficulty, and were rejoiced to find him uninjured, having escaped with a few scratches.

On clambering up to the top or plateau of the island, we found it gently undulating, devoid of vegetation, except a few stunted bushes. The rock-formation of the island, geologically, is basalt. It has a dark colour, slightly crystalline fracture, and has a jointed structure running north-west and south-east; in that respect exhibiting the same general axis of disposition that
the mountain chain to the west possesses. The island evidently belongs to the same formation geologically as these mountains, and is one of the numerous hills of like shape and structure which exist on the eastern side of this lofty chain, which separates the Great Desert of Persia from the basin of the Helmund. There are, for instance, the Manja Kuh, the Kuh Kuch, and another island-hill, north of the Koh Siah, to the west of the citadel of Lash. The only peculiarity of this hill is its being thrown out so far in advance, at about 30 miles of the main chain.

A further peculiarity about the Kuh-i-Khwajah is that the gorge in the south of the island has been formed by the denudation of a mass of red marl that occupied this gorge, and the remains of which still cap the subjacent basalt.

On the top of the island there are a great number of tombs. That of the Holy Man, or Pir, from which the island derives its appellation, is situated at the northern extremity close to the cliffs. The tomb is profusely ornamented with rosaries of the seeds of the Binneh-tree and of other beads, and votive offerings of variegated pebbles of quartz and jasper, disposed in patterns on the top of the sarcophagus. This is placed in a domed building, the four corners of which are ornamented with the long spiral horns of the mar-khor, or wild goat—a mode of embellishment very prevalent in Eastern Persia and in Afghanistan.

From the top of the dome, which stood about 25 feet from the ground, and which formed a convenient station for our surveying instrument, the whole expanse of Sistan to the east is visible; but, owing to the haze, objects were very indistinct. I was obliged, in fact, to remain on the island till quite late in the afternoon, when the setting sun shone on the villages dotting the plain below, and thus enabled us to secure sights on the various objects I required to observe. To the north-west also I was equally unfortunate as regards the atmosphere, and could not discern the Pillar of Nadir, supposed to have been erected by that monarch as a beacon for travellers traversing these inhospitable wild expanses to or from Bandan, where the principal road from the interior debouches. From information furnished by a Persian officer, who surveyed this route, it appears this pillar is about 16 to 18 miles distant north-west from the Kuh-i-Khwajah. The existence of this pillar tends to show that periods of the dryness of this lake-area are recurrent, and probably it was during one of these, like the present one (1871-72), that this pillar was erected—eminently useful as a landmark in these expanses, where it is frequently impossible in the day time to “orienteer” oneself unless provided with a magnetic compass. When crossing the desert between Bâm and the mountains to its north-west, we passed two such pillars. They
were built of brick, about 150 feet high, with an interior spiral staircase, and I dare say this one is constructed on the same model.

Between the tomb of Pir-Khwajâh and the ruins of Kaleh-Kahgah, which we have described, is a distance of about 1000 yards, with a path running nearly in a straight line, having on its easterly side a number of graves, arranged in rows. Many of them are in disrepair, and the contents exposed. I searched in vain for any inscriptions worth copying, or for any encaustic tiles or bricks, which I had been led to expect to find in profusion, from the descriptions of Sistan in M. Ferrier's interesting, though slightly speculative, record of travels. The tombs are built of common sun-dried brick or rubble, simply plastered over with mud. They were intended to lie all with their feet to the kibleh of Mecca, so that at the Resurrection the en-tombed may arise with their faces towards that shrine; but the tombs, as indeed also most of the musjids of Eastern Persia, as far as my observations led me to conclude, are several degrees out of the correct direction. To the right of the path above mentioned I noticed a large tank, constructed of large squared stone. It was dry; but was formerly evidently used by the inhabitants of Kaleh-Kuhgah as a reservoir. There are at present no inhabitants on this island, not even a "mutawalli," or guardian for the shrine.

On the south-west extremity of the island, across the gorge, and situated on the edge of a perpendicular cliff, are ruins now known as those of the Kaleh Chel Kinji, or the Castle of the Forty Maidens. It seemed at the distance to be of white stone (probably it was built of mud), and overlooks another fort at its feet, lying about a quarter of a mile from the base of the island, and, I suppose, during the floods isolated from it. Till lately I believe this latter was garrisoned. I asked the chef d'escorte what legends about these ruins there might be, and without the slightest hesitation, like a true son of Iran, he invented a suitable story out of his inner consciousness. It was to the effect that in days of yore forty maidens were locked up by a Div in this castle, and treated very cruelly; however, a good Peri, or fairy, delivered them out of his hands, and transformed them into doves, and the Div and his imps into the Sistan flies, "which are with us unto this day," added my informant, triumphantly, as an unanswerable proof of the truth of his romance. Later in the afternoon I left this island, and returned to the mainland by a more south-easterly route than the one by which I had come. I put up for the night at the village of Lutf Allah, and the next morning I went on to Dadeh, and proceeded thence back again towards Nasirabad, and on to Banjar,
to rejoin the British Commissioner's camp. I had thus the opportunity of reconnoitering the route between Dadeh and Nasirabad, which, owing to the darkness, I had been unable to do on my setting out. The country between Dadeh and Nasirabad is singularly devoid of habitations, or even ruins. The hamlet called Burj-i-kerim was the only place I saw having a patch of cultivation about it. We crossed the watershed that exists between the land irrigated by the Kernandi Canal that waters Nasirabad, Banjar, &c., and the tract watered by the Chiling main canal and its subsidiary irrigation cuts, or "mao-burs," as they are locally termed. This watershed, which runs north-west by south-east, is not so well pronounced as further south, where accumulations of sand upon it give it a rise of 60 feet. I should suppose the basis of those sand-hills to be rocks of breccia and clay, such as are exposed at Kimuk, on the banks of the Trunk Canal, and which are repeated again more emphatically at Kaleh Fath on the Lower Helmund. It is worthy of observation how the parallelism recognisable in the disposition of the main ridges of elevation in the mountain chain separating Sistan from the Great Desert of Persia, is persistent even in these subordinate axes of upheaval. The tract forming this water-parting, where we crossed it, was deeply furrowed by the north-westerly winds, of just such depth that I was prevented getting azimuth bearings of Chiling and Nazirabad simultaneously. The force of the wind, judging from its effects, is surprising, and I should have thought the furrows had been formed by the action of water, had I not been repeatedly assured that they were due solely to the vehemence of the prevailing winds. The stunted stature of the tamarisk-bushes and patches of dwarfed sandworts and wormwood, also testified to the credibility of the statement.

In conclusion, it is to be hoped that, under the present Government of Persia, which has evinced a desire for progress, steps may be taken, by a proper system of embankments, to prevent the annual encroachments of the lake waters, which might be utilised to an unlimited extent by a judicious and scientific system of embankments, canals, &c. There is no reason, speaking in an engineering point of view, why the waters of the Helmund and Farrah rivers, &c., might not be utilised to irrigate vast tracts of land, capable of supporting an industrious population, and of producing luxuriant crops of sugar, indigo, and cotton, as well as cereals of all kinds; whereas at present, with the exception of, I suppose, in Sistan, some 350 square miles, intermittently cultivated, the whole of the water of the Helmund, for instance, runs to waste into the lake-area. But the time when such works could be undertaken in that part of
the world is necessarily very remote, and I fear that the waters of the Sistan Lake will long continue to be only useful as a haunt for the innumerable wild-fowl which find a winter refuge in their reedy expanse.

XI.—Narrative of an Expedition from Suakin to the Soudan, compiled from the Journal of the late Captain Langham Rokeby, R.M. By Francis Parry, F.R.G.S.*

Captain Rokeby arrived in Cairo on the 14th July, 1870, and was delayed there upwards of four months arranging preliminaries for an expedition to restore and complete telegraphic communication between the Red Sea and the Nile. In company with Mr. Rolfe, he left Suez on the 25th October by the Egyptian steamer Massowah. It being the season of the Hadj, or pilgrimage, the English travellers suffered no small inconvenience from the crowded state of the boat; though provided with nautical instruments, the commander of the steamer left port without setting his chronometer, which had run down, and, discarding all ordinary seamanlike methods, navigated after the Arab manner, avoiding shallows and reefs by a close observation of the colour of the water, and where there were no hidden dangers making a course by a knowledge of the configuration of the coast. Touching at Gambo and Jeddah, Suakin was reached on the 4th November.

Suakin, situated on an island of about a mile and a half in circumference, with suburbs on the mainland, contains about 5000 inhabitants, and is a place of increasing importance as a commercial depot. The adjacent country is a level expanse, bounded on the north and west by mountain ranges; extending southwards, the plain continues much of the same character all along the coast as far as Massowah, on the borders of Abyssinia. The rains, commencing in November, prevail until the close of February, during which time the lowlands exhibit an appearance of considerable verdure. Of late years cotton has been cultivated, the seed being inferior. The value of the fibre is about 43s. per canta of 112 lbs. purchased on the spot, or about 60s. delivered in Cairo. An attempt to carry the telegraph through the Soudan had been made in 1865, but the death of the two engineers employed in its construction effectually retarded the progress of the undertaking. Some idea of the arduous nature of the work may be formed, when it is stated that 8000 camels

* The accompanying section of Capt. Rokeby's map, from Suakin to Ras-al, is the only one that has reached us.
perished during the progress of the expedition, which terminated so disastrously; the great loss of transport animals excited the animosity of the Arabs who supplied them, and led to the destruction of the line in places distant from military posts, followed by heavy reprisals in demands of compensation for the damage done. In one section, forty miles of wire with the poles had been thrown down.

On the 10th December, all being in readiness for the departure, the engineers had audience of the Governor and moved forward towards Kasâla with a caravan consisting of thirty-two camels and two donkeys, passing over a sandy plain covered with low bushes of mimosa and wait-a-bit thorn, intermingled with tufts of grass, affording good pasturage for numerous flocks and herds during the rainy season, when the country presents a pleasing aspect; becoming arid and burnt-up under the scorching heat of summer. The first halt was made at the foot of the hill of Too-com-brete, the summit of which is about 750 feet above the sea-level. Here hares abound, and the camp was well supplied with quail and partridge. From this point the view eastward is bounded by the sea, ten miles distant; westward, are the uplands and mountain ranges of Wah-ma, Water-ab, and Wantari, of an elevation varying from 2000 to 5000 feet. Onward, as far as the mound of Abi-gwab, the vegetation and the character of the ground are unchanged. The route then crosses the spurs of the hills; large boulder stones lie scattered in all directions, and watercourses in the ravines mark the passage of the torrents which render the road almost impassable during the strength of the rains. A wady larger than the rest was ascertained to be 276 yards in width, and appeared to have risen to eight feet. A gradual ascent is made from the plains to the higher land. On the slopes, many Bedouins were seen, some driving milk-laden donkeys to the Suakin market, others tending the browsing goats of the tribe, while away from the beaten track in the far distance, the aid of a field-glass brought to view numerous gazelles feeding in perfect security. The Flora of the district is described as not varied; in sheltered places the wild thyme is abundant.

Snakes, both harmless and venomous, are common in this district. One was seen engaged in a deadly contest with a lizard, each reptile instinctively using its powers as best it could. The lizard, being attacked, seized the snake by the head with a firm hold; the snake, however, coiling round its adversary, would probably have gained the victory, had not the approach of the caravan alarmed both the combatants, who made off with all speed, apparently none the worse.

The Arab treatment for a snake-bite is to cut out the wounded
part instantly, and then rub the new wound with the horn of a deer.

On the 28th December the camp moved to Saterab, taking up its position about a mile from a watercourse, which overflowing during heavy rains that occurred some days subsequently, gave evidence of the necessity of choosing high ground for the tents while uncertain weather prevailed. Heavy rains occasionally disturbed the working party; the Europeans sheltered under the bushes, the Arabs stripped off their clothing and sat upon it until the rain ceased. Tents were provided for the two Englishmen; for the soldiers and Arabs no shelter was provided, even at night.

From Saterab, or Wah-ger, an advance was made to Maize, 54¾ miles from Suakin. The route, westerly and almost parallel with the mountains of Ouda, crosses a small ridge at Boor, entering upon a plateau. The sea is no longer visible, but to the east the barren hills of Tara-ban-tail appear, with others of the same chain.

Halting near the western range called Mount Maize an extensive view was obtained southward over the vast tableland, covered with low bushes, bounded by the mountains of Shab-ba. The rising ground to the west is the haunt of robbers, travellers are therefore careful to keep their cattle together; notwithstanding the adoption of precautionary measures, some of the sheep were taken during the night. A party of soldiers followed the track into the hills, recovered the lost sheep, extorting a fine in kind, an act of summary justice.

Some of the followers having on more than one occasion made free with the contents of the master's cooking-pot, leaving nothing for the next repast, the simple expedient of having a piece of bacon added to the general boil, deterred the Mahommedans from appeasing their appetite with what did not belong to them.

The aspect of the country is without material variation as far as Shankerat. This point is 1500 feet above the sea-level, and the highest ground traversed since leaving Suakin. A gradual descent now commences towards Hassasam, through an arid and barren district.

At the last-mentioned place, the first doum-palm on this route was seen. The fruit is slightly sweet, but insipid and woody; it forms, however, a staple article of food among the Bedouins, and is, in fact, a substitute for bread, with, probably, more nourishment, as many of the Arabs employed by the engineers had no other food for a month, except milk and a little Indian corn.

With regard to the periodicity of the rains, about four months is stated to be the time of their duration. Commencing at
Kasâla, they extend to Wah-da-way, from the latter place to Shankerat, and from thence to Suakin, moving in three divisions. On arriving at Shankerat on the 6th January, having passed through much wet weather, the expedition found the rains had ceased; the days hot, with a prevailing strong north-east wind, producing a considerable fall in the temperature after sunset.

The water supply at Hassasam being insufficient, a speedy move was made to Caram-ra-bab, (800 feet) a rapid descent since leaving the crest of the ridge.

Approaching almost to contact, the hills here form a defile through which the north-east wind blew with great force, driving the sand in clouds through the pass, to settle in deep drifts on the other side. Surrounded by an uninteresting and barren country, Caram-ra-bah has the redeeming feature of possessing a reliable watercourse.

The approach to it is three miles from the main route, and following the ravine formed by the constant action of the stream during the rains, passing between high perpendicular rock chasms, in the deep shade of this solitude even in the dry season water is found in pools, apparently percolating from natural reservoirs in the overhanging sandstone. The sole tenants of this ravine are a few vultures.

Returning to the camel-track a caravan was seen approaching destined for Suakin, its freight a living one, for though not frequently met with, it was a slave dealer's company proceeding to the coast with negro girls for the Jeddah market. Their position on the camel's back seemed by no means secure, a platform made of a bed-frame was lashed firmly on the animal by cords, on either side of this two girls sat almost afraid to move lest the equilibrium should be destroyed; their costume was simple and suited to all weathers, it consisted of a necklace of beads, a pair of sandals, and nothing more.

The camp was struck on the 18th January. The camels and donkeys provided with water suffered from lack of pasture; the men, also, were reduced to a small allowance, having failed to obtain sheep en route: a boy having recently taken five cows for his soldiery without payment, the Arab flocks had been withdrawn to the mountains. Shortly after departure, a dreary waste was traversed, volcanic in appearance and strewn with scoriae. To it succeeded the fording of the important stream of Lang-aib, which takes its course by Baraka into the Red Sea.

The winding waters of this stream, its banks overhung with the desert cypress, with the steep and lofty mountains of Anhib to the eastward, formed a prospect more pleasing than any observed since leaving the sea-coast.
A tract of unproductive sand lies between this and Wandi. Arrived at this place, comparative abundance gladdened the hearts of the hungry travellers. Flocks and herds grazed around, and a band of pilgrims bound from Gondokoro to Mecca, who had been twenty-five months on the road, were grouped about the wells sunk in the bed of the wady.

The Kasâla road now ascends, crossing the mountain at an altitude of 1500 feet, on approaching Ibîl-âge the high land of Abyssinia can be seen about 90 miles to the eastward. Many of the watercourses passed along the mountain route, have growing near them the much esteemed doum-palm.

On the 20th January the telegraph communication had been carried as far as Hamish-bil-ây, 141 miles from the point of departure. Situated in a valley this camp afforded a pleasing contrast to many left behind. Gazelles were numerous and to all appearance plump; on being killed not an atom of fat was found, nevertheless the venison was a welcome addition to the table. In this vicinity are several cemeteries of the Arab villagers, the graves are seldom more than a foot deep marked by a heap of stones which is increased in proportion with the position the deceased held in the tribe. Very little demonstration is made on the occasion of a death, often only the bearers accompany the remains to their resting-place. Numerous ruins mark the site of a large village, which the Bedouins assert was occupied by Ali, son of the uncle of Mahommed, who drove out the Christian owners. One building, standing on the bank of the large watercourse of Wah-da-way, and conspicuous for its size, is said to be "the worshipping-place of the ancient Christians." The ruin having been quarried for the sake of the materials, little idea can be formed of its original proportions. The highest portion of the wall remaining is about twelve feet. The smaller buildings are some eighteen feet square, others circular in form, the only break in the wall being a doorway.

Leaving Hamish-bil-ây the route lies immediately at the base of deeply-fissured hills of sandstone. The summit of one called Om-ree, more prominent than its fellows, has been formed by the Arabs into a resemblance to the features of a man, distinguishable by the unaided sight at a distance of eight miles; the length of the face from the eye to the chin has been conjectured to be 100 feet in measurement.

At Teheen the tents were pitched for the night in the dry river-bed, the stillness of the evening giving fancied security from variable weather; but towards morning a violent wind blew from the mountains, upsetting all canvas shelter and creating considerable confusion.
Wah-ree-dee, the first station in the Kasâla district, was reached on the 11th February: a strong body of soldiers permanently occupying the ground in huts, with numerous cattle feeding in an unlimited pasture, gave the place the appearance of a settlement.

An incident here took place which will serve as an example of the peculiar temper and obstinacy of the camel. One had fallen, from the moist and slippery state of the ground, but having made one ineffectual effort to regain its feet, nothing would induce it to attempt to rise a second time, and refusing all food, it died on the spot, although uninjured.

Proceeding towards Rasai, the plain extends for an immense distance, forming the watershed supplying the streams which feed the rivers flowing to the Red Sea; and the Gash and Atbara tributaries to the Nile, which passes through the Egyptian delta into the Mediterranean. At Rasai excellent water was found, milk and honey plentiful, with oxen at the price of 6s. per head, and sheep in like proportion.

After some delays, which took the chief of the expedition to Suakin, telegraphic communication was opened to Kasâla. The first message was transmitted from the latter place on the 20th March, 1871, informing the Governor-General of Suakin that the Arabs of the tribe of Gadeen refused to pay the usual tribute.

On the morning of the 17th May, Mr. Rolfe died at Kasâla, after some weeks' illness, leaving Captain Rokeby to carry out the most arduous part of the undertaking—the extension of the line westward—without European assistance.

About a mile from Rasai, in the direction of Kasâla, the first view of the hill of Filik is obtained, a prominent feature in the landscape, 40 miles distant. For half the distance, or nearly a day's journey with camels, the way is over a sandy desert; a more fertile tract of country is then approached, with an alluvial soil sprinkled with thorn bushes, left untouched amid the growing crops. Indian corn, cotton, and tobacco thrive here, and the yield would be considerably increased if the ground was rid of wild bushes and properly tilled. The agricultural implements of the district are primitive; the plough has a wooden blade, is drawn by men, and does little more than scratch the surface of the ground.

The price of Indian corn is 8s. 4d. the ardeb, or about 1s. 8d. per bushel. Two descriptions of tobacco are produced, and are procurable from the growers at 1s. 1d. per pound for smoking, and 2½d. per pound for chewing, qualities.

Filik, situated on the River Gash, is a market town, and the head-quarters of Sheik Mousa, the chief of the Hadendowa
tribe; it has a population of 1000 inhabitants, dwelling in mud huts. Situated at the junction of the caravan routes to Suakin, on the Red Sea, and to Berber, numerous trains of camels pass, laden with grain for the Nile boats proceeding to Egypt, and with skins and ivory for vessels laden at the sea-coast.

The comparative fertility of this neighbourhood is due to the river which, below the town, disperses itself over the land. In the direction of Kasâla are large plantations of cypress, through which the caravan route is taken for many miles. During the hot season, the journey is usually performed at night, when some excitement is felt lest the pack animals fall a prey to leopards, tigers, and lions infesting the forests.

It was on the 31st May, nearly six months after starting with the expedition from Suakin, that Captain Rokeby arrived at Kasâla. This town, situated on the right bank of the Gash, is the chief place of the Taka province, and the residence of a governor, with a kadi or judge. It is surrounded with the defence of a mud wall, insufficient to guard against attack from the Arabs, but protecting against the incursions of the hyenas and wolves that prowl about the outskirts at night. The inhabitants are estimated at 5000 persons, debilitated by the universal miasmatic fevers prevalent after the rains. For twenty-nine months prior to the arrival of the expedition the mortality had been 592, or at the rate of 20·4 per month, the highest death-rate being 43, the lowest 8 per month.

Nothing can exceed the indifference shown to all sanitary arrangements. Filth and putrescence are thrown into the streets, and accumulate in the environs of the town, the hyenas and pariah dogs doing the duty of scavengers. The water supply is got from wells in the gardens, which are sunk to the depth of 18 to 20 feet; though ample in quantity, this supply is, probably, polluted by surface drainage. Irrigation from the wells is practised after the Indian manner, two bullocks working an endless band, running over a wheel, to which are attached earthen jars emptying into a trough at every revolution. The gardens are carefully cultivated, producing an abundance of vegetables, notably onions and garlic; and of fruits, the pine, lemon, orange, also the banana; this last named, however, is not plentiful, a bunch costing half a dollar, a single fruit a piastre, equal to 2½d.

Education is not entirely neglected, as three Mohammedan priests are in charge of schools, receiving a remuneration fixed by the Government. A resident medical inspector attends to the public health, receiving 37½ dollars per month, for which advice and medicines must be provided for all applicants, free of charge.
The Kadi receives the pay of 500 piastres a month; his powers of punishment are limited to the infliction of 80 lashes, or four days' imprisonment. There is, also, a mercantile assembly, with a presiding chairman, which regulates the transport charges on merchandise, and mercantile affairs generally.

The bed of the Gash is 400 yards wide opposite the town. This year (1871) the stream commenced to flow on the morning of the 27th June, to continue for three months. Rising in the interior of Abyssinia, the river divides about 10 miles from Kasâla, one branch taking the direction of Filik, the other a westerly course, spreading over a considerable tract of country before reaching Goz-regiab. To the north and west of the town, between it and the river, are the huts of the Bedouins, structures of a circular form, well-thatched and weather-proof, bearing favourable comparison with the inferior dwellings within the town walls. Of the tribes settled in this vicinity the "Halanya" take the precedence, having been the original holders of the land until subjected by Mahomet Ali in 1838. The "Daka-reeah" were once settled at Darfour, on the western bank of the Nile. The "Choukrieh" both grow grain and deal in it, bringing large quantities to Kasâla from Kedaref, a town distant about five days' march. The "Haden-dowa" are scattered throughout the district, the majority being inhabitants of the uplands. The "Galeen" speak pure Arabic, and trace their origin from Berber, on the Nile; in respect of their Arabic speech, they are distinguished from most of the tribes, as dialects are found with almost every division bearing a specific name. The "Reunais" occupy the belt of land along the sea-coast from Suakin to Massowah. The "Haden-dowa" is numerically superior to any other in the Soudan; it is divided into twenty sections, occupying territory from Cosseir to Kasâla, Suakin being its easternmost point—to the west approaching Berber. The names of the divisions of the tribe are:

5. Har-quor-lab. 15. Hadal-ab.
7. Shar-saf. 17. Samer-ab.
8. Comeel-ab. 18. Han-see-lab.
10. Amer-ab. 20. Antee-gab.

The tribute levied upon the Arabs of the Taka Provinces by the Egyptian Government is about £60,674 per annum. All
the tribes are Mahommedan, and are strict in carrying out the observances of their religion.

An approximate idea of the cost of cattle and provisions at Kasāla is given in the following list of prices:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Dollars</th>
<th>Dollars</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Camels</td>
<td>From 10 to 100 each</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horses (of Dongola)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(of Abyssinia)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donkeys, pack animals for the saddle</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullocks, two years old</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cows</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calves</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheep</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fowls</td>
<td>50c.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Eggs           | 2 piastres = 5d

Salt is supplied from Jeddah, on the east coast of the Red Sea; the cost of its carriage into the interior renders it an exceedingly expensive luxury. The products collected here (at Kasāla), or in transit to Suakin, are skins, ivory, ostrich feathers, gum-arabic, cotton, tamarinds, sámsim, and coffee, the latter from Abyssinia. During the rains the caravan route is heavy, and the fatigue of travelling greatly increased.

The slave trade does not flourish here, the annual incoming being not in excess of one hundred individuals, of a value of from 30 to 100 dollars each. It was stated that a considerable traffic existed at Massowah, slaves being taken to that place from the Soudan, Abyssinia, and the White Nile, to be despatched in dhows to Jeddah.

Berbera, in the Somali country, was also mentioned as a great slave mart. The general opinion amongst the native merchants was, that Sir Samuel Baker's mission would produce a temporary deterrent effect, but that the trade was so profitable that nothing less than a permanent occupation of the countries engaged in it by a military force would suppress it; and that, if interfered with on the Nile, the transport of slaves to the seacoast with increased hardship would result.

From Caturea, a small village at the foot of the Kasāla mountains, an ascent was made in order to determine the character of the country lying to the eastward. Observations at the summit gave the elevation of 1250 feet above Caturea, and 3000 feet above the sea. The prospect extended over a vast plain, watered by the Gash; the River Atbara being seen at a distance of 40 miles. Signs of habitations were few, the native huts making no marked appearance in the landscape. Returning, the party experienced all the inconvenience of being drenched by the tropical rains, and with difficulty avoided in the darkness
the wells, or rather holes, dug to catch the rain-water. Into
one of these a donkey fell, giving four men infinite trouble to
extricate him.

The sudden deluge broke over Kasāla, levelling a hundred
houses with the ground, some of the Government buildings
running a risk of destruction from the quantity of water
rushing to a lower level. The storm lasted two hours, and was
the most violent of the season.

The Arabs are good story-tellers: one will serve as an
example. It is said that a Bedouin, sleeping in his tent, woke
at the dead of night with a sensation of unusual and uncomfort-
able warmth about the lower limbs, with inability to move.
Arousing a comrade who lay near, a light was struck, when, to
their unspeakable horror, they found that an immense snake
had deliberately, and without disturbing the sleeper, swallowed
nearly half of his person, and would have completed the
operation had not his presence been felt. Owing to this occur-
rence an Arab never reposes with the feet together, in order
that one leg should be free in case of attack.

On the 2nd August, 1871, a move was made from Kasāla
in the direction of Berber. Near the town the river spreads
over the land; here cereals were grown until the Government
introduced the culture of cotton, to the discontent of the rural
population. The party, however, soon entered upon uncultivated
ground, and proceeded in Indian file through the dense jungle,
on the alert lest the lions made off with the cattle; notwith-
standing, two cows were seized and carried from the camp in
the course of the night. A rescue was effected by a determined
attack with sticks and torches, but the cows soon died of the
injuries received. Fording the River Gash when swollen by
the rains is a difficult matter. The chief, desirous of gaining
the opposite bank dry-shod, in the absence of boats and of
materials for a raft, accomplished the passage after many mis-
givings as to the feasibility of the plan adopted; he being carried
on a bedstead supported on the heads of four negroes, who
waded cautiously through the swiftly flowing stream, threaten-
ing every now and then, by a false step in unseen holes, to lose
their footing and by a sudden lurch shake off their burden into
the river.

In this neighbourhood the sportsman may find some occupa-
tion; in the record of a bag of game brought into camp, guinea-
fowl, partridges, hares, and pigeons are numbered.

Eleven miles from Kasāla a halt was made, near the town of
Hebrait, which, at a distance (a long frontage of a mile of thatched
huts giving a false impression) appeared to be an important
place, the population really not exceeding 3000 inhabitants.
It being desirable to determine the precise position of Goz-regiab, a town about sixty miles north-west from Hebrait, a forced march was made to that place by way of the military posts of Amwra, Sugalab, Sugalab Kadi, and Sugalab No. 3; from the last mentioned the route traversed a vast treeless plain covered with high grass. On the evening of the second day the travellers were on the right bank of the Atbara, and in view of their destination, but, as all signals for a boat were unavailing, they unwillingly camped out.

Goz-regiab, seen from the right bank, is picturesque, well placed on elevated land, and surrounded by doum-palms. Its inhabitants number 1500. It boasts of a mosque, and appears to have a more intelligent and independent community than is to be found elsewhere. From its position, the place gave promise of being healthy. Several octogenarians found among the townfolk, combined with the fact of the average duration of human life being higher than in other towns visited, confirmed the idea, and gave it the foremost rank in the sanatorium of the Soudan.

The cultivation of cotton is arbitrarily imposed—the growth of corn almost prohibited—consequently, supplies of the latter are brought from Kedaref, seven days distant by caravan.

In the month of September, the Atbara River, at the point nearest to Goz-regiab, was at its greatest depth, 18 feet, the breadth one-third of a mile.

Returning to Hebrait with a large party, it was determined that rather than follow the guidance of an inefficient Arab, who had made anything but a direct course in coming, recourse should be had to the Englishman's mode of making for the point to be attained, i.e., by following a line laid down by bearings, the course being kept by compass. After marching seven hours across the trackless desert in the dark, the whole of the party, the leader excepted, became so distrustful of the result, and fearful of having gone astray (a serious matter where there is no water), that no inducement would make them advance a single step. However, when day broke, distrust gave place to renewed confidence in the ability of their leader: to their astonishment the station (Sugalab) was right in advance, at the distance of a mile.

During the autumn and winter of 1871 the telegraph system was extended north-westward from Hebrait. There being no water along the whole route, great privations were endured, and vexatious delay in the forwarding of materials proved an additional obstacle to progress; nevertheless, the work grew, until, on the 29th March, 1872, through communication was established between Kasala and Goz-regiab.
Clearing a way through 100 miles of forest, in the direction of Berber, had been partially accomplished, and a line between Suakin and Massowah projected, when, in August, failing health imperatively decided Captain Rokeby to resign the appointment. He reached Cairo, en route for England, ill of a fever acquired in the Soudan, and died on the 22nd February, 1873.

XII.—Journey from Gwadur to Karachi. By Captain S. B. Miles, Assistant Political Agent, Mekran Coast.

I have the honour to submit the following diary of my proceedings during my journey from Gwadur to Karachi through Western Mekran.

I had at first intended, after leaving Kej, to return direct to the sea-coast and thence to Karachi, avoiding the more direct road through Yus Beyla, which it was not advisable I should approach. At Kej, however, I found the opportunity very favourable for visiting Punjgoor, and I accordingly extended my journey thither, for which I trust I shall have your sanction and approval. I purposely took a different road throughout from that followed by Captain E. C. Ross in 1865, in order to see as much new country as possible.

I left Gwadur for Toomp on the 14th October with an escort of one jemedar and seven sowars, and halted the first night at Ankara nullah, distant 13 miles, in which we found a long pool of rain-water. A mile to the east of it lies the village of Nigore, which has a small date-grove and a good deal of cultivation around. There are two roads to Toomp from Gwadur; the eastern and shorter one of the two through the Talar Pass has been already described.

October 15th.—Ankara to Dusht River, 28 miles, a long march over a very uninteresting, uninhabited country, almost entirely devoid of vegetation. We started at 9 A.M. The road leading north-west over a bare level plain of nitrous soil. At 8 miles reach the Ghur range of hills, composed of fossiliferous clay and sandstone, and greatly eroded by the action of water, huge boulders being worn into very fantastic shapes. At 20 miles pass Gurook, another low range of hills, then on over another plain to the Saijee range, passing to the left Kohi Toongee and Saijee nullah, which is well wooded with tamarisk and acacia, until turning round the head of the range called the Sonti Saijee, we arrive at Dardan on the Dusht River at 9 P.M.
16th.—As several of the escort and servants had been seized with fever in the night, I made a halt here to-day. The headman of the place, Gholam Mohammed, with a number of others, came and paid a visit. They informed me there had been a quarrel between the Rinds at Sadoi Kelat, in which one man had been killed and two wounded, also that a party of Rinds from Mund were on their way to assist their friends. I gave the villagers a few presents before leaving. The fort of Dardan is small and situated on a low hill. There are about 70 houses and 300 inhabitants in the village. Buffaloes, cattle, sheep, and goats were numerous here. The river was not running, and water was only to be found in pools.

17th.—Left at 9 A.M. Road at first east between the river and spur of Saijee range for 3 miles, when we cross the river and traverse a plain covered with tamarisks, scrub, and asclepias, with cotton and corn-fields. The soil here is light and spongy, with sandy tracts. After 6 miles again cross the river, the bed of which is cultivated for jowaree and melons. Several villages were seen to-day. The heat during the march was intense from the prevalence of hot winds. At 3 P.M. we arrive at Sadoi Kelat, distant 15 miles.

18th.—There is no fort. The huts are, as usual in this part of the country, of matting and rushes, and are of the poorest description. The water here is good and sweet, but not abundant at this time. The lofty Saijee range to the south-east with its serrated ridge has a very fine and picturesque appearance. In the evening we had a heavy dust-storm with a few drops of rain.

19th.—Marched at 9 A.M. Cross the river and then over level scrubby ground for 6 miles, when we come to Guarok, a large nullah running east, well wooded with tamarisks, &c. At 14 miles pass Roostung, a low hog-backed hill, beyond which lies the village of Bul, where we arrive at 3 P.M., and halt. Direction north, the road good and level all the way. Bul is a large village of 400 houses, with about 20 wells of good water and a large date-grove. The town is surrounded by fields, which are all bunded for irrigation. The inhabitants are all Zikrees, the headman is Kowda Nooroodin. On the way we had passed signs of former cultivation, now deserted, the people being entirely dependent on the seasons for irrigating their fields. The soil here is much better than that at Dardan. I heard here that outrages had been committed by the Rinds at Nasirabad, and that two persons had been killed by them. Several persons came to me for medicines to-day. The women are not very prepossessing, and do not conceal their faces. Their dress is a long gown with pyjamas, exactly like that of
Arabs, but the gown is not quite so long. Bul is a term applied to any grove or tope of trees, especially date-palms.

20th.—Marched at 6 1/2 A.M. Our road lay N.N.E., over a thinly wooded and cultivated plain, with small date-groves and scattered hamlets. At 3 miles pass Chelunki, a village of about 50 huts and a small fort belonging to Meer Morad Gitchkee of Toomp. At 8 miles we came to another village, Much Chât or "Date-tree well." The headman of it is Dad Mohammed, who is much respected by Meer Morad and the people. I stopped some time to talk with him; he seems an intelligent man. The country here is better wooded, with some stately Kaheer or Sind thorn-trees. At 14 miles reach Hot Chôt, where we halt; the baggage came up at 1 P.M. The plain we are now traversing between the lower Toomp range in front and the Dusht River behind us is called Nigore, and is a well peopled, fertile district. The inhabitants of it are all Zikrees (with the exception of Dad Mohammed), and being a united body, are able to repulse the Rinds and protect themselves from being plundered. The district is well supplied with good water from wells which are deep but extremely narrow, being only about a foot square at the mouth. They are built of stone or wood. Some of the fields had corn nearly ripe, while others were being ploughed for sowing. The headman of Hot Chôt is Kowda Beloochan, but he was absent at Bahoo.

21st.—Hot Chôt to Pittook Pass, 8 miles. The road lay over gradually rising ground with a little cultivation at first, but becoming more stony and broken as we approach the hills. After 3 miles we turn up north-east and ascend the Khos Pittook, which forms the natural pass into the hill range. We halt at some springs which yield a scanty supply of good water. The lower Toomp range trends, like most of the hill-ranges in Mekran, nearly due east and west, and appears to average about 1000 feet in height. There is no pass through it immediately south of Toomp, and the caravan road from the Dusht therefore has to make a considerable détour to the east. Two footpaths are known to the Beloochees through the hills between Pittook and Toomp, named Nokirah and Meerali, but they are said to be impassable for laden camels.

22nd.—Pittook to Toomp 2 miles. The pass winds along torrent-beds, is very intricate and circuitous, and in two or three places rather steep, but is better than might have been expected. Springs of excellent water are met with at intervals, bursting out of the solid rock and forming rivulets swarming with small fish. The composition of the hills is chiefly sandstone with quartz and conglomerate, the dip of the strata is very oblique. On emerging from the pass we find ourselves in the
Toomp Valley riding under magnificent date-groves watered by the silvery stream of the Nihing, and backed by a loftier parallel range to the north. The path now leads due west for about 8 miles to Toomp, passing several villages. I halted near the fort under the date-trees, and had to wait six hours before the camels with the tents came up, though they had left some hours earlier in the morning. There is a better but longer road from Pittook round by Kehaoo, and the camels had come by that.

There is a small hamlet inside the wall, including one Banian’s shop. Meer Morad possesses one gun, a 12-pounder, well mounted on a field carriage. From the top I had a splendid view of the country. Almost in the centre of the valley, which is here about 12 miles broad, runs the Nihing River, at this season very low, and along it to the eastward lies a long belt of date-groves stretching in an almost continuous line for miles. The cultivation is hidden from sight, as the fields are all among the date-trees and do not extend beyond them. To the west is the village of Goomaz, distant about 6 miles, while to the north-east is seen Polapoor, the fort and residence of Meer Morad’s brother. There are fourteen others in the settlement or abâdu of Toomp, which, like Kej, is not a town but a cluster of villages, each having its distinctive appellation, but all included in the general name of Toomp. Rice is much grown here, and is reaped alternately with jowaree, beans, pulse, &c. The gardens yield figs, almonds, mangoes, plaintains, citrons, oranges, and lemons, but the staple production of the place is dates, which are of excellent quality. The difficulty here is want of camel-fodder, the ground outside the belt of cultivation being perfectly barren. The population of the abâdu may be about 8000 souls. In the fort reside some thirty weavers, who make coarse silk and cotton cloth, and a few carpenters and smiths, who make the simple agricultural implements used by the people.

24th.—We marched at 6 A.M. this morning and rode for 10 miles along the date-groves, when we crossed the Nihing River. Cultivation is pretty extensive the whole way to Nasirabad, but there are intervals of stony land with the usual jungle wood and scrub. On the way we passed the villages of Nuseerabad, Asiabad, Khush Kelat, Balachor, and Siring, each with its date-grove. These villages are nearly all supplied with karezes or artificial watercourses; they are very ancient, and their construction is ascribed by the people to the Devis. The present race of Belooch is not only quite unable to dig new ones but can barely keep in repair those there are. They are numerous in the Kej and Punjoor valleys, but I have not
heard of them elsewhere in Mekran. I arrived at Nasirabad at 9½ A.M., but the baggage did not come up till 4 P.M. Distance 20 miles. The fort here is in the hands of Dost Mohammed, and it ranks next after Toomp. Dost Mohammed is a tall, fine-looking man: he told me he was at feud with his brother Ashrufi, who dwells in the fort of Nodiz.

25th.—Marched at 5·30 A.M. At 6 hours pass Nodiz, and at 7 hours Kelaho. This is the eastern limit of the Toomp district. At 7½ hours the village of Shay Kan. The scenery is little varied. Cultivation and date-groves with, at intervals, tamarisks and camel-scrub. The road is generally well trodden and good, but in places stony; we cross several deep nullahs running into the Kil Khor, but they are mostly bridged over with fallen date-trees. At 9 hours we arrive in sight of Kej, and, skirting some outlying fields, we soon reach the Wirri Fort, and under it pitch our camp on the bank of the Kej River or Kil Khor. The Naib Moolla Ali Jan visited me in the course of the day. The next morning came Meer Bhayan Gitchkee, the Naib Mohammed Khan, and Meer Kunner, with all their following. There being no room in the tent, we all sat down outside in a circle, and the greetings were long and ceremonious. Meer Bhayan is a Deenarzai Gitchkee, and since the departure of Darogha Atta Mohammed has been virtually the chief and ruler of Kej, where he is greatly respected by all. All the yearly revenue of the province is received by him through old treaty with the khan.

On the 27th I went to return visits and to see the different forts. The largest and most important is Mirri, in which the Khan's Naib resides. It is well situated on a commanding eminence, almost overhanging the river. There is a tradition that it was built by Bahman, and that the earth of the mound on which it is erected was brought from a distance of some miles by the soldiers of his army in their horses' tobros. The fort is now very dilapidated, and has been much larger and stronger. The wells are dried up, and one or two unmounted guns in the court-yard lie rusty and uncared for. Kosi Kelat is about one mile from the Mirri; it is one of the residences of Meer Bhayan, who usually passes one week here and one at Toorbut alternately. Meer Bhayan received me at the gate, and was extremely civil; he informed me he had built it himself eight years before, and had called it Kosi Kelat from its airy situation. It is small, and of little strength. I then proceeded on to Toorbut, which is at present in charge of a Kotwal named Khodadad. When Darogha Atta Mohammed was here he caused it to be dismantled and the upper storey pulled down, and it is now incapable of defence. There is one old gun in it.
There are more inhabitants here than in the other forts, and they mostly reside within the outer wall, which is still good. Of the seven Hindoo traders at Kej, four live in Toorbut. The forts of Gushtmy, Killa-i-Now, and Abser, I did not visit. The valley in which Kej is situated is, perhaps, the most remarkable geographical feature in Mekran. The parallel ranges of hills which form it are very uniform in height, the north range being, perhaps, 1200 feet, and the south range somewhat lower. In breadth the valley appeared to average about 15 miles, while in length it stretches about 270. The river here was rather low, and the current weak. This river flowing westward meets the Nihing River flowing east, the confluence being about opposite Nasirabad, whence they turn south, and force egress through an opening in the hills. The stream from thence is called the Dusht, and debouches into Gwetter Bay. It is curious that the Dusht River should have been dry when I crossed it at Sadoi Kelat, although the Kej and Nihing were still running, but so it was. I found seven species of fish in these rivers, all of which are caught and eaten by the Beloochees. It is said there are crocodiles also in the Kej River, but I saw none. Rice appears to be the staple grain cultivated at Kej, but fields of wheat, jowaree, barley, and beans are seen, as also tobacco, cotton, lucerne, garlic, and pulse, &c. The state of agriculture is decidedly low, two crops are produced in the year. The work in the fields is done by slaves. The fields are irrigated by rain in its season, and at other times by karezes, which are met with everywhere here. Manure is little used, but the stubble is burnt and the ashes ploughed in, and sometimes cattle-litter is sprinkled over the fields. Very little or no care is bestowed on the date-trees in this valley; they are left to take care of themselves, or they would be more numerous, and the fruit superior in quality. I may observe that the sugar-cane is not grown here, nor, I believe, elsewhere in Mekran, at the present day. In former days, according to old Arab geographers, Mekran was famous for the refined sugar it produced, which was largely exported. The best quality was called Masekani. The manufactures of Kej are not very extensive. A good deal of cloth, silk, cotton, and wool, is woven, and great numbers of small neat caps, much worn by Beloochees everywhere, are made here. Some of the raw silk used is produced in Dizzuk and Serbaz, the rest is imported from Gwadur. It is a pity the culture of the worm is not more extended in Mekran. Leather powder-flasks and belts are a manufacture peculiar to Kej, which supplies nearly all Mekran with these articles. Musical instruments, of which there are six kinds known to the Mekranis, are made here. There are three varieties of stringed
instruments, also a flute, a pipe or piccolo, and the drum. There are numerous carpenters, smiths, and mooches, and I found no difficulty in getting the horses shod here with Persian shoes. There is no market held here now. I was told that one used to be held every Friday regularly some years back, but it had been discontinued. I had been inquiring into the state of affairs at Punjgoor, and heard to-day that the new Naib, Khan Mohammed, was on his way, and would shortly arrive there. I was assured the country was perfectly quiet, and there would be no difficulty. I thought it best, therefore, to take advantage of the occasion and pay it a visit.

29th.—We left in the evening and halted for the night at Jewsuk, a village a few miles further on.

30th.—This morning we were fortunate to find a man with four camels, and he was immediately hired, though at double rates. The road to Sami is partly along the bed of the Khor, and partly over sterile stony ground, with stumpy herbage. At 5 miles came to Khor Keysâk, which is one of the passes through the hills to Punjgoor. At 13 miles, Ketkin, a small hamlet, and at 14 miles to the left, Shahruk, a small fort with date-grove. At 3 P.M. arrive at Sami, distant from Kej 18 miles. Sami is well supplied with water, for, besides the Kil Khor, which runs to the south of the town, there is a small perennial stream from the hills. The dates are only sufficient for home consumption, while grain and rice have to be imported. Two Hindoos live here to collect the wool brought in from the hills, and there are about 40 weavers of cloth. I went over the fort, which Meer Esan told me was built by his grandfather; it is small and dilapidated. The revenue of Sami comes to about Rs. 740 yearly, none of which, I believe, goes to the khan. It is made up as follows:—land tax, Rs. 400; date tax, Rs. 200; capitation tax, Rs. 100; shepherd dues, Rs. 40. I was informed that there were three passes through the hill-range north of Kej. One called Girook, leading to Boletia, is nearly opposite Kej, and is the most difficult, though the shortest, route to Punjgoor; the Keysâk Pass is nearly as bad as Girook, and is not much used; the third, Balgetter, is the best, but the longest round; I chose it because the Girook had been already crossed by Captain Lovett, R.E. As I wished to be accompanied to Punjgoor by some influential person, I applied to Meer Esan Gitchkee, and it was arranged that Meer Kamalan should come with me as far as Kolwah. I was extremely glad to obtain his companionship, as he is a very intelligent and gentlemanly man, and possessed of a fund of information about the country. Meer Esan advised me to camp at Punjgoor, at the Mirri Esai, where the Naib resided.
November 1st. — Having been provided with camels, we marched to-day at 9 a.m. At 3 miles pass the village and new fort of Kullug, the old fort of which lies in ruins on a hill to the right. The road lies east, over a barren stony plain and along the khor, in which is thin jungle and underwood. At 10 miles, Herook, a small date-grove and patch of cultivation, but with no habitations. Two small streams here run into the khor from the hills, fertilising a small tract. The valley appears to be full of springs, and, though running water is only met with at intervals, in the bed of the khor, it probably continues flowing under ground. Halt at 3 p.m. near a pool. Distance 16 miles.

2nd. — Continued our journey along the stony bed of the khor, here wooded with acacias and the sombre tamarisk. Road broken and heavy. Here and there we come upon a ‘‘halk’’ or shepherd encampment. At 8 miles we enter a long prairie of tall coarse grass or rushes, which is said to harbour numbers of wild pig. The interval between Sami and Kolwah is almost uninhabited, being a sterile gap between two long fertile strips. At Tejabadan, 10 miles, we leave the Kolwah road and turn up north-east towards the hills; wood now ceases, and mountain herbage with ‘‘Peesh’’ palm in the nullahs begins. A few miles further on we halt at Chekulla, near a ‘‘halk,’’ where flocks of sheep and goats are seen grazing on the hill-side.

3rd. — Start at 6.30. Road north, along the steep bank of a nullah up the foot-hills of the range. We then enter the Khor, which forms the Ketug Pass, the bed forming an excellent road, rising by a very gentle acclivity. The perpendicular walls gradually increase in height as we ascend. On the north side the descent is equally gradual; here a spring of water, called Balgetter, is reached, and, soon after, the pass opens into a bare level plain, also called Balgetter, bounded by hills on all sides stretching far away into the distance, their blackish hue contrasting strangely with the white nitrous soil of the plain.

At 9.30 pass a small fort to the left, called Dumb, built by Meer Boher Gitchkee. Pushing on we soon lose the way, the hard ground showing no traces of the road. After wandering about some time in the hills, we come up some fields, in one of which a man was ploughing; he was easily induced to show us the way to our halting-place. A spring of water, named Tush. Distance 18 miles. The sky now became overcast, and a little after sunset a heavy thunder-storm burst over us, soaking the baggage, and causing us considerable discomfort. A palpable change in climate is experienced directly this range is crossed;
from a close, sultry heat on that side, to chilly nights and cold winds on this.

4th.—Road to-day very intricate, and winding up and down low hills. The almost vertical direction of the strata, and the friable nature of the slaty rock, make it very difficult and slow travelling for the camels. After a few miles pass two large nullahs, the Hingol and Kurooshi, both running west into the Ghishkhor. At 9 miles arrive at a pool under a ledge or chine, named Gutti Güristichum, down which trickles a little rill of water. There is a goat-path up to the top of this cliff, where we found our halting-place, but the road is about 1½ mile round.

5th.—To Goran, 7 hours. Road at first along nullah, named Lushkarikhkor, in which is a spot named Lall Khan-i-jungtjah, from a battle fought there about fifty years ago. Springs and pools of water are frequent in it. At 12 miles pass the nullah and hill-range of Peeree, in which traces of iron are visible. General vegetation continues very scanty, camel-grass and peesh (Chamaerops Ritchiana) in the ravines, with an occasional Babool acaecia and Ber-tree. At 15 miles we are glad to halt and pitch our camp in a picturesque little hollow or dell in the hills near a brooklet fed by springs bubbling out of the rock, full of small fish and bordered by oleanders, peesh, and other plants. There are two, if not three, species of oleander in these hills: the common poisonous one, and another non-poisonous, which is highly valued for its medicinal virtues by the natives.

6th.—To Shahbaz Fort, 6 hours. From Goran there are two roads to Punjgoor, one over the Goran range, which is a somewhat steep ascent for laden camels, and another much more circuitous, but a better road. I chose the shorter one. The pass turned out to be about half a mile in length, and not near so steep as they had made out; the camels, however, had all to be assisted up by the men. The summit of the range is level, intersected by numerous nullahs. At 3 miles we come to a spring of water, named Ledan, with a low range to north, named Bundi Koh. Passing this, we see by the roadside an extensive cemetery of simple Belooch graves. It is a curious thing that on every day's march since leaving Kej we had met with one or two of these cemeteries. The country, however, is uninhabited, except by a few shepherds, who are too few to afford tenants for so many graves. They may, perhaps, mark the site of former towns or villages, but the Beloochees can give no information respecting them, and have seldom any name for the localities. The fort of Shahbaz now came in sight, and we entered on the Dusht of Punjgoor, a flat, unwooded plain of light alluvial soil, partially under cultivation
and draining by watercourses, mostly running south-west. At 11 miles we pass a small fort to the left, named Koot.

Among the fields was seen a family party cooking locusts. They had collected large bagsful the night before, and were meditating a grand feast. The locusts are either spitted by fifties on a stick and roasted like kababs, or they are cast by bagsful into an oven formed of a deep hole in the ground, into which embers have been put; the mouth is then closed for some hours, when they are found nicely baked through. One little child was capering about, munching his greasy kababs like sweetmeats with great gusto. Arrived at Shahbaz Fort at 1 P.M., distance 13 miles. The fort is well situated on a large circular mound commanding the plain. It is small, but in good order, having been repaired about four years ago. There are no habitations near, and the fort is quite unoccupied and deserted, with the exception of a seede, who looks after some of the surrounding fields. The only water is from a well outside, which yields a copious supply. Sheep and goats are sent here to graze from Punjgoor, where there is no fodder for them. I wrote to-day to Khan Mohammed to inform him of my arrival. The nights are very chilly now, but the cool breath of the mornings is delightful, as in an English spring.

7th.—Started off the tents early at 9 A.M. Resumed our march over the Dusht, a flat fissured and furrowed by nullahs and sparsely dotted with shrubs, varied here and there by a patch of cultivation, and backed by a dark curtain of hills. At 6 miles reach the Kasani Koh range, which takes two hours to cross by a long tortuous pass.

At 1 P.M. we come to a small pool in the Gorandi ravine, where we rest for an hour. Passing this, I soon had the gratification of seeing the valley of Punjgoor, with its fort and conspicuous date-groves lying in front of us.

Thermometer at 6 A.M. 46°, and at 1 P.M. 86°. The next morning I received a visit from Ibrahim Khan, the Chief of the Nowshirwani tribe, at Punjgoor, and the nephew of Azad Khan; he told me he had been to Kandahar and Sistan. At 11 A.M. I went to return the Naib's visit: he showed me over the Mirri and Tul forts. The former is in ruins, having been destroyed by the Khan. It must have been a fine fort, and superior to any other here in its time. The domed gateway, arched round, is a handsome entrance. Tul Fort from the outside resembles somewhat a church with a square tower; there is a good view from the top. The groves and cultivation are supplied by four karezes. From the Mirri I went on to Tusp, through the grove and hamlet of Tood. Here we passed the end of the Rudkhan River, where it loses itself in the sand;
so much water, however, has been expended on the way in irrigating the fields, that there is not much left to lose. The Tusp Fort has been destroyed. The settlement is the most populous of all at Punjgoor, and the inhabitants the most turbulent and united in resisting payment of taxes, in which they always set the example to the Punjgoories.

Punjgoor appears to be a healthy place, from the number of old grey-beards I noticed to-day. Some of the girls were very fair.

10th.—To-day I went to see Meer Gazian at Soordoo Fort, where the Naib happened to be visiting too. After sitting some time I was taken through the fields and fruit-orchards. The abundance of fruit-trees surprised me, and I regretted having come just too late to enjoy them. Apples, grapes, plums, oranges, lemons, citrons, peaches, figs, almonds, and jujubes, are some of those to be found here. At Soordoo there are no karezes, and the fields are watered from the river. From Soordoo I crossed to Khodabadan, passing on the way the large settlement of Gurmkan, the fort of which has been levelled. Here I noticed a date-press of primitive construction, the juice of the dates being required to pour over others when packed in jars for export. From Khodabadan I returned to camp through Dozana, where I paid a short visit to Mohammed Shah.

11th.—There is some difficulty in getting camels here for Ormara, not that there is any scarcity of them, but the men are so independent and difficult to deal with. My visitors all came again to-day, and left me little leisure to go about and see the place. The Hindoos also came to-day: there are five here; they appear to be well treated, and to have a lucrative trade in their hands. One of them, an old man, was disguised exactly like a Belooch; he had acquired the language, and had even the squalid appearance and truculent air of the native. He was better informed regarding the geography and state of the country generally than anyone else I met with.

Punjgoor bears, both physically and politically, a striking resemblance to Kej, and the description of one applies almost equally well to the other. The same long narrow valley with detached settlements, the same productions and political institutions, are the characteristic features of each. Punjgoor is, however, on a somewhat larger scale. It consists of thirteen abádus; five large and eight small ones. Most of these were formerly protected by a fort; but, with the exception of Tul, Soordoo, and Khodabadan, they have all been destroyed by the Khan. The names of the large settlements are Ésai, Tusp, Soordoo, Khodabadan, and Gurmkhán. The eight small ones
are Chetkân, Dozanáb, Bood, Wushbood, Dumb, Cheri Dumb, Sūreegorān, and Bonistān. Each of these abādūs is a medley of fort, fields, fruit-orchards, date-palms, houses, and water-courses; the rest of the plain in which they are being arid and unproductive.

The hills forming the valley are about 12 miles apart. There is no general name for either the north or south range: indeed, in Mekran, as in Arabia, there is a singular deficiency of general names for geographical features, such as hills, rivers, &c.

The south range extends as far east as Nooshky; the north range only reaches to Kharan.

The River Rudkhan rises four days' journey to the north-east, and except in the floods, when it falls into the Guarso at Bingeé Kelat, becomes absorbed in the ground just to the west of Punjgoor. It is a shallow stream, but the current is fast, running about 3 miles an hour. I may observe that Pottinger's hearsay account of the Boooor River is quite incorrect. There is no river of that name here; and the names of Mooleedanee and Bhugwar, applied by him to the Dusht River, are unknown to the natives now, so far as my inquiries extend. The two chief tribes are the Gitchkees and Nowshirwanis; the latter all reside in Khodabadad, which has lately been taken possession of by Ibraham Khan from the Khan of Kelat. They are an independent and predatory tribe, and hold great influence and power in the Punjgoor valley and Kharan.

The Gitchkees are of the Esauzai branch, and are found in the Soordoo Abādū. Their Sirdar, Meer Gazian, receives half the revenue of the place, and appears to be associated with the Khan's Naib in the government. The population of the Esai Abādū is chiefly of the Kashāni, Keenugzai, and Burr tribes; while at Tusp they are nearly all Moolarzais. The rest of the population of Punjgoor is made up of Durzadas slaves and inferior tribes and families, and may be put down roughly at from 16,000 to 18,000 souls.

The hill-men and shepherds around are Bezonjoos, Sājudees and Brahoos of sorts. The Punjgoories are a notoriously turbulent lot, and would require a strong government to keep them in any order.Externally Punjgoor was quiet enough at this time; but it is often, and especially when taxes are being levied, a seething pot of discord, always ready to boil over in bloodshed.

The Khan's Naib is, of course, inimical to the rebellious Nowshirwanis; the Nowshirwanis and Gitchkees are deadly enemies, and the Nowshirwanis are themselves divided. The petty political intrigues and jealousies are as necessary to the Belooch and as acrimonious as in a highly civilized state.
The revenue is derived from three sources, viz., a tax of 10 per cent. on land, the same on date-trees and transit dues. These are Rs. 2 per camel-load on imports, and 8 annas per load on exported dates.

Last year Darogha Atta Mohammed collected Rs. 35,000 from Punjgoor; the year before, the present Naib had collected only Rs. 5000. This year nothing had yet been obtained, because the people refused to pay, and there was no means of compelling them. The Naib told me that when force was resorted to, as much was taken as possible, in which case of course the poorest and weakest suffered most; he thought the general average was Rs. 15,000. About one and a half month ago, a caravan of 400 camels arrived from Kandahar with wheat, &c., and had left a few days since with dates. The Naib had not arrived here at the time of their leaving, and they consequently got off without paying any dues. Had Atta Mohammed been here when they departed, he would have taken at least Rs. 1000 out of them. The glory of Punjgoor is in its dates, which form one of the staples of food, and are exported in large quantities. They are greatly and deservedly famed for their excellence, which is attributed by the natives to the cold and to the sweetness of the soil. The best kind is the Mussátee, and it is perhaps one of the finest dates known. These are packed in small earthen jars, called "hoombs," with the expressed inspissated juice of inferior kinds poured over them, and the mouth then closed; they are chiefly sent as presents. Though so late in the year, unripe fruit was still hanging from many of the date-trees, the best kinds being in mat bags, to prevent them dropping. The grains grown here are rice, wheat, jowaree, and barley; the Kharif crops being rice, jowaree, and pulse; and the Rabi, or spring crops, barley, wheat, beans, &c. The fields are manured with decomposed vegetation and dung. The jowaree is a little taller than in Mekran generally, but does not reach the height seen in India. It is found necessary, according to the natives, to transplant it in rows like rice, and the fields consequently look very thin; this is probably owing in some degree to the poorness of the soil. The practice obtains here, as in Mekran generally, of sowing leguminous and culmiferous plants together; a field of jowaree, for instance, may frequently be seen intermixed with moong. There is abundance of water for irrigation from the river, and from karezes, of which there are eleven at Punjgoor. Well-irrigation is not practised here; and, indeed, I did not observe a single field irrigated from wells throughout the journey. The method of raising water is by hand over a pulley,
both the Persian wheel and Indian mote system being quite unknown in the country.

The trade of Punjgoor is mostly in the hands of the Hindoos; the imports being cloth, grain, salt-fish, metals, and sundries; and the exports, dates and wool. The wool is of very fine quality, but is unfortunately greatly adulterated, being mixed with goats' hair, and packed in a damp state after having been exposed to the dew. The trade with Ormara has lately increased in proportion as that with Kelat has fallen off. The forts and pucka houses are built of mud-bricks, the friable flaky rock being useless for the purpose. By far the greater part of the houses, however, are built of date-leaves and matting. No large timber of any kind grows near Punjgoor, and the only firewood is date and peesh leaves. The manufactures are few and unimportant; they consist of felts for camel-saddles and carpeting, and coarse cotton cloths, both white and brown, the raw material of which is imported from Dizzuk. There are no “hakeems” or doctors here, or anywhere in Eastern Mekran, the healing art being practised by old women, who are acquainted with a few simples.

12th.—To-day the camels having come, we prepare to leave Punjgoor. I had been most hospitably received here, presents of sheep, flour, fruit, &c., having been sent every day; and the Naib, Khan Mohammed, had been particularly civil and attentive. I gave him a rifle, telescope, cloth, &c.; and to Sirdar Meer Gazian and the others, presents in proportion. We managed to start by 10 A.M., the road leading south through the same pass we had come by. To the south-west of Punjgoor, on our right, was the ancient fort of Khurrumabad, which is said to be the old name of Punjgoor. I could not learn when or how it had received its present appellation of the “Five Tombs.” In the broad nullahs near the hills is quite a green sea of peesh-palms. In lower Mekran these would soon disappear; but here the leaf is hardly used, except for fuel. This tree is held in peculiar affection by the natives, and the uses it is put to are innumerable. Excellent rope being made from the leaves by the simple process of twisting them, no other kind is used; and the fibrous virtues of the *asclepias* and other plants are quite ignored. On the way we passed numerous trains of camels, asses, and pack-bullocks going to Punjgoor for dates from Ormara, Kolwah, &c.; and evidently a brisk trade was going on at this time. At 5 P.M. we halt and camp in the hills. No water. In descending the pass, one of the sepoys was fallen upon and flattened by a camel. I thought he was killed, as he was senseless for some time, but he recovered.
13th.—Leaving at 8 A.M. to-day, we proceeded south across the Dusht to Shahbaz Fort, where we watered the animals. The road then turned south-east, and led us scrambling along tortuous torrent-beds among the hills. At 15 miles arrive at our halting-place, called Jourikân, or “Oleander Nullah,”—a picturesque spot. A copious fountain of warm, but sweet, water gushing from the solid rock, and forming a deep pool full of fishes, and surrounded by peesh, wild date, oleander, and ber trees. Large parties of poor people were to be seen here tramping back to Kolwah from Punjgoor, where they had been to glean after the date-harvest. This is a common practice in Mekran, the poorer people visiting the centres of date cultivation during the harvest from all directions. The traffic between Kolwah and Punjgoor seems to be greater than between Punjgoor and Kej. Our present baggage-camels I find are wretched creatures, but Punjgoor camels are not only inferior. The camels in Mekran generally are as inferior to those in South Arabia as the Beloochees are behind the Arabs in handling them. Compared with Bedouins, the Belooch are contemptible camel-riders.

14th.—The camelmen lost their animals this morning, and did not bring them till near nine. Road winding, over hill and dale as usual. The formation now changes from slate and limestone to sandstone; the strata lie vertical or nearly so, and the surface of the rock thus rapidly disintegrates. The hills soon assume a more verdant appearance, from the short grass and herbage with which they are clothed. Pass on the way three large nullahs running south into the Kil Khor. At 14 miles arrive at Zahm or “Sword” nullah, where are two pools fed by springs, affording a permanent supply of good water. On the bank is a parallelogram of cleared ground with a low wall, and having circles and squares inside, like the foundations of dwelling-houses. Hard by are the beginnings or remains of a small fort, about 40 yards square, the walls of which are only about 4 or 5 feet high.

These remains may perhaps indicate the site of some former town or entrenched camp. They stand on a small plain or valley, which may have been cultivated once, though it is not now. I could obtain no satisfactory account of the place, but there is, of course, a legend attached to it about a Belooch chief, who built the fort and was attacked by the Persians, who carried his sister into captivity.

15th.—Marched at 8 A.M. At 10 miles pass Goombug, a halting-place, where there is water. At 11 miles Kurpulla, and at 12 miles Dushtuk, two small plains, which showed signs of former culture. I was told that they had been ravaged about
six years before by Belooch Khan Nowshirwanee, and the people driven or carried off, since when they have remained deserted and are now overgrown with grass. At Goombug the road bifurcates, the more direct branch having a steep defile in it, which the other circles round some miles to avoid.

The country more diversified to-day, and the road better. We passed several caravans. Off the road somewhere near is said to be a curious cave, called Zik, with the tomb of a woman in it. Women (more than men), and dragons, too, by the way, play a great part in the legendary lore of Mekran. I was shown several spots where dire encounters had taken place with these monsters, and in some of them the blood of the dragons was still to be seen by those who liked. At 1 p.m. reached Khuzhma, a deep and wooded nullah, with a pool of water, where we halt. Distance 16 miles.

16th.—March at 8 a.m. At 6 miles reach the Kil Khor, here very broad and well wooded with tamarisks, mimosas, &c. At 8 miles come to the Kohi Neg, a high range, trending east and west; and a few miles to the west lies another range, called Tunk, through which the Kil Khor flows into the valley. After ascending the bed of a torrent for some distance we come to the Hodal Pass, a short but very steep defile, in traversing which the camels had to be partly unloaded. On the top I saw a herd of "gud" or ibex, but of course out of shot; they were the first I had seen. At 2½ p.m. arrived at a small spring in Khor Khuldan, distant from Khuzhma about 12 miles, where we camp for the night. General direction south-east.

17th.—Camels ready and off by 7 a.m. Road down the Khuldan ravine, the steep wall-like bank gradually increasing in depth and width. At 3 miles pass the date-grove and springs of Khuldan. At 7 miles, emerging from the way, we debouch upon an open plain. The first hilly district has now been left behind, and we are now in Kolwah, the granary of Mekran. Crossing the valley we pass to the left, the ruined fort of Gutt, and on the right Nag and Putk. Here cultivation is seen, but a good deal of the soil appears to be untouched, and is covered with shinz, soorngs, &c. Very few inhabitants are seen here, many of them being in the hills with their flocks and herds, and others gone to Punigoor for the date-harvest. At 13 miles we leave the valley and enter the Beloor nullah, and begin to penetrate the second hilly district. At 20 miles reach the village of Beloori Kullug, where we are glad to halt at 3 p.m. The valley of Kolwah is here about 10 miles broad; there is a great scarcity of water in it, and the cultivation is dependent on the rain alone. Many of the ravines running into it are admirably adapted for bunding, and could then be made to increase
the fecundity of the whole district; but this, of course, is beyond the power of the people in their present state.

19th.—At 9 A.M., having broken up the camp and taken leave, I continued my route southerly through the hills, the road leading along ravines and torrent-beds full of large loose boulders. A difficult path, water being plentiful from springs all the way. General vegetation, oleanders, neem, ziziphus, and a prickly euphorbia. At 12 miles halt at a pool of rain-water in Khor Kasug Purush, or “Cupbreaker Nullah,” which falls into the Khor Bussool.

20th.—March at 8 A.M. and wend our way along the khor, which becomes gradually wider and deeper. Road extremely tortuous and paved with round cobble-stones, making it very painful travelling for the camels. A regular concatenation of pools and springs of water the whole way. The nullah in upper part is called Shedad or Shiadât. At 9 miles pass a place named Zoramibeit, and at 12 miles reach Apgir, where we halt. The hills appear to be of sandstone, with quartz, limestone and a little slate; they are clothed with sparse herbage, and numerous flocks of sheep and goats were seen browsing on them. The Beloochees in Kolwah and hereabout are nearly all Zikrees or Mehlis. This sect of non-conformists sprung into existence about 300 years ago, at which time their Mehdi or Saviour appeared on earth. Their Mecca is the fort of Toorbut at Kej, near which is a small hill named Koh Moorad, where they go to worship. Zikrees keep aloof from other Beloochees generally, and are always peaceful and well-behaved: formerly they were much more numerous, but have decreased through persecution by the Gitchkees, &c. I believe their tenets have a great analogy to those of Babism, the new sect in Persia.

21st.—Road to-day down the khor, as yesterday. Passed an immense flight of locusts, which were devouring everything, the shrubs being literally brown with them. We now come to the clay hills of the coast, and the ranges, instead of being peaked and serrated, are flat and horizontal on the top. The clay alternates with sandstone, which supports vegetation, while the clay does not. At 12 miles pass Wakab, where there is a small stream running. At 3 p.m. reach Dostinigoarrum, where we halt. Distance 15 miles.

22nd.—Start at 7½ A.M. The khor, which yesterday led due west, now circles round a low range to east or east-south-east. Road better to-day, being more sandy. The watershed of the Khor Bussool, in which we are travelling, is the sterile hilly tract between Kolwah and the coast. Receiving numerous confluent, it drains a considerable extent of country and falls into the sea about 20 miles west of Ormara. From the evidence
of the bed a good deal of alluvium seems to be brought down by it. Though no lack of water is to be found in it at all seasons, it cannot be dignified with the name of river, as it is but alternately a dry bed and a rushing torrent. Beds of sulphur are found here, according to the natives. At 2 p.m. reach a muddy pool, near which is a small hamlet, with date-trees, where we halt. Distance 14 miles. The khor is here very broad and open. I observed the liquorice-plant growing in it. We were here visited by a violent dust-storm, rendering darkness visible for some hours: it was one of the worst I had seen.

23rd.—March at 7 a.m., and soon leaving the Khor Bussool, we traverse in a south-easterly direction a sandy plain of camel-grass, &c., passing a small patch of cultivation. After a few miles come to a broad swamp or khor, which we cross knee-deep in mud. Road then over plain of sand-hills, tufted with bushes, along the Isthmus of Ormara, until we arrive at the Telegraph Station at 3 p.m.

24th.—Ormara is a town of about 500 houses, or rather mat-hovels. There is a good deal of trade carried on, the customs for this year having been sold for Rs. 12,000. There are about a dozen Hindoo and Khoja merchants, who trade with the interior, and with Bombay, Karachi, and the Malabar coast. The chief articles of export are salt-fish, wool, and mats, and it it is noticeable that the exports exceed the imports in value. I stopped at Ormara four days.

27th.—I left the Telegraph Station at 3½ p.m., the road leading north-east under the Telegraph line over a sandy plain, with scrub and the dwarf willow, called "shemil." At 5 miles pass the village of Hurd to the left. After a short ride of 10 miles arrive at Bul, where is a well, but no habitations.

28th.—Bul to Bullaroo. Road north-north-east, over plain of sand and clay, with ordinary desert vegetation. Cross two broad salt-water creeks. At Bullaroo we found a cluster of babool-trees, with a few fields of wheat and jowaree; the cocolynth gourd here very abundant, and the sand-hills covered with the common succulent camel-grass. Of this grass or scrub there are many species, each kind having its name, but all known to the Beloochees under the generic name of Soorug, so called from its salt or alkaline taste. It is held to be among the best fodder for camels, causing them to drink freely. From its abundance and wide distribution it forms one of the most peculiar features in the vegetation of Mekran. The road leading to the Harriani Pass diverges from Bullaroo, and I sent off some of the heavy baggage round by that way, but I intended myself going through the Malar Kundug, which is more difficult but less known.

30th.—Bullaroo to Khor Butt 13 miles. March at 9.30 a.m.
road east, over sand-hills and bushes, and then as the spur of hills comes closer down to the sea, we leave the heavy undulating sands to make our way along the beach. The strip of plain on our left is about half a mile wide and narrows gradually as we approach Khor Butt, where the hills are close on the sea. The hills are chiefly of grey clay, the base of them being in places aproned with red sand. This red sandstone is found on the beach from Pussnee to beyond Sonmeane. Two khoors, or deep ravines, coming from different directions, converge at this point. The eastern one, called Soorab, forms a natural road up the Malan. The western one is Khor Butt, which, winding down from the north-east, leads to the Malar Pass, or Kundug.

December 2nd.—Leaving the camp at Khor Butt, proceeded up the Soorab Valley to visit the Malan. After 3 miles we commence to climb up the almost perpendicular face of the Butt, which rises about 600 feet, by no means an easy or pleasant ascent. On the top a fatiguing walk of 10 miles over a level plateau, cut up by very deep ravines, brought us to the edge of the cliff, over which the telegraph-wires fall a clear drop of 1500 feet. From here a magnificent view is afforded of the coast-line and ranges of hills to the east, trending away for many miles—the beach below and the waves beating against the root of the cliff appearing curiously minute. It is a sight well worth seeing. The plan of carrying the wire over the Malan was certainly a very original idea, and has answered well, as it has never once given way, I believe, since it was erected ten years ago. We stayed the night here, and the next morning began to retrace our steps. Half-way over the plateau we are taken off the road to inspect the site of an old town. The ruins consist of an immense mound of stones, with the foundations of houses visible: these show that the houses were built of flat slabs of sandstone, cemented with mud, the style of building being unlike anything now seen in Mekran. It is ascribed by the natives to the Lütées, but no name is attached to it except that of Dumb or "the Ruins." Near by is a large cemetery, apparently ancient. Some of the tombstones had curious carvings of animals, dogs, camels, men's hands, &c. Descending the steep we reach camp about 4 p.m., rather tired. The formation of the Butt appears to be chiefly grey clay, with coarse sandstone, limestone, quartz, conglomerate, and abundance of tree-coral and shell-fossils. There are a few sheep, goats, and camels, but the only inhabitants belong to one large family of ten brothers, whose father settled here.

The vegetation is very varied, affording a good field for the botanist: euphorbias, peesh, babool, ber, wild fig, liquorice, and
a variety of grasses and small plants; in the ravines, sandalwood and wild caper, &c. The animals are said to be ibex, hares, jackals, foxes, hyenas, leopards, and bears, but the last very doubtful, I should think.

4th.—At 9-15 A.M. begin our march up Khor Butt, which is about a quarter of a mile broad, the walls being perpendicular and very high; road good up a gradual ascent. At 4 miles we come to a meandering rivulet, which we follow to its source, a picturesque spot called Pittoke. This is in a bend or angle of the khor, where the rocky bed appears rent asunder, forming a deep natural basin down the mossy steep sides, of which the water drips from numerous orifices into a clear pool at the bottom. The road now begins to get bad. Huge boulders of rock block up the way, rendering it nearly impassable, and the camels had almost to be lifted over several places, the khor gradually decreasing in width and height. At 4 P.M. we reach our halting-place at Sirbutt, having been nearly seven hours coming 8 miles. Water here sufficient, but slightly brackish.

5th.—Road along Sirbutt nullah. Direction north-north-east, stony and desolate, and almost entirely devoid of animal and vegetable life. After some miles, direction changes to east-south-east, and at 16 miles arrive at Threedák, where we halt. Water good and abundant.

6th.—Start at 9 A.M. Road bad and intricate, winding among low hills. At 4 miles reach the Malar Pass or Kundug. The dip of the strata here being to the east, the pass is formed by the slope of the laminae, down which a steep and broken path about a mile long leads to the bottom. The camels had all to be unloaded and the baggage carried down by coolies; this took us five hours. The camels had to be led, but got down without accident.

Having reloaded the camels we enter the sandy bed of the Malar Khor, which we follow for 8 miles, arriving at the wooden hut on the beach at 9 P.M. At the foot of the pass in the nullah are some curious pillars or monoliths of sandstone formed by the action of water eroding their bases.

7th.—March at 10 A.M. Direction easterly, along a stony zigzag road through a range of hills lying parallel to the coast. At 20 miles arrive at the Hingol River, here densely wooded with tamarisks, in the bed of which we camp among the sand-hills at 8 P.M. Near this is the celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage, Hinglaj. We passed several parties of pilgrims on the way, but I did not go to visit the scene. On the 12th I arrived at Sonmeane, and on the 15th at Karachi.
XIII.—Notes on recent Persian Travel. By Major-General Sir Frederic Goldsmid.

The satrapies of Cyrus are reasonably supposed to comprehend, more or less, an immense range of territory from the Mediterranean to the Indus, and from the Caucasian Chain and Jaxartes to the Persian Gulf and Arabian Ocean. The conquests of Abbas and Nadir kept up these boundaries on the east, but failed to secure them on the west, and were limited to the Caucasus and the Oxus on the north. At this moment the Arras, the Caspian, and the Atrak denote a northern limit, vaguely prolonged towards the Oxus, but including Sarakhs: the Persian Gulf and Arabian Ocean still form the line on the south; west are the Kurdistan Mountains dividing Persia from Turkey; and east is an irregular, but in parts a well-defined frontier, commencing somewhat west of Herat, passing between the Persian province of Káian and Afghan districts of Lash Juwain; abruptly turning, below the latter, to the Helmand, and leaving the river, in an oblique south-westerly direction, to follow the foot of the Baluchistan hill-range to Jalk, in longitude 62° 38' E.; after enclosing which place it makes a semi-circle to the west, and, traversing Makran nearly south, it touches the sea in longitude 61° 33'. Persia of the day, therefore, is, in the matter of geographical definition, far from the vast empire of Sacred Writ and remote history; nor is it even the less extensive, but very expansive, dominion of the Safavian Kings and Nadir Shah. But it may be said to comprise now quite as much settled and consolidated territory as at any period of its political existence of which we can speak with the authority of intimate acquaintance. If she has less extent of land than before her latest disastrous war with Russia, there is at least within her recognised limits less rebellion and more allegiance. And if civilisation be aided in modern Persia by such influence as England sees fit to exercise in common with other European nations represented at Teheran, there is no reason why a state of security should not be obtained which would amply compensate for the loss of precarious and profitless expanse.

Practically there is no nation of Europe which has more to do with Persia than England. We no longer send our commissioned officers to teach her the art of war; but we have for nearly ten years supplied her with commissioned and non-commissioned officers of engineers to direct and maintain her lines of telegraph. By convention of November, 1865, their number was raised to 50. Since that period the number was increased. In the last and very recently ratified convention no limitation
of the number of employés is contained at all; and a plain, straightforward agreement for further maintaining and working the line has been accepted on both sides for a new term exceeding 20 years. The good relations which exist between the British Telegraph officers and the higher Persian authorities could scarcely have been better illustrated than by the unmistakable pleasure with which the former were recognised by the royal Princes and other officials who accompanied the Shah on his Western travels, and the comparative eagerness with which they sought their society in exchange for a more formal association with strangers.

Sir John Malcolm says, that "before the year 1800 no political mission from an European nation had visited the Court of Persia for a century; but the English, though only known in that kingdom as merchants, had fame as soldiers, from the report of their deeds in India."* In 1600, however, Sir Anthony Shirley went there; and his visit entailed the despatch, 26 years later, of a mission more strictly diplomatic in character, under Sir Dodmore Cotton. A French mission, of some pomp and note, followed, we are told, in 1673, about the time that Louis XIV. had entered upon his Dutch campaign, and Turenne was in the zenith of his reputation. Throughout the seventeenth century there appeared many admirable accounts, by European authors and travellers, of the Safavian monarchs and their dominions; and the pages of Tavernier, Olearius, Chardin and Sanson are standard references worthy of all honour. Among English writers of the period Sir Thomas Herbert is eminent, and his quaint but strong testimony to Persian manners and customs in the reign of King James I. is confirmed by the experience of after years. The commencement of the eighteenth century was rendered notable by Father Krusinsiki's memoirs, who described the downfall of the Safavian dynasty with the minuteness of an observant eye-witness. Of the English travellers who have left accounts of Persia during the same hundred years, honourable mention must be made of Hanway, John Bell of Autermont, and Ensign William Francklin: among Frenchmen, Olivier and Gmelin are eminent.

But it is to the present century we are indebted for the most important additions to our knowledge of the geography and people of this part of Asia. From the opening year to the present its annals teem with the names of Englishmen who have given their personal observations of the country in the form of diary, narrative, official report, or fiction. Foreigners

* 'Sketches of Persia,' chapter iii.
have contributed to the stock of modern information; but the most substantial proof of the value of the purely English work is the manner in which it has been universally recognised and utilised by means of encyclopaedias, dictionaries, and similar standard references in divers tongues. And if ever fiction were calculated to throw a true light on the character of a country and its inhabitants, assuredly it has proved so in the case of Haji Baba of Isphahan. Among travellers and historians, Malcolm, Morier, Ouseley, Porter, Scott-Waring, Fraser, and other old pioneers, most effectively led the way: these were succeeded by writers and politicians of a less solid and serious stamp, not all of the harder sex. Of late years, Binning, Ussher, Eastwick, have published their Persian experiences, and Mr. Watson has supplemented Malcolm's history by compiling a highly useful and intelligent narrative of events up to the ninth year of the reigning Shah: moreover, one or two goodly volumes on Persia, as it now is, have actually issued from the press within little more than a twelvemonth. But Persia has found her place in the 'Statesman's Year-Book and Almanach de Gotha;' and no plea of ignorance on her condition and statistics, from want of available data, can be considered valid on the part of the reading Englishman of 1873.

Not many months past, I described the country generally in the following terms:—

"A high land . . . . dropping to the Caspian Sea for nearly one-third of its northern frontier, and to the Persian Gulf in illustration of its southern limit. The lowlands naturally are the tracts near the sea-coast. In the north they are covered with forest, and the climate there is damp, feverish, relaxing; in the south they are dry and barren, and the winds are hot and violent, yet a relief to the scorching summer atmosphere. In the central high lands (and Persia generally may be understood in this division) there are few rivers, and the country is either composed of parallel mountain ranges and broad intervening plains, or of irregular mountain masses with fertile valleys, basins, and ravines. For irrigation the plains and valleys depend on the mountains, and at the base of these are 'kanats,' or underground canals, which, with watercourses on the surface are scattered throughout the land. Yet where rain and snow fail during the year, there is scarcity of water; and where both are wanting there is distress. The valleys and ravines are more fertile than the plains, affording often bright, picturesque, and grateful prospects, while the latter are for the most part barren and sandy wastes, scored or streaked, as it were, rather than ornamented, with patches of green oases. Forests are rare, and not dense; numerous gardens are com-
monly found in the neighbourhood of large towns, not cared for
as with us, yet pleasant in their wildness; and there are many
beautiful trees usually also near the centres of population.
Cities are not such as we should suppose them, estimating from
experience in Europe. The passing stranger sees no street in
any of them at all comparable to a respectable street or
building, as England, France, or Germany rate structural
respectability. Blank mud-walls and narrow, ill-paved thorough-
fares are the rule; the windowed or terraced front of a Persian
house is for the inner court or inner precincts of the abode, and
not for the world without. Some mosques are handsome, some
caravanserais solid, some bazaars highly creditable to the
designer and builder; but everything is irregular, nothing is
permanent, and architectural ruin blends with architectural
revival in the midst of dirt, discomfort, and a total disregard
of municipal method. Even Constantinople and Cairo cannot
bear the ordeal of close inspection. Beautiful and attractive as
they may be from without—and the first has a charm beyond
description—they are palpably deficient in completeness within;
and yet Tehran, Baghdad, Isphahan, Tabriz, Mashhad, Shiraz,
these are far behind them in civilised construction and order.
As for the people, their physique is intrinsically fine, but sel-
dom fairly developed. As a rule, the rich and middle classes,
despite of abilities and reasoning power, ruin their constitutions
by sensuality and dissipation; while the poorer and working
classes, with less power of reasoning, but healthier tastes and
habits, have barely sufficient sustenance to give nature fair
play."

Since writing this description I have seen no cause to correct
my estimate in any respect, and a reference to Mr. Mounseyy's
recent work has further shown that I have the benefit of a valu-
able independent opinion much to the same effect. But I did not
dwell upon the large proportion of salt desert and irreclaimable
waste, nor upon the precariousness of cultivation even where to
many travellers fertility has appeared undeniable and of con-
siderable extent; nor did I attempt illustration of these and
similar features of Persian rural life and scenery by the use of
data collected during my own travels. Perhaps therefore a few
details of Persian travel in very recent years may not be out of
place in a resumption of the subject.

Of my five missions to Persia on the Government service,
the point of disembarkation for the land journey was Enzeli,
on the southern shores of the Caspian; and having had to

* 'Central Asia and its Question: a Paper read in the Speech-room of Harrow
School, on the 18th March, 1873.' Stanford, Charing Cross.
make two return journeys from Tehran by the same route, I find myself tolerably familiar with this part of the ground. It should be interesting, because it is the most likely to represent that part of Persia with which a traveller from England is likely to become first acquainted.

The character of the whole road may be easily described from memory: one-fourth is low forest; one-fourth mountainous; the remaining half a high and tolerably level plain. It involves, in most cases, a couple of hundred miles' posting or "chaparing," and it must be now as familiar to the British officers and employés of the telegraph as the old Brighton and Dover roads were to stage-coach passengers in the early part of the century. But whether it can be considered equally enjoyable, is a question the solution of which depends much on individual habits, constitution, and temperament.

Landing at Enzeli is effected over a surf at times not unlike that of the Coromandel coast: at times it is so high and the sea is so boisterous, that the steamer cannot land her passengers at all. In such cases, she then either takes them to Astrabad or Baku, according to the direction in which she is bound, leaving them to disembark and await another passing steamer, or remain on board till she revisits Enzeli. No stranger should come to this place with intent to proceed to the capital, unless provided with an introduction to the British or Russian Consul in Ghilan, and, should neither be on the spot, he should ask to be conveyed to Resht at the earliest opportunity. He will have to accomplish a four or five hours' sail or row across a lake and up some wooded rocks to a landing-place called Peri Bazar, where he will dismiss his boatmen and find horses to take him and his luggage a five-mile ride to Resht. The said ride is a pleasant one now, and over a really good road: a few years ago it was amid ruts and swamp.

Resht is the capital of Ghilan, and a town or city possessing a population of perhaps 20,000 souls. It is the residence of a British and a Russian Consul, and till lately of a branch of the large Ralli house. These gentlemen, owing to failure in the silk supply, and, it may be, dissatisfaction with their treatment by the native merchants and authorities, have been led to abandon their position here, to the detriment, it is conceived, of the province generally; for they possessed a large purse, and were ready to open it for the promotion of local interests, in developing, as in disposing of, local produce, notably raw silk. Resht is famous for its embroideries, as Ghilan for its fruits and fisheries. The province, moreover, supplies Astrakan with much cotton, and has a generally fertile character. Its olives have a certain repute.
Reckoning in accordance with an official return, barely five years old, which divides Persia into twenty revenue-paying provinces, we find that Ghilan, though much below Azerbaijan in the actual money-value of its yield, is the richest of all the remaining financial divisions. In fact, of the aggregate realisations of the nineteen, it would give nearly the seventh part. Within the last five years, however, it has undergone considerable changes, fiscal and otherwise. The Shah visited Ghilan in 1869 or 1870, and, disapproving the then existing régime, placed his Minister of Foreign Affairs in charge; but such a measure could carry no practical reform, and merely transferred the exercise of corruption from one individual to another. Schemes for farming the revenues and better developing the resources of this rich lowland have not been wanting at a time when Reuter's concession was non-existent; and one of these, laying stress on the creation of roads of communication, appeared to me well worthy of attention, as promising to give a great impulse to traffic. But a really honest and single-minded working contractor or agent seemed above all things essential to accomplish the task proposed, and to this money and the royal sanction were to be added.*

On first starting from Resht for Tehran, eight years ago, I left the hospitable house of the Rallis and took to the posthorse and saddle at a very early hour of the second morning after arrival, carrying all my baggage with me. My kind hosts had rid me of much anxiety in having had the English portmanteau carefully strapped and covered with many layers of protective stuff. The country was, for the first 15' or 20 miles, through thick forest, and along a good road almost entirely shaded from the sun by the many and various trees on either side, none of them growing to any great height, but affording admirable shelter. The most remarkable and beautiful tree of Ghilan, or at least the most elegant and graceful of its class, is the "Abresham" or silk-tree, with its fine indented leaf, and pale, softly-scenting flower. Mr. Mounsey, who finds it among figs and pomegranates, hops and auricarias, calls it "a species of acacia," named "from its beautiful flower, a deep pink bell, out of which grows a bunch of pendent tongues like the ends of a skein of silk." First impressions caused me to liken the country to the wooded tracts in the Indian districts of the Northern

* Monsieur Sanson, writing nearly 200 years ago, values the customs of Ghilan alone at 80,000 tomanas. When we compare this with the whole revenue of the province, now reported at 440,000 tomanas, we must bear in mind that the value of the toman was 44, or according to Herbert 84, times greater under Shah Suliman in the seventeenth century than under Nasarudin Shah in the nineteenth. Either, then, there must be some mistake in the figures, or the decrease in material prosperity is very remarkable.
Sarkars near the east coast, where the jangal fowl may be expected to cross the path at any step; but it was more European. The sky is not so Asiatic on the shores of the Caspian as in India, and something in the general Ghilan landscape, near the sea-coast, savours of home and English pathways. During the second stage the even tenor of the forest route is exchanged for the stony bed of a river and occasional forest only, with ascents and descents; and the third stage is either along the path cut in the rocky heights overhanging the "Safid Rud," and through picturesque villages and charming bits of mountain scenery, or along the actual river-bed below, wide and of many channels, but for the most part dry, stony, and strewed with dwarf trees or bushes,—till the bridge is reached which is close to the post-house at the village of Manjil. The day's posting here described I estimate at 55 miles, thus:

Resht to Kadüm = 18; Kadüm to Rastamabad = 18; Rastamabad to Manjil = 19.

The second day I got over two marches only, but they were hard ones: the first, of about 24 miles, over a country the greater part of which was barren and stony, and ending with a steep ascent up to 9000 feet; the second, of 30 full miles, continuing a generally sterile course, amid ravines and over heights, up to villages and partial cultivation; and finally to a long-extended slope, at foot of which the city of Kazvin appears in the distance like a dark streak of vegetation, dotted with buildings of purely Oriental type and character. The caravanserais passed this day are not cheering. One at Páchinár is very strong and solid, but dirty and uninviting.

Kazvin is a large Persian town, a good type of the kind I have already sketched: interesting in its history and remains; but, as an actual abode of civilised life, orderless, methodless, seemless. Its population is estimated at 25,000. It has a telegraph office, posthouse, and caravanserais, and is not only the notable station, par excellence, between Resht and Teheran, but is the principal station passed between Tabriz and the capital.

We had now completed the ascent of the table-lands of Persia, and were quite separated from the rich cultivation and luxuriant forests peculiar to the Caspian provinces; neither the scenery nor moist climate of which are to be met with south of the Elburz. Hence to Teheran, a distance of 90 odd miles, whichever route we take, we keep the mountains on our left, and move along a high plain at their foot. My third day's march took me nearly 80 miles over four stages, and the next morning I rode in to Teheran for breakfast. There is but little variety observable in the landscape. On one side mountains,
whose dark summits are clearly and sharply defined on the pale-
blue ground of a Persian sky: on the other, a tolerably level
country, exhibiting many phases of hard and rugged soil, not
without villages, but with decidedly sparse cultivation. Among
the richer villages is Kirij, on the banks of a river of that name
issuing from the hills, and remarkable for its royal bridge and
palace, whilst in residences or halting-places of Fath Ali Shah.
Nearer Tehran, and close to the mountain range, are some
charming spots of the character of oases.

My experience of the Persian capital may be summarised as
follows. I arrived there for the first time, viâ Russia and the
Caspian, on the 1st August, 1865, and stayed there more than
four months. On the next occasion I came viâ Constantinople,
Tiflis, and Tabriz, on the 12th February, 1867, and stayed
till about the 17th May; or, deducting a week occupied in a
journey to Hamadan and back, for two full months. My next
visit was again from the Caspian side, on the 3rd October, 1870,
for a stay of about three weeks: my next from India, and by
Bushahr, Shiraz, and Isfahan, on the 10th July, 1871; from
which date I was detained until the 5th September, or nearly
two months: and my fifth and last, from India and by Bundar
Abbas and Sistan, on the 4th June, 1872, prolonged to the 25th
August, or for more than two and a half months. So that I
have resided at Tehran, or in its immediate vicinity, for nearly
twelve months, and in Persia for very much longer, besides
having been in it at every season of the year.

I should not affirm that the mode of life there was that most
suited to Europeans; but it promises, at least, to be more so as
intercourse progresses, for the drawbacks are rather social than
physical and external. In the north, except for two or three
hot summer months, the climate is pleasant enough, and even
at the hottest time the nights are seldom oppressive. To those
who come from India direct, or to whom Indian heat is habitual,
the change is most grateful. There are days in autumn, winter,
and spring, which leave the impression of unequalled tempera-
ture; and the blue sky, with its tempering haze, as it were a
veil of reflected snow gathered from the higher peaks or ridges
of continuous mountain chains, is too exquisite a sight to be
readily forgotten. In the late spring, fashion moves out a few
miles from Tehran to the "Yalaks of Shamiran," or cooler
residences near the hills, and summer rendezvous of the various
foreign legations, returning in the late autumn to the precincts
of the capital, which, it may be noted, have been considerably
extended of late years, and are designed for yet further
extension.

Persian dwellinghouses are not "comfortable," in the English
sense of the word. Although the character of native domestic relations involves separate suites of rooms, there is really no privacy in any department; for the women’s court is as much frequented by women and children as the men’s by the ruder sex of all ages and classes. Servants, unless kept away by special order—a somewhat hazardous procedure—are apt to be ubiquitous, and turn up about the house at all hours of the day, noisily bickering, listlessly squatting, or moving with silent solemnity. Visitors used to give notice of coming, but are gradually and tacitly abrogating the practice, and natives and Europeans will, it is presumed, soon interchange calls in Persia with as little ceremony as elsewhere. Nor is it unlikely that the habit of bringing tea, coffee, and pipes to every visitor will also fall into disuse. The old orthodox custom is, to say the least, inconvenient; for the conscientious fulfilment of a dozen visits would necessitate the absorption of thirty-six cups of warm liquid, and a series of thirty-six inhalations of tobacco.

Tehran is situated in a broad plain south of a noble chain of snow-capped mountains, on the east of which rises Demávand, with its lofty and graceful peak reaching to an altitude of more than 20,000 feet. To the west the view is comparatively unbroken. South and east are hills and ridges, abrupt or partly continuous; but, except on the north, the prominent feature of the panorama is plain. Looking towards the city from the high northern slopes, its importance could not be guessed by an uninitiated traveller, who sees nothing remarkable in its distant mosques and gardens and palaces, to draw it out from the monotonous character of its entourage. This, too, is the case with Isphahan, in many respects a grander and worthier city, and having the immense advantage, unknown to Tehran, of a river. It is indeed the case with most Oriental cities built on vast plains; unless, like Cairo, they have exceptional edifices or landmarks, such as mysterious pyramids, to relieve the sameness. Mounsey estimates the population of Tehran at 100,000, of whom nine-tenths are Persians, and the remainder Armenians, Jews, Afghans, and Europeans. When I was there last, little more than a year ago, deaths from typhoid fever were frequent, and this disease had quickly followed on the heels of the famine. The official return for 1868 shows the population as 85,000. For the present day, I think, we must accept Mr. Mounsey’s estimate as a maximum; and it will therefore be quite within the mark to say that the capital of Persia contains only about two-thirds the number of inhabitants of Bradford.*

* This town was instanced, as being the place of meeting of the British Association in 1873, for the Geographical Section of which these notes were prepared.
Watson says that the earliest mention of Tehran occurs in the writings of an Oriental author of the twelfth century, and that its inhabitants lived underground until the fifteenth century. Pietro della Valle calls it, in 1618, a large town with few inhabitants; and Sir Thomas Herbert, about ten years later, gives it as many as 3000 dwelling-houses, "in few of which are fewer than a dozen people"—probably, therefore, with 30,000 inhabitants. He describes it as "situate in the midst of a faire large plaine, which, although invironed in some parts with Hils of stupendious height, yet some wayes affords an ample Horizon . . . built of white sun-burnt bricks, watered with a small streame which runs in two parts through the Toune, and encloses most of the Gardens and Groves within her, whereby shee yeelds a thankfull tribute of sundry fruits. The Toune is most beautified by a vast Garden of the Kings, succinct with a great toured mud-wall, larger than the circuit of the citie. It has a Buzzar or Market, which, though divided, shewes a combined beauty in her separation. . . . Tyroun has a sweet, though hot, air in the morning. . . . Her Caravans lodge exceeds her Mosque, yet neither of power to beget admiration with the curious." The place was, undoubtedly, of some considerable importance long before Agha Muhammad Khan, the first of the Kajar kings, made it his capital nearly one hundred years ago.

On the last occasion that I had the honour of reading a paper on Persian travel to the Royal Geographical Society in London, questions were put to me as to what, if any, personal testimony I could bear to the results of the famine, which had become so general a topic of conversation in England. It was then too late in the evening to give any detailed reply; but, as it would be vain for me to attempt even a bare itinerary of the different routes traversed in the course of duty in Persia, I may now appropriately select two sections of a route through the districts most severely visited by this calamity, pursued by me in the hot months of 1871 and late spring of 1872 respectively.

In May, 1871, I was at Karáchi, under orders to return to the Persian capital, which I had only left in the preceding October. Deplorable accounts of existing famine in the South of Persia had already reached me, and one letter from Bushahr, received at Gwadar, on the Arabian coast, early in April, reported the outbreak of cholera, in addition to the prevailing dearth. My correspondent wrote, "The people here are in a most miserable state. I have already seen several lying in the streets, unable to help themselves in consequence of starvation. . . . The road between this and Shiraz is said to be infested
with robbers ... it is reported that 2000 beggars have been turned out of Shiraz with a little rice and half a kirán each, and that they are making their way down here." On the 16th May I embarked with the officers of my staff, and we anchored off Bushahr during the night of the 27th, landing the following morning. The wretched appearance of many of the inhabitants whom chance threw in our way, told its own tale of disease and want. Yet the native pilot, who had boarded us on arrival, seriously informed us there was no quarantine, and pleasantly shook hands with me by way of establishing the fact. He did not seem for an instant to apprehend that if any place was under ban it was Bushahr, and not Karachi. We were most hospitably cared for by the British Resident, whose abode is a large straggling building, exhibiting signs of decay, but containing here and there a comfortably-furnished apartment. Bushahr is a thoroughly Persian sea-side town, untidy, dreary, neglected by its Government, unconscious of municipalities, and withal one of the chief maritime ports of the country. The inhabitants have rather an Arab than a Persian look, and, as a rule, do not wear the Persian hat, but a bluish-grey turban with narrow red stripes. There is a Dutch Consul as well as British Resident, and it is believed that he has other national interests to protect besides those of Holland. British merchants are represented by one or two gentlemen on behalf of firms; and there is a British Telegraph Staff connected with the land-line and seacable both: but the European society is small, and, with such a climate and such surroundings, there is little likelihood of its increase.

After a two days' halt, to enable us to purchase horses and lay in all necessary stores for the first part of our journey, we started off, one hot afternoon, en route for the capital, pushed on some 20 miles, pulled up to dine on such fragments as our servants had tied up for us, and, spreading our carpets and bedding, laid ourselves down to sleep al fresco. Rising before dawn the next morning, I was conscious of a sharp attack of sickness; but on we went over the low country, for 18 miles, to Barazjun, where we met with a kind reception at the Telegraph Office. We had passed Khushab, the scene of an "affair" during the late Anglo-Persian war, at 15 miles, leaving on our left its long line of date-trees. Of these there is quite a forest at Barazjun; but, in spite of numbers, they afford scanty shelter from the scorching sun; nor is there any cheering reminiscence of European vegetation in their bleak monotonous aspect. Our quarters, though in a positive outer furnace, were very grateful, especially to an invalid. The next day we progressed some
11 or 12 miles to the village of Dalaki, and put up under a new bridge, over a brackish but deliciously cold stream, some three miles further on. The sound of rushing water among the rocks and ravines was pleasant; but the hot winds were something to be remembered, if not described, and there was no escaping them in the half-shadows of the arch selected for our lodging. We had taken two mule-loads of rice with us from Bushahr, to distribute in case of need, and though we had now moved little more than 50 miles towards the interior, more than a hundred applicants for the pittance we could afford them had presented themselves. From the bridge we began to ascend, and on the higher lands at Kunar Takhteh (1800 feet), a grateful change in the temperature was perceptible. But this was at daybreak, and as the day wore on the heat increased. We had halted at the caravanserai—a short march of 12 or 13 miles—finding fair accommodation in its upper rooms; and here the thermometer marked 102° to the 112° of the day before. I was informed that seven to eight hundred persons had died at this place since the commencement of the past winter; many, however, being stragglers from outside, driven in on the chance of procuring food. There had been no harvest for one year, and very little this. The local produce was barley and wheat, and bread was selling at four pence a pound. We had 178 applicants for temporary relief at Kunar Takhteh, where the following entry was made in my diary:—"The destitution is very appalling; the famine-stricken faces, the skeleton bodies, the languid and weary voice and gait—all tell a piteous tale. And yet not a cry of indignation is heard against the Government. A distant Shah is not held responsible; and, as for the Ministers, what do these poor subjects of a hereditary and old-established despotism care for them, or know of them? ... the eyes of the sufferer are not, it would seem, even turned to the royal person or the royal favour; and levies of kinds are exacted according to custom." At our next stage, Kamárij, the distress was not supposed to have been so serious, yet much the same story was told as at Kunar Takhteh, and three-tenths of the population were said to have died during the visitation.

We attended to 116 applicants for relief; four men were discovered exhausted on the road, and some few wretched sufferers found means to introduce themselves into the house allotted to us. We were about resting for the night in an open court, when something attracted my attention standing out in contrast to the white stone wall. Identity was not clear, and I rose to solve the problem. It was the squalid figure of a starving yet growing girl; motionless, yet sadly significant. With scarcely
physical power to walk, or voice to articulate her wants, she had bethought herself of obtaining possible relief from a passing stranger by passive demonstration.

Hence we moved on to Kazaran, pronounced Kazarún, once a large and flourishing town, situated on a plain not a hundred miles from Bushahr, and more than 70 from Shiraz, but separated from the latter by formidable mountains. We were told that, of its 10,000 inhabitants, 4000 had died from want, 4000 had left the place, and that only one-fifth remained; and its external aspect, especially its neglected gardens, and the blank desolation of its living faces and lifeless walls, gave evidence of likelihood that the report was true. The Telegraph-station was composed of an upper-storied Persian house, with an enclosed court; one side of which was the residence of a respectable Armenian signaller on behalf of the English Administrative, the other of Persian employés. As regards the former, it was used for little more than testing purposes, but its maintenance had been found useful during the period of organisation, in a country presenting physical as well as political difficulties to telegraph lines of no common kind. Among the scraps of intelligence gathered at Kazaran, the truth of which, if I could not certify from personal knowledge, neither could I dispute, on presumptive or other evidence whatever, was, that for one person buried, ten corpses were eaten by dogs, or left to rot exposed. In illustration of this statement may be mentioned the assertion of one of the children relieved—that its father had died some time before, and been buried, but that its mother had been exposed and devoured after death: a child was, moreover, actually seen by a member of the mission struggling with a dog for the entrails of a sheep. We distributed 220 lbs. of rice and 60 lbs. of bread to the sufferers during the two days of our stay; but the task was not an easy one, owing to the crowd of applicants.

Starting at about midnight of the 5th June, we moved along the Kazarun Plain for about 7 miles to the Naksha-i-Taimur, a carving in the rock of clearly recent performance, from which point we turned into the mountains, and ascended the pass known as "Kothal Dukhtar," by a winding stony road, whence we traversed high, rugged ground, followed by a gradual slope to the "Dasht," a plain leading to the "Kothal Pir Zan." This is steep and high. Midway is a karawansara at about 7000 feet, in quite a different climate from that of the lowlands, and away from the hot winds still perceptible at Kazaran. From the nature of the road between Kazaran and Mián Kothal (the karawansara) a mule is recommended to travellers as preferable to a horse. It is not simply stony, but the stones are thrown
together in perplexing confusion. The terminus is a fine substantial edifice, picturesque, though on a site which would be bleak were it not for sparse foliage; and built on the approved fashion in these parts, with special quarters for ladies, as well as general accommodation. Wheat was here distributed to sixty-three applicants, a comparatively small number.

The next day we renewed our march by climbing a steep stony prolongation of the mountain already ascended, and rose, gradually or abruptly, over the same description of country for about six miles, the intervals of level and stony ground being many and comparatively long. We then gradually descended to a flatter country, through scattered dwarf-oak forest; and, beyond the wood, crossed a plain of alternative stone and turf, to the village of Dasht Arjin. Here we refreshed ourselves at a farm-house, about 12 miles, or half the distance of the day’s march, with excellent hot milk from the cow. We continued our route for another six miles over stony and hilly ground, when we again descended to a more level road, which we kept for three miles to the “Káragach” River, then a mere streamlet, crossing which we again rose, and passing round a low stony hill or series of hillocks, came upon the karawansara of Khání Zanjan, near the village of the same name. This is a solid sensible structure, and we found excellent accommodation in its “khiwit” or ladies’ quarters, placed at our disposal as not urgently required. The climate was so delightful that it was hard to believe we had left Dalaki bridge, Barazjun, Bushahr, and even Karachi, at such comparatively easy distances. Eighty-one applicants for grain came to-day.

In the oak forest we had passed, and in its outskirts, are no less notable animals than lions—probably a kind of second-class specimen of the species, like that of the Tigris, but still meriting the name. One of my companions, the late lamented Serjeant Bower, an old resident in Persia, pointed out, as we rode along, the spot where a Persian Ghulam had shot one some short time before, and I asked to be shown the scene of Major St. John’s adventure with another, which had sprung upon his horse as he was riding by. At the barely distinguishable village of Dasht Arjin (so like is it in colour and character to the neighbouring hills) are three lions carved in stone over graves. Whether they metaphorically mark the resting-place of the lion-hearted, or imply that those buried beneath them had perished in encounters with the king of beasts, I cannot yet determine; but the sculpture is certainly more quaint than artistic, and the figures might be sphynxes but for comically curved tails.

From the karawansara we had now reached, to Shiraz, there is a descent of nearly 2000 feet, for the Shiraz plain is far
warmer than the high plateau of Khani Zanjan. The whole distance is less than 30 miles, and may be made one long stage or two easy stages. As we were not seriously pressed for time, and wished to economise our cattle, we adopted the latter course, going a mile or two off the road to put up at the village of Deh Shaikh, among the mountains. Had we known of the discomfort to be endured in the close rooms of a dirty house and a dirty but picturesque village, we should probably have acted otherwise. One advantage, however, was gained by the divergence; we were enabled to attend to seventy odd applications for food, and thus exhaust our stock, inclusive of the wheat added en route to the original rice supply. We had passed during the previous day a shapeless mass of human mould, part of a skeleton in clothing, probably the remains of a sufferer from starvation. It was a sad state of things, and the relief we brought scarcely seemed to deserve the name. We might represent it, at the total of pittances doled out, as a handful of grain to each of 914 famished beings between Bushahr and Shiraz: but that the same applicant frequently presented himself or herself on a second or third day; for some actually followed us from stage to stage, and we stayed two days at Kazarun. Yet, upon the whole, it was a satisfaction to have sustained life for a day, or even a certain number of hours; and as corn was fast ripening, and in some places being gathered in, it was just possible that this sustentation may have enabled one or more to tide over the crisis.

The short week which I passed at Shiraz, in the house of the courteous Persian gentleman filling the post of British agent, enabled me, notwithstanding partial failure in health, to see enough of the city and its inhabitants to compare personal impressions with those recorded by other travellers. It is well situated, has pleasant resorts in the vicinity, meets the requirements of a first-class Persian town, and has a special national prestige in the estimation of high and low; but, in European parlance, it is at best an ungenial residence, and its lions may be done in a couple of days. Just as Hafiz and Sadi are untranslateable in sense or spirit, so it is impossible for a reader to sympathise with the ordinary objects of their eulogy, wanting the national enthusiasm and local prejudice they represent. Therefore, the consummate laudation of Shiraz, indulged in by the poets, does not appear logically warranted in the contemplation of the modern town, with its lack of civilised appliances and scant population of 25,000. Still it must be recognised as the capital of Fars or Pars, the province giving a name to the vast empire of which it has usually formed part in remote as in recent history. Persepolis is a separate consideration, and familiar as it has become by repeated descriptions, has, in its own man-
vellous ruins and neighbouring monuments, material for new speculation and interest; but it is about 40 miles from Shiraz.

Between Shiraz and Isphahan there are two distinct roads: one the ordinary post-road through Dehbid and Abadeh, the other the hot-weather road through what is called the Sarhad, or high and cool plateau, on which are the villages of Ujain and Kushk-i-Zard.* Both meet at Yezd-i-khast; but while the distance from Shiraz to Ye-zdi-khast by the post-road is reckoned at no less than 200 miles, that by the hill-route we followed is certainly an eighth shorter. Accompanied by a brother officer, I posted into Julfa, the Armenian suburb of Isphahan, for the last 80 miles of this road; but we gained little by the attempt, for finding no horses available further on, we had to await at Julfa the coming again of our heavy baggage, and marched with it from that place to the hill station of Kohrud. Thence we posted to Tehran, passing into the summer residence of Her Majesty's Minister at Gulahak on the evening of the 10th July. The distance from Isphahan to the capital is about 250 miles: first, over plains and partial cultivation; secondly, over mountains with almost Alpine scenery and villages; thirdly, over plains containing a river, two large towns, and many villages; and fourthly, over a bona fide desert leading to hills which skirt the plains of Tehran.

The hill-route between Shiraz and Isphahan has its advantages for many travellers. A greater liability to loss from robbery is incurred, and there is want of accommodation such as afforded by karawansaras and post-houses. In ordinary times the precaution of taking some five or six of the special ghulams or bodyguard of the Prince Governor of Shiraz, and the judicious use of village watchmen, may neutralise the first, and the warm air of the summer months may render the second of no consequence whatever. At the particular time of our journey no roof could be more acceptable for night repose than the open canopy of heaven. Robbed, however, we were, in spite of guides and ghulams. A small but heavy cash-chest was ingeniously abstracted from a bag almost under the head, and close to the revolver of Quarter-master Serjeant Bower, and within a few yards of a double sentry, during the night of our arrival at Kushk-i-Zard. We were aroused towards daybreak by sights and sounds indicating mischief, but no thief was there visible, nor was it perceived till long afterwards that a theft had been actually accomplished. In the morning the open box was discovered a few hundred yards from our resting-place: its money and more valuable contents had been rifled. Although we ourselves suspected our guards of the previous day's encampment who had accompanied us to Kushk-i-

* Probably, as I have heard it suggested, "Kushk-i-zard," the yellow kiosk.
Zard, and held the watchmen of the latter place *participes criminis*, the village authorities declared the act to have been committed by the Kashkais. These Kashkais are the most numerous and powerful of the Iliats or wandering tribes of Fars. They are Turks and are divided into many clans, of which the chief is the Ameleh, presided over by the Il-khani, or head of the tribes generally. They are notorious for their marauding propensities; and at the village of Asapas we had seen a large party of them returning from a retaliatory raid with probably not less than 1000, or between 1000 and 2000 head of quadrupeds—horses, flocks and herds combined. It may be said, I think, as a rule, that Englishmen travel with safety and security on the usual highways of Persia, and the loss of property to any extent on their part must be attributed to failure in taking those precautions which are warranted by the circumstances of the time and the character of certain localities.

Although for the two sections of route from Shiraz to Isphahan and Isphahan to Tehran respectively, we moved with less deliberation and greater rapidity than from Bushahr to Shiraz, we could not but feel assured, on ocular demonstration, that the famine had spread far to the north of the latter city, and even to the mountain ranges north of the capital. At Kumishah and Isphahan itself it had made deadly havoc and left its unmistakeable mark; and stories were current to show that the natural brotherhood of man and man had been ignored in more than one part of this afflicted region at the severest period of the visitation. It is, however, a mistake to suppose that the year 1871 was purely exceptional. Only ten years before, or in the cold weather of 1860-61, Mr. Eastwick writes: "My first winter at Tehran was, indeed, a sad one. . . . It was impossible to go out without being assailed by the importunities of crowds of famishing people, and many an emaciated form was stretched at the corner of the streets, voiceless, scarcely breathing, and soliciting aid only with a despairing look or feebly-extended hand."

There is something of grandeur in the interior of Isphahan, and its ruins and *débris* are full of the most interesting historical associations to be obtained in Persia. But the view of the city from the high ground outside its walls and suburbs, beyond the Armenian burial-ground, does not impress the observer with its importance. The spectacle is a still and strange one. On a very fine broad plain is a confused mass of mud-buildings, more like remains than whole habitations. Here and there a blue dome tells the site of a mosque or madrasah: but even the river and bridges fail in pictorial effect. It is difficult to imagine that before the eyes of the spectator is a large, living city, now boasting a population of 60,000 souls. As or Julfa.
is more vague and ill-defined still; and yet is it closer than Ispahan. A few words on this place may not be void of interest.

The large suburb of Julfa, on the opposite bank of the Zindahrud to that on which stands the once royal city of Ispahan, is called after the town of the same name in Armenia, on the Russo-Persian frontier at the Arras. It is generally believed that Shah Abbas I. caused the emigration of the inhabitants of the latter place and contiguous villages from their then recognised homes to the centre of his kingdom, to remove them from the influence of his Turkish enemies, and at the same time give an impetus to Persian trade in the interior. This occurrence bears date A.D. 1605, when the colonists of the new Julfa at Ispahan are said to have numbered no less than 12,000 families. It is supposed that, for many years after arrival in these parts, the Armenians enjoyed considerable liberty and freedom from persecution: but it speaks ill of the treatment experienced by them in later years, to find that the families can now be reckoned in no greater number than 500. Most emigrants from Ispahan proceeded to India, where some have amassed large fortunes: a few may be found in Batavia. The Archbishop of Julfa is the religious head of the Armenians in India as well as Persia. The last incumbent I knew was a fine, handsome man of perhaps 55 years of age, of pleasing manners and address, and had been 8 years in his sacerdotal office. His church, a cathedral, struck me as more curious than handsome. About two years ago he was recalled, and his place filled by a portly monk whose acquaintance I had made on a former visit. As regards the complaints against the local Government made by the Armenian community in Persia, it is to be hoped that the Shah’s recent visit to Europe will not only cause him to issue orders for removing the disabilities and grievances of his Christian and non-Muslim subjects, but induce him to ascertain that his orders have been obeyed. That they do exist in some shape, and contrary to our notions of justice and toleration, there can be little doubt.

An account of a journey performed from Bandar Abbas to Mashhad was read by me a few months ago before the Royal Geographical Society. As the continuation from Mashhad to Tehran involves certain statistics of the famine, and has not been made public, I will venture to summarise it with brevity.

The city of Mashhad may be said, without fear of contradiction, to contain the most venerated and popular shrine in the whole of Persia. Among Shia Muhammadans a pilgrimage to the resting place of the 8th Imam, Reza, owing to its convenient site, has become a duty more essential, if not more
important, than that to Karbala in Turkish Arabia or even Mecca and Medinah: and the thousands who year by year win the privilege of becoming "Mashhadis," testify to the value set upon it. If one story of the period be trustworthy, Shah Abbas, to prevent the export of native specie into the Ottoman dominions, dissuaded his subjects from visiting the Arabian shrines, in favour of the tomb of Imám Reza, which he invested with peculiar sanctity. Owing to the spiritual character asserted by the Safavian monarchs, under their lineal descent from the 7th Imám, Musa, it is not unnatural to suppose they had the power of influencing their co-religionists in outer rites and ceremonies; nor would the mixture of policy with priesthood be incompatible with our accepted estimate of so worldly-wise a ruler as Abbas. Father Sanson's account has, therefore, a show of correctness; and he goes so far as to ascribe to the king certain practical measures for carrying out his purpose, when he says: "He has made this tomb famous by a great many false miracles he caused to be practised there; for placing people there on purpose who should counterfeit themselves blind, they suddenly received their sight at this sepulchre, and immediately cry'd out, 'a miracle:' he procur'd so great a veneration for this tomb of Imám Reza, that most of the greatest lords in Persia have desir'd to be bury'd in this mosque; and to which they give great legacies."

Built on the perpetual Persian plain, and admirably situated as to roads of traffic with Bokhara, Khiva, Herat, and Candahar, except for the Imám's golden dome, there is little in its general exterior to distinguish Mashhad from other cities in the Shah's territory; but it can boast also the tomb of the famous Harun al Rashid and of Gauhar Shad Agha, the favourite wife of Shah Rukh; and its canal and quays merit at least a passing remark from their rarity. It is divided into two towns, the sacred and the secular, each of which has its distinct governor; the first called the Mutawâli, the second being also governor of the whole province of Khurasan, and often a prince of the blood royal.

Prince Murad Mirza, Governor of Mashhad and of Khurasan, at the period of my visit in the spring of last year, is one of the most remarkable men in Persia for administrative ability and local influence; he is uncle of the Shah, and attended him on his recent visit to Europe, but his individuality was comparatively lost in the galaxy of stars clustered around the monarch. I am indebted to him for great courtesy and hospitality displayed towards myself and associates during our stay in his capital. We were informed that no less than 100,000 persons had been carried off by famine within the limits of his
rule, of which 24,000 were from the city itself, where, exclusive of passing pilgrims reckoned by thousands, we may suppose a population of 70,000.

Mashhad, though immediately surrounded by vast tracts of waste, is cut off from the direct road to Tehran by a lofty mountain range, branching in a south-easterly course from the hilly regions running east and west between Persia proper and the Turkoman country. These mountains are entered at one march west of Mashhad, and nearly traversed on the second day's journey. The hill scenery is beautiful, and the sight of snow in the heights, and of gardens, corn-fields, and rich foliage and vegetation in the valleys and ravines, is truly refreshing after converging from the hot sandy plains. The pass of Dehrúd was estimated to be 10,720 feet above the sea-level. The picturesque village bearing the same name, "village of the stream," which we reached just before debouching into the plains of Nishapur, with much to charm the weary traveller in scenery and resources, was almost intolerable in its stillness and want of animation. A worse enemy than the Turkoman robber had been there, and had gained a terrible victory. Famine, not always unattended by oppression, had appeared and done its work. Houses were closed: scarce a human being remained to stare at strangers, much less to aid or welcome them.

The distance from Mashhad to Nishapur is about 66 miles. Thence to Tehran the road is for the most part a plain, varying in height but more or less a continuation of the plateau south of the Elburz, which mountains, or connecting chains of which, we had kept to our left from Kazvin to Tehran, but were on our right in coming from Nishapur to Tehran. Nishapur may have a population of 8000 inhabitants, but has been dwindling for many years, and has recently suffered severely from famine. Its neighbourhood is famous for the turquoise mines, but not a turquoise could be got in the town worth purchasing. The next important place passed on our road was Sabzawar, 65 miles further, having, perhaps, 12,000 inhabitants. Here, too, the famine had made deadly ravages. Indeed the whole distance to Shahrúd, another 160 miles, at every place we stopped, with one exception, the accounts of loss were appalling. The excepted place was Mazinán, the easternmost point of the 70 miles especially open to Turkoman forays, to protect travellers through which an escort, provided with a field-piece, passes to and fro twice a month.

Shahrúd has a population estimated at 8000. Its situation is important, as the road to Astrabad and the south-eastern shores of the Caspian branches off hence. The distance to Gez,
the Caspian seaport, is 108 miles, and high and difficult mountains intervene. From Shahrud to Tehran the distance is about 250 miles, and, for a great part of the way, the road skirts the white salt deserts extending to Kaian on the east and Karman on the south. The larger towns are Damghan and Semnan: of the more remarkable is Lasjird.

I was sorry to find recent traces of severe famine also in this section of the road. In one large village called Surkhab, between Semnan and Lasjird, I was assured that some 500 persons had perished out of a population of 400 houses. In Tehran itself the scarcity had been severely felt, and, on our arrival in June last year, a deadly fever had set in, carrying off numbers of the emaciated population from day to day. But, both here and at Isphahan, the European residents, aided by home subscriptions, were able in some degree to mitigate the horrors of want and starvation. At the latter city the labours, in the good and charitable cause, of the Rev. Robert Bruce of the Church Missionary Society will not readily be forgotten.

XIV.—Journey from Natal via the South African Republic, and across the Lebombo Mountains to Lorenzo Marques or Delagoa Bay, and thence to the Gold Fields near Leydenberg. By Percy Hope, Esq.

The places through which we passed from Durban were Pietermaritzburg, the Umgeni Currie at Karkloof, Mooi River, Bushman's River, Colenso, Ladismith, the Biggarsberg, reaching Newcastle (distant from Durban 230 miles) in six days.

We were detained at Newcastle waiting for the Portuguese passports which had to be forwarded from Durban, and in making preparations for the further journey.

Left Newcastle May 28th. Went by way of John O'Neill's, Harrison's, Castrop's (Sand Spruit), Robertson's (Wil Spruit). N.B.—Before reaching Robertson's a road turns off to the left. This is a road much used by transport riders going to Leydenberg; it rejoins the road we took about 4 miles this side of the Cromarty River, and passes by the beacon or pile of rocks known as Klip Stapel.

From the description of this route given to me by my waggon-drivers, I am of opinion that the route via Robertson's and Clarke's (New Scotland) is the better one.

Peter Swartz's house was the next out-span, distant from
Robertson's 2 hours. Before reaching this, we had to cross a bad spruit (thick black mud).

From Swartz to Burhmann's is 2 hours, and about 3 miles this side of Burhmann's is the Vaal River; the drift is very good, but the descent and ascent are steep, difficult, and in bad order.

From Burhmann's to John Joubert's is 2½ hours; there are several stony, steep, hills, and bad drifts, very stony. After leaving Joubert's we enter upon what may be termed the Lake District of South-East Africa. These lakes, or large salt-pan, are comprised within the boundaries of the New Scotland territory.

Clarke's Store, distant from Joubert's 4 hours, is situated on Lake Chrissie.

We are now upon the finest district in South-East Africa for horses. Of late years sheep-breeding has been attempted, and with so much success that farms in the Vaal River district have been sold for as high a price as 900£., whereas a few years ago they were not considered worth more than 50£. or 100£.

At Clarke's our party separated, one going forward on horseback direct to Leydenberg; Mr. Engle and myself taking an easterly course en route for Delagoa Bay.

Leaving Clarke's about noon, on June 3rd, we reached Hamilton, the head station of the New Glasgow Company, at 4 p.m. We found that Mr. Bell, the manager, was absent on business. We stayed here to dinner, and left again at half-past 8 in the evening. I would state that I purchased four oxen at Clarke's, from a trader who was going down into the Swazi country, and from Clarke's we travelled with oxen. As an average, 3 miles an hour may be reckoned upon with a cart so light as ours. I therefore put down the distance from Clarke's to Bell's equal to 4 hours at 12 miles. We reached Arthur's place about half-past 12 A.M., having been 4 hours in-spanned.

From this time the report will be more complete and detailed than heretofore.

Between Bell's and Arthur's there are eight or ten spruits; these are very bad.

June 4th.—Left Arthur's 6.30 A.M.; reached Henderson's at 8.30 A.M. In this trek we broke the disselboom of the cart; on reaching Henderson's we sent back to Arthur's for some necessary tools.

Left Henderson's 3.30 P.M.; trekked through mountainous, broken country, crossing spruits; out-spanned at dark at Dumback. There was no road at all, and when darkness came on, it was dangerous travelling, especially down some of the steep, stony hills.
June 5th.—Left Dumback about 7 A.M.; we soon reached good, level country, in the district known as Dumbarton. About 4 miles from Dumback we came upon the road known as the Hall Neck road. This road will be afterwards referred to in the account of the return journey.

The whole journey from Bell’s to this point is across country where there is no made road, through a mountainous, rocky district interspersed with many difficult and dangerous spruits. The advantages it offers, as compared with the other road mentioned, are—1st, it is shorter; and, 2ndly, there is in winter pretty good grazing for cattle.

From Dumback to Hlambanyati the distance is about twenty miles. Hlambanyati is a river upon which the winter-grazing lands of the New Scotland Company are situated.

We are now in the Swazi country. The appearance it presents is very like the country seen from the road between Durban and Pietermaritzburg, in the Inanda district. Hlambanyati is 5163 feet above sea-level.

Stayed here a day to mend our cart, and left on June 7th for Jappan’s Kraal, distant, say, 8 miles. Road somewhat hilly, but not dangerous; stony in several places. Jappan’s Kraal situated 300 feet lower than Hlambanyati. Left Jappan’s at 3 o’clock P.M.; nearly came to grief with the cart shortly after leaving, owing to the high grass having grown up and over three ditches or spruits, into which we fell before knowing anything about them.

One hour and a-half from Jappan’s Kraal steep water spruit, now very bad. One hour later on, stony spruit descent or banks much broken. Out-spanned here for the night alone, having left our friend, the trader, at Jappan’s Kraal.

Buffels’ Hill, 10 miles from Jappan’s Kraal, was reached early on the morning of June 8th. Just before getting to Buffels’ Hill there is a neck which requires stones removing to make the road passable; at present a waggon has to go round the neck, and the road is dangerous on account of the sidling.

This hill, is not so dangerous, nor is it so great an obstacle to communication, as has been reported; at the same time it would require attention, for, if the oxen swerved at all, the waggon would be overturned, and in this case must be smashed to pieces, for the fall is almost precipitous for about 400 feet. We held the cart up with reims on the upper side, and got down safely.

After leaving Buffels’ Hill the road begins to ascend, and for about two miles there is a continuous rise. We are now on the top of a very high hill; the descent is even more steep than Buffels’ Hill, and certainly more dangerous, for when about two-thirds
of the way down, the road (Kafir foot-paths worn into deep ruts) takes an abrupt turn to the left, passing alongside deep cavern-like pits. I am of opinion that the road should be continued straight on, avoiding the turn above mentioned, for the hill appears to slope gradually into the flat. There will probably be a bad spruit at the bottom; still, in opening out a road, it would be important that this, the most dangerous part, should be avoided. On our return journey our cart was upset when just past the chasms; had the upset taken place about twenty yards lower down, we should have had neither oxen nor cart left, for all would have been dashed to pieces; as it was, the cart rolled over and over four times, coming to a stand in its right position, wheels down. The oxen were uninjured, and, beyond the breaking of a few staves in the tent, neither cart nor contents suffered the least damage.

Lotiti.—The road from the hill last referred to, as far as the River Usutu, is across a flat, passing by the Kraal of Masopool, before reaching which is a spruit requiring a few hours' attention.

After crossing the Usutu, which is here nearly as broad as the Tugela at Colenso, and with a similar sandy drift, the road ascends, leaving on the left hand a high mountain called Intondise. On the other side of this mountain is Lotiti, or the King's Kraal. This forms one of the great safeguards of the Swazi nation, for in this mountain are immense caves, into which the people can flee for shelter, taking with them their cattle, if attacked by a superior force. A large supply of corn, mealies, &c., is constantly kept stored in these caves, from a fear of the inroads of the Zulus. There is a means of communication, right through from one side to the other. A brief description of the nation may not be uninteresting.

The country, during the minority of the future king, Leudongo, is governed by five Indunas or headmen, the chief of whom is Zenshlan. Leudongo, who is about seventeen years old, has several brothers much older than himself, but as he was the eldest son of the chief or first wife of the king, according to Kafir law, and the late king's express desire, they are passed over, and he is to succeed to the throne. One brother is a refugee in Zulu land, and another is under the protection of Mr. Bell, of New Scotland.

A treaty offensive and defensive has been made between the Transvaal Government and the Swazies, under which the Swazies are to have the help and protection of the Transvaal Government in case the Zulus make war upon them, and vice versa. Under this treaty the Swazies cannot make war upon any other Kafir tribe without the consent of the Transvaal Government.
The Transvaal Government has also the right of making a road through the Swazi country to Delagoa Bay.

The Swazies are a fine, well-made race of men, much superior to the Basutoes, Korannas, and the Amatongas; indeed, the only superiority the Zulus have over them is in point of numbers.

They possess a beautiful and, in most part, well-watered country; the one drawback is the intolerable laziness common to all Kafir tribes.

The King's Kraal differs only from other kraals in its size and in its having an immense enclosure, in which important questions are discussed by the headmen of the nation. On my return, I had an opportunity of witnessing a discussion arising out of a case of murder. When I reached the enclosure, I found about four hundred men seated in circles; in the inner circle were the five headmen who govern the country. They motioned to me to come and sit down in the centre. One of them then took from my boy the blanket I had brought as a present to the king, and putting it on, he strutted up and down much to the delight of the assembly. Squatting down, he asked, "Who is this blanket for?" I replied, "For Leudongo."—"And where is Duando's blanket?" he asked. I inquired who Duando was. "I am Duando," he said, as though he were proud of the fact. "Your blanket," I replied, "has not come this time; it will probably come next time." The discussion was then resumed, and it continued for about an hour and a half. The case had arisen from a very trivial cause. A boy had lost some cattle of which he had charge, and went into the lands of another kraal to look for them; a dispute arose, and it ended in the boy being beaten to death. The verdict was a fine of 30 head of cattle, to be paid by the offending kraal to the Induna of the murdered boy's kraal, and another 30 to be divided amongst the people in certain proportions. If these 60 head of cattle were not paid within a certain time, the whole kraal were to be assegaied.

To continue. After passing round to the right of the mountain Intondise, a narrow, but deep, swift-running stream has to be crossed. The road from Lotiti passes through several spruits, and the River Umvaloos has to be crossed four times. The banks of this river are all very steep and in bad order; rather than put these to rights, it would be better to take a road leading off to the right, near the Kraal Masooopool, which goes right away to the next stopping-place, Mafotane.

Mafotane.—I should advise that, for the present, oxen should be left here, and not taken on to Josan's Kraal, although I saw no signs of fly either going to or coming from Josan's.
Left Mafootane on foot for Zooenshlan's Kraal, distant 8 miles. We were detained at Mafootane owing to the boys given us by the Induna refusing to go with us to carry our blankets.

Reached Zooenshlan, after a walk of 2½ hours, on the evening of June 11th.

Zooenshlan, June 12th.—Left 10 minutes to 7 A.M. No waggon road. Cattle are kept here. The whole country is covered with thorn bush. The Inshlala, or path, passed through some very deep ravines, which would certainly be impracticable for waggons. These may be avoided by leaving the Kafir path and walking higher up the spruit. The descent here is easy; turn to the right, walking through high reeds forming the bed of the spruit, and an easy ascent will be seen on the left hand. Going up here, take the path at the head of the branch spruit, on the right hand, and rejoin the ordinary footpath. Walked for 3 hours and 40 minutes; stopped for breakfast. After leaving, the next difficulty is a stony Koppie, the road along which is very sidling and bad. The whole of this bad part may be avoided. Go over a neck in the mountain, leaving the footpath on the right hand; cross this footpath some distance down on the other side, and take the valley on the right; this leads direct to Umehembane's Kraal. From here to Josan's Kraal there is no difficulty in the road; only thorn-bushes would have to be cut away.

Josan's Kraal, Lebombo Mountains.—I would mention that there is no water to be got for 16 miles before reaching Josan's.

Detained at Josan's by the Kafirs' refusing to go forward with us from fear of fever.

About 1½ mile north of Josan's there is a break in the Lebombo Mountains. The ascent is not more difficult than in many parts of the road between Durban and Mooli River. A good many stones would have to be removed. Many years since, five waggons were taken up here by Dutchmen; three spans of oxen out of the five died from fly. As our Kafirs took us across the Lebombo to Umchabanchaban's instead of to Maguequan's, and as the road on the other side is utterly impracticable, further details of this portion of the journey would be unnecessary. The distance across the Lebombo to Umchabanchaban is 36 miles.

Umchabanchaban.—A Portuguese trader has a station here. He gets his goods up from Delagoa Bay carried by Kafirs from Bombaan, or Bombay, a point on the river Umvaloos, which is navigable for good-sized cargo boats. This is distant from his station 20 miles.
We sent a Kafir in to Lorenço Marques with a letter asking Mr. Hoffman to send a boat up for us to Bombai. Stayed one day at Pintos; left at 8.30 A.M. Crossed the River Impaloose four times; reached Kafir Kraal, after a walk of 20 miles, at 5.15 P.M.

Tuesday, July 1st, 1873.—Left Bombai in a boat similar to the cargo boats used at the Point. The river is more than 100 feet wide. The banks are thickly wooded, and high reeds form a barrier to boats landing. We saw a number of sea-cows, but found it a very difficult matter to hit them with a bullet. The only part exposed was the nose and upper portion of the head, seen for a few minutes, when they came to the surface to blow. The boat sailed very slowly, and the oars used were of but little use. During the time the tide was coming in we had to anchor. This resulted in our not reaching Lorenço Marques until midnight. Arrived there, we landed, and walked through the streets to the house of Mr. Hoffman. After considerable delay, Mr. Hoffman appeared, and informed us that he could give us no accommodation, that there was no hotel in the place, and that he thought the best thing we could do would be to go on board the **Sofala**, which was then in harbour. We accordingly retraced our steps, got on board our craft, and reached the **Sofala** about 2 A.M. Having had very little to eat for two days previous, and nothing at all on this day, we ravenously devoured a hastily prepared meal, and retired to rest with a feeling of security and comfort to which we had been strangers for weeks past.

**Lorenço Marques.**—This town is situated upon English River. This river is only 8 miles long, and is much more like a bay than a river. It is formed by four rivers, the Tembe being the most southern, the Umvaloos or Impaloos, the Dundas, and the Matoll. At the point where all these rivers join together, English River will be six or eight miles wide.

The harbour is magnificent. Ships can come in day or night. There is no bar. Large ships find water enough up the bay for 6 or 8 miles. There is no question that this port is the natural outlet for the great trade of the interior, the Transvaal Republic and the Free State. At the present time the trade of the place is very small indeed, and is mostly in the hands of the Banyans. The system of supplying Portuguese traders who set up an establishment at a Kafir kraal on the Lebombo, and give guns to any Kafirs who like to ask for them, for the purpose of shooting buffalo and other game, cannot be a safe or a paying trade, for the cost of each skin at the station is more in many instances than the skin would be worth delivered in Durban. Without the opening up of a large interior trade, the business here must of necessity be very limited.
The Customs returns are about 2000l. per annum. The import duties, in many instances, are 3½ per cent. higher than at Port Natal. The difficulties experienced in getting labourers by some ships from Delagoa Bay are owing, so I was informed, to certain arrangements having been made between some captains or agents and the authorities. That there have been some questionable proceedings on the part of the authorities in this matter was proved by the former governor, Major Sinas, having been suspended; and Governor Quiroze appointed in his stead, pending inquiry into a charge brought against Governor Sinas of compelling Kafirs to go by certain ships in which they did not wish to sail for Natal.

Road.—The full extent of the road made by the Portuguese into the interior is 4 miles. This work has been in hand about eighteen months, and has cost a large amount. Beyond 4 miles two cannot ride abreast. During our stay at Lorenzo Marques a man named John Marteen came into the town. This man I had walked 60 miles to see. He is one in whose word not the slightest reliance can be placed. When I saw him at the Lebombo, he told me that he knew of a good road from the interior into Lorenzo Marques. When he came into the town, he was accompanied by his wife, her mother, and a man named Henderson of Wakkerstrom. He said their trip down to Bombai was perfectly satisfactory, no difficulty having been met with. We found out afterwards that on several occasions the women had to get out and walk, the oxen had to be out-spanned, and the cart carried by Kafirs. We afterwards arranged that I should return by boat to Bombai, thence to Ishleshas, Maguequin, and across the Lebombo to Josan's; Engels to return with Marteen to Bombai, thence to Sootina, across the Lebombo to Martinswell, from there to Mafootane, where we were to meet. The two accounts will be inserted here.

Return Journey from Lorenzo Marques to Mafootane.

Wednesday, July 9th, 1873.—Left at 12.30 noon. Reached Bombai at 10 P.M. The boat was aground several times.

Thursday.—Left Bombai for Ishleshas at 8.30 A.M. In 50 minutes came upon River Umvaloos, on right hand. Road sandy. Dry spruit. Ten minutes after this, large reed pan of water on left hand. In three quarters of an hour from this pan came upon a large open plain. No bush for 1½ mile. Thus, for, say, 8 miles from Bombai, no road-making required. No water for about three hours. From Bombai to Ishleshas very little thick bush would have to be cut down.
Reached Ishleshas, distant from Bombai 24 miles, on Friday morning, July 11th. Found Sept. Sanderson, brother of the editor of the ‘Natal Colonist,’ here. He had a hut built in the usual style; he appeared to do little or no trading; in fact, he had no stock whatever. He had been several years in the district, had been engaged in assisting Mc'Corkindale, and was now looking after Leslie’s interests. The Portuguese Government had refused to let him have any goods, lest he should trade with Nozengeli, the Amatonga king, with whom the Portuguese had stopped all trade.

Saturday, 12th July.—Left Ishleshas. River Tembe on left hand for some distance. N.B.—This river is said to be navigable to here from Lorenzo Marques, and, owing to the numerous turns, it takes about four days to get up to this point. I could not induce anyone at Lorenzo Marques to let me a boat to go up this river, lest Nozengeli’s people, recognising the Portuguese boat, should seize it, and kill the men in charge. After leaving the river, passed through several deep, bushy spruits. One of these had a large pool of water on right hand. Before going through these spruits, we came upon a Kafir kraal, where one Von Saker, of Lorenzo Marques, has a station. Reached Maguequan after a walk of 2 hours 5 minutes; say 7 miles.

Left Maguequan for the Lebombo at a quarter to 3 P.M. Fifteen minutes after leaving came upon a dry, stony spruit; water in large pool on left hand. Five minutes later another, but smaller, dry spruit. Five minutes after this, entered upon the pass through the Lebombo. High mountains on left hand, rising ground on right; road like an avenue between the two; bush in places meeting overhead. Half an hour after leaving Maguequan reached a spruit; large pool or lake on the right which flowed through the spruit, and formed another large pool on left-hand side. The scenery here is grand. The mountains on each side, not more than 20 to 25 yards apart, are almost precipitous for 700 or 800 feet, towering above the water, and, when one looks up, it almost seems as though the two sides are falling in. Kafirs call the water Montarn. In summer this water would, at times, be impassable; 8 to 12 feet high there are signs of the bush being washed by flood.

From the spruit a gradual rise; ten minutes after came upon sidling hill. This might, I think, be avoided by taking the valley on the right hand. Crossed the dry, stony spruit twice. Road now stony, steep, and covered with timber and thick bush. We are now in the midst of the first rise of the Lebombo, having ascended 350 feet. From here I observed a ridge running parallel with the Kafir footpath taken by me, and at
various points along the road, right up to Josan's, I was so struck with the appearance of this ridge for the making of a road, that I made inquiries respecting it, to which I will again refer.

After this first rise of 350 feet, the path descends for a short distance; then commences another ascent through thick bush, large trees, over immense boulders. This ascent reaches 375 feet; total ascent 725 feet. It is very evident to me that another route must be taken, for the expense of making this road practicable would be far too great. Road all along after this very stony. Walked on for an hour looking for a soft place to sleep in; came at last upon some long grass. But even here the boys had to remove a large number of stones before a place could be cleared in which to sleep. Two or three boys cut immense bundles of this dry grass, and, when spread out, a most luxurious bed was the result; large fires were then made, one in front and one on each side, on account of the lions, for we heard these gentlemen every night. By this time, however, we were so accustomed to them that our sleep was not interfered with.

We found no water at this night out-span; fortunately I had water carried from Maguequan; so we had our supply for the night.

Sunday, July 13th.—The road, for some distance after leaving our encampment, continued stony. In about an hour, as we were about to ascend a hill, saw ahead of us, going in single file along the side of the hill, a large number of baboons. The old one bringing up the rear was an immense fellow. They were all going along at a great rate; their action very much like the canter of a horse.

N.B.—Note in my diary—"Important." Before working upon this road, see if the hill opposite, which runs almost parallel with the road taken by me, would not give a much better path. The Kafirs say there is a road here. Road still continues stony. We descend two very steep hills; there is water at the foot of the last one. This last descent far too steep and rocky to be practicable. My Kafirs tell me there is another road away on our left, i.e. south of the road we are now upon.

No further difficulties until we come to Josan's, which kraal was reached about 3.30 P.M.

Distance from Lorencó Marques to Bombai 20 miles

'' Bombai to Ishleshas . . . 24 ''

'' Ishleshas to Maguequan . . . 7 ''

'' Maguequan to Josan's . . . 24 ''

Total . . . 75 ''

This reduces the tsetse fly district to 55 miles.
Again detained at Josan's, owing to the Kafirs I brought with me from Delagoa Bay refusing to go farther; two of these, whom I had not engaged to Josan's only, I compelled to go on. Not one Kafir would stir out of his kraal at Josan's, although I only wished them to go on with me to Mafootane. From here I went on with two Kafirs, who had to carry the packages which it took five to carry from Bombay. Fortunately I had bought a horse from one of the hunters here, and I was able to put several of the heavier packages upon this animal. I reached Mafootane on Tuesday, July 15th, about one o'clock. Here I met my friend Engels, who had arrived that morning. He had followed me to Bombay, and had started from there taking the road so highly spoken of by the man Marteen. His report (i.e. Engel's) of this road quite puts it out of the question, for, in addition to crossing the River Impaloos seven or eight times, the descent of the Lebombo on the Transvaal side was so precipitous as to be quite impracticable for wagons. The return journey from Mafootane to Hlambanyati will need no further description.

From Hlambanyati, however, to Bell's we went by the other road mentioned, viz. the "Hall Neck" road; and this is worthy of special mention, as it is the most remarkable road I have yet seen in the country. The district it passes through is a mountainous country, similar to that between Arthur's and Hlambanyati. The mountains referred to are, I believe, a spur of the Drakensberg.

The ridge along which the road is taken extends, I believe, from Hlambanyati to Heidelberg, a distance of more than 150 miles. For the 50 miles along which I travelled there is not a single spruit. In some places the road is level, and about 300 feet wide; on each side there are precipices 300 or 400 feet deep. Water is met with in hollows on each side of the road.

Reached Hamilton, Bell's station, on the afternoon of Tuesday, July 22nd, after an absence of seven weeks. Found that Everard, who had gone on direct to Leydenberg from Clarke's, having heard reports of our having the fever, had ridden from Leydenberg to Bell's, and from there by way of Arthur's and Henderson's to Hlambanyati. I therefore stayed at Bell's waiting his return, until Friday, July 25th, when I left for Leydenberg. Reached Clarke's the same evening. Left Clarke's, July 26th, for Leydenberg, distant 90 miles. Reached Leydenberg at noon on Wednesday, July 30th. Great excitement prevailed at this place owing to the newly discovered gold-fields. Erven had gone up to fabulous prices. Sonnenberg, a merchant from the diamond-fields, had given 200l. for an erf, and had given orders for the making of 100,000 bricks. 300l.
and even 400L. were asked for eren which formerly were not worth more than 2L. or 3L.

First-rate hotel started here, kept by a Dr. Birch. I mention this, as the manner in which this is conducted is superior to anything I have seen out of England.

Gold-fields.—Distant from Leydenberg about 40 miles. There is every prospect of a payable alluvial field being opened up here. Yankee Dan, an experienced Australian miner, working a claim on wages at 4L. 10s. per week, found 8 oz. last week, 7 oz. the week before; and in the four days I was on the fields, he found 17½ oz. Many parties' finds average an ounce per day.

Engels left here on Thursday, Aug. 7th, on horseback, taking with him two boys, for Delagoa Bay. His report of this line of road is that it is unsatisfactory, inasmuch as he had several large rivers to cross, and for about 100 miles the road is through the tsetse fly country. He did the journey in seven days. From Hamilton it ought not to occupy more than nine days with a waggon.

In conclusion. In Leydenberg I met with two Dutchmen who had been to Lorenço Marques via New Scotland some eighteen years ago. They informed me that the road over the Lebombo was south of where I had been; that the ascent from Delagoa Bay side was not so steep as the ascent at Josan's (the road taken by me was the Kafir foot-path); and that the other road, along the ridge which I had several times noted in my book, was comparatively easy and practicable.

The only way to overcome the difficulty of transport through the fly country will be as follows. Say the quantity to be carried is 200 tons. Water-carriage from Lorenço Marques to Bombai 20 miles. A station would be required at Bombai for the storage of the goods, for each section would have to be got over as speedily as possible. There should be no delay of waggons and oxen at Bombai; the goods to load the waggons up with ought in all cases to be waiting for the waggons. Say each wagggon would make four trips from Bombai to Masootane or Zoosnhlan per month. We have four months, May, June, July, and August, in which to transport the goods. This would give 16 trips to each wagggon. Allow 6 waggons, or 96 trips at 5000 lbs. per trip, equals 480,000 lbs. 200 tons = 448,000 lbs.

Now, with respect to the oxen used for this transport. We must calculate upon losing all the oxen employed; but they do not die immediately from the effects of the poison of the fly. We may safely calculate upon six trips out of each span. This will necessitate our having three spans to each wagggon, or a total number of 250 oxen. These, at 9L. per head, would amount to 2250L.; and allowing that all died, the cost of the transport of
the goods would equal 11l. 5s. per ton to the Transvaal side of the Lebombo. This does not include water-carriage, which might safely be put down at 5s. per ton. Cargo-boats carrying 3 to 4 tons can be hired for 4s. per day. If, therefore, we reckon the total cost from Lorenço Marques to Zoonshlan at 15l. per ton, we have for contingencies and expenses the sum of 700l. over and above the estimated cost. From Zoonshlan to Leydenberg, Boers would ride transport at from 5l. to 7l. per ton. Allow for this distance 10l. per ton plus 15l. = 25l. cost of carriage from Lorenço Marques to Leydenberg. This, as compared with the cost from Durban to Leydenberg, shows a profit on the Lorenço Marques route of 10l. per ton. Therefore, on the transport alone of the 200 tons, we have a profit of 2000l.

Road from New Scotland to Delagoa Bay.—Opened communications with men suitable for undertaking this work. Made out with them list of things necessary for the works; arranged the time operations should be commenced; everything to be completed by beginning of May, when the first goods would be ready for delivery.

Secured the services of two men who are to reside the one at Bombay, the other at the Lebombo Mountains, during the time taken for the transport of the goods from Lorenço Marques to the interior.

Durban, September 1st, 1873.

REPORT OF DISTANCES: DURBAN TO LORENÇO MARQUES AND LEYDENBERG.

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<td>FROM MARITZBURG to</td>
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<td>Reit Spruit</td>
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<td>Currie</td>
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### Report on Distances: Durban to Lorenzo Marques, &c. (continued)

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**From Newcastle to**

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<td>Josan's Kral, Lebombo</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unehabanahahan</td>
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**Return.**

**From Lorenzo Marques to**

<table>
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588 From Durban to Lorenzo Marques.
From Durban to Lorencó Marques ........................................... 588 Miles.
From Lorencó Marques to Leydenberg ...................................... 314
From Leydenberg to Durban .................................................. 451
From Josan's Kraal to Impalooe River and back to Josan's, walking 60
From Leydenberg to Gold-fields and back ................................ 1413
Total ........................................................................... 1493


The following summary of Colonel Stebnitzky’s communication to the Caucasus section of the Imperial Geographical Society on his reconnaissances in the Trans-Caspian steppe during the course of the autumn of 1872, while serving with the detachment commanded by Colonel Markozoff, of the Staff Corps, may be found interesting. Without attempting to follow Colonel Stebnitzky in his detailed account of the different routes surveyed by him, we will give a few extracts from his report bearing on three important parts of the subject, viz.:
1. The desiccated bed of the Amu-Daria.
2. The River Attrek.
3. The Turkomans.

1. The Uzboi (the Dry Channel of the Amu-Daria).

The detachment began its survey from the Gulf of Balkhan, which they reached by water from Krasnovodsk, starting on their land journey from Cape Belek, where the gulf narrows and becomes shallow, and is joined, 10 or 12 versts further, by the estuary of the dry river-bed of the Oxus, which is barely covered by the sea. The detachment marched along the northern base of the Balkhan Mountains for a distance of about 134 versts,* to the well of Dzoyuruk, in the Uzboi, then along the Uzboi for 114 versts to the well of Igdy.

We will confine ourselves to M. Stebnitzky’s general remarks on the desiccated channel of the Amu-Daria.

The ancient river-bed has now been carefully surveyed

* The distance from Cape Belek to the well of Dzoyuruk in the Uzboi is 133½
versts.
from its estuary in Balkhan Bay for a distance of more than
280 verst (281 1/3 verst = 187 2/3 miles). Accurate maps have been
drawn of this part of the channel, based on geographical posi-
tions astronomically determined. The general direction of the
channel, with the exception of its bend to the south of the Great
Balkhan (from the well of Mullakari to the well of Aidin), as
far as the well of Igdj, is nearly due west to east, and almost
parallel with Krasnovodsk and Balkhan bays. This direction,
which has now been accurately determined, differs consider-
ably from that marked on former maps. Part of the dry channel is
continually covered with salt water from the estuary to the well of
Kara-durrun. Higher up the channel widens, and then passes
between the great and little Balkhan ranges at the well of
Aidin; near the wells of Orta-kui and Chala it approaches the
eastern extremity of the Great Balkhan, called Dervish-tepeh.
Its further direction is as stated above. The salt lakes begin
at the wells of Orta-kui. This part of the channel is better
defined than the lower part. Along its entire course consid-
erable tracts are often seen completely covered with salt water;
salt is found very generally deposited, and the soil is every-
where permeated with it. M. Stebnitzky considers that there
is no doubt that a large river once flowed through the channel,
an opinion supported by all his observations. Everything favours
such a presumption. The channel in several places appears to
be as it were in ruins; the running water evidently left it a long
time ago, and its banks have, for a long time past, been subject
to the action of water and sand-drift. Although the levels taken
in the channel itself have not yet been calculated, it may, never-
theless, be confidently asserted, upon data already obtained, that
the whole of the surveyed district slopes to the west, i.e. towards
the Caspian Sea.

As to the origin of the salt and sweet-water lakes in the
Uzboi, the result of the inquiries and observations made is as
follows:—The Uzboi, or the dry channel of the Oxus, is the
lowest part of the centre of Turkomania; hence part of the
water which falls during the winter and spring in the form
of rain or snow in the country contiguous with the Uzboi drains
into the channel, where it remains. The drainage into the Uzboi
is still further accounted for by the circumstance of the soil of
the adjacent country being chiefly composed of porous sand-
hillocks over clay, which allows very little water to pass through
it. There can be little doubt that the water in the lakes is
derived from local atmospheric deposits of rain or snow. This
opinion is confirmed by the Turkomans, who state that in spring
there is generally more water in the lakes than at the time of
the visit of the expedition (September and October), as well as
by the traces of recently dried-up lakes, some of which have the appearance of morasses.

The water of the atmosphere draining through a soil impregnated with salt becomes salt itself, and absorbs still more salt in the channel; in this way saline lakes are formed in the Uzboi. The wells in the bed of the Uzboi occur only in those parts where the arterial flow of the subterranean water is stronger and more concentrated. Owing to the prolonged and constant action of the water the soil through which it drains becomes more alkalised, and consequently the water in the wells is hardly salt, indeed, almost sweet. The degree of saltiness of the well-water, however, varies; in some of the wells the water is very salt, as, for instance, in that of Yanydja. Wherever fresh water issues from the wells in considerable quantities sweet-water lakes have been formed, as at Topiatan and other places. The above are the results of a series of careful observations conducted in the dry channel of the Uzboi.

A few words may be said generally as to the direction of the dry channel of the Amu-Daria. Before the last reconnaissance it was thought that the lower part of the Uzboi was connected with the Amu-Daria by two arms: one joining Balkhan Bay, the existence of which had been ascertained by previous explorations; the other arm from the great salt-marsh to Khiva Bay (Kosho-Odek). However, on surveying the country between Khiva Bay and the Kizil Kum sands to the north of it, no such channel as the latter was found to exist; the only trace of an arm of the Uzboi in this direction was discovered during a reconnaissance from Mulla-Kari to Chikishliar, in about the same latitude as Khiva Bay, near Mount Buya-tagh, where a small dry channel, the Giayurs, was found, having no connection either with the Uzboi or with Khiva Bay.

The continuation of the Uzboi eastward from the furthest surveyed point may be described as follows:—From Igdy the channel takes the direction of the wells of Kurtysk, 50 to 60 verst from Igdy; hence the direction of the channel is no longer from west to east, but north to the foot of the Kaplan-Kir (the chink or edge of the Ust-Urt), passing the wells of Efgenek, Kyrk, Kitchkildy, and Torpan, and joining the salt lake of Betendal-köl (surveyed in 1871) near the wells of Sara-Kamish and Dekcha; beyond this we may assume, from the descriptions given by Abbott* in 1840, Danileffsky in 1842, and also from the information collected by Stebnitzky himself, that the old river-bed joins the present Amu-Daria at the

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* "Narrative of a Journey from Herat to Khiva, Moscow, &c.," by Captain James Abbot, vol. i. pp. 38-64. See also 'Burne's Travels.'
Khivan town of Kunia-Urgenj, and the village of Hurlen, to the north of Khiva, where it, in all probability, divides into two arms.

From other information, to which some importance must be attached, there seems to be another branch* of the Uzboi channel which leaves it at the well of Kurtysh, and runs due east, joining the Amu-Daria at the town of Charajni, situated on that river in the northern part of the Khanat of Bokhara. This arm is said to pass the wells of Murzeh, Dambla, Yazy, and Yenedja.

M. Stebnitsky then proceeds to review the causes which have been assigned for the change in the course of the river. Some have accounted for this strange phenomenon by attributing it to a geological disturbance, as, for instance, an earthquake, owing to which the fall in the channel has been altered. Professor Lentz ascribed it to the rotation of the earth on its axis (Baer's law).

The first suggestion is entirely unsupported by any fact, because there is a slope in the country between the Aral and Caspian seas, and a more attentive consideration of the second suffices to show that it cannot explain so important a phenomenon. It has also been suggested that the fact may be accounted for by the diminution of the water of the Amu-Daria, and the dryness of the climate in the Trans-Caspian region. But the first of these causes is not based on any positive facts, and the second, tested by the result of the careful observations made during the last expedition, could not have been such an effectual barrier to the course of the river as it might seem at first sight to have been.

From the wells of Igdy the direct route to Khiva is as follows:—(1) Igdy; (2) Orta-Kui (70 verstas), in Turkoman language "middle well"; (3) Neffez-Kuli (1 mezil, the Turkoman for a day's march = about 25 verstas), the well of Dudar (great mezil); (4) the abandoned Khivan fort Ismukshir (7 or 8 marches without water), and then 2 or 3 marches to Khiva. The shortest distance from Igdy (astronomically determined by Stebnitsky) to Khiva (according to Struve in 1858) is about 270 verstas; of course by the above-mentioned march-route it will be somewhat more.

Previous writers upon the Amu-Daria have alluded to ruins which they met with in this country, but in the whole extent surveyed by this expedition no ruins were seen.

Omitting the description of the cross-routes between the

* Abbott, however, does not mention it, although his line of march must have taken him across it.
valley of the Uzboi and the basin of the River Attrek, we will at once proceed to the description of the River Attrek, which forms the boundary between Persia and the new Russian military post of Chikishliar.

2. THE RIVER ATTREK AND POST CHIKISHLIAR.

"This river," says Stebnitzky, "is a small stream with muddy water, brackish to the taste. We thought," continues this officer, "that this river, the Nile of Turkomania, was a more important stream than it actually is. The confluence of the Sumbar and the Attrek is called by the Turkomans Chât, but that is not its proper name, signifying merely the junction of two streams. The country on the right bank of the Attrek has the appearance of a plain studded here and there with hillocks; this plain is called by the Turkomans Mughanlan. Vegetation is scanty here, consisting entirely of brushwood. Beyond the Attrek a ridge of mountains could be seen, Hökchatagh, Kurtagh, and others, which were at this season already covered with snow.

Continuing their march along the right bank of the river, the expedition reached the crossing of Bairam-Olum, on the Attrek, where the valley of the river is only 25 fathoms wide, the banks 8 to 9 fathoms high, and the width of the stream 2 to 3 fathoms. The road on the opposite bank of the Attrek leads to the district inhabited by the nomad tribe of Turkomans, the Höklens, whose encampments extend along the foot of the Hökcha-tagh Mountains. The distance from the above crossing to the River Hürgen is 60 versts in a direct line: 24 versts beyond there is another ford across the Attrek, Yagly-Olum (oil ford). The banks of the river are less steep here, and not more than 2 fathoms high. The distance from Yagly-Olum to Bayat-Hadjji-Olum is 21½ versts, and from the latter a direct road leads to the post of Chikishliar passing the wells of Karadja-batyr and Ullu-kuruk.

The post of Chikishliar is situated on the seashore near some wells, 1½ fathom deep, with brackish, but drinkable water; the seashore near Chikishliar is low and flat: the water near the shore is very shallow, and only at a distance of 1½ verst deepens to 5 or 6 feet, so that large vessels, such as steamers, are obliged to anchor 2½ versts from the shore—the chief drawback to the post of Chikishliar. This post is 40 miles from the Russian station on the island of Ashur-ada, near Astrabad. The vegetation in the neighbourhood is very scanty, and there is hardly enough food for camels. To the south of it is the Aoul of Hassan Kuli, with a population of Turkoman
Yomuts, who are engaged in the fisheries. The Elbruz Mountains are distinctly visible from Chikishliar, to the south of Astrabad; the upper slopes of these mountains were covered with snow, and in clear weather their highest peak, Mount Demavend, was visible (18,600 feet above the level of the Caspian Sea, according to the measurement of Iwashintsoff.)

The expedition surveyed the course of the Attrek for upwards of 150 versts. The following are some particulars collected on the spot relating to the upper course of this river. It takes its rise in the mountains near Kalia-Yussuff, north-east of the Kurd settlement of Kuchan (Kabushan). Its course is first north-west to the valley of Manak, and then south-west to Chät, referred to above: the length of its entire course is about 300 versts (200 miles); on the right it receives the Sumbar, which is joined by the Chandyr; on its left, in its upper course, the small stream of Semulgan: these are its only tributaries. The Hürgen (Hür, strong, gen, wide) flows from two sources in Mounts Hüli-tagh, near Hezme-Cheshme; these streams unite after flowing no great distance at a rock called Kamenny, on which is situated Fort Kazan Kaya. The country between the parent streams of the Hürgen is inhabited by the Höklen tribes, Erkeklu and Koi.

The course of the Hürgen is 180 versts (120 miles) long; it flows by several arms into the Caspian, a little south of Silver Hill (Hümesh-Tepeh). Its course is almost parallel with that of the Attrek, though the distance separating these rivers in the upper part of their courses is more considerable than in the lower part. The shortest distance between the rivers is from the ferry Yag-Yaila-Olum on the Attrek to the ruins of the minaret of Niaz-Serder on the Hürgen, about 40 versts. The Hürgen is bounded by hills on the left, which may be considered to be a continuation of the Elbruz range; these mountains approach the bank of the Attrek to within a distance of from 5 to 30 versts. A number of streams rising in the mountains flow into the Hürgen, so that it never dries up in the summer, as the Attrek sometimes does: these streams are used for irrigating purposes. The Hürgen is therefore more important to the district through which it flows than is the Attrek, besides which the land on the left bank of the Hürgen is far better adapted for cultivation. The territory between the Hürgen and the Attrek is of great importance to the Turkoman tribes of the Yomuts and Höklens, because they make it their winter-quarters and a kind of head-centre, from which they sally forth on their forays and to which they return again with their plunder.

The ruins scattered along the Hürgen are numerous; the
chief of these are the remains of the former large city of Djordjan, which can now be traced in numbers of mounds covered with grass and reeds. A solitary tower, Gumbetti-Kans (the minaret of Djordjan) stands near them; this tower is supposed to have been built by some khan who ruled in Djordjan in the days of its prosperity and splendour at the end of the 10th century. It is built of burnt bricks, very artistically laid, and is 60 yards wide at its base, and 150 feet high. But the most important monument in this country is the wall of Kisil-alan. This wall is parallel with the Hürgen at a distance of 2 to 3 versts from it, beginning 25 versts from its source it continues to Silver Hill, and even into the sea. At the present time it presents the appearance of a ridge of hillocks, 5 to 7 feet high and 6 fathoms thick. It is evidently built of burnt bricks; there are remains of square redoubts at different parts of the wall, 150 paces on one side of it. Eastern writers attribute its construction to Alexander of Macedon as a protection against the attacks of the northern tribes. According to Baron Bode, Kisil-alan is mentioned by Arab writers under the name of Seddi-yadjudj-umadjudj, and is the Gog and Magog of the Scriptures.

The chief physical characteristics of the country included in the survey may be summed up briefly as follows:—The lowest belt of the Turkoman Steppe is formed by the Uzboi (the dry channel of the Oxus), which has been discovered to continue in an uninterrupted line from the Caspian Sea to the present Amu-Daria (it only remains now to explore carefully its connection with that river). To the north of this so-called "dead artery" of Turkomania (that is to say the Uzboi), beginning on the west, are the rocky elevations of the Great Balkhan Mountains and their continuation on the west, the Kurrenin Kar, as far as Krasnovodsk. The southern and western slopes of the Great Balkhan border the valley of the Uzboi on the north from its estuary in Balkhan Bay to the Well of Buyuradji. North of the Great Balkhan lies a vast sand desert, Chul-Mamed-kum, which borders the Uzboi for some distance from the end of the Great Balkhan to the Well of Dekha (beyond Topiatan). Beyond Dekcha the last elevations of the Ust-Urt (Boguruslan Kir) approach the Uzboi. The level plateau of the Ust-Urt forms the boundary of the Uzboi as far as Igdy, and in all probability as far as Lake Betendal-Höl, near Sary-kamysh. To the south of the Uzboi lie vast sand deserts, in some places 100 versts wide, extending to the Tekke valley of Arkateh, at the foot of Kurren-tagb. These sands approach the Amu-Daria on the east near the limits of the oasis of Khiva. South of this belt of sands is the hilly
region of Kurren-tagh (60 versts wide where the expedition crossed it). The Kurren-tagh Mountains have a south-easterly direction, and, as far as can be ascertained at present, continue to the Elbruz Range, which forms the northern boundary of the Persian provinces of Astrabad and Khorassan. In the angle formed by the junction of these groups of mountains, the Attrek and the Hürgen, the only running streams of Turkomania, take their rise. On the west the Kurren-tagh terminate at the Well of Kazanchik, beyond which is the group of the Little Balkhan, and between the latter and the seashore of the Caspian intervene sands and salt-marshes. Thus the whole of the region is a sea of sand, and the groups of mountains we have mentioned and the Ust-Urt may be called large islands in it. In the whole of this country, excepting the Attrek and the Hürgen, the most plentiful supply of water is to be found along the line of the Uzboi, where there are numerous wells; for the rest sweet-water wells are very rare. The Kurren-tagh Mountains, in conjunction with the Khorassan Mountains, supply two streams, the Attrek and the Hürgen, and a row of rivulets along the Tekke settlements.

The climate of Turkomania is subject to the extremes of heat and cold. At the end of the summer in the month of September the temperature is sometimes as high as +30 Reaumur in the shade, in winter the frosts are as severe as -20 Reaumur. The winds exercise a great influence on the temperature. The north-easterly winds from the icy regions of the far north blow with great violence, raising clouds of dust as they pass over the sandy wastes; a gradual fall in the barometer for some days almost always indicates the approach of a north-easterly wind. The southern part of Turkomania is partly protected from these winds, and is therefore warmer than the central part. The easterly winds are generally dry and warm; the westerly and south-westerly winds blowing from the Caspian moisten the atmosphere and are generally accompanied by clouds, and in the months of September and October by rain.

3. The Turkomans.

The three chief tribes of Turkomans inhabiting the central and southern parts of the Trans-Caspian region are the Yomuts, Höklens, and Tekke.

The Yomuts are divided into two branches—the Bairam-Shala and the Kara-Chukha. The first inhabit the northern part of the khanat of Khiva, near the Gulf of Abugir, their encampments extending as far as Sary-kamish. The Kara-Chukha are subdivided into several smaller tribes and families
under their respective chieftains. They are also divided into settled-Chomura and nomad-Charva. The first are settled in the lower valleys of the Attrek and Hürgen, and are engaged in the fisheries at the mouths of these rivers as well as in agriculture; they sow wheat, millet, barley, and sesamum. There are numerous herds of cattle on the Hürgen, but camels are scarce.

The aouls (encampments) of the Chomura are not always stationary, but are moved to short distances; the Charva only remain during the three cold winter months (December, January, and February) between the Attrek and the Hürgen; in March they leave for the steppe north of the Attrek. They wander along the Uzboi, in the desert of Kizil Kum, and generally all over the steppe wherever there are wells as far as Karabugaz Gulf on the north, and to the well of Igdy on the east; after remaining one-and-a-half or two months in one place they remove their camp to another place. The Chomura and Charva Turkomans are closely connected; thus, for instance, a father lives a settled life while the sons are nomads. Sometimes family circumstances compel them to change their nomad for a settled mode of life, as, for instance, marriage or poverty. It sometimes happens that fevers are prevalent in summer on the Attrek and Hürgen; in such cases more Turkomans migrate to the steppe. The number of kebitkas of the Chomura and Charva has been estimated at 15,500; allowing five persons to each kebitka, this would make a total of 77,500 Yomuts. This number is probably excessive. The Yomuts occupy the country from the seashore along the Attrek and Hürgen as far as the minaret of Gumbetti-Kaus and the River Herme-Rud, which flows into the Hürgen. Further east are the Hökläns, whose settlements extend to the Hürgen, the fort of Nar-din, and the lands of the Kurds of Budjnur and Semulgan. The land of the Hökläns, owing to its abundant supply of water and good pasturage, is better than that of the Yomuts. The numbers of the Hökläns are estimated at 3000 kebitkas, but they were formerly far more numerous; some of them were forcibly compelled to migrate by the Khan of Khiva, others escaped to Khiva to avoid the hostility of the Persians during the campaign of Shah Mahmud to the banks of the Hürgen. Almost all the Hökläns are agriculturists, and some of them breed silk-worms. As they are not nomads they keep few camels, but have large flocks of sheep and herds of cattle.

The Tekke Turkomans live in forty-three fortresses, which extend from Kizil Arvat to Merv. Their encampments may be found on the banks of the River Murghab, 80 to 100 versts north of Herat, where Abbott saw them on his journey from Herat.
to Khiva. According to some authorities, they number 30,000 kebitkas.

The different tribes of Turkomans living within Khivan territory may be estimated at 5000 kebitkas. The Turkomans are of the Turk race, to which the Tartars of Trans-Caucasia and northern Persia also belong. They speak the Djugatay dialect. They are Sunnis and good Muhammedans, although not fanatical, and they will divide their food and live on friendly terms with people of other religions. They admit a plurality of wives, and often marry their Persian and Kurd captives; but the children of native Turkomans are considered of pure race, and take the precedence in the family and in the division of the inheritance. Almost all the domestic work is performed by women and slaves: they watch the flocks, prepare the food, make felts, and weave carpets; while the men pass most of their time in pleasure, sometimes sallying forth on an "alaman," or raid, into Persia to obtain plunder and carry people off to sell as slaves. The social life of the Turkomans is quite patriarchal. They have elders, but only obey them as much as they like, and punish an offender or a thief according to their own pleasure rather than submit to their elders or mollahs. The organisation of the Tekkes is better. The Turkoman tribes of the Yomuts, Höklens, and Tekke are often at war with one another, and seize men and the property of other tribes: they sometimes conclude their hostilities by a peace, but that does not last long.

The Turkoman camels are single-humped; they are smaller and less powerful than the Trans-Caucasian camels, but are far more enduring. A Turkoman camel will carry a pack of 10 to 12 pouds (from 3 to 4 cwt.), and will travel 3 and even 4 verst an hour on a good road. The nomad Turkomans have large herds of camels, which are allowed to grow up without any care. Out of the camels' hair they prepare felts for the covering and lining of their tents. Their horses are of Arab race, very enduring, swift, of a good height, and handsome in appearance. The Tekke horses are particularly famous; the high quality of the Turkoman horses, and their perfect subjection to their riders, enable them to make distant plundering forays into Persia. The Turkoman sheep are generally small.

The arms of a Turkoman consist of a curved Persian sword, a small dagger more like a large knife, and every kind of gun, Persian or Russian, percussion or flint-and-steel. Some carry long lances made of very strong cane-wood. They are good horsemen, and, according to Asiatic ideas, "bold warriors," but they cannot offer any serious resistance to regular troops, an-
run away at the first encounter. When the Russian troops first occupied the eastern shores of the Caspian Sea, the Turkomans, who were accustomed to their easy victories over the Persians, were at first not afraid of the regular troops, but they soon learnt to fear the Russian soldier.

XVI.—On the Coast Country of East Africa, South of Zanzibar.
By Captain Elton.

ON THE COPAL DISTRICTS SOUTH OF DAR-ES-SALAM, EAST AFRICAN COAST.

The “Msandarusi,” or copal-tree, is largely scattered over the extensive tract of country stretching from the Marui Hills and the Uzeramo, through the rich district of Kwalé, away to the Matumbwi range of mountains on the south-east of the Rufigi River, and lies within the limits which are bounded to the east by the sea-coast line of cultivation and settlement, and to the west by the highlands which form an irregular barrier to the Mrima at a distance of from 30 to 35 miles inland. Throughout these limits, immense quantities of the semi-fossil “Animi” are dug by the natives, and this produce constitutes the most lucrative commerce of the Indian settlers at the small trading-ports.

Farther south, beyond the Samanga villages, there is a break in the supply, probably occasioned by the surrounding slave traffic, which rapidly drives legitimate business and all confidence out of its path, but also affected to some degree by the increased difficulties of communication caused by the marshy swamps which here fringe the coast more deeply than above the Rufigi. However, beyond Kilwa, copal again re-appears, and is largely bought up, in tranquil times, at the numerous trading-stations which dot the seaboard down to the Rovuma River.

The tree I have already described in a former report, and I have also explained the rough system adopted by the natives in digging for the fossil gum.

The “old workings,” close to the villages of Massonga on the Kisiju road, from which many ships’ cargoes of “animi” have been extracted, appear to be now almost exhausted, for although small parties re-work the ground occasionally, it is neglected by the men, who habitually supply the Indians, for a tract of land bordering on the same road a little further to the south, and situated in the district of Mangatani. In this country a forest, called the “Kiergesi,” contains many “ Insan—
"Darusi," and between the belts of these trees and in the broad transverse glades which always intersect African woodlands, some of the finest fossil gum is dug. This never reaches the trader, however, without a large admixture of copal from the neighbouring trees, and the contents of the digger’s basket are made up with wet sand and small stones in order to gain a little extra weight, it being war to the knife over the barter of "animi" between the Indian and the Washenzi,—a contest in which both sides are equally unscrupulous.

Dar-es-Salam is only sparingly supplied with the gum, the trade being diverted to Mgogoni, Tuliani, &c., but the immediate vicinity furnishes this part of the coast with ease, and at Mangatani the agents of the Banyans buy for Kisiju, Bosa, &c.

The extent of the produce is not fully realised until the Kwalé district is entered. Here are found the following stations, where the trade is carried on systematically:—Kitmanga, Zerare, Nusseebgani, Kunderani, Demuni, Makrona, Kivinja, Sandazi, Mji Mema, Pemba, and Kikunia, all of which are almost solely occupied in this one commerce. In the early morning, strings of natives are seen on the paths, each party led by a few men armed with old muskets and bows and arrows, and consisting of women and lads carrying copal baskets, and, except during the very dry season, these arrivals take place daily. Yet even here there is no organised system of working "prospects," and shafts are seen almost everywhere, but a regular supply cannot be insured; no pressure can induce an increase when enough gum has been bartered to satisfy the present demands of the petty chiefs. Neither do the Indians venture to send out parties of their own; each village and each working is represented by a headman, or "Jumbe," and the natives are only too ready to unite against the slightest encroachment on their monopoly,—the "Trade Union" system being here represented in its strongest form.

However, during the rains there is not much slackness, the ground being soft and easier to work with the rough hoes and pointed sticks used to clear out the holes. Below 4 feet no fossil gum is found worth taking, and, indeed, very few diggers appear to go beyond 3 feet in search of it; but all is grist that comes to the mill—copal from the tree, the copal dug beneath the branches, fossil copal, and the decayed gum—and the difficulty of arriving at any fair valuation of a quantity must, in consequence, be great.

My opportunities of visiting both diggings and trees in this district were frequent, and it is from here that the spécimens forwarded were collected, as also the fruit, which the natives state to be fit for planting.
Sandazi boasts of a giant copal-tree, which overshadows the main street of the village and is superior in size to any others I met with; but even this really noble specimen is often excelled, I was assured by the natives, by trees found nearer the hills. At Kikunia a brisk trade flourishes in the gum with the Rufigi tribes and the Intoti. Past the Mpenbeno ferries on the Rufigi, and skirting the plains which stretch to the Matumbwi mountains, Mohoro is reached (a village on the river of that name, which enters the sea as Pemba-Utagiti, but does not belong to the Rufigi Delta), and both here and at Furu, Murdingo, Kuajo, and Samanga, and at an inland station called Chabwani, the principal business is copal.

Beyond the Samanga group of villages the road towards Kilwa Kivinja passes through difficult mangrove-swamps, and the country is thinly populated and very unhealthy. Kilwa reached, slave-trade and ivory monopolise all attention, and what little copal trade there is has dwindled down to small quantities brought in by the slaving expeditions which venture a few days’ journey from the town.

The district of Mungao is now in such a disturbed state that all trade is closed, except at Lindy and Inzinga, several natives having been killed whilst on their road to the settlements laden with the gum, but in peaceful years large quantities arrive from this part of the country at Zanzibar. Kwalé and Delgado exported 40,000 dollars’ worth so long ago as 1867–68, since which date I believe no correct returns of the Southern trade have been kept.

The Indian trader on the Mrima has many extortions to fight against and heavy duties to pay, neither can his life be a very pleasant one, spent as it is in one continual succession of haggling and quarrelling with the natives, competition with his neighbours, and a monotonous round of coast fever. The local “Jumbé” extracts a ground-rent from him, and he is fortunate if only one claimant to territorial dues appears on the scene! The “Jumbé” is followed by the Jemadar, who levies an arbitrary percentage on his supposed profits, and besides estimates the amount himself in order to save discussion. The custom-house then abstracts 20 frasilahs from every 100 frasilahs of copal shipped, as the Government duty, and, in addition, charge him on expenses, storage, and delay; add to all this, freight and interest on money, and a considerable addition is made to cost price.

From 3 to as high as 5½ dollars are the Kwalé estimated costs of the barter per frasilah of copal from the Washenzi; prices varying according to the season of the year and the numbers of the men of the various tribes at work, demand, &c.; and at
Zanzibar the merchants buy at from 7 dollars to 8 dollars, according to their written agreements with the coast agent.

Against all difficulties the trade undoubtedly prospers, and affords large gains to all concerned, whilst it is clear the apparently inexhaustible supply of copal, under a settled rule and with systematic working, would furnish the means of supporting a far larger community than that now sparsely scattered along the coast.

The tree would appear to have lined the shores in former days, but the extent of the ancient forests can now only be estimated by the area of the present workings and by the position of the existing "Msandarusi," which are found away to the foot of the low hills bordering the Mrima and on all the terrace and lands sloping down from the present sea-beach. It seems also impossible to estimate the time required to effect the change of the tree gum into the so-called "fossil" animi, although all local evidence confirms the identity of the origin of these two articles of commerce, the difference in the value of which is so great.

(Signed) F. ELTON,
First Assistant to Political Agent, and Vice-Consul, Zanzibar.

ON THE RUFIGI RIVER.

When approaching the Rufigi River, my instructions from Dr. Kirk were "to pass inland from the village of Kikunia, so as to cross the river, if possible, about 30 miles from the coast, in order to report on its navigability and branches." I was, however, unable to follow the route indicated, in consequence of my party being attacked with fever immediately on its arrival in Kikunia.

We had passed several days in visiting the Indian trading-stations in the Kwalé district, situated on the malarious creeks which indent the shore, and often only to be reached by wading in black mud through the narrow paths which intersect the surrounding mangrove-thickets, the birth-places of the coast fever. On the road from Kitmanga to Sandazi, through the ignorance of a guide, we struggled for three hours in the mazes of a swamp—a veritable hippopotamus haunt, cut up in every direction by channels waist-deep in mud and ooze, and covered with an almost impenetrable thicket, where the projecting roots of the mangroves and the heavy entangled coils of monkey rope made progress heavy work. At Sandazi, which is carefully placed on a low ridge near stagnant marshes and mud-flats on the banks of a tidal creek, the first man was taken ill, and by the evening of the next day, at Kikunia, nine of our party of
twenty-one were prostrate under violent attacks, accompanied with vomiting and ague.

On the morrow, affairs were worse instead of better, so I resolved to sail in a dhow for the Islet of Cholé, near Mafia, to allow the party to recruit their health (only two men escaped attack in the end), and accordingly left on 2nd January.

It was, I think, as well this route was thus unavoidably followed, for, on discovering that the Kikunia creek ran to the eastward into the Simboranga mouth of the Rufigi, we understood the position and general lay of the country more clearly than if the Kisiju road had been travelled over.

After passing Kivinja, we had left the coast, and at Pemba, although on high ground, could not distinguish the shore line, a dead flat furrowed by winding creeks, and a waste of mangrove forest alone forming the horizon seawards. Then from Kikunia the distant Matumbwii Range beyond the Rufigi was visible; besides we had rapidly approached the line of hills which imprison the Mrima, all evidences that our course was bending inland instead of, as we had been led to expect, towards the sea.

After a miserable night aground on a mud-bank in the dhow, we entered the Simboranga mouth with a fair wind, and were enabled to mark the Pemba and Mji-Mema creeks, and at last understood the position of Kikunia, which had always been previously placed to the north-west of its true site and on the coast, whereas it lies at the head of a “khor” and well inland.

From Cholé, which has been described, we sailed on 14th January for Samanga, south of the Delta, and from there I worked back to the upper Rufigi, in order to carry out my instructions.

During these two coasting trips, and a third in February, the embouchures of the river were clearly observed, the various mouths being the Simboranga, Saninga, Twana, Bumba (called Mzinga on Captain Wharton’s chart), Kizai, Mbwerra-barrabaja, and Mbombwe (?); Pemba-Utagiti, or Mohoro, not being an outlet, but a river apart from the Rufigi.

Of the above, Simboranga, Bumba, and Jaja appear main streams, of which the Simboranga is the broadest, and, the natives say, the most used. The Saninga is the direct water-path to Kikunia, and the Jaja, broken up into islands, Mbwerrabarra and Mbombwe forming its delta. Throughout, this low mangrove-clothed country has, however, many villages, and is thickly populated by a race who, during the inundations, must live half their time in the water.

The Banyans of Samanga tried to dissuade me from my
journey, by asserting that the natives on the river were badly disposed and suspicious, and had, moreover, been worked up by Arab reports against my visit; and, although I did not pay any attention at the time, I found in the end there was some truth in the matter. Leaving Samanga I proceeded north on the caravan road, and passed through the villages of Kuajo, Murengo, and Furu, which communicate with the sea by creeks, and carry on a considerable trade with the interior. At Murengo, two slave caravans were met, one of 200 and the other of 100 slaves; but nothing unpleasant occurred, the headmen of the villages coming out, as well as the Indians, to salute us on all occasions.

From Furu the path strikes through a forest country, and is choked up with coarse high grass and undergrowth. Here, for a considerable distance, no signs of cultivation were seen, water being scarce; indeed, missing the road in the thick brushwood, it was not until near sundown that we found a muddy pool, and made our first meal for the day. A few villages and patches of cultivation then appear, the Matumbwi Range to the westward assuming larger proportions until a wide plain is entered, spreading from the low hills towards the distant Delta country. Covered with brushwood and bounded by the blue mountain ranges, now rising to a height of about 6000 feet, the change of scene is abrupt and pleasant, although the narrow path is difficult, and obstructed by ravines and mud to such an extent as to make our journey across it occupy two hours, the distance being about 3 miles; Mahoro is then reached, a village on the river of the same name (Pemba Utagiti), surrounded by rich fields of maize and millet, banana and fruit trees. Three Indian traders carry on a lucrative trade in copal, grain, and simsim; the fertility of the district lying between the two rivers being extraordinary. Maize, rice, millet, ground-nuts, &c., are largely cultivated; and, although during a portion of the year the lands are subject to inundation, failure is not remembered, and heavy crops confidently relied upon. Sheep, cattle, and goats thrive, and are bought for export via Samanga.

Through this land of plenty, three hours' march brought us to the banks of the Rufiji, the high waving Indian corn hiding the river from view. As we emerged on a belt of coarse thick grass and rushes, we first saw it, and were greeted by shouts and screams from the slaves of a caravan which was preparing to cross the ferry. The Arabs took fright at our arrival, and some made for the canoes, driving off the gangs, whilst the others prepared to cover the retreat. However, after a little talking, the leader moved everyone away, and within half an hour had shipped the whole party (sixty-five in number) into
the crazy ferry craft, which charges a dollar for every four slaves taken across.

I then chose a large tree near the bank for our camp, and we were cooking breakfast, when crowds of natives trooped down from the adjacent villages. In less than ten minutes we were surrounded by about 800 men, more than half of whom were armed with guns, the rest carrying spears and bows, and headed by a man who approached and sat down near the tree. He commenced operations by making a long speech on the merits of the Rufigi tribes (an exceedingly ill-favoured and dirty race, even amongst East Africans!), lauding them as a fierce and dangerous people. "Did not the Arabs fear them? Had not the white men in the steamboat turned back to the sea from Fugulia? (Dr. Kirk and Captain Wharton.) The Arabs had told them about us. We had feared and went away from Kikunia, and now we had come back. Why had we come? To fight with a caravan and interfere with the slaves, and close the road, when the country would be ruined? To take away the trade and the boats? They wanted to know what I could say; they heard there was to be a fight, and they would join the fight."

Finding the man was only a messenger, I told him when the chiefs came to see me I would speak, but that I wanted to eat, I could not afford time to talk to him. In the end the three headmen of the country arrived, and, in about three hours after the armed men had been sent away, a complete peace was made and ratified by exchange of presents, blue and white calico and turban cloths on the one side, and rice and vegetables on the other. The old man of the three, up to our leaving, muttered to himself about the evil days that we should bring on the Rufigi!

We struck the river at Mpenbeno, on the only caravan route, a group of villages above the Delta and some 10 miles higher than Fugulia, reached from the sea, via the Simboranga, by Dr. Kirk and Captain Wharton. The river here is about 260 to 300 yards in width, with a current running about 2 knots, and, from soundings taken by Lieutenant Pullen, R.N., averages 3½ and runs to 4 and 5½ feet in depth at this the driest season of the year.

The scene was very African; the broad flats covered with rich crops glittered in the sun, dotted over with baobabs and fig-trees, here and there a shady grove marking a group of villages. To the north-west rose the lower hills, from which the white smoke of large grass fires stood out against the purple ranges of the Matumbwii Mountains in the background to the north and north-east. The highlands of the Intoti, and the
coast ridge behind Kikunia, were visible; whilst through the midst of the enclosed plain rolled the Rufiji in rapid bends and with one long reach past Mpenbeno. An island with steep banks and covered with brushwood is a prominent feature; and a few sand-banks fringed with long rushes, infested, the natives say, with crocodiles, are not promising signs of depth. There are no rocks or rapids to be found for twenty days’ journey, where, from the descriptions given me by a man who came from the upper country, the Matumbwi Hills are probably passed through gorges. Hippopotami are rare, and game scanty, owing to the many villages which line the banks far into the interior.

The country is healthy, but suffers from the inundation of the river, when fevers are prevalent. Copal is collected in the neighbourhood, and large quantities of wax. Ivory comes down but irregularly, cereals being the produce of the alluvial lands and the mainstay of trade. Large tracts of land exist where the sugar-cane might be grown advantageously, and transport by water could be made available; the Arabs, however, have no hold on the country, the native tribes being in undisputed possession.

From here to Kikunia is called seven hours’ journey, and a bearing of the hills distinctly visible on the horizon gave the direction of the road which crosses the unimportant rivers, the Nkora and the Rolie. The village of Fugulia is three hours distant in a canoe, six by land, according to the natives, and in this case the river must wind considerably, which apparently is the case. Canoes, however, are used only for the ferries, in consequence of the strength of the current. “How can we get them up again,” said the chief, “when they get down? so we walk when we travel.” Coal is reported to exist five days’ journey inland, the seam being visible on the banks of the river. The Indians all believe this to be a true report, and show specimens of the coal, some of which reached Zanzibar, and, I think, even Bombay.

Unless coal was discovered worth the working, I do not think that it would be worth while to expend money on the Rufiji. During the dry season, like most African rivers, it is a snare and a delusion; sand-banks and shoals, and an average depth of from 4 to 5 feet, do not look well even in the driest season. Yet, if after a visit to these coal localities the future looked promising, it would become a question whether steam launches could stem the strong current, and at what seasons, and how far they could ascend.

No attempt should ever be made to stop the slave-caravan route on this river, great exposure and loss of life would be
certain, and success, owing to the intricacies of the Delta and the opposition of the natives, doubtful.

A complete map of the route travelled will be forwarded with my concluding letter. In the construction of this, I am greatly indebted to the assistance of Sub-Lieutenant Pullen, who accompanied the party as a volunteer, and who, notwithstanding severe illness, was most indefatigable in taking observations and notes, and a willing assistant whenever work was to be done in any shape.

(Signed) F. ELTON.

KONDUCHI, PANGANI, AND TANGA.

Sir,

Zanzibar, March 18, 1874.

Early in February I received your favourable reply to my proposal to visit Konduchi, Bagamoyo, Pangani, and Tanga, for the purpose of registering and freeing slaves held by Indians under British jurisdiction, so soon as the work I was then occupied upon in the southern districts was completed.

I have now the honour to report that, in accordance with your instructions, on the conclusion of business in Kilwa, I chartered a dhow, and sailed from that port on the 1st March, for the north.

Konduchi is the name given to a group of villages, scattered in coco-nut tree groves, on the shores of a shallow bay, about 12 miles north of Dar-es-Salam, and on the direct road following the coast. The inhabitants are hard-working fishermen and cultivators; the locality tolerably healthy. Cattle thrive, and are exported to Zanzibar. Maize and millet grow well, and amicable relations being kept up with the Washenzi, copal is brought in in large quantities from the interior. The slave caravans pass through the centre of the principal village, and unanimous evidence proved the immense number of slaves now travelling up from Kilwa.

From Konduchi, Bueni was touched at, but without result, as no slaves were found; and the few Indians in the place, many being absent at Zanzibar and at Bagamoyo, denied (and, I believe, in this case they spoke the truth) owning any. A system, however, exists here, as well as at Konduchi, which accounts for the small number of slaves freed. Instead of running the risk of purchasing, the Indian hires from the Waswahili, at the rate of 1 dollar or 2 dollars per month; the master receives the wages, the slave, in most cases, getting not only no remuneration for his work, but neither clothing nor food, and being left entirely dependent on the labour of his own hands during the two clear days a week upon which he is
allowed, in order to keep alive, to labour for his personal benefit. This arrangement is one almost impossible to check, and, although in force all along the coast, and at Zanzibar, flourishes as an institution more especially on the Mirma, between Dar-es-Salam and Tanga.

Bagamoyo presents a more active and stirring scene than Kilwa. The ivory trade is carried on briskly, and a large caravan had arrived a few days previously, which had brought over a great many speculators from Zanzibar. Here, on the 8th March, I registered seventy-four slaves, held by eighteen Khojahs, two Memons, and nineteen Bhattiars, of whom forty-nine remained with their masters, and twenty-five preferred leaving them.

Although I was well received by the Indian community, there was a great reluctance to produce the slaves; however only one case of actual concealment occurred, and that a trifling one.

On the 13th, after a narrow escape of being wrecked on the bar of the river, from the tiller of the dhow breaking, Pangani was made. I was careful here to send ashore to the acting Wali, to inform him of my arrival, and explain the object of the visit, and was very civilly treated by him, as, indeed, by all the Arabs, of whom I found large numbers about the town, a sure evidence that slaves were in the neighbourhood, waiting for shipment to Pemba.

Sixteen Bhattiars, three Khojahs, and two Bohras, form the population of the town. Amongst them I could, however, only find seven slaves, and the strongest protestations were made that none were concealed. I could hardly believe such to be the case, and carefully questioned each man, but with no result, although I warned them that, after this visit, any concealment of slaves would be tried with assessors, and the full fine of 1000 dollars inflicted on conviction.

Here, the system of hiring from Waswahili is in full force, and would appear to have supplanted actual slave-holding amongst British subjects, the hired hack being, in my opinion, worse off than ever when away from his master, and working for a man who does not entertain a particle of consideration for his welfare. I have seen cases where natives had worked for years, half-starved all the time and even deprived of part of their two free days by Bhattia masters, who paid a few shillings to lazy Waswahili for their monthly services, and, in some, have forced a release, where a suspicion of mortgage appeared raised; but, in the majority of instances, complaints made by slaves in such a position, and many complaints are made, have to be dismissed, and a discontented slave goes back to an angry master a great deal worse off than before.
Here, as at Konduchi, and as at Bagamoyo, my reports from Kilwa, as to the number of slaves brought up by the caravans, were fully confirmed. Several successful runs have been made from the river, the dhows ostensibly loading goods from the town during the day. The slaves, at the favourable moment, are shipped by night, their irons knocked off, and a fair wind lands the cargo at Pemba in a few hours, no one in Pangani being wiser than anybody else until after the event.

Bueni, on the opposite bank of the river, a village built under a lofty escarped bluff, is the favourite resort of the caravan leaders, the coast road and ferry lying between it and the sea.

Should it ever be proposed to put a stop to this caravan route, I am convinced, from very careful inquiry and from my own observations, that any operations on the Rufiji, at Samanga, or even in the Kwalé district, would fail. The climate is malarious, fevers attack both white and black men virulently, and the inhabitants, to whom the traffic represents only an easy means of livelihood, would be as one man against its suppression; but such would not be the case here, the Usambara have declared against the slave-trade, and would assist.

With 200 men, under an active and intelligent leader, distributed along the river at Maoya, Chogwé, and Tongwé, with head-quarters at Pangani, and constant communication by canoes between the posts, it would be impossible for any caravan to pass further north, unless with the permission of the Usambara, and then almost impracticable jungle tracts would have to be traversed.

Were a similar number of men stationed at Dar-es-Salam, with boats and posts on that river, and an arrangement made with the Uzeramo, the same effect would be attained, but with more difficulty, the country presenting fewer obstacles and being better disposed towards the trade. A man like Rashkallah (the Akhidah of Dar-es-Salam), not given to half-measures or hesitation, and if furnished with clear and concise instructions, would, I feel sure, succeed at Pangani, and effectually close the road. Attempts would be made to run the gauntlet by sea, no doubt, which would of course be watched by the Navy.

A very large ivory trade is carried on from Pangani by the Banyans to the Umasai, Nguru, and Chaga countries, the ivory from here being considered superior to any on the coast, and the slave-trade is not a heavy blot on these parts. Some of the plantations in the neighbourhood of the town are well cultivated, but not to any distance in the interior; commerce, and not agriculture, is the employment of the inhabitants.

On the 14th I sailed for Tanga, and after crossing the bar,
beat against a strong head wind for five hours without doing much good. The weather got heavier, and every wave broke over the bows, the water being over everything in the hold, and all the men employed in bailing out. The dhow was old, leaky, and crazy, and it was manifestly a certainty that we must be swamped if we continued to force her against the sea. Pangani could not be re-entered without danger; the bar broke heavily, and the captain, after his former experience, hesitated to venture at it again: so I, in consequence, gave the order to run down before the wind to Zanzibar; and it was fortunate I did so, for the heavy seas rolling in, would have certainly been too much for the wretched craft, had I kept on, and we could never have reached Tanga.

(Signed) F. ELTON.

ON THE COUNTRY BETWEEN DAR-EES-SALAM AND KILWA.

Previously to Dr. Kirk’s departure from Zanzibar, I received his orders to proceed to the Mrima, to undertake the important mission of freeing all slaves held by Indians under British jurisdiction from Dar-es-Salam, south to the Rovuma, in pursuance of the policy enforced by our Government, on the conclusion of the Treaty of June, 1873, with the Sultan.

These orders gave me great freedom of action, and whilst instructing me to visit and report on the copal fields, and to cross, if possible, the Rufiji River above its delta, permitted me to alter the route as circumstances might require.

Dr. Kirk was anxious for all information regarding these hitherto closed southern districts, and gave me free access to his valuable notes on the coast, at the same time pressing upon me the importance of drawing up a geographical paper on the new country passed through, and the present sketch is the result which, as it is for the most part confined to a description of fresh ground, hitherto untravelled by white men, will, I trust, be found deserving of some interest.


The town of Dar-es-Salam, situated in lat. 6° 49' and long. 39° 42' E., was the starting point of the expedition.

Dar-es-Salam is built on the north side of the river of the same name, which spreads into a large land-locked basin, where vessels of considerable draught can anchor with security. The harbour and approaches have been recently surveyed by Her Majesty’s ship Shearwater on a 6-inch scale (this vessel drawing 15 feet, ascended the river for 4 miles), and is navigable for
some distance to small craft. The Sultan's residence is at the inland extremity of the basin, on the extreme right of the town, and a line of stone houses forms a crescent facing the anchorage, fronted by a broad road from which flights of steps lead to the narrow strip of sandy beach fringing the shore. In the intervals between the stairs stone wells are sunk, the water being perfectly fresh. Time, neglect, and weather are, however, rapidly destroying both steps, wells, and houses. Only one of the latter are completely finished; the broad streets are overgrown with tall grass; shops locked up, and, except at one quarter of the town, where a few Indians and Waswahili congregate, trade is comparatively dead. House property is almost valueless and land a drug. The site of the town is charming, the surrounding country fertile, well wooded, and, for East Africa, tolerably healthy, but the desolation is despairing, and the scene suggests a fashionable watering-place which has been run up in a hurry by a Limited Liability Company suddenly compelled to stop work from scarcity of funds and an over plenitude of ideas.

The late Sultan Seyyid Majid was both projector and patron of the town. After his death all work was stopped, and the present ruler, Seyyid Burgash, is not likely to resume operations, hence its existence appears to be doomed. Bad management has had something to do with the decay, the copal trade being ruined owing to a dispute which arose between a slave of the Seyyid's and a native belonging to one of the neighbouring tribes. The native was killed, and his people demanded as a right the slave's life from the Sultan. This was refused, and orders came from Zanzibar to employ force if necessary. The distrust thus occasioned was intensified by the action of an over-zealous soldier, who cut down one of the Washenzi copal-diggers in the streets of the town, and as a result, but few natives continued to trade, Mgogoni, Tuliani, &c., being resorted to by them in preference to Dar-es-Salam. The caravans, which at one time were diverted from Bagamoyo and other coast towns with a view of forcing the trade, have long resumed their old beats.

Seyyid Burgash has extensive plantations worked by about 300 slaves, coco-nut trees, rice, 'mhogo, and maize being cultivated; the oil-palm introduced by Dr. Kirk also appeared to thrive. Cattle do well, and do not suffer from the special coast murrain, the country being dry and open and stretching away to the Marui Hills in an undulating succession of woodlands and broad glades, inhabited by Washenzi, who claim to be divided into almost as many tribes as they number villages. A few Arabs and many Waswahili idle upon neglected estates;
and in the villages of the district, some sixty Bhattiahs and Khojahs, scattered between Mgogoni, Tuliani, Sasanii, and Dar-es-Salam, monopolizing the trade, principally in copal, grain, and simsim, with a little ivory and wax. India-rubber, extracted from a Uiana commonly found in the neighbourhood of the copal-tree (Mvandarusi) is no longer exported, its collection being stopped by leopards, which killed several of the lads whilst at work in the woods. The Wazeramo do not meddle with the Washenzi traders, and may often be seen shining with red clay and grease, scantily clothed, and adorned with armlets of iron-wire, carrying spears or bows, and heading parties of women and boys laden with copal baskets, themselves intent or barter; the Arabs, however, fear them, and do not venture carelessly beyond the hills or trust themselves in the power of their petty chiefs.

On the 20th December arrangements were complete, and I moved south, the party consisting of eleven carriers, eight followers, Sub-Lieutenant Pullen, of Her Majesty's ship Shearwater (a valuable volunteer), and myself, in all twenty-one men, with provisions for a month, five guns, two tents, and two donkeys. After crossing the mouth of the harbour in canoes, and swimming the donkeys across, the path led past Mgogoni and Tuliani to Mboamaji, all coast fishing-villages of the usual type, built a little back from the sea, and screened by coco-palms and mango-trees, scattered groups of thatched and wattled houses, with here and there more pretentious structures in coral belonging to Indians, a Dewan's house rejoicing in a "baraza" or raised stone bench before the door, and a dingy-looking mosque.

From here a second route follows the coast-line past Ras Mdege, Kimbiji, &c., but is so cut up by mangrove-swamps and creeks that it is practically useless, and the existence of a third, or upper inland route, which I had heard rumoured of, being disproved, the road we were upon, known as the Kisiju road, remains the main, and indeed the only, land communication passing through Chungu-Bueni and Kwale to Kilwa.

For about 20 miles south the path ran through an undulating grass country, with extensive belts of forest trees (amongst which the copal-tree was common), sloping gradually towards the coast from the Uzeramo Hills, broken rarely by outlying huts and their surrounding cultivation. The ground was thickly honey-combed with old copal workings; holes sunk to the depth of about 3 feet, making any rapid progress off the beaten track dangerous, and for many years these diggings have furnished the main supply of semi-fossil gum to the Zanzibar market; they are now, however, deserted for the richer fields to the
southward. Kigonga, a small village buried in coco-palms, was deserted, a slave-caravan which was resting in it hiding away in the surrounding woods at our approach, and there was no change in the park-like scenery until the Bezo (a brawling stream which we crossed twice) was reached. Here we entered a cultivated country, the sub-district of Foonze in Chungu-bueni. Broad fields of mhogo and maize thrive on the rich alluvial soil between the rivers, and stretch towards the coast; the only danger dreaded by the cultivators being the nocturnal raids made by the hippopotami from the mangrove-creeks near the sea, to guard against which huts are built on raised platforms, where men are posted to frighten off the intruders with rusty old matchlocks and guns, and occasionally (so the natives assert) are turned over, hut, scaffolding, and all, by the blind rush of "behemoth."

In this, the Chungu-bueni district, which comprises Foonze and Mangatani (Dar-es-Salam may be considered to end near the huts at Massongae), Kimwere is the acknowledged chief of all tribes as far as the coast hill-range. He is a fine, stalwart specimen of a free African, an athlete, a good shot, and a hard-working hunter, and is reputed to be an "admirable Crichton" by the natives, who recount tales of his prowess over the camp-fires. Placed over the people by Seyyid Majid, of whom he was a favourite, he still claims a royalty from settlers, and as the local village "Jumbé" (chief) has likewise to be subsidized, and the representatives of Seyyid Burgash claims a percentage on trade profits, which he estimates himself, there does not appear to be much encouragement held out to traders arriving in the district, which only counts one permanent Indian merchant, a Bhattiah. He was wise enough to form an alliance with Kimwere, and now almost monopolizes the Foonze copal, as well as taking the lion's share of that brought in by the Washenzi in Mangatani. The "msandarusi" is found extensively as far inland as the coast-range, and Kiregesi, a forest west of the road in Mangatani, is celebrated both for the trees and for the rich semi-fossil diggings which are worked in its vicinity. An average tree, measured by Lieutenant Pullen and myself, was over 60 feet in height, girth at ground 4 feet 3 inches, and from the ground to the first branch 21 feet 6 inches. The trunk is covered with a moderately thick bark, resembling that of the birch, and grows perpendicularly in most trees to a height of from 20 to 25 feet. At this point the main limbs fork, and from the extremities of the branches the foliage spreads into that flat crowned appearance so common to many African trees. The fruit is of a brown colour and an irregular almond shape, studded with rough excrescences, the leaves glossy and of a vivid green.

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Wherever the tree is injured a resinous gum collects, which is also frequently seen on the lower sides of the branches and dug from the soil under their shadow. This, the tree gum, is of comparatively small value, the so-called "semi-fossil" animi commanding a far higher price; but all native testimony and my own observation confirm the theory that the latter must be the product of ancient forests of the same tree, although it is impossible to estimate the time required to produce the fossil appearance.

The coast road, interrupted by tidal creeks, either to be crossed through mud and ooze at low tide or in canoes at high water, after passing Sara, Kimbiji, and Suna, reaches the "Chungu" creek, on which are the villages of Bujuni and Bosa, and then, crossing the swamps of Yega and Kuruti, skirts a few hovels at Paracha and Dendeni before reaching Kisiju. These places are sparsely inhabited by fishermen, who are reputed to couple wrecking with salt-fish trade, and are given a bad character by dhow-owners and traders.

On the 22nd a large slave-caravan was met while crossing the Pafuni. Several gangs marched past us quietly, heavily armed and guarded by Arabs; but our party arrived suddenly on the main body, halted in the long grass by the river-bank, and a panic was the result. One of my followers, a boy who had put a large sun-helmet on the top of his fez, and headed the line of "Wapagazi" through the reeds a little above where I had crossed, appeared to the slave driver's fears the leader of a subtle flank movement, and with loud cries of "Wazungo! Wazungo!" (white men, white men), a sauve qui peut commenced. Arabs, throwing away their arms, disappeared into the bush, loose slaves and excited drivers ran in all directions, water-jars, rice-bags, papers, the strong-box, and all the baggage of the caravan, lay strewn about upon the trampled reeds and long tiger-grass. Here stood a gang of wretched children, whose connecting-chain was entangled in the thorn bushes, wailing piteously; there a gang of emaciated men doggedly waiting with bewildered eyes to see what new evil would befall them; whilst the screams, shouts, and general confusion were deafening. I estimated the number of slaves at 300, although it afterwards appeared there were 600, including those already across the river. Their condition was horrible, marched as they had been almost without a halt from the Mino country near the Nyassa Lake. But nothing could be done to help them; any conflict with the Arabs would have been fatal to further progress. Fortunately one Arab was secured, and, as he witnessed the punishment of one of my men who was caught meddling with the strong-box, and saw that none of the party interfered with
the wreck of the caravan, I despatched him forthwith to hunt up his fellow-ruffians, and pushed on beyond the Yegea River. When, after a halt, we subsequently toiled through the deep tenacious mud of the long Yegea-swamp, where, fresh as the men were, we could hardly manage two miles in an hour, all realised what a terrible morning the weary, heavily-ironed slaves must have endured.

The truth of sundry warnings received at Zanzibar and Dar-es-Salam, was now evident; the road was thick with slaves on their way up from Kilwa, and great caution was requisite. Indeed, on the Mkoondi River, it was only by great good fortune that a serious collision was avoided. An Arab, guarding a caravan, keeping me covered with his matchlock for several minutes, and in the end only being prevented from firing by the arrival of his leader, who had sense enough to see that force was his worst policy.

Past the Mkoondi the Kwale district is entered. Miles of mhogo surround Kisiju. Rice is grown in large quantities, and maize yields abundantly. Both mango and coco-nut trees bear profusely. This fertility, the people say, is owing to the constant showers which favour the country round Kisiju; hardly a week passes without rain, and when the rest of the coast is parched and burnt up, "the garden of Kwale" is green and flourishing. The Indian community here are chiefly engaged in grain speculation, and store large quantities, awaiting a rise in the Zanzibar market; they supply Kilwa, and export largely at present to the Mungao district, where the crops have been destroyed by the Washenzi.

The town of Kisiju is a straggling row of houses and plantations on the Magassi River, hidden from view by coco-nut groves, and sheltered by the opposite, the right, bank of the river from the sea. A dangerous ford, breast-high at low water, crosses the lagoon, the road from here following the sea-beach for some miles. This is a resting-place for the caravans; huts being built for the slaves, cooking-trenches dug, stocks and extra irons kept in readiness, and an Arab overseer in charge of the arrangements for victualling. A new branch of industry has also been established; the inhabitants having discovered that buying up sick slaves from the gangs, feeding them into condition, and reselling them, is a profitable and easy means of additional income.

In the town and the neighbourhood are ruins to which fabulous traditions are attached; but they are evidently Portuguese; and on the coast, about three miles to the south, a ruined fort is manifestly not Shirazi, but Portuguese handiwork. The masonry still holds together, as well as the enclosing wall, although built on an exposed bluff, facing both wind and wave.
The adjacent island of Kwalé is cultivated by a few Arabs and Waswahili, but the Indian traders have deserted it and formed numerous colonies on the seaboard of the district from Kisiju to the Rufigi, which previously to my journey were almost unknown, even by name, in Zanzibar; Zerare, Kitmanga, Kunderani, Kivinja, Sandazi, Mji-Mema, and Pemba being considerable trading stations for copal, in which the Khojah and Bhattiah element are predominant. All are similiarly situated a few miles inland on the indenting “khors” peculiar to the coast, where at spring-tides there is sufficient rise of water to admit small dhows to run up and load within an easy distance. The settlers do not venture into the interior, the tribes strictly stipulating that all copal must pass through their hands alone, and always being ready to combine against any encroachment on their territorial rights. In the season—after the first rains—brisk trade is carried on, and long strings of natives arrive with the gum, carefully escorted by an armed guard. Each village adopts the name of the headman as a tribal designation, hence an endless confusion and great difficulty in making arrangements for continual supplies. It is only near Kikunia that a respectable tribe appears, the Mtoti; and again the Rufigi people break up into the village system, and a dozen men reign over a few miles of country, to the great hindrance of everything and everybody. An annual tribute is paid to the local “Jumbé,” and a share of the profits levied by those high in authority, whenever they have power at hand to enforce payment, but the wholesale taxation, which drives settlers from Chungu-bueni, does not exist in Kwalé.

Kaniki, satini, and amerikano are the cloths which, with beads, wire, gum, and powder (the latter is scarce and valuable now, owing to Seyyid Burgash’s enforced monopoly) are used in the trade, the frahisolah of copal being usually bought at from 4 to 5½ dollars. On this the Sultan’s custom-house levies 20 per cent. (i.e., they take 20 frahisolahs away out of each 100, 24 out of each 120, &c.) on shipment; on grain 5 per cent.; add to this various petty extortions, fees, storage, freight, &c., and it will be readily seen what a flourishing trade could be carried on on the coast under equitable rules.

Approaching the Kikunia villages, a ridge of rounded sandstone hills runs in a south-westerly direction, the lands bordering the road, and even on the hill-slopes, being cultivated. The other trading stations are, for the most part, surrounded by woodlands, but here abundant crops are harvested and a large export trade in grain carried on, whilst, in addition to copal, ivory and wax often find their way from the Upper Rufigi. The water here is scarce and bad, and the locality unhealthy.
Unfortunately, the hot sun (we were in December, the hottest time of year) and constant work amongst the malarious swamps here exacted tribute, and, within twenty-four hours, nine of the party, including Lieutenant Pullen and myself, were attacked with the severe fever and ague peculiar to the coast. Matters did not mend, only two out of twenty-one escaped scot free in the end; and, finding it impossible to continue the march, I procured a dhow and sailed across to the Island of Cholé, south of Mafia, which is used as a sanatorium by the traders of the Kwalé District, and there gave everyone a fortnight to recruit in.

Kikunia we found situated at the head of a broad creek, communicating with the Simbarango mouth of the Rufigi Delta, down which and past the embouchure of the Rufigi branch we sailed on our coasting voyage, which afforded a good opportunity of working out and noting the various indenting "khors" with which the shores here are serrated.

Very little game was observed in the districts passed through; two or three small deer and one "sounder" of wild pigs, with a few guinea-fowl, was all that was seen.

II.—Rufigi, Samanga, and Kilwa.

The small islet of Cholé is incorrectly laid down on Captain Owen's chart; it covers about one-fifth of the area given to it; and is confused with the adjoining island of Jirani or Jiwani, from which it is separated by a channel: indeed, it is under two hours' walk round the whole island. The vegetation is luxuriant; large mango and coco-nut trees, oranges, jack-fruit, and the baobab shade the paths, cattle and goats thrive, fish are plentiful, fruit and vegetables being brought across from Mafia daily. It is but scantily populated, not having recovered from severe losses by cholera, which, a few years ago, almost swept the island, and deserted houses and neglected estates bear witness to the heavy mortality.

Mafia and Jirani are both considered unhealthy, landowners there preferring Cholé as a residence, with its fresh sea-breezes and good water, and, as a consequence, small craft constantly ply to and fro between the islands. Every woman in the place appears to be engaged in plaiting the grass-mats, which are largely exported. Cowries are collected and dried in considerable quantities, but the principal trade is in grain speculation carried on with the coast, the Indians here keeping agents in Kwalé and Samanga to buy for them.

On the 14th January Samanga was reached, and here a relapse of fever and ague caused a few days' delay, during which the Banyans endeavoured to dissuade me from going to
the Rufigi, declaring that both Arabs and natives were suspicious of my movements, and that the road was unsafe; however, on the 18th January, being a little stronger, I started with Lieutenant Pullen and fifteen men.

The Samanga villages are Samanga, Samanga Furu, Kuajo, Murengu, and Furu, all situated on creeks by which produce can be conveyed in dhows, and are well-built clean villages, doing a thriving trade in copal, wax, ivory, woods, and grain. The recognised authority in each village is the local "Jumbé," or chief, who presides over a council of the head-men; the Sultan being unrepresented, save by the custom-house at Samanga, guarded by a few ragged "askari" paid by the agent. The Indian settlers (who allow their profits are very considerable) complain of the oppression of the chiefs, but in the majority of cases the Kutchi gives as good as he gets. At Murengu, for instance, I found the wells guarded by natives, and the three head Bhattiahs compelled to purchase water at an exorbitant daily outlay of "americano" and beads, and this system would be continued, the "Jumbé" told them, until rain fell. However, on investigation, it appeared that the Bhattiahs, on their first arrival in the village some years ago, had claimed the credit of bringing with them such opportune showers that the harvest was an unqualified success, and, in the character of "rain-makers," received ivory and copal and tithes of grain from the credulous Washenzi. Now the day of retribution had arrived: Murengu called for rain, and there was none, and the villagers, convinced of the incapacity of the foreign medicine-men, invented this clever method of enforcing the restitution of their original outlay, and one may be sure with heavy interest. My verdict was, "Served them right."

Proceeding towards Kuajo, Murengu, and Furu, the road from Samanga crosses the heads of numerous creeks and mangrove-swamps. At high tide the water in many places is breast-high, and at ebb the fetid exhalations from mud and ooze are particularly oppressive and trying under the hot sun overhead. In Murengu two slave-caravans were halted, one of 200 and the other of 100 slaves; but nothing unpleasant occurred, the leaders as well as the Indians and the Jumbé coming out to meet and salute my arrival.

From Furu the path strikes into a forest country, and is choked up with long, cutting grass and brushwood. For a considerable distance no signs of cultivation were seen, owing probably to the scarcity of water, for that day it was not until the sun was nearly down that we found a muddy pool and were able to eat our first meal. A few miles further a few scattered villages and clearings planted in 'mhogo and maize break the
woodland, and a wide plain is seen extending from the lower hill-ranges to the west, until lost in the fringe of cultivation—mangos and coco-trees—of the country towards the Delta. Following a beaten track through the low brushwood and stunted trees covering this plain, where some difficult nullahs and mud-holes obstruct the way, broad fields of maize and sesame at last show the vicinity of Mohoro, on the river of the same name, which is marked on the charts, at the sea, as Pemba Utugiti, but does not belong to the Rufiji Delta. Here the Matumbwi Hills rise range beyond range, and the most distant were estimated by Lieutenant Pullen and myself to attain a height of not less than 6000 feet above the level of the sea. The river, about 120 yards wide, is still affected by the tide, and runs in a deep channel between escarped and high banks of red alluvial soil. Two ferries ply, and canoes are used generally, but dhows only ascend as far as the village at stated periods of the year to carry away the grain crop, the bar being dangerous, and hippopotami nearer the sea, so the natives say, in large enough numbers to be an actual hindrance to small craft! The village itself consists of widely-scattered huts, and three Indian settlers carry on a lucrative barter for copal, simsim, and grain, with the tribes on the Rufiji. The fertility of the lands lying between the Mohoro and Rufiji is extraordinary. Maize, rice, millet, ground-nuts and peas are largely cultivated, and heavy crops are garnered every year, the periodical inundations bringing fresh life to the soil. Sheep, cattle, and goats are in sufficient numbers to be bought for export and shipped at either Murengi or Samanga. In fact, from the Mohoro to the Rufiji was a three hours' march through a land of plenty. High fields of waving Indian corn hide the Rufiji from view, and it was not until we had cleared them and passed through a belt of reeds and grass, that our men found themselves suddenly brought up on the river-bank. Shouts and screams from the reeds greeted the arrival of the party, which had fallen upon a caravan preparing to cross the ferry. The slaves were driven away towards the canoes, and their retreat covered by the Arabs, who did their best to show a bold front, but, as soon as they were convinced I had no intention of interfering, gladly moved off at a quick double, and were not long before placing the river between us.

I pitched the camp under a large fig-tree, and was busy getting breakfast under weigh, when the natives trooped down from the neighbouring villages, armed with muskets, spears, and bows and arrows, and several hundred men had squatted round us within a few minutes. On parleying with a man who appeared to be the leader, he commenced a long speech
with a voluble eulogy on the great merits of the Rufigi tribes:—
"Were not they known to be fierce?—were not the Arabs even
afraid of them? Why had we come here to rob them of the
money they made by the ferries, and interfere with the
caravans? We had gone back from Kikunia as the white men
went back from Fugulia (Dr. Kirk and Captain Wharton).
Now, why had we returned by another road and fought with a
caravan on our arrival? We must go back or fight with them.
The Arabs had warned them against us. We came to rob them
of trade and ruin their people. What had I to reply to this?"

Further conversation elicited the fact that this orator was
only a messenger, so I refused to answer him, and sent a
message to say that my mouth was shut until the chief arrived.
This, produced the three headmen of the district, who soon
ordered off the armed natives, and, after about three hours' 
negotiation, peace was ratified by an interchange of presents.
Blue and white cotton and chequered turbans on the one side,
and rice, vegetables, and Indian corn in tall conical baskets, on
the other.

Five or six ferries ply near these villages (known as Mpen-
beno), and make a good thing out of the caravans, as the ford
is dangerous, and never used except as an emergency. Croco-
diles, it is said, are legion, although none were seen. From
Mpenbeno to Fugulia (reached from the sea via the Simbarango
mouth by Dr. Kirk and Captain Wharton) is about 10 miles, three
hours' journey with the stream in a canoe, the river winding
considerably. Here it is about 260 yards wide, with a current
running about two knots an hour, and above tidal influence,
and, from careful soundings taken by Lieutenant Pullen,
averages 3 1/4, 4, and 5 feet in depth from bank to bank, this
being at the driest season of the year.

The scene was thoroughly African; broad flats bright with
crops, and dotted over with villages shaded by clumps of baobab,
tamarind, and fig-trees, spread away to the north-west to the
lower hills, beyond which the Matumbwi range forms a noble
background. To the north and north-east the hills and high
lands behind Kikunia bound the landscape, whilst through the
centre of the wide alluvial plain winds the river, bending west-
ward until lost in the distant mountains. A steep, green
island, overgrown with brushwood, arose in the nearest reach,
and here and there a few sandbanks, mostly overgrown with
rank grass and reeds. To the eastward, fields of maize
stretched to the flat-wooded distance bordering on the Delta.

The natives of the Rufigi tribes are intensely black, by no
means good-looking, and rather below the average stature; a
skin or piece of blue cloth round the waist and iron armlets
are worn by the men; the women affecting the blue "kisuto" in a few instances, but being mostly clad with aprons of dressed hide. Their ornaments are few, fetish necklaces with pieces of horn and bone and shells attached were seen, and many of the guns were adorned with brass-headed nails driven into the stocks; the spears and bows and arrows, neatly finished off with brass wire, displayed some taste, but the wants of the people are few, and limited to "kaniki," firearms and powder. Near every village bark-hives are fixed on cross branches about six feet from the ground, bees being very numerous, and the wax brought to Samanga for barter of good quality. The villages themselves are built on one long central street, and the wattled huts are constructed with a circular verandah-porch over the doorways, which gives them a regular and rather finished appearance. The country must be quiet, for I only saw two small villages furnished with a protecting thorn fence. The broad-tailed, dew-lapped sheep attain a large size; poultry is abundant, and fish are plentiful, heavy ones being speared from the sand islands in the river. Men, women, and children work together in the fields, and the race is evidently of an agricultural bent; they, however, bear the character of being thieves, litigious and quarrelsome, and I should fancy are not to be trusted, but require careful handling. They sell but few slaves to the Arabs, who do not care to meddle with them; but the slave-hunters are reported to be working round the lower Matumwbi hills, where the country is in a dangerous state. Hippopotami are scarce, and game driven away.

From Mpenbeno to Kikunia is seven hours' journey, the road crossing two rivers of no importance, the Nkora and Rohé. Canoes (which are simply hollowed logs) are used only to ferry across the Rufiji, in consequence of the strength of the current. "If we want to travel we go on foot," one of the chiefs said; "how can we get our canoes up against the stream?" A general report states coal to exist in surface-seams visible on the banks, five or six days' journey up the river, and specimens said to have been brought from this country were, I believe, given by the Sultan to Dr. Kirk and forwarded to Bombay. Should the coal prove of value and the report as to locality correct (which I see no reason to doubt) the Rufiji would rise rapidly in importance, and it would be important to test whether steam-launches could ascend the stream at other times of the year. During the dry season it is, I fear, like most other African rivers, a snare and delusion; sand islands, rapid bends, and an average depth of from 4 to 5 feet only, are not promising signs; however, the natives agree that neither rocks nor rapids exist for about twenty days' journey,
where, probably from the descriptions given, the Matumbwí range is passed through a succession of mountain gorges. The country is said to be healthy, although during the inundations fever is common about Kohoro and Kopenbeno, from both of which places, however, the Matumbwí Hills would furnish a healthy change: even the distant sight of their clear blue peaks cheered one up after the dismal, sweltering mangrove-creeks of the coast.

By a meridian altitude of Canopus Lieutenant Pullen placed Mpenbeno in latitude 8° 9'; but the young moon not being visible, no lunar could be taken, and the longitude on the map is calculated by the line-of-march distances from Kikunia, Samanga, and Fugulia, and valuable cross-bearings, which were obtained of the Mtoti Hills, and the more prominent points of the Matumbwí range.

The morning we left, the chiefs sent a deputation to beg us to bring them rain: "they had seen us talking with the stars; if we did that, we could open the clouds." As we were on the eve of departure, Baraka, my headman, told them "it was all right, they should have rain that day." The morning was bright and cloudless; but within an hour a heavy thunderstorm worked up from the hills, and down came the rain. Our fame as "medicine-men" travelled as far as Kilwa!

After our return march to Samanga, the subsequent journey overland to Kilwa was terribly hard work. Three miles from Samanga the mangrove-swamps are entered, cut up by black dismal-looking streams often breast-high. The Sequani and the Kipelété we had to swim; and beyond the latter—a considerable tidal stream—the path lay for a couple of miles through variations of hot sand, and black, warm, oozing mud; no fresh water being found until we reached the scattered plantations and villages called Matombiani. From this the road follows the sea-shore, until the creeks of the Mzinjera are crossed; on the river itself there is a ferry, and beyond them the outlying "Shambas" of Kilwa are reached.

Kilwa has been described so often of late, that there is no need to dwell on an unpleasant subject. Broad sand and mud-flats face the sea; bad water and severe fevers fall to every one's lot; and the town itself, with its scattered stone houses, winding streets and thickly-peopled native huts, looks dry and feverish in the hot glare of a January sun; the green hills in the distance, and the broad, rippling sea, being the redeeming features of the scene. "Places of Skulls" mark the various roads on which the slave traffic is carried on; and skeletons are strewn on the beach. The country behind is a desert for a week's journey; and at every step some new experience of the desolation of the slave-trade is apparent.
The transport of slaves by sea appears to be at an end, but has given place to the transport by land, over the route by which I travelled; and the trade is diverted into other channels.

From Kilwa my journey was continued by sea to the various ports southward; after which, Kilwa was re-visited, and subsequently the ports north of Dar-es-Salem to Pangani. As a practical result, I registered as free 1408 slaves, held by Indians, British subjects; and of these, 920 remained with their former masters, and 488 began life again, working for pay, or in many instances uniting in small bodies, and settling near the villages.

As far as my work took me over untravelled ground, I have given a brief description of the country passed over, and the inland route, which will be rendered intelligible by the accompanying map; and I must, in conclusion, record the assistance of Lieutenant Pullen, of Her Majesty’s ship Shearwater, who, although suffering from continual attacks of fever, missed no opportunities of observing, and rendered me most valuable aid.

April 2, 1874.

(Signed) F. ELTON.

Table of Distances and Times.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>On Foot.</th>
<th>Hours occupied in March.</th>
<th>Estimated Distance in Miles.</th>
<th>Direct Geographical Miles, Point to Point.</th>
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<td>32 30</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Samanga to Rufigi—

|                        |                         |                              |                                          |
| Kuafo                   | 2 0                      | 5                            |                                          |
| Murengu                 | 1 0                      | 2 4                          |                                          |
| Furu                     | 1 0                      | 1 3                          |                                          |
| Pool in forest           | 3 0                      | 7                            |                                          |
| Mohoro                   | 2 0                      | 5                            |                                          |
| Rufigi                   | 3 0                      | 9                            |                                          |
|                           | 12 0                     | 30                           | 25                                        |
TABLE of Distances and Times—continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>On Foot</th>
<th>Hours occupied in March</th>
<th>Estimated Distance in Miles</th>
<th>Direct Geographical Miles, Point to Point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Samanga to Kilwa—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sequani</td>
<td>3 0</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Matapatassa River</td>
<td>1 30</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kipelec River</td>
<td>2 30</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>Mluijera</td>
<td>4 0</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>Kilwa</td>
<td>3 0</td>
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<td></td>
<td>16 0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

 NOTE.—With reference to longitude of the track, it has been presumed that the coast-line is correct. The running survey was made by Captain Wharton last August.

Latitude of Kisiju (Sun M. A.) 7° 27' 47"
Lat. of Samanga (Canopus M. A.) 8° 32'
Lat. of Mpenbeno (Canopus M. A.) 8° 9'

XVII.—Recent Changes in the Southern Circumpolar Region.

By H. H. Howorth.

Some time ago I had the honour of communicating a paper to the Royal Geographical Society, in which I examined the North Polar area, and concluded that there is a general movement of upheaval in progress there, which is rapidly changing its aspect, climate, &c. In concluding that paper, I referred to the fact of there being a corresponding problem in the southern hemisphere. I now propose to examine this problem, and hope to show that there, too, we have a general and current movement of elevation which characterises every mass of land which we can examine, and that, therefore, the elevatory movement probably extends to the whole circumpolar region.

In the southern hemisphere our task is much more difficult than in the northern; our only means of testing the elevation or subsidence of the land is by measuring it by the standard of the sea. In the northern hemisphere we have abundant coast-lines, along which we may apply our test; in the Southern, on the contrary, the sea is everywhere predominant, and we only have the narrow points of the greater continents, and such limited areas as Australia, &c., which we can use as tests. In applying them, however, to these limited areas, we find such a uniform and consistent story, that we may be justified in enlarging our actual results by analogy until we
make them identical with those in the northern hemisphere, and conclude that the South Pole, as well as the North, is a focus of protrusion, and that the land around it is being gradually elevated above the waters. We may begin with Africa; and I will quote from Mr. Griesbach's essay on the geology of Natal, in the 'Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society' (xxvii., part 2, p. 69). "There cannot be the slightest doubt," he says, "that the upheaval of the country is still going on; for along the whole coast of South Africa, from the Cape to Durbam Bluff, and still farther north, as far as Zanzibar, modern raised beaches, coral-reefs, and oyster-banks may everywhere be seen. At the Izinhluzabalungu Caves is such a point, where the rising of the coast is plainly visible; recent oyster-banks are now 12 feet and more above high-water mark. The same can be observed on the whole line of the Natal coast. Von der Decken has observed the same thing at Zanzibar, and is of the same opinion as myself, viz., that the eastern coast is rising. Early in the present year (i.e., in 1870) I had the opportunity of observing at the Bazaruto Islands, about 90 miles north of Inhambane, on the east coast of Africa, a series of raised coral-reefs round the island of Marsha, containing many living shells and quite recent oyster-banks." He also mentions that he saw implements of early man, which were obtained by Richard Thornton and others, in old raised beaches of Natal, near Inanda, and at the mouth of the Zambesi River. Mr. Griessbach is confirmed by Mr. Stow, in his paper on the Geology of South Africa, in the same Journal (see vol. xxvii., pp. 526 et seq.), where bones and teeth are found mixed with shells, quite in a recent state, about Port Elizabeth, &c.

In Erskine's account of his journey to the mouth of the Limpopo, he mentions the sands of that river as containing numerous shells. He did not know whether they were fresh or salt-water shells, but from the uniform level of the country and from the fact that he saw somewhat similar shells beyond the limits of brackish water, he concluded that the tide had either ascended further up the river, or that the sea covered this tract of country. He also noticed along the coast newly-formed sandstone, like that on the bluffs at Natal (see 'Journal Geographical Society,' xxxix, 252). This rising of the coast probably ceases not far from Zanzibar; for further north we have clear evidence of a contrary movement, extending probably along the whole of the Somali coast. The western shores of Africa are unfortunately not so well known to us. In the same latitudes as the area of depression on the east coast, I have evidence that a similar movement of depression is also going on here, so that it probably extends across the continent. Further south I have
no evidence about the coast itself, but, from what I shall next quote, it is nearly certain that the elevatory movement which is going on from the Cape to the Zambesi also extends across the continent to the Atlantic coast. Sir Bartle Frere has inferred, from the drying up of the rivers and springs of North-western India, that this was due to the level of the country having risen. Similar effects in South Africa are probably traceable to similar causes. Now, in a paper on South Africa, by Mr. J. F. Wilson, published in the 35th volume of the Geographical Society’s Journal, I find him saying: “A noticeable physical fact is the drying up, of late years, of large tracts of country in the Trans-Gariep (i.e., the land beyond the Orange River). Springs have diminished and dwindled, so that the inhabitants have had to migrate, while the desert sucking-places, and well-filled pools, such as that of Serothli, described by Livingstone, are at present either completely dry or afford only a little liquid after digging. At Lopepe, and other places on the road to Lake Ngami, this is so, as well as at Tunobis in Damara Land, and elsewhere; but it is most conspicuous in the territory of the Bakwani tribes, in which such streams as the Mahalapi River, that at Lopelôle and at Porapora Pass are pointed out, where thousands and thousands of cattle formerly drank, but in which water never now flows, and where a single herd could not find fluid for its support.” When Mr. Moffat first settled at the Kuruman, forty years before, he made a dam 6 or 7 miles below the present one, and let out the stream for irrigation, where not a drop of the fountain water ever now flows. And other parts, 14 miles below Kuruman Gardens, are pointed out as having contained, within the memory of people now living, hippopotami, and pools sufficient to drown both men and cattle. The fountain at Griqua Town, which a few years ago yielded enough water to irrigate four square miles of corn and garden ground, has, of late years, and in the most marked manner, diminished its supplies, almost ceased to flow, and occasioned the emigration of many of the Dutch-speaking inhabitants to other and more fertile localities. As this diminution of water has been coincident with the failure of fountains over a wide extent of territory in Bechuana Land, it is evident that, from causes more or less obscure, a great change in the internal physical characteristics of the entire region between the Orange and the Ngami Lake has taken place since the country was first explored by Europeans.

Again, in vol. xxviii. of the same Journal, Mr. Moffat tells us that all the surface deposits of Great Bushman Land are thoroughly impregnated with salt, that many salt-panes are scattered there... He also speaks of certain deposits arranged
in terraces, of which there were three or four, as suggesting the idea of successive and sudden changes in the level of the country. These extracts will suffice to make it more than probable that the rise of the land is continued across Southern Africa, and that the vast peninsular termination of that continent south of the 10th parallel of south latitude is now rising from the sea.

South America is classic ground for students of this branch of science. It was made so by the researches of Mr. Darwin. He says ”everything in this southern continent has been effected on a grand scale. The land from the Rio Plata to Tierra del Fuego, a distance of 1200 miles, has been raised en masse (and in Patagonia to a height of between 300 and 400 feet), within the period of now existing sea-shells. The old and weathered shells left on the surface of the upraised plain still partially retain their colours” (”Naturalist’s Voyage,” p. 171). “Again, M. D’Orbigny found on the banks of the Parana, at the height of 100 feet, great beds of an estuary-shell now living 100 miles lower down nearer the sea, and I found similar shells at a less height on the banks of the Uruguay; this shows that just before the Pampas was slowly elevated into dry land, the water covering it was brackish. Below Buenos Ayres there are upraised beds of sea-shells of existing species, which also proves that the elevation of the Pampas was within the recent period” (Id., p. 130). We do not know how far this upward movement extends on the east coast; but the recent researches of M. Agassiz, on the Brazilian Coast, seem to prove that there we reach an area of depression. Now for the West Coast. Speaking of Central Chili, Mr. Darwin says, ”The proofs of the elevation of this whole line of coast are unequivocal. At the height of a few hundred feet old-looking shells are very numerous.” Again, speaking of Northern Chili, he says, ”I have convincing proofs that this part of the continent of South America has been elevated near the coast, at least from 400 to 500 feet, and in some parts from 1000 to 1300 feet, since the epoch of existing shells, and further inland the rise may have been greater.” In Peru, about Callao, he also found evidences of rising land. Mr. Baxendale, a very competent authority, assures me that he found numerous skeletons of whales, seals, &c., stranded on the coast, near Arica, and above high-water mark. A tide is hardly perceptible there at all. M. Reclus says, ”The indications of a gradual upheaval are equally visible on the coasts of Bolivia and Peru. In the eastern zone of the Desert of Atacama, the ground is covered at considerable heights with shells and saline efflorescence, and seems as if abandoned by the ocean only the day before. Above Cobija, Iquique, and
several other coast towns, stages are marked out similar to those at Coquimbo, and, like the latter, were once washed by the water of the Pacific. In front of Arica the sea has receded 165 yards, in the space of forty years, and the merchants of the towns have been in consequence compelled to lengthen their landing-stage” (Reclus, *The Earth*, vol. ii. p. 647). I will now quote other facts from Mr. Darwin, to prove how very recent the rise of this coast has been. Speaking of the earthquake of 1822, he says, “The most remarkable effect of this earthquake was the permanent elevation of the land; the land round the bay of Conception was upraised 2 or 3 feet, at the island of St. Maria (about 30 miles distant), the elevation was greater. On one part Captain Fitzroy found beds of putrid mussel-shells still adhering to the rocks 10 feet above high-water mark. The inhabitants had formerly dived at low-water spring for these shells” (*Nat. Voyage*, p. 310). At Valparaíso, during the last 220 years, the rise has been somewhat less than 19 feet, while at Lima a sea-beach has certainly been upheaved from 80 to 90 feet within the Indo-human period (*Id.*, *passim*). 85 feet above the sea-level, in an island in the bay of Callao, he found on a sea-beach some Indian corn and pieces of Indian thread, similar to those found in Peruvian tombs. M. Reclus says, speaking of this coast, “that several ancient ports which were once frequented are now inaccessible, other harbours have been formed; thanks to the fresh protecting points which have emerged, numerous islands, always designated by the Indian name *huepe*, have become promontories (*Op. cit.*, vol. ii. p. 647). The same author enables us to carry the limit of upheaval to the north of Peru. He tells us that at Colon, Santa Marta, and several other points of the coast of New Granada, the ground has visibly risen since Europeans first landed on the continent (*Id.*, p. 647-8).

We will now pass to Australia. Mr. Rattray says, “The north-east, if not the whole of the east coast of Australia, is slowly rising, as proved by the gradual shoaling of the channel between Hinchinbrook Island and the mainland, due, to all appearance, neither to silting-up nor growth of coral. Water-worn caves, now well above high-water mark, exist in the sandstone cliffs of Albany Island and in those of the mainland opposite; and on many parts of the coast, especially towards the north of the peninsula, extensive tracts, now covered with sand-dunes bearing a scanty vegetation, stretch inland 10, 15, and 20 miles, once bordered the sea (“Geology of Cape York Peninsula,” *Geol. Journal*, vol. xxvi. p. 297).

“An immense portion of the continent of Australia is known to be uprising... The whole coast round to a distance of
several miles inland is covered with recent shells, the drainage of the country is apparently altering. Lakes known to have been formerly filled with salt water are now filling up with fresh or becoming dry. The lagoons near the coast are filled with salt and brackish water, and their banks are filled with marine shells with their colours in many cases preserved. Reefs of rocks are constantly appearing where there were none formerly. At Rivoli Bay the soundings have altered so much as to make a new survey requisite. A reef has lately almost closed this harbour, other reefs have appeared at Cape Jaffa, &c. . . . It would appear that a vast movement is taking place in the whole of South Australia. In Melbourne the observations of surveyors and engineers have all tended to confirm this remarkable fact."

Mr. Wood's admirable work on the Geology of South Australia contains a great deal of matter proving that the whole Australian continent is rising. I will quote a few passages. Speaking of the Australian Bight, in the centre of South Australia, he quotes Captain Flinders, thus:—"This equality of elevation for so great an extent, and the evidently calcareous nature of the bank, at least in the upper 200 feet, would bespeak it to have been the exterior line of some vast coral-reef, which is always more elevated than the interior parts, and commonly level with the high-water mark. From the gradual subsiding of the sea, or, perhaps, from some convulsion of nature, this bank may have attained its present height above the surface, and, however extraordinary such a change may appear, yet when it is recollected that branches of coral still exist upon Bald Head, at an elevation of 400 feet or more, this supposition assumes a degree of probability, and it would further seem that the subsidence of the waters has not been at a period very remote, since these fossil branches have yet neither been all beaten down nor mouldered away by the wind and water" (Op. cit., p. 115).

"It now remains to speak of that which has been so often alluded to in the foregoing chapter as a certain fact, namely, that of upheaval. After having shown that the whole coast, round to a distance of several miles inland, is covered with recent shells, and further, having shown that the drainage of the country is apparently altering, that the lakes known to have been formerly filled with salt-water are now filling up with fresh or becoming dry, it does not require any great extent of argument to prove the upheaval of the land. But there are other facts. Let us pay attention to the coast-line first—the mere outline of the coast—to show what has taken place. The very fact of so many salt-water lakes near the shore which are not found inland, the majority of them being filled with salt
or brackish water, and having their greatest lengths parallel with the coast, is just the state of things we can suppose as having risen from a coast which the sea has left; and when we take into consideration that all the banks of these lakes are covered with marine shells, so recently derived from the sea as to preserve their colours in many places, any doubts as to their recent recovery from the sea must be entirely removed.

"But we have now more proof than even this: reefs of rocks are constantly appearing in places where there were none previously. At Rivoli Bay the soundings have altered to such an extent as to make a new survey requisite. It was known that outside this bay there was a reef of rocks running parallel with the shore, but with sufficiently deep water upon it for some ships to pass over. It is now stated that scarcely any vessel can pass over it, and that some of the rocks have actually appeared above water.

"Not very long ago, a schooner, named the Norah Crema, was lost upon that part of the coast, and the master of the vessel stated that the rock upon which he struck was not marked in any chart, and, though he had been a very long time upon that coast, he had never seen any signs of a reef there before over which a small vessel could not pass in safety.

"Again: at Cape Jaffa to the north of Guichen Bay, there is a dangerous reef, which was marked by the French surveyors more than fifty years ago as extending 7 miles from the shore. Some four years ago a French survey was made by the South Australian harbour-master, and the reef was found to exist 12 miles from the shores and a beacon was erected thereon at that distance. I am now assured, by those well-acquainted to this part of the coast, that the reef extends two miles beyond the last distance, and I have seen broken water at least a mile beyond the beacon.

"Nor is it alone in this part of the coast that upheaval has been remarked. It would appear that a vast movement is taking place in the whole of the south part of Australia. In Melbourne the observations of surveyors and engineers have all tended to confirm this remarkable fact; in Western Australia the same thing is observed; at King George's Sound the same. As, however, these observations are numerous, I must confine myself alone to the colony to which they refer.

"In 1855, a railway was in course of construction between Port Adelaide and the city of Adelaide, between which two places there is a gently rising plain, about 8 miles across. Mr. Babbage, the chief engineer, who made the surveys for the line, published a paper to show that there was an actual difference
of level of some inches between his first and his second survey of the respective heights of Adelaide and the port. As the difference was so small, of course this result cannot be given as certain, because in 8 miles of levellings errors might easily creep up to that amount."

Again, let me quote a capital observer:—"Australia was formerly an archipelago of islands. That it only has recently (compared with other countries) obtained its present elevation is often forcibly impressed upon the traveller by the appearance of the country he is traversing. Nowhere have I found this to be the case to a greater degree than exploring that part of the north of Spencer's Gulf, where a great portion of the low lands intervening between the base of the Flinders Range and Lake Torrens present the appearance of rounded undulations of sand or pebbles washed perfectly smooth and even, looking like waves of the sea, and seeming as if they had not been many centuries deserted by the element that had moulded them into their present form. In this singular district I found, scattered at intervals throughout the whole area enclosed by Lake Torrens, many steep-sided fragments of a table-land which had evidently been washed to pieces by the violent action of water, and such appeared to have been originally of nearly the same general elevation of the table-lands to the westward. These table-lands, it seems to me, have formerly been the bed of the ocean. Many marine fossil-shells and banks of oyster-shells are frequently found embedded in them.—("Considerations against the supposed existence of a great Sea in the Interior of Australia, by E. J. Eyre," 'Geographical Journal,' xvi. p. 200.)

Tasmania bears the same testimony as Australia. I quote the following from Mr. Wintle's paper on the Geology of Hobart Town ('Journal of Geological Society,' xxvii. p. 469):—"Until a very recent period in the geological annals of this island, a great portion of what now constitutes the site of this city was under water. This is proved by the extensive deposits of comminuted shells, all of recent species, which are met with for miles along the banks of the Derwent. Some of these deposits are at an elevation of upwards of 100 feet above high-water mark, and from 50 to 100 yards from the water's edge, plainly showing thereby that a very recent elevation of the land has taken place."

A recent correspondent of 'Nature' writes from Tasmania to say that what I have here quoted—which I had previously quoted in a letter to that periodical—is abundantly confirmed as to Tasmania by other evidence, some of which he furnishes.

We will now pass on to New Zealand, where the evidence of current upheaval is as conclusive as in the countries previously
named. But being situated, as we know, on the edge of the vast area of depression in the South Pacific (and thus corresponding to Greenland in its relation to the North Atlantic), we are not surprised to find that Dr. Haast has found evidence that the extreme north-western point is sinking. In this, again, corresponding to Greenland, whose extreme southern portion, as was stated in our previous paper, is sinking. The area of depression, however, in New Zealand is very limited, and we have abundant evidence that the mass of its land is rising. Let me quote a few examples from the very admirable recent work on New Zealand by the Rev. Richard Taylor, entitled, 'Te ika a Maui,' 454–7; he says, speaking of some earthquakes that took place in 1855, that "at Wellington the harbour is stated to have been raised full 4½ feet, and similar changes to have taken place in several parts of the district."

"In fact, the raising of sea-beaches seems to have been of common occurrence, in every part of the island numerous instances are to be seen, several of which have taken place during my residence."

"But although there is abundant proof of upheavement still going on in the northern island, it is trifling when compared with that of the middle one. The Nelson paper, of September 1847, states that the hull of a vessel was lately discovered on the western coast lying 200 yards from high-water mark, with a small tree growing through its bottom; the vessel was supposed to be the Active, which was lost in 1814. How great an alteration must that locality have undergone since it was stranded there, when, in a period of thirty-three years, the ocean had retired to a distance of 200 yards from the shore, or, in other words, that part of the coast has risen to such an extent as to remove the hull of the vessel to far beyond high-water mark; there is reason to suppose that this upheavement of the coast is not confined to one spot, but has extended the entire length of the island. . . . From these circumstances, it is evident that parts of the middle island are rapidly rising, and of this fact there are other proofs to be adduced. Coal measures appear at Massacre Bay and Molyneux River, intermingled with abundance of kauri resin. This noble pine is not now found growing within 10 degrees of latitude north of that river—in no single spot within that wide range is a kauri-tree to be met with; hence we conclude that the climate has considerably altered since that carboniferous deposit was made. But it is not necessary to go back to that probably remote period; the kauri resin is still found on the surface of the land, with every appearance of its having had quite as recent an origin as that picked up in the north: it is most probable,
therefore, that the tree has grown in those latitudes at a comparatively recent date. This beautiful pine does not seem to require heat, so much as shelter and humidity. If, then, the land was formerly low in that latitude, the climate would necessarily be humid and mild, the cold being tempered by the sea, and not increased by the propinquity of snowy mountains; thus the kauri might have flourished there, as well as other trees which now belong to a warmer climate" (Op. cit., p. 456).
In a letter to the same author, Governor Eyre says, speaking of Kai Kuras, a mountain of the middle island, "Little vegetation on the hill but mosses and lichens, and some coarse grasses, besides prickly plants, of which the Iaramea is the chief; but the singular part was, that on so steep and high a hill, where now nothing but mosses and lichens grow, were the charred remains of large utara-trees, evidently showing that the ground once has been low and has been covered with forest, and that it has been pushed up within a comparatively recent geological period. There was grey granite on the highest ridge."
Again, in the same work, page 478:—"The natives, when they sold the middle island, amongst other reserves, refused to part with the lakes and rivers. One of the former—Lake Ellesmere, a large expanse of water—has within the last few years become greatly reduced in size from the rising of the land; the natives, observing this, at once went on the desiccated land, began to cultivate it, and when ordered off refused to go, stating they had never sold the lakes."
I have now examined, so far as my material will allow, the various masses of land that cluster round the South Polar area, and find a perfectly consistent testimony everywhere, namely, that they are at present areas of upheaval. There is no exception, so far as I know, to the rule; and the only conclusion that can be drawn from the facts is, that the area about the southern pole, like that about the northern pole, is being thrust out, and that in fact the earth's periphery is being stretched or extended in the direction of its shortest axis. This is surely an important conclusion, if it be sustained. With your permission, I propose to examine the intervening land-masses in a subsequent paper, to see if this movement of upheaval is shared by them, or is at present confined to the two polar areas. In conclusion, I would draw attention to the very remarkable fact, that in all this area, exhibiting so many signs of rapid upheaval, there should be such a marked absence of volcanoes. If we exclude the two or three active volcanoes in the north island of New Zealand, a few in Chili and its southern prolongation, Tierra del Fuego and Mount Erebus, and the island of St. Paul, we shall have almost completed our list. All these, as I shall show in
a future paper, are on the very edge of huge areas of depression. As I remarked in my former paper on the Northern Polar area, if volcanoes be the violent efforts of the eruptive forces of the earth, it is remarkable that they should be absent, or only present in such feeble examples, in this area, and that we shall search such markedly rising areas as Australia, Tasmania, and South Africa in vain for them. My explanation of this absence, which involves some very heterodox views on the subject of volcanic energy, I must reserve for another occasion.

XVIII.—Geographical Notes on the Province of Minas Geraes.

By Henrique Gerber, c.e.

[Translated and Communicated by Capt. R. F. Burton.]

Preliminary Note.

In the Preliminary Essay (pp. 12, 13) of my 'Highlands of the Brazil,' I have given my reasons for translating into English the meritorious labours of M. Gerber, c.e. It is well that the world should know how much geographical work is still carried on in a quiet way throughout the Empire, of which there is hardly a province without its "White of Selborne," whilst not a few have from two to four monographers.

Of course these labours, however meritorious, are mostly compilations from official and other documents, and thus they often perpetuate the errors of the originals. On a certain map the town of Sabará is placed upon the left instead of being on the right bank of the river; and as I have noticed in the 'Highlands of the Brazil,' the great ranges of the Piedade and the Curral d'El-Rei have been counter-marched by M. Gerber.

A trigonometrical survey of Minas Geraes would, it is calculated, employ three engineers for five years, and demand for the roughest execution a sum of 80,000£. Meanwhile we must rest content with the preparatory studies of which the following is a good specimen. It is also an excellent base upon which to work in future times, and it will present a bird's-eye view of the "Great and Heroic Province."

My share in the work requires no notice beyond the fact that I am answerable for the short notes appended to the author's text. During the time of my visit to Ouro Preto, M. Gerber had left it, on temporary leave of absence, with the view of visiting the Exposition of Paris. I have already made my apology for translating him without his express permission.

Richard F. Burton.
I.—Geography of Minas Geraes.

Extent and Limits.

The Province of Minas Geraes lies between the parallels of 8° latitude and 23°, and the meridians of 46° 15' longitude (Greenwich), and 50° 15' longitude.† The extreme length is thus 9° = 540 geographical miles, and the breadth 4° = 240.‡ The area is calculated to contain 20,000 square leagues, (of 2° = 1° at the equator), or 180,000 square miles English.§

The boundaries are:

North the Province of Bahia, the frontier being the rivers Carunhanha, Verde, Grande and Pequeno, (Royal Decree of March 16th, 1720); the Serra das Almas and a line drawn through the mountains of Cruciduba, the Valle Fundo, the junction (barra) of the Mosquito River, and the Salto Grande Rapids, (cachoeira) of the great River Jequitinhonha.

To the east lie the Provinces of Bahia and Espírito Santo; the demarcation being made by the range (serra) of the Aimorés; the Serra de Souza and the ridge (espinho), which divides the rivers Manhuassú and Guandú. Thence it follows the Serra dos Pilões, as far as the River Stabapuana, according to the Decree (Alvará) of December 4, 1816, approving the convention made on October 8, 1800, between the Governors of Minas and Espírito Santo.||

On the south, Minas confines with the Provinces of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. The former extends to the Rio Preto (alis Negro) as far as its debouchure (foz) into the River Parahyba; the River Parahyba till it falls into the River Parahyba, and the River Parahyba till its junction with the River Pirapitinga. Thence to the north the limits are laid

* "General mines," meaning that gold was generally found there. Presently many other metals were discovered, and it came to mean "mines generally." The Mineiros in part of the Empire were known as "Geralistas."

† Or between 3° and 7° west of Rio de Janeiro. The Brazilian geographers have imitated the bad example of Europe in the matter of first meridians.

‡ The limits assigned by Gardiner (chap. xii.) are between 8° latitude and 23°, and W. long (G.) 41° to 53°; 54° being the most westerly point, and nearly a narrow corner.

§ If the area were quadrilateral it would number 129,600 square miles English. At present the area of Minas Geraes is about 1/4th of the Empire.

|| The words of the Convention are—"It was agreed upon by all, that . . . . the limits of the two neighbouring capitanices having to be demarcated, the boundary should be the ridge running north to south between the Rivers Guandú and Main-assu, and not by the river-bed . . . . that the slopes of the said ridge draining to the Guandú shall belong to the district of the Captaincy or new province of Espírito Santo, and that in the parts north of the Rio Doce, the division should be made by the Serra de Souza, which rises (tem sua testa elevada) in front of these Quarters (quartel, a barrack) and Port of Souza, and which accompanies from it (the Port) the Rio Doce, till it confronts the ridge before named." . . . . etc.
down by Decree No. 297 of May 19th, 1843.* On the side of São Paulo the frontier follows the crest of the Mantiqueira † from the sources of the Rio Preto to the Morro do Lôpo; thence to the mouth of the Ribeirão das Canoas into the Rio Grande; and, lastly, along the Rio Grande to its confluence with the (southern ‡) River Paranahyba. This terminal line is badly laid down, and has caused many agrarian troubles between the provinces.

On the west are conterminately S. Paulo and Goyaz. The bourn is the (southern) River Paranahyba from its mouth to the embouchure of the Rio de S. Marcos; up the latter to the watershed forming its versants (vertentes), and, lastly, the chain (cordilheira) which extends northwards to the Vão Grande.§

The areas of the several Comarcas are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Square Leagues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Ouro Preto</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piracicava</td>
<td>1,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serro</td>
<td>1,870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jequitinhonha</td>
<td>1,660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio Pardo</td>
<td>1,530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio de São Francisco</td>
<td>3,550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio das Velhas</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paracatú</td>
<td>2,160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indaiá</td>
<td>580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Paranahyba</td>
<td>2,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraná</td>
<td>1,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sapucahy</td>
<td>680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jaguary</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio Verde</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio Grande (Paraná)</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio das Mortes</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baependy</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parahybuna</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomba</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Muriahé</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total 20,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

* The Decree is as follows—"Beginning from the mouth of the Pirapitinga opening into the Paranahyba, ascending the said Pirapitinga to a point fronting the junction of the large Rivulet (ribeirão) Santo Antonio (da Pádua) with the River Pomba, and thence by a right line to the said junction of the Santo Antonio, going up the rivulet to the range known as the Santo Antonio, and thence to a village (lagar) on the River Muriahé, called Poço Fundo, running via the Serra do Guavião to the Cachoeira dos Tombos in the River Carangola, and following the Serra do Carangola, till it meets the province of Espírito Santo.

† Less correctly written "Mantiquim;" the word is said to be derived from the banditti formerly infesting the range.

‡ I have added Southern to distinguish it from the Paranahyba of Piauí.

§ Vão with a circumflex (Latin, vánum, empty) is an open unoccupied place. Vão (Lat. vadium) is a shallow, a ford.
Orography.—Minas Geraes is traversed by the main chain of the great orographic system of the Brazil, significantly named by the Baron von Eschwege “Serra do Espinhaço” (Range of the Spine †). This line, with its ramifications, divides the waters of the Rio Grande (Paraná) on the west from those of the São Francisco and others which feed the Atlantic. Bifurcating from the Serra do Mar (the Maritime Range) in the Province of S. Paulo, it takes the generic name of “Mantiqueira,” and runs north-east to the parallel of Barbacena: thence it trends almost due north as far as the Cidade Diamantina; and, lastly, resuming its north-eastern rhumb, it exchanges the Province of Minas for that of Bahia in the vicinity of the Villa do Rio Pardo. Its mean elevation does not much exceed 1000 metres (3280 feet) above sea-level, far inferior to the mighty Andes. Yet some of its peaks are the loftiest in the Empire, especially the Itatiaiaossú, near the Villa of Ayuruoca (Juruoca ‡), which rises 1900 metres, § Itacolumi to the southward of Ouro Preto with 1750, and the Itambé near the Cidade do Serro with 1316 metres.

The chief branch of this Cordilheira is a range which, leaving the main line at a point called “Alto (or Morro) das Taipas,” a few leagues north of Barbacena, runs irregularly through the Province in a general east to west direction, and divides the waters of the Rio de São Francisco from those of the Rio Grande (Paraná). In old maps it is called Espigão Mestre (Master-chain) and Serra dos Vertentes (Range of Versants), || because this line and its continuations in the Provinces of Goyaz and Matto Grosso separate the great southern basins of the Paraguay and the Paraná from those of the São Francisco, the Amazons and the Tocantins to the north, and thus divide the Empire into two distinct parts. The most remarkable portions of the system in the Province of Minas are the Serras, known as da Canastra (of the Box), and da Mata da Corda (Forest of the Cord, i.e., long and narrow). Its mean elevation is not more than 800 metres above sea-level, although many points

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* Henderson (Travels, &c.) remarks with truth that Minas Geraes is “the most mountainous country in Brazil.”

† I have elsewhere specified my objections to this generalization.

‡ More commonly Juruoca, the parrot’s home, from Juru or Ayuru, a parrot, and Oca, a house. The popular name of the peak is Morro da Sella (Saddle-back hill), and it stands well from Resende on the Parahyba River.

§ This is an important error. The Instituto historico e geographico Brasileiro (Revista Trim. 1861) estimates the altitude at 3140 metres. Thus it is the culminating point of the Brazil.

|| I have described the Serra dos Vertentes in treating of the Alagão Dourada; it is an east to west buttress of the great chain which runs south to north, and it separates the system of the São Francisco and the Paraná. There is another latitudinal line which disconnects the Tocantins and the southern waters.
rise higher. As a rule a great portion of the ridge, and especially of its ramifications, forms plateaux (chapadões) at times of great extent: these give a more amene character to the western parts of the province than can be found amongst the scarped valleys of the main system, the Serra do Espinhaço.

These two main trunks of the Mineiro * orographic skeleton have many limbs and ribs, which, however, may be reduced to the following main divisions.

I. System of the Serra do Espinhaço.

1st. The Mantiqueira group, known by different local names, as Serra de Itajubá, do Picú, do Itatiaia; do Bom Jardim; do Ibitipoca, do Sapateiro, and others. The highest points are the Itatiaiaost, the Pico do Papagaio; the Picão de Ibitipoca, † and the Pedra de Babilônia, etc.

The ramifications are—

N.E. The chain which under various names divides the waters of the Moggyguassú and the Sapucay rivers. The Serras de Santa Catharina and da Campanha (of the Champaign), between the Rivers Sapucay and Verde; the Serras da Gamarra (of the Martingale), de S. Thomé das Letras (Saint Thomas of the Letters), ‡ das Tres Pontas and da Esperança between the affluents of the Rio Verde and the Rio Grande proper. 

S.E. The Serras Negra, de Monte Verde, and do Funil, between the Rivers Preto and Parahybuna; the Serras do Piau, § da Babilônia, do Espírito Santo, Rio Pardo and Leopoldina, between the Parahybuna and other tributaries of the Rivers Parahyb and Pomba; the Serras da Caramônica, de S. Sebastião and de Brigadeiro, as well as all the chain extending to near the city of Victoria and dividing the Valley of the Rio Doce from the Rios Pomba, Muriahê, Itabupiana and Itapemirim.

2nd. The Itacolomi group, locally called Serra do Ouro Branco, Ouro Preto, Cachoeira, Caráça, Caethé, &c. The greatest heights are the Pico da Serra da Piedade, the Itacolomi, the Picos da Itabira do Campo and Itabira de Mato-dentro.

The ramifications are:—

W. The Serras of Boa Morte, Piedade, Curral, Salto, and Espírito Santo, forming the division between the Rivers Pará and das Velhas.

E. The Serras do Inficional and de Paula Moreira, the water-parting between the Rio Doce and its tributary the Piraçíçava; and the Serras da Itabira de Mato-dentro and de Costaes, the parting between the rivers Piraçíçava and Santo Antonio.

3rd. The Serro Frio group, locally known as Serra de Santo Antonio da Lapa, Itambé, &c. The highest peaks are the Itambé and the Tromba d’Anta.

The ramifications are:—

* The adjective derived from Minas (Gerais).
† A peon (or footman), a “pawn” at chess, a conical hole, a cone.
‡ Henderson (‘Travels,’ p. 269) describes this superstitious hierography, which reminds us of the “Mên Serys,” or written stone of Cornwall, as a formation of serrigenous particles in elastic sandstone. He alludes to a vast and curious cave, and to a hermitage dedicated to Saint Thomas.
§ The small fish which gave a name to the vast province of Piauhy.
‖ “Stone and Child,” from two remarkable salient knobs, large and small. There is another herenacht (mentioned in the text) called Serra do Caracá, from its likeness to a large face, or rather to the negro who wore it.
The Province of Minas Geraes.

W. The unimportant ranges all draining into the Rio das Velhas.

E. The Serras do Capanga and das Correntes, dividing the Rio de Santo Antonio from the Sassechy Grande: the extensive chain from the Pico do Itambé to the Serra dos Aimorés, with sundry secondary branches (amongst them the Serra Map-Map-Crak), which separate the waters of the Jequitinhonha and the Aranuhy from the rivers Doce, Mucury, &c.

4th. The Itacambira group, with the local names Serra de Congonhas, de Itacambira, from its most notable peak; Grão Mogol," Branco, das Almas, &c. The principal ramifications are:—

N.W. The extensive range from the Serra dos Veados and the Montes Claros to the Serra das Contandas and de S. Filipe, dividing the R. de São Francisco proper from the Rio Verde.

E. The jagged range stretching from the Serra Branca to the Serra Escula, separating the waters of the Rivers Jequitinhonha and Pardo.

II. System of the Serra Geral (draining into the Rivers de São Francisco and Grande).

1st. The Serra das Vertentes group,† properly so called, and locally named Alto das Taijas, Montanhas da Lagoa Dourada, da Barba de Bode, da Serra dos Pinheiros, de Piumby, &c. The chief ramifications are:—

N. The Serras do Itiatiaossú, ‡ do Pará, da Onça, dividing the waters of the Paraopeba from those of the Pará; the Serras Negra and de Santo Antonio do Monte, dividing the Rivers Pará and the Upper S. Francisco.

S. Several unimportant ranges distributing the various tributaries of the Rio Grande, such as the Rio das Mortes, the Jacaré, the Lambary, &c.

2nd. The Serra da Canastra group, whose principal mass is a few leagues east of Desemboque§ and Araxá: it is interesting, as it contains the headwaters, or sources (cabeeiros) of the Rio de São Francisco, which is distant only four leagues from the banks of the Rio Grande. The ramifications are:—

W. and N.W. A narrow spine, which presently spreads out into a vast plateau, containing the Municipalities of Uberaba and da Prata, and known as the Chapéuão da Tabatinga: it forms the division between the waters of the Rio Grande and those of the Paranahyba; and the Serra da Parida, the division between the Rivers Das Velhas, Paraná, and Quebra-Anzol.

N.E. The Serras da Marcella and das Saudades do Indaiá, forming the division between the São Francisco and the Indaiá.

3rd. The Serra da Mata da Corda group, an extensive and important range running northwards almost to the confluence of the R. Paracatu with the São Francisco. Its ramifications are:—

W. The mountains da Patrocínio, the Serras Negra and de Cristaes, which divide the R. das Velhas and the Paranahyba.

E. The Serras do Bornacundo and da Jacú between the Rivers Indaiá and Abaeté. ||

* More generally written Grão Mogol.
† Cabeeiros are “head waters”; vertentes, “versants.” M. Auguste de Saint-Hilaire (III. i. 141) says that in places “vertentes” means “sources.”
‡ This must not be confounded with the great Itiatiaossú in the Mantiqueira Range.
§ More generally written Desemboque.
|| More generally written “Abaeté.”
The Serra da Mata da Corda, between the Rio de São Francisco and do Somno; the Serra do Andreguicó (Andrew’s knife), between the R. do Somno and the Río Catinga; and the Serra das Almas, between the R. Catinga and the Paracatu.

4th. Serra dos Pyrenêos group; one of the loftiest cordilheiras of the Province of Goyaz, which extends its branches to that of Minas: the arm which divides the two provinces runs north to south under the local names of Serra do Paraná, de Itiquira, Pindahyba, &c. From the eastern sides of these ranges rise various tributaries of the S. Francisco, as the Rivers Paracatu, Preto, Urucuia, Pardo, and Carunhanha.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Names of Places</th>
<th>The height in metres</th>
<th>Measurements taken by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ouro Preto</td>
<td>Peak of Itacolumi (The palace of Ouro Preto in the</td>
<td>1750</td>
<td>The author.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>court-yard)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The village of Ouro Branco</td>
<td>1145</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The path on the heights of Dona (vicência)</td>
<td>981</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The village of Cachoeira do Campo (at the parish</td>
<td>1290</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>church)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The village of Tejucu</td>
<td>1037</td>
<td>Aroceira.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The village of Congonhas do Campo</td>
<td>856</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(parish church)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The peak of Itabira do Campo</td>
<td>853</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queluz</td>
<td>The villa or town of Queluz</td>
<td>870</td>
<td>Aroceira.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Cattas Altas do Noruega</td>
<td>1520</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Brumado</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Suassuky</td>
<td>888</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marianna</td>
<td>City of Marianna</td>
<td>938</td>
<td>Aroceira.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Camargos (Village of Inflacionada (the</td>
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<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>church to the south)</td>
<td>781</td>
<td>Martius.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>843</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Spix and Martius.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Paula Moreira</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sta. Barbara</td>
<td>City of Santa Barbara</td>
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<td>Aroceira.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Cocaes</td>
<td>756</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The ironworks of Monlevade</td>
<td>762</td>
<td>Monlevade.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>781</td>
<td>Spix and Martius.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itabira</td>
<td>Village of Santa Anna dos Ferros</td>
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<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City of Itabira de Mato-dentro</td>
<td>676</td>
<td>Aroceira.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The ironworks of Girau</td>
<td>806</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ponte Nova</td>
<td>Village of the Barra de Bacalhau</td>
<td>1112</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Abre Campo</td>
<td>607</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Barra de Anta</td>
<td>552</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Village of Santa Margarida</td>
<td>668</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Barracks of Santa Cruz</td>
<td>743</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serro</td>
<td>City of Serro</td>
<td>886</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Milho Verde</td>
<td>940</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1058</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>
TABLE OF THE ELEVATION OF ALL THE DIFFERENT POINTS IN THIS
PROVINCE ABOVE THE LEVEL OF THE SEA—continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Names of Places</th>
<th>The height in metres</th>
<th>Measurements taken by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serro</td>
<td>Peak of Itambé</td>
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<td>Spix and Martius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diamantina</td>
<td>City of Diamantina</td>
<td>1132</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montes Claros</td>
<td>City of Montes Claros</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>Spix and Martius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Romão</td>
<td>Village or town of São Romão (level of the river of São Francisco)</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>Halfeld.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ditto)</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Januaria</td>
<td>City of Januaria (level of the river of São Francisco)</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>Halfeld.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Morinhos (ditto)</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guaicuhy</td>
<td>Town of Guaicuhy (up to the present village of the Barra or mouth of the River das Velhas)</td>
<td>520</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sabará</td>
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<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Sant’ Antonio do Rio acima</td>
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<td>Liaia.</td>
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<td>Height of the mountain range of Pindado</td>
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<td>Pitangui</td>
<td>City of Pitangui</td>
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<td>Village of Pompeu</td>
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<td>Ditto.</td>
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<td>Pará</td>
<td>Town of Pará</td>
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<td>Village of Bicas</td>
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<td>Spix and Martius</td>
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<td>Town of Jaguary</td>
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<td>Campanha</td>
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<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Village of the Tres Coraçôes do Rio Verde</td>
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<td>Village of São Gonçalo</td>
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<td>Ditto.</td>
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<td>S. João d’El Rey</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Ponte Nova</td>
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<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oliveira</td>
<td>City of Oliveira</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hill of Diamante</td>
<td>1061</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of São João Baptista</td>
<td>994</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ayuruoca</td>
<td>Collector’s office of Passa Vinte</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>Aroeira.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The top of the mountain range</td>
<td>937</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The top of the range of Mantiqueira</td>
<td>1878</td>
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<tr>
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<td>City of Barbacena†</td>
<td>1076</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Path on the height of Taipas</td>
<td>1137</td>
<td>The author.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Path on the top of the range of Mantiqueira</td>
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<td>Ditto.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of João Gomes</td>
<td>813</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* M. Liaia gives Sabará 695 metres above sea-level.
† M. Liaia makes Barbacena 1137 metres above sea-level.
TABLE OF THE ELEVATION OF ALL THE DIFFERENT POINTS IN THIS PROVINCE ABOVE THE LEVEL OF THE SEA—continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Names of Places</th>
<th>The height in metres</th>
<th>Measurements taken by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rio Preto</td>
<td>Town of Rio Preto (Bridge of Santa Clara on the River)</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>Aroeira.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preto</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bridge of Manoel Pereira (ditto)</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Santa Rita of Jacutinga</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The entrance of the Mine in the road of Manoel Pereira</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Top of the range of Mantiqueira (ditto)</td>
<td>1347</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Bom Jardim</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parahyba</td>
<td>City of Parahyba (level of the river of the same name)</td>
<td>621</td>
<td>The author.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Chapeco d’Uvas</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bridge of Parahyba (level of the river)</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>The author.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar d’Espanha</td>
<td>City do Mar d’Espanha (parish church)</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of the Espirito Santo (the square)</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Path at the top of the range of Arribada</td>
<td>709</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Port of Ericeira (level of the River Parahyba)</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Port of Piraçema (ditto)</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Port of Chiaor (level of the Parahyba)</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto (level of the intended railway of D. Pedro II)</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>(The railway engineers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Month of the great river of Sant’ Antonio (ditto)</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collector’s office of Sapucaia (ditto)</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Month of the river of Conceição (ditto)</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serpoldina</td>
<td>New port of Cunha (ditto)</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ubá</td>
<td>Path at the top of the range of S. Geraldo</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Presidio</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village of Santa Rita do Survo</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II.—HYDROGRAPHY.

The distribution of the Minas Province into the several hydrographic basins* of its seven great rivers is as follows:

* The channels of egress may be divided into two main lines, viz.:
1. Those flowing to the west with southing, as the Rio Grande (Paraná).
2. Those flowing to the east with northing, as the Rio de São Francisco, the Jequitinhonha, Doce, &c.
The Province of Minas Geraes. 271

The basin of the Rio de São Francisco contains 8,800

,, Grande (Paraná) ,,, 4,900
,, Parahyba ,, 700
,, Itapuana ,, 80
,, Doce ,, 2,300
,, de S. Matheos ,, 100
,, Mucury ,, 400
,, Various streams falling into the sea between Porto Seguro and Porto Alegre * ,, 100
,, Rio Jequitinhonha contains 2,200
,, Pardo ,, 420

Total 20,000

The two first-mentioned, by far the most important of all, are to the west of the Serra do Espinhaço; the five others are to the east of it. The Rio Grande, which is, perhaps, four times larger than the Parahyba, is on a much higher elevation; the difference of level between the valleys of the upper Rio Grande and the Rio das Montes (i.e., the head-waters of the Rio Grande) on one side of the Serra da Mantiqueira, and the basins of the Rivers Parahyba, Preto and Parahybuna on the other, is between 500 and 600 metres.† The Rio Grande and São Francisco rising on both sides of the Serras da Canastra and de Piumby, are almost in the same plane. On the other hand the Rio Paraopeba and the Rio das Velhas (i.e., the Upper S. Francisco) rising to the west of the Itacolumi range, are 200 metres above the Rio Doce, which drains eastward though its course and is full of rapids.


This stream rises in the Serra do Itatiaia and the Municipality of Ayuruoca; after running about 20 leagues to the N.W., it shifts to the N.N.W. as far as its confluence with the Parahyba River. There it leaves Mineiro ground and takes the name of "Paraná." From its source to their junction are 130 direct and 205 indirect leagues. Its breadth at the Arraial do Lavramento is 20 fathoms (braças); † above the rapid of the Bocaina 150, and at the rapid of the Janguara 334 braças. It has several rapids, as da Bocaina, at the foot of the Piumby range; dos Criminosos, 2 leagues above the junction of the River Sapucahy; As Pedras and the Rapid of the Janguara, 3 leagues above the Porto da Rímana.

The principal tributaries, beginning from its source, are as follows:—
§L. Rio Ayuruoca.
L. Rio Angahy.
R. Rio das Mortes, whose course is 36 leagues long, and its affluents are the Rio das Mortes Pequeno and the Carandahy.

* Such as the Rio Doce, the Parahyba, and insignificant streams which feed the Rio Itapuana, S. Matheos, and to others to the east.
† The valley of the Parahyba is a low oval, with higher grounds to west and north-west. It is about 600 feet below the Tieté, at S. Paulo.
‡ English inches 86.6668 = 7 feet 3 inches in round numbers.
§ R. shows that the feeder flows into the right, L, into the left bank.
R. Rio Jacaré; course, 22 leagues.
R. Rio Lambary.
L. Rio Sapucahy Grande; course, 65 leagues; influents, the Sapucahy-Mirim, the Rivers Machado and Mozambique, and the Rio Verde. The latter has a course of 44 leagues, and its feeders are the Rios de Baipendy, Lambary, and do Peixe.
R. Rio do Uberaba.
R. Rio de S. Ignacio.
R. Rio Verde; course, 35 leagues.
L. Rio Sapucahy-Mirim, coming from the direction of S. Paulo.
L. Rio Moggyuassu, from same direction.
R. Rio Paranahyba, which rivals the Rio Grande. It rises in the Serra da Mata da Corda, and falls into the former stream after a course of 145 leagues; influents, (R.) Rio de S. Marcos, 55 leagues; (L.) Rio dos Dourados; (L.) Rio das Velhas* 67 leagues; (R.) Rio Verízimo, Corumbá, and da Mea Ponte, from the direction of Goyaz; (L.) Rio Tejucu, 50 leagues; (R.) Rios Verde and dos Bois, from the direction of Goyaz.

Besides these, the south-western corner of the Province contains the headwaters of the Jaguary, the Moggy, and the Jaguary-Mirim; tributaries of the Tieté and thus of the Rio Grande.

II. Basin of the Rio de São Francisco.

This stream rises in the Serra da Canastra, at a rapid called A Cascã d’Anta, which is said to be more than 1000 palms (palmas)† in height. It flows almost directly south-north. At 97 leagues from its source and 5 above the junction of the Rio das Velhas, is the Rapid of the Pirapora, 5000 palms long, with 25 palms of difference in level between its extreme points. Here the stream is 2417 palms above sea-level, 2500 palms broad, 20 to 30 palms deep, and the discharge per second is 22,400 cubic palms. From this rapid to the junction of the Carumbeha, where it enters the Bahia Province, its course is 87 leagues, and important influents greatly increase its volume; though still 2056 palms above the sea, it is 3700 palms broad, with a depth extending to 40 palms, and its discharge is 132,000 cubic palms per second. Beyond the limits of our province it runs 295 leagues till its mouth—in the first 155 to the Rapid of the Sobradinho, where the current is never more than 4 palms per second. From the Villa da Boa Vista 29 leagues down stream to the Porto das Piranhas, for a distance of 70 leagues the bed is full of rapids (encacheirado). Of these the most important is that of Paulo Assonso, 355 palms of perpendicular height, and there are 1206 palms of difference between Boa Vista and As Piranhas, which is still 42 leagues distant from the mouth of the river, and 82 palms above sea-level. The river has high banks, often ranging between 20 and 80 palms, yet the greater part of its valley is exposed to inundations and floods (enchentes), which have risen to 55 palms above the usual level.

The principal tributaries of the S. Francisco in the Mineiro Territory are:

L. Rio Bambuhy.
R. Rio Pará; course, 42 leagues; influents, Rio da Boa Vista, Rio Lambay,† &c.
R. Rio Paraopeba; course, 68 leagues; influents unimportant.
L. Rio Indaiá; course, 38 leagues.
L. Rio Borrachudo.

* This must not be confounded with the Northern Rio das Velhas.
† Each = English inches, 8·66162; in round numbers upwards of 8½ inches.
‡ This name frequently occurs; it is that of a common fish.
L. Rio Abaeté; 36 leagues.

R. Rio das Velhas, anciently Guaiacuhy; course, 17 leagues, from its sources in the Serra de Antonio Pereira, to Sabará, and 155 leagues from that point to its debouchure; it is very tortuous, the total direct length being a little more than 60 leagues. At the mouth it is 743 palms broad, and the discharge is about 9000 cubic palms per second. The principal influents are the Rivers Sipó, Parauña, Pardo, Curimatahy, and da Piedade.

R. Rio Jaquetahy; course, 42 leagues; the mouth is 267 palms broad, and discharges 4800 palms.

L. Rio Paracatú, chief of the Mineiro tributaries, rising in the Serra dos Piões; course, 95 leagues to its junction, a little above which it is 820 palms broad, and discharges 60,000 palms into the São Francisco. Its principal affluents are the Rios Escuro, da Prata, das Egoas, Preto (which measures nearly 80 leagues from the Lagoa Formosa to its junction), Catinga, and do Socorro.

L. Rio Uruquiuia: rises in the ramifications of the Pyrenoeos; course, 76 leagues; at its junction, 432 palms broad; discharges into the São Francisco 15,600 palms. Its affluents are the Rio Claro, 37 leagues long, and many smaller streams.

L. Rio Pardo; course, 66 leagues; breadth at junction, 188 palms; discharge, 5000 palms.

L. Rio do Peixe.

L. Riacho (stream) dos Pandeiros.

R. Rio Mangahy.

L. Riacho Pernassú.

R. Rio Verde Grande; source near the Montes Claros das Formigas; course, 120 leagues; breadth at junction, 230 palms. Its affluents are the Rios da Gorrutuba, Pachuy, Verde Pequeno, and others.

L. Rio Carunhanha, rising in the branches of the Serra dos Pyreneos; traverses the Serra do Paranan at the place called “Vão”; thence to its junction, 70 leagues distant, it divides Bahia from Minas. It is 340 palms broad, one league above its debouchure, and it discharges into the São Francisco 7400 palms per second.

III. Basin of the Rio Pardo.

The sources of this stream, in the Serra das Almas, at the extreme northeast of the Province, were, it is said, discovered in 1698 by Antonio Luiz do Passo, who, having collected a quantity of gold, dropped down stream to the sea. Its general direction is west-east; during a course of 60 leagues it collects some small streams, as the Rios Preto, da Agua Fria, de S. João, and do Mosquito; then it leaves the Province, flows for 60 leagues more through Bahia, and falls into the sea in front of Canavieiras.

IV. Basin of the Rio Jequitinhonha.

The sources are in the Serro Frio, 3 leagues west of the city of the same name; it first runs north, and then turns a little to the east. From its sources to the Salto Grande Rapid, in this province, the course is 140 leagues, and 24 leagues thence to its mouth near Belmonte. The above-mentioned rapid is about 200 palms high, and divides the river into the Upper and Lower Jequitinhonha; the latter section has also been called “Belmonte.”

The principal tributaries are:

L. Rio Itacambirássú, rising in the Serra da Itácambara; course, 36 leagues.

L. Rio Vacaria.

VOL. XLIV.
L. Rio das Salinas.
R. Rio Arassuahy; rises in the Serra do Itambé, and during all its course—60 leagues, more or less—it runs almost parallel with the Jequitinhonha; during rains it is a considerable stream. Chief influents, (L.) Rio Preto, (L.) Sirima, (R.) Fanado, (R.) Setubal, (R.) Gravatá.
R. Rio Piauhy.
L. Rio Itinga.
R. Rio de João Grande.
L. Rio de S. Pedro.
R. Rio de S. Miguel.
L. Rio de S. Francisco.
R. Rio Piabanha.

V. Basin of the Rio Mucury.

The course of the Mucury is hardly 50 leagues from its source to the Rapid of Santa Clara, where it passes out of this Province into Bahia; from Santa Clara to its mouth, in Porto Alegre, are 30 leagues. Its principal influents to the Mineiro portion are:

L. Rio das Americanas.
R. Rio Todos os Santos.
R. Rio de Urucú.
L. Rio Panpan.

VI. Basin of the Rio de S. Matheos.

The sources are in the Serra Map-Map-Cruk, and the course through this province is only 15 leagues.

VII. Basin of the Rio Doce.

This stream is formed by the confluence of the Rivers Piranga and Gualacho. The first rises in the Serra da Mantiqueira, a little north of Barbacena, and flows to the north-east, receiving into its right bank the Rio Chopotó. To the junction of the Gualacho, the course is 34 leagues. The Gualacho is composed of two branches, a northern and a southern, the latter also called Rio Mainarte. After the junction with the Piranha, the streams form the Cachoeira do Inferno, and from that point take the name "Rio Doce." It is full of rapids, denoting a considerable height above sea-level; according to Von Eschwege, the junction of the Gualacho is 341 metres (1560 palms) high. The direction is first to north and a little north-east; after receiving the Sassuhy Grande it makes a sharp bend, trending south-east as far as the Porto de Songa, and thence east to its mouth. The course from the junction of the Gualacho to that of the Manhu-assú (near the frontier of this Province) is 80 leagues, and thence to the debouchure 34. The principal rapids are:

Cachoeira Ecura, 5 leagues below the junction of the Piracicáva.

and breaks (correntes, swift broken water) of the Baguary, a little below the junction of the Rio Correntes.

Cachoeira da Figueira, 2 leagues below the junction of the Sassuhy Pequeno.

Cachoeirinha.

Cachoeiras do Rebojo de João Pinto and do Rebojo da Onça.

Cachoeira do "M."

do Inferno or Cachoeirão.

das Escadinhas† (of the little ladders), the bed of the stream for 2444 fathoms (braças) forming stony ledges.

* So called from the shape of the windings.
† These little steps are the distinct strata down which the river tumbles.
The principal tributaries of the Rio Doce in the Mineiro part are:—
R. Rio de Casca.
R. Rio Matipó.
R. Rio Piracicava, rising in the Serra do Caraça; course, 40 leagues.
R. Rio de Santo Antonio; rising in the Serro Frio; course, 44 leagues; affluents Rios do Peixe, Tanque, and Guanhaus.
L. Rio Correntes.
L. Rio Sassuhy Pequeno.
L. Rio Sassuhy Grande, rising in the Serra do Itambé; course, 50 leagues, collecting the Rios Vermelho, Turvo, Jacurry, Caipóra and others.
R. Rio Cuieté; course, 30 leagues.
R. Rio Manhuassú; rises in the Serra do Brigadeiro; course, about 40 leagues.

The valleys of the Manhuassú, Tambacury, Urupucú, and a great part of the Sassuhy and the Cuieté, are little known, and still held by the Indigenes.

VIII. Basin of the Rio Itabapuana.

The sources are in the branches of the Serro do Brigadeiro; yet after a few leagues in this province, the stream passes into that of Espírito Santo and there falls into the sea: total course of forty leagues.

IX. Basin of the Rio Paraíba (do Sul).

This stream rises in the Serra da Bocaina, to the north of the city of Paraty (in Rio de Janeiro), and traverses for 50 leagues the north-eastern part of S. Paulo. It then re-enters Rio, and flows through the municipalities of Regende, Barra Mansa, Vassouras, Valença, and Paraíba do Sul. From “Tres Barras,” near the junction of the Paraíba, to the embouchure of the Pirapitinga, a distance of 22 leagues, it divides Minas from Rio. Thence for 30 leagues it again runs through Rio and falls into the sea in front of the town (villa) of S. João da Barra. The bed is often full of rapids, with islands and islets of rock. At the “Tres Barras” it is 272 metres above sea-level, and in the Porto do Chaiador 265 (M. Gerber). Von Eschwege was in error when he reduced this to 186 metres at the town of Paraíba. The chief rapids in the portion which bounds Minas are the Sapucaia (above the suspension bridge)* and the Pombos, in an arm of the stream which passes south of an island of the same name. Between the “Tres Barras” and the junction of the River Pomba, the breadth varies from 450 palms to a quarter of a league and more. Usually the depth does not exceed 8 to 10 palms; inundations sometimes rise 25 palms above that level. The Mineiro tributaries of the Paraíba are:—

L. The Paraíba, rising in the Serra da Mantiqueira, south of Barbacena; course, 27 leagues. Its principal affluents are—(R.) Rio do Peixe, (R.) Rio Preto, which for 32 leagues from its sources in the south of the Serra do Itatiaiassú to its embouchure divides Minas from Rio, (L.) Rio Kágado.

L. Rio Pirapitinga, rising in the Serra do Rio Pardo.

L. Rio Pomba, rising in the Serra da Mantiqueira, to the east of Barbacena; runs 36 leagues through this Province, then 8 through Rio, and falls into the Paraíba. Its affluents are—(R.) Rio Formoso, (R.) Novo, (L.) Presidio, (R.) Parvo, (L.) Santo Antonio.

* I believe this to be the only suspension-bridge in the Brazil (1865).
L. Rio Muriaé; it runs only 14 leagues through this Province; thence it passes into Rio, and disembogues into the Parahyba, 30 leagues lower down and a little above the city of Campos.

X. Lakes.

They are not numerous; the principal are:

Lagoa Grande, in the Jaquary municipality; this lake drains both into the Rio Mogyguassú and the Rio Sapucay.

Various lakelets occupy the right bank of the Rio São Francisco in the municipality of Santo Antonio do Monte; amongst them are the Lakes Fria and Verde, each with an area of one square league.

Lagoa Santa, in the municipality of Santa Luzia, 1 league in circumference; 8 leagues distant from it are the Seven Lakes, all smaller.

The Lakes of Santa Fé in the municipality of S. Romão, and to the north of the Serra de Santa Fé.

Various lakelets in the municipality of Grão Mogol, and which drain to the R. Jequitinhonha, as the Lakes das Pedras, dos Marreiros, dos Porcos, Formosa, do Sapé, do Vargem, &c.

Various lakes on the left bank of the Rio Doce, and near Santa Anna do Alfé, amongst them the Nova, Verde, and da Barra.

The Lake da Agua Preta, on the banks of the R. Urupucá, 2 leagues long, and little known.

Table of the Altitude above Sea-level of Different Points in the Hydrographical System of this Province.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the River</th>
<th>Names of places where the measurement was taken</th>
<th>Height in Metres</th>
<th>By whom taken</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R. Abaieie</td>
<td>Mouth of the River dos Tiros</td>
<td>680·0</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. de S. Francisco</td>
<td>Mouth of the Pará</td>
<td>576·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Cachoeira or Rapid of the Pirapora</td>
<td>532·7</td>
<td>Halfed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Mouth of the River das Velhas</td>
<td>520·3</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Mouth of the Paracatú</td>
<td>503·8</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Town of São Romão</td>
<td>498·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Mouth of the Urneula</td>
<td>495·9</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Village of Pedras dos Angicos</td>
<td>489·5</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Mouth of the River Pardo</td>
<td>486·6</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Mouth of the Mangahy</td>
<td>481·8</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>City of Januaria</td>
<td>475·2</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Village of Morrinhos</td>
<td>463·1</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Mouth of the River Verde</td>
<td>458·9</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.</td>
<td>Mouth of the Caremonha</td>
<td>432·3</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Doce</td>
<td>Mouth of the Baciaílo</td>
<td>607·0</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Parahybuna</td>
<td>Mouth of the Guachao</td>
<td>341·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Parahybuna</td>
<td>City of Parahybuna</td>
<td>621·0</td>
<td>The author.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Parahybuna</td>
<td>Bridge of the Parahybuna</td>
<td>400·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Parahybuna</td>
<td>Port of the Ericeira</td>
<td>339·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Parahybuna</td>
<td>Port of the Piracema</td>
<td>275·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Parahybuna</td>
<td>Tres Barras</td>
<td>272·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Grande</td>
<td>Port of the Chador</td>
<td>265·0</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Grande</td>
<td>Village of Ponte Nova</td>
<td>914·0</td>
<td>V. Eschwege.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* M. Gerber little thinks what this statement of a “Lake with two Outlets” in these days means.
III.—Meteorology.

The annual mean temperature of Minas Geraes, according to its latitudinal position, should be about 23° of Celsius; the great elevation, however, reduces it in some places to 19°.*

Thus the mean annual temperature of Ouro Preto (1145 metres above sea-level), measured according to Boussingault’s system, is 19° 9' (Cent.). The Baron von Eschwege gives us the results of many years’ observations at Ouro Preto, showing that the thermometer never rose above 25° 5' (Cent.) nor fell below 12° 2' (Cent.) during the hours when the sun was meridional, and the mean would be 18° 8'. The yearly mean temperature of Rio de Janeiro is 22° 5' (Cent.), and thus 1° (Cent.) = 440 metres in the mountainous parts of Central Minas.

Similarly Dr. Lund found the mean annual temperature of Lagoa Santa, near the Rio das Velhas, 20° 4' = 850 metres above the Atlantic.

These figures prove that a great part of the Province enjoys a pleasant and healthy climate, well fitted for the plants of the temperate and the tropical regions. The hottest parts are the lowlands about the great rivers, and travellers never forget the burning suns which received them when, descending from the high lands of Ouro Preto, Serro, or Diamantina, they reach the borders of the R. de São Francisco.

The year is divided into two seasons.† The winter, or dry season, lasts from April till the end of October, and the summer, or rainy season, occupies the other half. The downfalls, often accompanied by violent electrical discharges, are very heavy. Not unfrequently in January and February, uninterrupted wet weather lasts whole weeks. At other times rain is not continuous.

During the wet season the temperature rises, and reaches its maximum in the Veranico (“little summer”), a short rainless, hot season, which may be compared with the dog-days in Europe.‡ On the other hand, during winter severe frosts afflict the highland villages. In the Serra da Mantiqueira M. Gerber found pieces of ice 4 millimetres in thickness.§

Sufficient study has not yet been given to variation || and dip.

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* South of Ouro Preto, and between S. lat. 22° and 23°, and in the higher parts of the Mantiqueira Range, Franklin Massena found the maximum temperature of summer + 21° (C.), of winter + 13°, and the general minimum + 6° (C.).
† The “Indian” aborigines also divided the year into two seasons, viz., Ceará-ara, sun-season, the “dries” of Tropical Afric and Almuna-arara, rain-season, the “rays.”
‡ This fortnight of rainless heat usually occurs in Minas Geraes and São Paulo about the middle of January.
§ On the Itataiaosí snow falls and lies for ten to fifteen days.
|| M. Lisias, at Sabará, in March, 1862, found the variation 1° 46' 31" west; at Pirapora (August 8th, 1862) 0° 0' 11" east. At the confluence of the Paraopeba (September 19th, 1862), 0° 56' 25".
At Ouro Preto early in 1861, the needle pointed 2º 35' w. Some forty years ago Von Eschwege found the inclination at Rio de Janeiro 28º 44' 30'' s., with 20 oscillations per minute, and at Ouro Preto 29º 30' s., with 20½ oscillations per minute.

IV.—Geology and Mineralogy.

The Province of Minas contains two geological regions; one primitive (underlying)* and plutonic, the other transitional (primary, aqueous, or fossiliferous) extending over areas of vast dimensions.† The dividing line runs parallel with, and 50 to 70 leagues distant from, the coast. Between the systems are metamorphic formations resulting from their rival and reciprocal action. This zone of modification is 15 to 30 leagues broad; but it is everywhere broken and penetrated by its neighbours, and its superficial aspect is extraordinarily dilacerated. These metamorphic formations are interesting; they are the principal deposits of all the minerals, especially of the gold and precious stones, which lay the foundation of prosperity in the province.

I.—Primitive or Azoic (Underlying) Formations.

2. Quartzite (quartz-rock) and amphibolite (crystalline hornblende, the latter passing into syenite and diorite (syenitic greenstone of the trap family), but not in large quantities.

In different places the gneiss shows insertions of crystalline calcareous matter (marble), with a coarse granular texture. The quartzite or quartzrock is easily decomposed, and is often found mixed with mica, even approximating to micaceous schist. The primitives are also cut by veins of feldspath, rock-crystal, mica, tourmaline or black schist, amphibol (hornblende), apatite (phosphate of lime and fluoride of calcium), and asbestos;‡ in places garnets (granados) are abundant. The principal metals of this formation are gold, iron, and titanium (rutile and spheric).

II.—Metamorphic Formations.

1. Stratified gneiss, alternating with micaceous schist, and both much subject to decomposition.
2. Quartzite in smaller quantities.
3. Argillaceous talcose schist, or stea-schist with veins of the peculiar conglomerate called itacolumite (laminated talcose quartz), and siderocryste (crystallized iron?),§ the three preponderating over the first.

The itacolumite may be described as the skeleton of the mountains and its vast ramifications through the argillaceous schist often culminate in the highest peaks like the Serra do Itacolomi, which gave a name to the

* The primitive, of the days of Lehmann.
† In making this division, M. Gerber wholly neglects the volcanic formations, of which the Mantiqueira offers notable instances.
‡ At São João d'El-Rei, Dr. Lee showed me a specimen of Amianthus from the neighbourhood.
§ Possibly sideroschistite, silicate of iron of fine black velvety colour.
rock, and the Serras da Boa Morte, do Caraça, de Grão Mogol, da Mata da Corda, &c. All these formations contain marbles, finer or coarser. The following are the principal metals and minerals which exist in this matrix (corpo de formação), which still promise wealth and importance to the province.

Gold.—Its principal matrix is the siderocrister,* the hydrate of peroxide of iron (popularly called "Gângas") arsenical iron pyrites, and veins of quartz and of rich crystal. The precious metal is also found in the detritus of these minerals, and consequently in the beds of all the streams which descend from mountains containing large deposits. Palladium, platina, and tellurium accompany gold in various places, and it is often found combined with platina, hence the name white gold (ouro branco).

Iron.—There are several formations, but especially oligist or specular iron, which covers large tracts of land. Such, for instance, are the deposits in the municipalities to the west and north of Ouro Preto de Grão Mogol; in the municipalities of Plumbay and others.

Galena and Copper ores of various kinds are found in the municipalities of Indaiá, Pitangui, Santa Luzia, and Mairana; the lead is argentiferous. There are also deposits of manganese, bismuth, titanium, arsenic, mercury, cobalt, strotian, &c., but these have been little explored.

Steatite† and Slate exist in the municipalities of Ouro Preto and Mairana; asbestos in that of Pomba; kaolin and refractory clays in those of Mairana, Caçéhé, Ubá, and others.

Amongst the precious stones deserve mention, topazes and euclase (also found in Peru), in the municipality of Ouro Preto; chrysolites and agua marinhas (the blue-green beryl) in Minas Novas and Grão Mogui; amethysts and garnets in Mairana and Pomba, and especially diamonds. The virgin matrix of this stone is considered to be the itacolumite formation. Thence it has been washed by secondary revolutions into the beds of streams which flow from mountains of that sandstone; for instance, the Rivers Jequisintinhonha and Pardo, which rise in the Serras of Itambé and Grão Mogol, and the various streams pouring from the Mata da Corda to water the municipalities of Uberaba, Bagagem, and Patrocinio.

III.—Transitional Formations.

To this division, whose principal representative is the traumatic schist, belongs the greater part of the country to the north-west of Minas; the sparsely inhabited lands (sertão) about the São Francisco and the borders of the River das Velhas as far as the Lagoa Santa. The strata are almost wholly disposed on horizontal bases, and in many places they contain veins of limestone, spherical in shape, and horizontally stratified. These rise at times to a great elevation, and contain large caverns. Spix and Martius discovered near the city of Montes Claros, amongst others, one called the Lapa Grande (Big Cave), which was 200 palms high, and of considerable extent. In the vicinity of Lagoa Santa, Dr. Lund, and others have penetrated into more than a thousand.

These caverns have yielded up numerous remains of extinct animals, buried in a nitrous clay,‡ and infiltrated with ferruginous particles, which

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* Here the word means "Jacutinga," protoxide of iron with beds of manganese and sandy titanium; it is the common "Mineral de fer" in the province.
† Sometimes called Pedra Sáoão, our soapstone; it is pearl grey or green-blue, and tints remarkably well. The latter colour is also known as Pedra Azulada.
‡ Messrs. Lund, Claussen, and other palaeontologists have described as many as 115 species of mammifers alone, almost all distinct from the animals now inhabiting the country.
gave them great weight and a metallic lustre, imitating bronze. They are chiefly of the Pliocene period, and belong to the Edentata (Glyptodontes, giants, corresponding with the modern tatus or armadillos), the Megatheridae and the Mylodontes, huge terrestrial proguas, or sloths, while the terrible Smilodon populator (I.), which approximates to the Felidae, exceeds the lion in size, equals the bear in robustness, and has claws 9 inches long. Mixed with these, though rarely, are true anthropoliths, or fossilized human bones, and this gives to the discovery its highest value.

In some elevated spots of the Serra da Porteira,† Dr. Virgilius von Helmreichchen reports that he found, superimposed upon the traumatic schists, the Devonian or Old Red Sandstone (Velho gres vermelho). It does not, however, appear that the carboniferous system which should immediately follow above the latter has been discovered.‡

IV.—Mineral Fountains.

Of these some are thermal, as the Sulphur Springs of Caldas, and the "Aguas Virtuosas" (Beneficent Springs) of Campanha and Lambay, which are also gaseous; the fountain of Cachambú in the municipality of Baipendy; the "Aguas Santa" (Holy Water) of the Serra of S. José d’El-Rei, and various chalybeate fountains in many parts of the province, as the thermal waters of the city of Itabira.

The conclusion drawn by geologists from the exploration of Minas is, that the Brazilis generally, and this province especially, has the honour of being the most ancient continent of our planet.§ It existed when the rest of the world was either submerged by the ocean, or arose from the surface of the sea in insignificant peaks and islands.

M. Elie de Beaumont has shown that the age of the several continents, that is to say, the period of their emergence, preceded in the most limifrome formations with horizontal beds, and succeeded in those whose strata were broken and inclined by secular elevation. Here the transitional deposits are horizontally stratified, and show no superimposed secondary or tertiaries—a phenomenon unknown to any part of the so-called Old World.¶

V.—Flora.

The province shows three distinct zones of vegetation, viz.:

1. The wooded zone (zona do mato).
2. The prairies (do campo).
3. The Alpine zone.

The great Espinhaço chine separates the wooded region of 6000 square leagues to the south and east from the compass to

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* I need hardly say that the fossil man has not yet been generally acknowledged.
† At the Porteira I found the sandstone much younger than the New Red, which in the Brazil mostly overlies the true carboniferous deposits.
‡ The South American coal-field does not yet appear in our popular books; the South African shares its fate. In Minas Gerais I saw nothing but asphalté, cannel coal and quaternary lignite.
§ The continent between the Rio Plata and the Straits of Magellan is a modern upheaval of an ancient floor, 1200 to 1400 miles in length, by nearly 400 miles in breadth.
¶ Another conclusion to this effect will be found in the article treating of the comparative anthropology of the primitive inhabitants.
the north. The latter, with the Alpine region, which is 1100 metres above sea-level, cover an area of 14,000 square leagues.

The first is most luxuriant in the riverine low lands, where humidity of soil and atmosphere are excessive. As usual in the Brazilian jungles the trunks are tall and thin, whilst the foliage is confined to the summit, and is not thickly-spreading.

An astonishing variety of trees and plants composes the Brazilian "bush." The largest trees are all dicotyledons belonging to the families Urticaceae, Euphorbiaceae, Lauriaceae, Leguminosae, and Myrtaceae; the latter two, combined with the palms, compose the undergrowth. An infinity of Lianas (Sipós) and climbing-plants, belonging chiefly to the Bignoniaceae, Leguminosae, and Aroideae, pass like cordage from tree to tree. Many families of parasites and air-plants, especially Aroids, Convulvulaceae, Bromeliacis, and Orchids, some of them with magnificent flower-bunches, spring from the trunks and boughs. The ground is veiled with Passiflorae, Lichens, Aspalae, Gramineae, and Liliaceae, which are frequently 30 palms high.

The principal building timbers of this zone are:—

Ipé (Tabemba speciosa, Mart., or Bignonia longiflora).
Braúna or Guaraúna (Melanoxylo4n Braúna).
Jacarandá (rose-woods), of various kinds (J. Pecora, J. subhombec, J. ocyphylla, Mart.).
Canella, black and brown (Metandra, Mart.).
Sapucai (Lecythis Ollaria, St. Hil., and L. grandiflora, Mart.).
Peroba or Paroba.
Cedro (Cedrela Brasiliensis, St. Hil.).
Louro.
Massaranjula.
Sassafras (Laurus Sassafras); and others.

The heads of the Palm family are:—

Macáuba (Acrocomia sclerochepa, Mart.).
Licney (Ceros capitata).
Brejauha (Astrocaryum Apri).
Tucum (Astrocaryum Tucum, Mart.).
Palmite (Euterpe oleracea).
Indaiá (Attalea compta, Mart.).

Other characteristic forms of the forest zone are:—

Samambaia commune (Pteris candata, the common fern).
Samambaia gigantea (Polypodium, the tree or arborescent fern).
Imbaúna or Úmbaúna (Cecropia palmata and peltata, Mart.).
Taquara (Bambusa Tequara, Mart., the Brazilian bamboo), and Capim Gordua.

Compared with this forest growth that of the Campos is stunted and mesquin. The soil is covered with different Gramineous plants, that seldom exceed 4 palms in height. They are principally Echinoidea sebra var. ciliata, St. Hil., mixed with Panicum campestre, Mart., some Apocynaceae, Malvaceae, and others.

Trees are confined to the beds of streams, and they form mattos or islets
called "Capões":* they are composed of stunted forms called "Catingas," and "Carrascos," according to the height. The prairie with scattered shrubs and stunted trees is called Campo Serrado (cerrado) to distinguish it from the grassy plain (campo rujo). The characteristic trees of the Campo are—

- Pinheiro (Araucaria brasiliana).
- Palmito do Campo (Cocos flexuosa).
- Buriti (Mauritia vinosa, St. Hil.).
- Ficus and Gamelleiras (Ficus doliora, Mart.).
- Imbãuba (Cecropia).
- Solanea (especially the S. Lycoecarpum of St. Hilaire, which produces the fruta do tobo, a thorny plant, 8 feet high).
- Sensitives (especially Mimosa dumetorum, St. Hil.)
- Barrigudo (Chorisia ventricosa, Mart.)

And sundry hard timbers for building, e.g.—

- Aroeira (Schinus terebinthifolius).
- Jacarandá do Campo.
- Camarà (Lantana Camarà, Mart.).
- Candeia (Lychnophora, Mart.), chandelier plant.
- Balsamo (Myroxylon, Mart., and Momordica balsamina).

There are also many members of the families Fourcroya and Agave (locally called "Pita"), sundry pineapples, especially the Ananaz do Campo (Brómelia bracteata), and sundry species of Cassia, Zephyria, Malvaeæ, and Alecrim (Lantana microphylla, Mart.).

The third, or Alpine zone of the Brazil, exceeding 1000 metres, resembles the Campos, but it is more indigent in vegetation. The small hill-growths and the second growths of wood (cau-tingas and capecoeiras) are almost entirely absent. A few stunted Euphorbiaceæ, Ilicinææ, and Verbenaceæ flourish, with ilichens. The most characteristic plants of this region are the Liliaceæ, Barbacenia, Vellozias, and especially a kind of Pandanus, or screw-pine, locally called Canella de Ema (estrach's shank).

The cultivation† is chiefly represented by maize, rice, beans (Inamanius deraus, Mart., vulg. feijão); sweet potatoes (Batatas) of many sorts, the Inhame (Yam, Arum esculentum of St.-Hil.), Mandioca (Manioc, Jatropha Manihot, Linn.), coffee, tobacco, sugar-cane, cotton (G. vitifolium), arrowroot (Araruta Maranta Indica), indigo, and a variety of Leguminosæ.

The fruits are represented by the orange (Citrus Aurantium and C. efferata), the lime (Citrus Limonum and C. medica), the banana‡ (Musa sapientum and M. paradisiaca), the papaw (Carica Papaya, vulg. Mameiro), the peach, the Jaboticabeira (Eugenia caulis flor), the Pitangueira (Eugenia uniflora or Pitanga), the guava, the mango, the pineapple, and the Palma-Christi (Ricinus communis, vulg. Mamoma).§

* Capão in the singular means an island, and the comparison suggests itself to every eye. Catingas means a fetor, especially of a negro; it should be written Cau-tingas, meaning "white leaf"; the small deciduous growth is so called because the virgin forest looks much darker. "Carrasco" is a low bush, a dumetum 3 to 4 feet high, growing on elevated tracts. These words are well explained in Gardener's Travels.

† The older writers, like Henderson, assert, as regards the phytoology of the province, that the soil produces well during the first year, little in the second, and almost nothing in the third. Evidently it requires manure.

‡ The savages used to bury the unripe banana in the sand, and then expose it to the sun; the effect was a pleasant fermentation. The Peruvians distill from it an unwholesome and unsavoury rum.

§ Amongst other articles we may mention copaiva and other balsams, Peru, the momordica, &c., ipecacuanha, jatap, vanilla, the urucu and other dyes, many kinds
VI.—Fauna.

The list of animals is not less extensive than that of plants. In the class of insects and articulata, a magnificent entomological collection might be made, embracing all between the beautiful atlas, poising itself in the forest shade, and the scorpion lurking in the wall; between the pernicious saúva (or saúba ant) to the valuable bee and the silkworm.

Amongst the vertebrata we may find space to mention the——

Ounce (Felis onca, Linn.)
Suquarana (F. concolor, Linn.).
Guará (Canis campestris, Neuw.).
Brazilian fox (Canis Azarae, Neuw.).
Quati (Nasua solitaria).
Sloth (Bradypus, Linn.).
Tatú (Dasyus, Linn.), the armadillo.
Anteater (Myrmecophaga, vulg. Tamanduá).
Paca (Cavia Paca, Linn.).
Anta or Tapir (T. Americanus, Linn.).
Maritacu (Mephitis foza, Linn.), the Brazilian skunk.
Capivára (Hydrochoerus Copibara).

Amongst the reptiles we may note:—

Jacaí (the Cayman, C. selerops).
Giboya.
Sueurjú (Boa Anaconda), boa constrictor.
Rattlesnake (Crotalus horridus, vulg. Cascarel).
Surucucú (Crotalus mutus).
Jararaca (Trigonocephalus Jararaca).
And the blacksmith frog (Liija palmata, vulg. Ferreiro) is very common.

The principal fishes are:—

Piranhas (gen. Serra Salmo), a fish 1 to 2 feet long.
Piabanhas.
Sureibia (Pimelodus Tigrinus).
Dourados.
Trahiras, and many others.

Amongst the multitude of birds we can only name, the Emu (Struthio or Rhea Americana), Siri-emma (Dicholophus cristatus, Engsatus), a serpent-eating bird; Taburú (Mysteria Americana), somewhat resembling the "ad-jutant-bird" of India; Spoonbill (Platette Aynaya, vulg. Colhereira); Parrots and Macaws (Arara); Toucan (Ramphastus, vulg. Tucano, from its cry); Heron (Ardia, vulg. Airio); Vulture (Cathartes fexens, vulg. Urubú); Serracura (Galina Cujemensis), delicious eating; Codorna, the common Brazilian "partridge" (Tinamus brevipes, Pohl); Capoeira (Perdix dentata); Saba (Turdus), the local nightingale; humming-birds or Colibri (Trochilus, vulg. Beijaflor).

of fibres, especially of the wild bromeliais, the hibiscus and the palm, wax-trees of various kinds, quinines of many species, mate or Paraguay tea, Guarama (Paulinia sorbilis), the Brazilian copal-tree (Tutobé), and many other gums, especially the Amyris.

* Geocoma cephalotes. Mr. Bates has published an illustration of this destructive animal ("Naturalist on the River Amazon," title-page, vol. i.).
VII.—Commerce and Lines of Communication.*

Commerce in Minas has hitherto been little developed, on account of the depression of the people and the expense of transport. As in most of the Brazilian interiors, the roads—that test of civilization—are painfully neglected, and the best are fit only for mules. The first step towards improvement will be the Pedro Segundo Railway, a main branch with feeding branches adapted to wheeled vehicles: communication, once thrown open, the active and energetic people will wonder how they and their forefathers ever existed without it. At present, with the exception of the seven leagues of the “União e Indústria” road, there is none that can be passed over except by a litter, or by the rude and heavy ox-carts, which hardly ever cover 10 miles in the 24 hours. The expense of transport limits exportation to the Southern Municipalities, where there are lines radiating from the Capital. The central regions cannot send out their produce, and of late years trade with S. Paulo, Goyaz, and Bahia, has greatly fallen off. The internal commerce is limited to the transporting of alimentitious substances for short distances: the import is represented by woven stuffs, spirituous drinks, native and European produce of different kinds. The imports have increased so greatly that they now nearly balance the exports.

The present communications may now be examined.

I. Communications with the D. Pedro Segundo Railway.

This railway, in 1861, was opened between the Capital and Belem, a distance of 10 leagues (40 miles). In 1867 it was progressed as far as the station of Entre-Rios, on the Parahyba River. The following tables show its progress. In 1861 there were—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>279,380 travellers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75,099 arrobas of travellers’ luggage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,696,255 various merchandise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>408,330 cubic palms of material, &amp;c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>326,313 long palms of timber, &amp;c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

with a total revenue of $120,588,984 (= 112,000).†

The line is expected to divide at the Barra do Pirahy into two branches. The western runs up the Valley of the Parahyba River as far as the Porto da Cachoeira (the Great Rapid), a little below Lorena, in the Province of S. Paulo. From the terminus boat-navigation can easily be extended into the heart of the S. Paulo province, which will soon see its north-eastern corner commercially attached to Rio de Janeiro.

The eastern branch will run down the Southern Parahyba River, as far as the Porto Novo da Conha. This line subtending the frontiers of Rio de

* As yet the province has no railway, and the transport is effected by a few carts and some 20,000 to 30,000 pack-mules, each carrying six to eight arrobas.
† The following is a synopsis of the working till June, 1866.

D. Pedro II. RAILWAY.—The passenger traffic from April, 1858, to June, 1866, was as follows:—
Janêiro and Minas, will be especially useful to the latter, if properly supplied with feeders. It will further be referred to in the following article.

From the western branch it is proposed to connect the Capital with the Valleys of the Rio Grande and the Sapucahy. The Rio Grande line will fork at a point between the Barra do Pirahy and the village dos Remedios; it will traverse the Valley of the Rio Preto and the Great Mantiqueira Range, and follow down the waters of the Rio Grande till they become navigable. This line may also be connected with the S. Francisco River by two branches, one passing S. João d'El-Rei till it reaches the basin of the Pará influent; the other crossing the plateau of Piumby to the east of the Serra da Camastra, where it strikes the head-waters of the chief stream.

The connection with the Sapucahy River, which is navigable from the Barra do Santo Antonio to the Cachoeira a little above its mouth, will be effected at a suitable point between Regende and the Cachoeira or Rapids of the Parahyba.

II. The "União e Indústria" Road.

This road was undertaken by a company with a capital of 180,000L. The

| 1st half-year of 1858 | 29,841 |
| 2nd | 1858 | 83,271 |
| 1st | 1859 | 79,574 |
| 2nd | 1859 | 109,322 1/2 |
| 1st | 1860 | 112,282 |
| 2nd | 1860 | 123,480 |
| 1st | 1861 | 125,883 |
| 2nd | 1861 | 153,497 1/2 |
| 1st | 1862 | 150,731 |
| 2nd | 1862 | 109,504 |
| 1st | 1863 | 141,414 |
| 2nd | 1863 | 163,442 |
| 1st | 1864 | 171,973 |
| 2nd | 1864 | 181,723 |
| 1st | 1865 | 179,830 |
| 2nd | 1865 | 192,660 1/2 |
| 1st | 1866 | 200,452 |

Total Number | 2,350,910 1/2

The cost of working to revenue, and relative percentage of the working expenses to the whole traffic receipts were as follows:

| 1859 | 606,370 493 | 720,900 543 | 84.18 |
| 1860 | 611,402 672 | 920,765 784 | 66.40 |
| 1861 | 688,506 153 | 1,973,781 950 | 64.12 |
| 1862 | 800,938 211 | 964,996 982 | 82.99 |
| 1863 | 819,421 671 | 969,621 542 | 87.60 |
| 1864 | 904,109 300 | 1,211,615 205 | 79.57 |
| 1865 | 1,088,183 594 | 1,756,148 520 | 61.96 |
| 1866 | 834,057 521 | 1,848,783 351 | 45.11 |

Revenue of 1866:

| Passages | 481,274 312 |
| Freights | 371,079 793 |
| Telegraph | 4,392 960 |
| Warehouse | 1,002 160 |
| Finas | 427 870 |

Nett revenue of 1866: 1,610,231 383.

Length of line, including the Macacos branch, 174.8 kilometres.
section between Petropolis and the city of Parahybu, the ancient Juiz de Fôra, was opened June 24, 1861. Of this there are 750 leagues (224 miles) in the Province of Minas, beginning from the receivership of the Parahybu River, ending at the city of Parahybu (the ancient Juiz de Fôra). It is at present the principal artery flowing to the capital. This is doubtless the best road now existing in the Brazil; though the country is broken, the slopes do not exceed 3 feet per hundred, and transport is effected by four-wheeled cars, carrying on an average 200 arrobas. For passengers there are stage coaches of English build; the fare is 1$000 (= 2s.) per league, and 0$050 (= 14d.) per arroba, including the barrier taxes (pikes, &c.). They run the distance in nine hours, at the rate of 21 leagues per hour.

From this Mina branch it is intended that many feeding lines shall be pushed into the interior. The principal are:

(a.) Between the Forno de Cal station and the Municipalities of Mar de Hespanha and Leopoldina, rich in coffee.

(b.) From the Juiz de Fôra station, passing through the Municipalities of Mar de Hespanha and Pomba, crossing the Serra da Caramona and reaching the Rio Doce.

(c.) A northern prolongation of the road through the city of Barbacena to the Valleys of the Rivers das Mortes, Paranopêa, and das Velhas. The old road which still unmutated connected Parahybu and Barbacena, was repaired in 1865, and the last mile or so, near Barbacena, passes over a new line of macadamized highway.

At present (1867) the D. Pedro Segundo Railway is "running into" this line. Its future, therefore, is still doubtful.

In the forty-five months between April 1, 1858, and June 24, 1861, the traffic and passengers from Petropolis to Pedro do Rio, and the total receipts on the road between Petropolis and Juiz da Fôra till the end of 1861 stood as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Merchandise in Arrobas. (Export, Import)</th>
<th>Passengers (Coming, Going)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From 1st April to 31st Dec. 1858</td>
<td>509,878</td>
<td>236,669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 1st Jan. to 31st Dec. 1859</td>
<td>1,100,404</td>
<td>449,004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 1st Jan. to 31st Dec. 1860</td>
<td>1,370,416</td>
<td>464,282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 1st Jan. to 31st Dec. 1861</td>
<td>1,596,101</td>
<td>427,232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,576,800</td>
<td>1,577,187</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above-mentioned period of 45 months the profit on porterage of goods Rs. 2,211,803 $946
Expenses of such transit .. Rs. 1,686,916 $852

Balance .. Rs. 524,886 $394

The produce of passengers by diligence Rs. 239,727 $130
Expenses of such transit .. 178,234 $106

Balance .. Rs. 61,492 $724

* It is intended to consist of three great sections:
1. From Petropolis to Juiz de Fôra, 25 leagues, with 11 stations and 12 bridges, of which five are of wood and seven of iron.
III. Navigation of the Paráhyba River below S. Fidelis.

The south-east of the province, in 1863, was connected by steam navigation with the littoral by vessels running between the Port of S. Fidelis, the city of Carupas and S. João da Barra. It is also proposed to make a second from S. Fidelis, up the Valley of the Rio Pomba, which would connect with the branch lines to the east of the "União o Indústria" highway, and ultimately strike the Rio Doce. This must give considerable impulse to the municipalities of Leopoldina, Pombal, Ubá, and Muriaté.

The charges between S. Fidelis and Rio de Janeiro range between 1$240 and 0$400 per arroba.

IV. Communications with the Rivers Itabapuana and Itapemirim.

The Itabapuana is navigable from its mouth to the great Cachoeira (rapids), 10 leagues up the bed. As early as 1852, it was proposed to connect this point with the municipality of Marianna by means of a tramway with wooden rails. The Itapemirim gives free passage from the village of Cachoeira to the mouth. Such a line of communication, by means of the riverine valleys would greatly benefit the municipalities of Marianna and Ponte Nova, and passing through a rich country, would expeditiously open up the virgin forests of Manhuassú and Carangola. The project was revived in 1863.

V. Communication by the Rio Doce Line.*

This stream, which traverses the most magnificent forests that still remain in the province, is unfortunately not navigable, except below the "Escadinhas" Rapid, in the province of Espírito Santo, a little above the Porto de Souza, and the navigable part is difficult and dangerous. As is the case with almost all Brazilian streams, the bed of the Rio Doce is encumbered with large

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2. From Juiz de Fora to Barbacena, 13 leagues, not metallized; there is no coach during the rainy season.

3. From Barbacena to Ouro Preto, the provincial capital, 22 leagues. Impassable for coaches throughout the year.

The Company receives, for carrying the mail-bags, 3,200l. per annum.

*About this stream is still found the finest scenery. The soil is excellent for rice in the lowlands; the uplands produce corn and sugar-cane, 3 inches in diameter, and here it flowers, whereas it does not in the Southern States of the American Union. The fruits are better than those of Rio de Janeiro, gold and diamonds are also found in the bed. The thermometer (F.) ranges from 65° to 90° in the shade.

Like the S. Francisco the Rio Doce has shifted to the north between its mouth and Linhares. The bar is bad, streams pass over it only at high water and about full moon. The mouth is about 3 miles broad and narrows to 1 mile opposite Linhares, a townlet of 200 to 300 souls, 30 miles from the embouchure. Here it is full of fish, especially the Trabina, the Taimba, and the sword-fish—the latter attaining a weight of 200 lbs. The depth of water is said to be 9 feet, which may be reduced to 5. At Guandu, 90 miles up, the stream breaks through the maritime range and forms great rapids.

A Southern citizen, Mr. Gunter, lately established a colony which cleared some 300 acres, chiefly on the Juparana Lake. This water, which is not laid down by Mr. Keith Johnston, is about 20 miles long by 1 to 3 broad. Dr. Johnson, who sounded about a fourth of it in diagonal lines, gave it an average depth of 33 feet. It has a Ponte de Ouro, showing where gold was once washed. The colonists, who were about 150 souls, suffered much from chills, fevers, and droughts; but even more from want of communication. According to my informant, Dr. Dunn, of Aí, many left because they could not get a line of road opened between Linhares and S. Matheus, a distance of some 60 miles.
sandbanks, expensive to remove. Above the Porto de Souza there are violent currents and many rapids; the people, however, ply canoes carrying 200 to 350 arrobas. From the Porto de Souza roads would pass through the virgin lands and rich riverine valleys of the Upper Rio Doce, Manhuassú, Cineté, Sassuhuy, and Santo Antonio, and would open up the municipalities north of Mariana, as those of Itabira, Conceição, and even of Serro do Diamantina.

The General Assembly of 1835–36 authorized an Anglo-Brazilian line to establish steamers on this stream. About August, 1833, a company was formed in London by Mr. John James Sturz, and charters were granted enabling it to monopolize the steam navigation. The first vessel was put upon it in 1841. Many difficulties, however, were found, and the project was dropped. The Indians here were never very dangerous, and as early as 1808 a tribunal was established at Ouro Preto, calling itself "Junta of the Conquest and Civilisation of the Indians and Navigation of the Rio Doce."

VI. Communications by the Valleys of the S. Matheos and Mucury Rivers.

The steamers of the Rio de Janeiro line have ascended the S. Matheos from the mouth to the city of that name. The continuation of its valley offers a good connecting line with the adjacent parts of Minas, that is, the waters of the Tambocury River. Nothing, however, was done but to open a path (picada) in the direction of Santa Clara. About ten years ago new lines were begun to connect the valley with that of the Mucury, a few leagues to the north of the S. Matheos.

The Mucury is navigable for the 30 leagues between its mouth and the Rapid of Santa Clara. The Mucury Company put on steamers and made a road of 27½ leagues from Santa Clara to the Valley of Todos os Santos, where it founded the important village of Philadelphia. This line, which carried off a considerable portion of the traffic of Minas Novas and Grão Mogol, was macadamized only in certain parts; its slopes never exceed five per cent., and four-wheeled carts travel over it. A provincial road, 14 leagues long, was also opened from Philadelphia to the Alto dos Bois; if improved and prolonged with feeders to the waters of the Jequitinhonha, it would be the main commercial artery for the north of Minas.

VII. Communication by the Riverine Valleys of the Jequitinhonha and the Rio Pardo.

The former stream is navigable from parallel of Mendanha to its mouth.* There is, however, an interruption of 19 leagues between the Isle das Panchas and the Cachoeirinha, 12 leagues above Belmonte. This part of the stream is full of rapids, the greatest being the Salto Grande (Great Fall), which forms the frontier line of the Bahian province. There is also an extraordinary want of water during the dry season in this stream, which at other times is large and well-filled. The navigation of the lower river would develop the municipalities of Arassuahy and Rio Pardo; but the Mucury would be a preferable line for Minas Novas, Grão Mogol, Diamantina, and Montes Claros. The canoes on the upper channel can carry 55 alqueires of salt.

The Municipal Chamber declares that the Rio Pardo is navigable from its mouth to the Salto da Verruga, which can easily be removed. Thence to the town which took its name from the stream, a distance of 30 leagues, canoes only are used. It is asserted that a small outlay would open the river to regular navigation.

* I fear that this statement must be taken with many a grain.
VIII. Communication by the Valley of the North Rio de São Francisco and its affluents.

The German engineer, F. Halfeld, employed by the Imperial Government, proved that this fine stream can be navigated on a large scale from the Rapid of Pirapora, 5 leagues above the mouth of the Rio das Velhas, to the broken water of the Sobradinha in the Bahian province—a distance of 239 leagues. As 87 of these are in Minas Geraes, this fluvial highway is obviously the most important communication of the northern municipalities. A noble line of communication through the heart of Minas would be opened by connecting the termini of navigation with the Don Pedro Segundo Railway and the “União e Indústria” road at the head, and at the mouth with the Bahian and the Pernambucan Railways.* Here the great centre would be the town of Joa-zeiro, 18 leagues below the Sobradinho.

The craft at present on the S. Francisco may be described as—

1st. Canoes, about 100 by 5 palms.
2nd. Rafts or linked boats, of sizes.
3rd. Barques (barcas), from 60 to 150 palms long by 12 to 16 of beam, and drawing when loaded a maximum of 6 palms; some carry 1600 arrobas. The bed has many sandbanks (corvos), but they are easily removed, and they do not prevent regular navigation. The Councillor M. P. de S. Dantas, in 1885, President of the Bahian Province, ordered a steamer to be put together at Joa-zeiro, and launched upon the upper waters.

This grand artery of communication is supplied by many feeders, some fluvial, others land routes; the principal are:—

(a.) The Upper S. Francisco. There is canoe navigation from the parallel of Bambuhy, down stream. From the mouth of the Pará up the bed the river is almost too small for extended navigation, but this point will be settled by the minute surveys of the Imperial Government. The valley affords place for a road, 77 leagues long, from the Rapids of Pirapora upwards: it would pass near Piumby or Formiga, and thence strike the Rio Grande at some navigable point.

(b.) The Pará Valley. From the last-mentioned road a branch might accompany the Pará River, and passing through the city of Pitangui, connect with the road coming from S. João d’El-Rei. This stream is also ploughed by canoes from its confluence with the S. Francisco to the Bridge of “the Miranda,” three-quarters of a league from Pitangui. It remains to be seen if larger craft can be put upon it.

(c.) The Paroquêba Valley. Canoes ply on the river for 22 leagues above the mouth; larger vessels have been hindered by the Rapid do Choro, and it is not known whether they can be removed. If not, a branch road must be run upwards from the mouth of the Paroquêba, pass near the city of Bom Fim, and connect with the continuation of the “União e Indústria” road, north of the height “das Taipas.”

(d.) The Rio das Velhas. The navigability of this stream is a disputed point,† wanting serious study. It is known, however, that removing

* In writing upon the subject I have proposed a lateral tramway for the 70 leagues of rapids which begin near the Villa da Boa Vista, and which end at the Porto das Piranhas, the present head of steamboat navigation.
† This statement has aroused the wrath of the Riverines, who consider, justly enough, that M. Liaus, and after him Senhor Dumont, have proved the navigability of the stream. Nor should the author call a boat approaching 5 palms, nearly 3½ feet, a “little embarcation;” it would, if more flat-bottomed, carry 26,400 arrobas, or 400 tons, and in the United States 29 inches suffice for riverine navigation.
certain reefs and rocks would enable little embarcations not drawing 5 palms to ascend it as far as the parallel of Trabiras. In this part the mean velocity is 3½ palms, and the depth 7 palms. The discharge at Trabiras is 6000 cubic palms; above its confluence with the S. Francisco it is 743 palms broad, and discharges 9000 cubic palms. From the village of Trabiras upwards it will perhaps be necessary to run a road along the Rio das Velhas and across the "wasser-schied" to the Paraópeba, where it would connect with the continuation of the "União e Industria" road.

(e.) The Valley of the Jeguetahy. This stream, falling into the S. Francisco 4 leagues below the mouth of the Rio das Velhas, is 267 palms wide at the confluence, and discharges an average of 4800 cubic palms. When of usual depth, it may be navigated for 3 leagues; during rains, 28 leagues from the mouth.

(f.) The Valley of the Pamatã. This stream, the most important affluent of the S. Francisco, can be navigated by large canoes and boats to the Port of Burity, 64 leagues above its mouth. There is considerable intercourse, in spite of its many rapids and broken waters; and were the obstacles removed, navigation would become regular. Its breadth at the foot of Burity is 530 palms; it is 820 at 30 leagues from its mouth, and 1500 at the embouchure. The discharge is 60,000 cubic palms per second. According to the Municipal Chamber of Pamatã, it would be possible to drain into the Rio Escurso—the headwaters of this stream—all the supply of the S. Marcos River, which is hardly three-quarters of a league distant, and which runs on a higher level.

(g.) The Valley of the Urucuia. This stream can be navigated by barks and rafts to Campo Grande, 2550 leagues above its confluence with the S. Francisco and 10 leagues more by canoes. A little above the mouth it is 432 palms broad, and it discharges 15,600 cubic palms.

(h.) The Rio Pardo, a stream remarkable for obstructions caused by trees. At the confluence it is 188 palms broad, and the discharge is 5000 cubic palms.

(i.) The Rio Verde. This line, which divides Minas from Bahia, can be ascended by canoes for 30 leagues above its mouth, but its upper waters are extraordinarily shallow. In this useful part its breadth is 150 to 230 palms, and its discharge is 1200 cubic palms.

(j.) The Valley of the Carunhanha River. This stream forms, to the west of the S. Francisco, the division between Minas and Bahia. It is navigable for 2250 indirect (=16 direct) leagues above its debouchure. At the mouth it is 340 palms wide, and discharges 7400 cubic palms.

IX. Communication by the Valley of the Rio Grande.

Actual exploration has shown the Rio Grande to be navigable from the mouth of the Ribeirão Vermelho, 125 leagues distant from the town of Lavras, as far as the rapid called "da Bocaina," or about 30½ leagues; thence down stream there are too many rapids for free navigation.

This navigation, connected on one side by a road like the "Barra do Pirahy" and on the other with the valleys of the S. Francisco and, via the Rio das Velhas, with the Paranahyba, would greatly benefit the municipalities of Lavras, Oliveira, Formiga, Tres Pontas, Patrocinio, Bagagem, Piumby, Araxá, &c.

According to the Municipal Chamber of Itajubá, the River Sapucuhy, which is the main affluent of the Rio Grande in the Province of Minas, can be navi-
gated from the junction of the Santo Antonio to the Rapid "do Salto," a little above its mouth. This water line will be important when the rich Valley of the Sapucahy shall call for a road across the Serra da Mantiqueira to connect it with the port "da Cachoeira," the last station of the Dom Pedro Segundo Railway.

X. Connection with the Santos and Jundiahy Railway.

This line, opened in 1867, and likely to be prolonged, via Campinas, to Rio Claro, will greatly benefit the south-western municipalities of Minas, as those of Jaguary, Caldas (especially), Pouso Alegre, and their neighbours. For instance, the nearest point of the line is only 12 leagues from the receivership of Jaguary, and a road to the town of that name, and to the city of Pouso Alegre, would be easily made.

VIII.—Administrations and Institutions of the Province.

Provincial Administration.

And first of the Legislature.

The province now sends to the General Assembly of the Capital 20 temporary members, or deputies, and 10 life members (camara vitalicia) or senators.

The Provincial Assembly, which takes, by an Act added to the Imperial Constitution, the place of the old Councils-General, consisted of 36 members. The law, No. 842, of September 19th, 1855, changed the electoral system, by creating districts or circles: of these Minas had 20, each sending 2 members, and thus forming a chamber of 40. The decree, No. 2636, dated September 5th, 1860, reduced the districts from 20 to 7: each sends 6 members, except the 7th, which is represented by only 4: the total is, therefore, still 40. The Sessions take place at Ouro Preto, Capital of the Province.

The Deputies-General are elected by the same seven districts, which contain 54 cottages and 284 parishes; besides those lately created. The six first districts elect three, and the last two deputies.

The seven districts are:

1. Ouro Preto, containing 433 electors.
2. Sabará, containing 492 inhabitants.
4. S. João d'El-Rei, containing 448 inhabitants.
5. Campanha, containing 396 inhabitants.
6. Serra, containing 418 inhabitants.
7. Montes Claros, containing 381 inhabitants.

The primary elections of Deputies-General take place on the first Sunday in November of the year in which the Houses are dissolved; and thirty days afterwards is the election. When the post of Senator is vacant, the Provincial President appoints a day for taking votes, three names are sent up to his Majesty the Emperor, who chooses one of them for the rank. The Provincial Deputies are chosen biennially, at a time appointed by the President of the province.

As regards the executive power, the Provincial President, nominated by his Majesty the Emperor, is, as everywhere in Brazil, the delegate of the Central Executive power, in virtue of the additional Act and the Law of October 3rd,
1834. He carries out, after duly sanctioning, the laws framed by the Provin-
cial Assembly, and he watches the general interests of the public. He is
assisted by various bureaux (repartições), some under district chiefs, others
in the Presidential Secretariat, which is directed by the Secretary of Govern-
ment. The seat of the Central Administration is Ouro Preto, the capital.

There are six Vice-Presidents, also nominated by his Majesty the Emperor;
when the Presidentship is vacant, these officers succeed to it in consecutive
order.

Before the Declaration of Brazilian Independence, Minas was a captaincy,
administered by governors or captains-general. Between 1820 and 1824 there
was a Provisional Government.

As regards the judicial power. It is composed as usual in the Brazils, of
judges and jurymen (jurados). Each Comarca (Arrondissement) has a Juiz
de Direito (Juge de Droit):* in the terms (termos) which sometimes consist
of two municipalities, there is a Municipal Judge, whilst the districts (dis-
trictos) have their Juges de Paix (Juízes de Paiz). The latter are elected by
the people—whereas the magistrates are nominated by the executive power;
and their jurisdiction is limited to attempting reconciliation, without which
no action can be brought before the judges. In all the comarcas there is a
public prosecutor (Promotor publico), a "District Attorney." The sessions
of jury take place in the capitals of terms, and they are presided over by the
Juges de Droit of the respective comarcas or by their substitutes.

In causes of the second instance there is appeal to the High Court (Relação)
of Rio de Janeiro; and the decision of this body may be sent for review to
the Supreme Tribunal of Justice. The latter, however, has no power to
pronounce a decision—a peculiarity of which the people loudly complain—but
must send the case for cassation to another of the six high courts existing
in the empire.

The administrative jurisdiction appertains to the Provincial President, to
the Supreme Minister of Justice, and in last instance to the Council of State
(Conselho do Estado).

Municipal Chambers were also created for the better government, political
as well as economical, of the municipalities. Each city has nine, and each
town seven members (vercadores), aldermen; the president is the member
who has had the greatest number of votes. They are elected on September
7th, they enter upon their functions on January 7th of the following year,
and their term of office is four years.

These corporations are simply administrative, and are compelled to assist
the Central Administration of the Province; their deliberations are confined
to the internal economy of their municipalities; and they cannot interfere
with other chambers, or pay their expenses from the provincial treasury,
without the approval of the President. Their fines (posturas) must be ap-
proved of by the Provincial Assembly.

**Judiciary.**

For administrative and judiciary purposes, the Province is divided† into
20 Comarcas, 62 Municipalities, 482 Districts (juzados) peace.

Sometimes a certain number of districts is collected into a parish (parochia);
it is seldom, however, that this same parish contains districts of different
municipalities.

* This officer does all that is effected by our civil courts. In Brazil the jury is
confined to criminal causes.

† In 1714 the province had only sixteen cities and towns distributed amongst
four comarcas, viz. Vella River, Rio das Mortes, Sabará, and Serro do Frio.

In 1867 there were—22 comarcas, 62 municipalities, 499 districts of peace,
317 parishes (freguesias), and 6 independent curies (curados independentes).
**Police.**

This Province, like all others in the Brazil, is protected by a Chief of Police (Préfet de Police), nominated by the Emperor, and he is assisted by an Imperial Secretariat. Under this chief are Delegates in the municipalities. Sub-delegates in the Districts, and Inspectors in the **Quarteirões** = subdivisions of districts. There is a special police force, which will be described under the head of Military.

The Chambers also exercise public functions in their municipalities, by means of their officers (fiscas), and with the assistance of the police authority.

The following Table will show the crimes committed in the Province during the five years 1856—1860.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table specifying Crimes.</th>
<th>1856</th>
<th>1857</th>
<th>1858</th>
<th>1859</th>
<th>1860</th>
<th>Time limited to five years.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Crimes.</strong>—Resistance, removal or flight of prisoners, disobedience, prevarication, irregularity of conduct, falsity, perjury, coining, and destruction of public property</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private Crimes</strong> against life and limb, &amp;c. &amp;c.—Homicide, infanticide, wounding, threatening, forcing oneself into another man's house, violence, rape, calumnny, abuse, polygamy, thefts, bankruptcy, damage</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Police Crimes</strong> against property, religion, &amp;c. &amp;c.—Offences to religion and morals, mutiny, illegal meetings, vagrancy, making and using thieves' implements, undue use of the Press</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>385</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>637</td>
<td>615</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>511</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sanitary police is placed under a Commission of Public Health. This body has an Inspector-General, with delegates and vaccinators (comissários e vaccinadores) in different parts of the province.

**Finance.**

This administration is placed under two heads:

1. General, or connected with the Treasury of the empire; it is directed by an Inspector, and it has a collectorate in every municipality.

*In August 22nd, 1864, was organized the Board of Provincial Income (Mesa das Rendas Provinciais), and it at once entered upon its functions. The salaries were reduced to 38; 430$000, amongst 30 officials, a general average of 127l. per annum.*
2. Provincial, or of second rank; connected with the Boards of Inland Revenue; it is also directed by an inspector. Each municipality has a collectorate, subject to the same board, and the officers are almost always the same as those of the first rank.

Under this head must be enumerated the thirty-two receiverships which collect export dues and road taxes.

Military.*

The armed force of the Province is composed of the National Guard and three different corps of the Line and Police. The latter are exclusively employed in keeping order, on detachment duty, garrisoning cities, guarding prisons, escorting treasure, and similar work.

The National Guard, organized in conformity with the General Law, No. 602, of September 19th, 1850, is composed of—

3 Corps of Cavalry, in 1866, = 4 corps.
14 Squadrons of Cavalry = 18 squadrons.
1 Company called detached (avulsas) = 2 sections of battalions of infantry were added.
1 Company of Artillery = section of battalion.
90 Battalions of Infantry (active and reserve) = 95 battalions.
13 ditto ditto (reserve) = 27 battalions.
25 Sections of Infantry (reserve) = 27.
9 Companies detached (reserve) = 10.
3 Sections of Companies (reserve).†

These corps are distributed into 26 (in 1866 increased to 34) superior command, with the sole exception of 5 battalions, which are not thus subject. The effective total of officers and men is approximately 84,000 men.

The National Guard of Montes Claros district had not been organized in 1863.

Public Instruction.

There were some primary and a few secondary schools (and theological colleges at Caraça, Congonhas do Campo and Farinha Podre or Campo Bello, directed by the French Congregation of Missions), before 1835. On March 28th of that year, the Law (lei) No. 13, and its modification (regulamento);† No. 3; of April 22nd, 1835, created four classes (aulas) for commercial arithmetic, plane geometry, linear drawing, and land surveying; it also established a Normal School for educating teachers. Later alterations of the same Law instituted other classes of intermediate study, salaried chairs of primary and secondary instruction, and subsidized various new-established private colleges. Thus the expenditure of this branch promptly arose to 320 contos (millions) of reis (= 22,000£)

In virtue of the Regulamento No. 44, of April 21st, 1859, the Province was divided into twenty literary circles or districts; forty-four agencies; and three delegacies, at Ouro Preto, S. João d'El-Rei, and Diamantina.

To each agency was appointed a "Fiscal," and for each school a visitor (visitador) with their respective subordinates (suplentes); and all were placed under the "General Agency of Public Instruction." Here were then 200 chairs of primary instruction (1st degree), of which 181 had teachers; forty-five of the second degree; and forty-four girls' schools, all provided with

* When I visited Ouro Preto, in August, 1867, it had no regulars (força da primeira linha), except a few invalids attached to the National Guard.
† Besides these, in 1866, there were 4 battalions for active service, 1 squadron of cavalry, and 1 section of battalion of reserve.
‡ The "lei" is the law as made by the Assembly; the "regulamento" is the modification by the Executive.
instructors. The intermediary studies consisted of thirteen chairs of Latin and Poetry; seventeen of Latin and French; and a few of French, Geography, History, Arithmetic, and Geometry at Sabará, Barbacena, Ayuruoca, Para-
hybuna, Caldas, and one of dogmatic theology in the Episcopal Seminary of Marianna. There were also day-schools (externatos) at S. J. d’El-Rei and Diamantina, and a Lyceum* at Ouro Preto, with the usual chairs.

The Provincial Law, No. 1064, of October 4th, 1860, and its modification No. 49, of January 31st, 1861, simplified the public and private educational systems, by suppressing the especial directory of instruction.† This duty is now placed directly under Governmental superintendence, in the hands of municipal and parochial inspectors, the latter subordinate to the former. In the most populous cities and towns were also created local commissions, each of two members, who were required to fiscalise the method of instruction, to attend at examinations, and so forth. The chairs were reserved for passed teachers, or opened for competitive examination. At the same time the private establishments were re-organized and subjected to the same authoritative inspection. The Lyceum of Ouro Preto was suppressed, preserving, however, the chairs of Latin, Elementary Mathematics, Geography, History, French, English, Philosophy, Medical Botany and Chemistry, and, lastly, Pharmacy.

* The President Councillor Crispiniano proposed, in 1863, to institute, or rather to restore, at Ouro Preto a Lyceum whose professors might compose a “Council of Education.”

† It also abolished the normal schools for the preparation of teachers, and it is said they did much injury.

The excellent report of a commission organized by the President Desembargador Pedro d’Alcantara Cerqueira Leite (1865), and composed of José Cesário de Faria Alvim, Rodrigo José Ferreiro Britas, and Ovidio João Paulo de Andrade. Education in Minas Gerais had fallen off, and the province no longer provided as before statists and senators. The two main causes of evil were the small salaries of the schoolmasters and the increased number of the schools.

In 1854 a population of 1,042,000 souls had 247 primary schools for both sexes, at an expense of 87,536$003. The matriculations were 19,812, and attendance 12,637. Each school then represented 4218 souls 80 pupils (often nominal), and 51 bonâ fide. In 1859 there was a boys’ school in every freguesia, and a girls’ school in every city and town, with a legal minimum of 24 pupils. The total was then 16,017. In 1861, when primary schools were created for the districts, the numbers fell off to 11,926. The secondary schools, in 1860, had 889 pupils; in 1861 they had 730; in 1862 they had 716. In 1864-5 a population of 1,620,190 souls had only 295 schools, expending 198$043$551; matriculations, 14,866; attendance, 5171, or 1 school for 5492 souls, who gave 50 nominal pupils, and 17 bonâ fide.

The Commission proposed to restore the status of 1859, and to establish 352 schools, each fed by 2800 souls (the ratio in France being 1000, and in Holland 2000). As these could supply 284 pupils, they proposed a legal minimum of 36. They advocated a teachers’ college at the capital, publishing a compendium of instruction, and certain measures for salaried direction and inspection, as well as administration. They would divide teachers, male and female, into three ranks, viz.:—

1. Interim (temporary), dismissable by Government.
2. Effective, after three years’ probation.
3. Vitalicio (for life), after ten years’ work.

The age of the male instructors to be between 21 and 60, of women between 18 and 50.

Unfortunately they would compel them to be Brazilians, a decided mistake, and they would abolish Latin study, of which a medicum is much required for the civilization of a new country.
At present there are in the Province 367 chairs of primary instruction,* including fifty-nine for girls, and fifty-three of Sunday (in 1866 reduced to thirty-four); 283 of the first, and forty of the second have teachers, and ninety-seven are without instructors. In 1861 there were 10,668 male and 2250 female, in the first, and in the second 730 matriculatus. Out of this total of 13,640 pupils, only about 7693 attended the schools.

Besides these there are eighteen (in 1866 increased to nineteen) private colleges for boys, at S. Gonçalo da Campanha (Daile); S. João d'El-Rei (Duval); Parahybyuna (Roussim); Ayuruocano; Serra do Caraça; Uberabense; Campo Bello; Mar de Hespãhna; S. Sebastião de Correntes; Congonhas do Campo; Campanhense and the Episcopal Seminary of the Marianna. The other six are of minor importance. For girls there are eight (increased to thirteen in 1866), viz. four in S. João d'El-Rei; one in Passos; one in Tamanduá; the College of the Sisters of Mercy in Marianna, and the Nunnery and Orphanage (Recolhimento) of Macaúbas in the municipality of Caêthê.

The Catachisis of the Indigenes, once so powerful, in now unimportant,† and their civilization in these days progresses chiefly by the opening of roads, and the commercial and industrius movements which penetrate into their forests. In certain eastern and northern parts of the Province, influential citizens are appointed by Government as Directors of Indians, and they are all subordinate to a Director-General residing at the capital.

**Public Works.**

These were formerly under an especial bureau, directed by an Inspector-General. In 1859, it was abolished by the Provincial Assembly, and the duties were placed directly under the President and his engineers.‡

The public works are works of viation, as roads, bridges, buildings, and other works of public utility, as the canalisation and clearing of rivers, the piping of waters, paving of streets, charge of cemeteries, and so forth. As usual in Brazil, the roads are divided into general, provincial, and municipal, according as they concern the Empire, the province, or a subdivision of it. The most notable edifices for which public money is annually voted are the mother churches (matrizes), the Presidential Palace, the palace of the Provincial Assembly; the buildings where the different bureaux work; the prisons and houses of the Municipal Chambers, the theatre, the market, the slaughter-house of the Capital, the barracks, and the ancient gold intendencies, which are now used for other purposes.

The measurement and partition of common lands (terras devolutas) is in charge of the Second Section of the Presidential Secretariat; the especial bureau having been suppressed in 1860. Commissary Judges have been appointed to thirteen municipalities of the province.

The administration of the Diamantian lands is in the hands of an Inspector-General and his delegates. There are six inspectorships created by the Decree No. 665, of September 6, 1852. These are Diamantina, Serro, Conceição, Grão Mogol, Patrocínio, and Uberaba. Each district is divided into lots, which are let out.

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* In 1865 the number increased to 385; in 1866 it fell off to 332, of which 312 were open.
† In 1866 there were twelve partial directories, and the chief officers had, as in the United States, military rank. Of late a few missionaries have been sent, but as a rule they would have been better away.
‡ This worked badly, as evidently it would. An over-taxed President could do little to forward measures of communication, by far the most important for the welfare of the province. At length, on January 2nd, 1866, a "Directory of Public Works" was created.
the Province of Minas Geraes.

Provincial Institutions.

All the municipalities have their prisons, but most of them are mere private houses, hired or bought to serve at once as municipal chamber and jail; hence these places are often unsafe and unfit for their purpose. In all respects, that of the Capital is the best, the oldest and the most solid edifice in the province, which is also about to be improved; it can contain 300 prisoners. The Law, No. 189, of April 6, 1840, authorised the construction of proper places of confinement in the central points of the Comarcas, a measure which must be deferred until pecuniary resources are found.

At Ouro Preto and S. Joao d’El-Rei there are public libraries, which, though lately founded, contain good Portuguese and French works. The former now contains 2000, and the latter nearly 5000 volumes.

Besides private printing-offices in various parts of the province, the Capital has a "Provincial Typography," which publishes the provincial laws, presidential reports, formularies, accounts of the public bureaux, and an official journal, the "Minas Geraes," which appears three times a week.

There are theatres at Ouro Preto, S. Joao d’El-Rei, Sabarã, Diamantina, Marianna, Congonhas, and other places. That of Ouro Preto was the oldest, and built with the worst taste; it was in a wretched state when the Dramatic Society of the Capital, in 1861, resolved to restore it, preserving only the still solid walls. This work was assisted by the Provincial Treasury, and the new theatre was inaugurated August 1, 1862.

Charitable Establishments.

Of these the most notable are:

The Hospital of Ouro Preto, which owes its origin to the Governor Gomes Freire de Andrade, Count of Bobadella. Its statutes, which are still in force, were taken from those of the Hospital de S. José de Lisboa. The establishment now possesses funds to the extent of 36:500$000 (=3650L) in shares (apólices) of the public debt, besides its house and grounds. It also takes charge of the infirmaries belonging to the corps of police and to the prison, thus annually treating from forty to sixty patients. Its yearly expenditure is nearly 20:000$000 (=2000L), which is covered by the interest of its funds, by casual income, and by the sums which the Provincial Treasury supplies for treating policemen and prisoners.

The Hospital of Sabarã was founded by the deceased Antonio de Abreu Guimarãens. It was opened on May 31, of 1812, and its charter was approved on October 11, 1832. Since 1851 this establishment has been aided by the Treasury; its expenditure, however, is about 7:000$000 (=700L), and it is obliged to depend upon private subscriptions, which are liberal. In 1858 the building was enlarged.

The Hospital of Campanha was established by the Law, No. 30, of February 22, 1836, and inaugurated June 8, 1851. Between 1860-1861 it received 127 patients, with an income of 10:042$000 (=1000L), and an outlay of 9:704$000 (=970L).

The Hospital of S. Joao de Dois in Santa Luzia was founded in 1840 by the Baron of Santa Luzia, who settled upon it 20:000$000 (=3000L). It was opened on November 24, 1845, and between 1851 and 1859 it received 314 patients.

The Hospital of Barbacena was established by Antonio Jose Ferreira Armond (obit Jan. 10, 1852), who presented it with 20:000$000 (=2000L) in money, 24:000$000 (=2400L) in goods, and a cattle-breeding estate as a patrimony. It was opened on January 1, 1858, and as almost the whole gift had been expended upon its construction, it now depends upon charity and the small income of its foundation. In August, 1861, its funds, deposited in the
Bank of Brazil, amounted to 16,000$000 (= 1600£). It treats about fifty patients annually.

The Hospital of S. João d’El-Rei, which is the best in the province, holds funds to the extent of nearly 73 contos (= 7300£). It treats more than 250 patients per annum, and receives a few foundlings.

The Hospital of the Sisters of Mercy, in Marianna, was founded with alms, and though lacking funds and foundations, it is kept up by the zeal and economy of its staff. It annually treats twenty to thirty sick.

The Hospital of Itabira was founded in 1854 by Monsenhor José Felícissimo do Nascimento. Between 1861 and 1862 it treated eighty-eight patients. In 1863 its income was nearly 10 contos (= 1000£), and its expenditure eight (~ 800£). Its existing funds are 31,000$000 (= 3100£).

The Hospital do Serro owes its existence to the charity of the Barão da Diamantina.

The Hospital do Parahyba was built at the expense of the Barão da Ibertioga. Its funds are now only 3,000$000 (~ 300£), presented by H. M. the Emperor.

There are similar charitable establishments in Paracatu, Pouso Alegre, Baependy, Três Pontas, Pitangui, Rio Pardo, and other places. They are usually poor, and depend upon alms, but they are a great blessing to pauper patients.

Public Fountains and Aqueducts.

There are many old fountains, such as those of Ouro Preto, Marianna, Sabará, Serro, S. João, and S. José d’El-Rei, which are still well preserved. In more modern times, these useful works have been undertaken at S. João d’El-Rei, Barbacena, Queluz, Oliveira, Lavras, Bom Fim, and other places.

At the mineral baths of Caldas and Campanha, the Government has built accommodation for the patients.

Botanical Gardens.

There is (or rather was) but one in the province. It was created by the Order (Portaria) of September 2, 1825, and was shortly afterwards laid out in the suburbs of the Capital, its present place. It is a pleasant promenade, and it annually supplies 6 to 8 arrobas of different teas, whilst its hives give 4 to 6 arrobas of wax. In former years mulberries were planted, and the silk-worm was bred. The first produced in abundance, but the second, for want of practical knowledge, was a failure.

Bank.

The only one now existing is that of Ouro Preto, a branch (caixa filial) of the Bank of the Brazil. Its statutes were approved of by Decree, No. 1490 of December 20, 1854, and it was installed on January 1, 1856. The capital is supplied by the Bank at the pleasure of the Directors, who can increase or withdraw it as circulation requires. This bank is administered by a President and two Directors, of whom one is Vice-President, whilst the other acts as Secretary. It may issue notes not less than 10$000 (= 1£), and these are accepted by all the bureaux in the province.

Agricultural and Breeding Establishments.

The Law, No. 624, of May 30, 1853, created a Normal School of Agriculture. The statutes were last modified by the Law, No. 1067, of October 5, 1860, but as yet the institution has done nothing.

At the village of Cachoeira do Campo, 4 leagues from the Capital, is a horse-breeding estate (caudelaria), established by the Royal Letter (Carta Regia)
of July 29, 1819, and since the Independence it has become the private property of H.M. the Emperor.

Markets and Slaughter-houses.

About seven years ago (1863) a market, which was also a public slaughter-house, was built at the Capital. There are minor establishments of the same kind at Sabará, S. João d'El-Rei, and other places.

Industrial Exhibition.

The Capital of Minas had the honour to inaugurate such exhibitions in Brazil, and the idea was first proposed in the Provincial Assembly. This body voted (Arts. 2 and 3 of Resolution No. 1079, of Oct. 7, 1860) supplies for a "world's fair," which was held between 7th and 14th September of 1861, in a large temporary building (barração), raised for the purpose upon the Morro do Cruzeiro. Few articles appeared, but, on the whole, the Exhibition served to stimulate industry.

On August 8, 1861, the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Public Works issued an Order that Minas, as well as other provinces, should on the 3rd and the 7th of the following November, hold an Industrial Exhibition in the Saloon of the Provincial Assembly. Thus a short time was given to exhibitors, but the exposition was well attended. A total of 325 articles appeared, mostly from the municipalities adjoining the Capital. Of these 176 were raw produce (vegetable and animal), 80 were mineral, 66 were manufactured, and 3 were works of art. Of these objects, 187 were sent to the Exhibition of Rio de Janeiro, which began December 2, 1861.

On September 7, 1862, the second Exhibition of Minas was opened at Ouro Preto; it lasted seven days, and was well attended. Subsequently, the Government ordered a building for the purpose to be raised in the centre of the city.

Postal Arrangements.

The principal lines send their letter-bags on beasts, and many of the secondary lines employ men-carriers. To this rule the only exception is the line between the Bridge of the Parahybuna River and the city of that name; here the mail coaches of the "União e Industria" Company are used. The line between the Ouro Preto and Parahybuna has a rate of 1 league per hour, the other lines of 6 to 10 leagues per day.

The central administration of the Post Office is at Ouro Preto, and is under the direction of the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Public Works. Besides this there are sixty-seven agencies,* which keep up the postal lines.

Letter postage is uniform and independent of distance, and prepayment by stamps is compulsory. The charge is 60 reis per 4 octaves (half an ounce), and above it 30 reis for each 2 octaves or fraction of 2 octaves.

Weights and Measures.

In Minas, as in all the Brazil, the ancient system was that of Portugal, with its confusion and complexity. After the Independence, a few especial alterations were made, and at last the Law, No. 1157, of June 26, 1862, substituted all over the Empire the metrical system of France.†

* Increased in 1866 to 96.
† Every province and district had its different weights and measures, and this confusion still remains in the Far West. It is the same with British India, where Colonel Strachey lately drew up a report proposing to introduce the metre (39:3708 inches), the kilogramme (2.20 lbs.), and the litre (0.88 quart). India will probably show herself docile in relation to an improvement which caused in England the "Battle of the Standards."
In Portugal the unity of lineal measure has ever been the vara (yard) = 5 palms: the former, according to the Lisbon standards = 1.093 French metres; the palm, therefore = 0.2186 metre. This relation must still subsist in Brazil, where it has never been abolished.

A provincial law of Minas Geraes determined, on April 1, 1835, that the league,* generally said to be one-twentieth of a degree, should be = 5084 varas = 25,420 palms. This calculation was evidently made by combining the legal length of varas and palms with the rule that the metre = 10,000,000th part of a quadrant of the meridian. The last calculation is erroneous, nor is a league used as an aliquot meridional part, yet it appears certain that the Provincial Assembly intended to legalise the palm = 0.2186 metre.

Already, in 1834, the General Government had proposed to the Corps of Legislature a regular system of measures based upon the palm being = 22 centimetres. This was not adopted; yet the Custom-house regulations made thenceforward the palm = 22 centimetres.†

It may cursorily be noted, as regards itinerary measures, that the degree at the equator, generally subdivided into leagues, consists, according to Bessel's measurements, of 111,306.306 metres. Consequently, the league of Minas, being equal to one-twentieth of a degree, contains 5565.328 metres. The league of one-eighteenth of a degree will be equal to 6183.698 metres.

D. Joao Segundo, in 1488, adopted as the unity of weight for Portugal, the "Colony mark" (Marco da Colonía), which from that time was considered the legal weight and = 233.81 grammes. The pound ought, therefore, to be = 2 marks; meanwhile the tariff of the Brazilian Custom-houses lays it down = 458.92 grammes.

* There is also an old league = 4 and 4 of 1 degree.

The ancient Portuguese league contained 6760 English yards.

The old and common Brazilian league contained 3000 braças (or Brazilian fathoms) = 7216.666 English yards = roughly 4 miles 76 yards.

The league of 1/4th of 1° = English yards 6120 = 3 geog. miles.

The mile ditto = 2040 yards = 1 geog. mile.

The league of 1/4th of 1° = English yards 6799.33 = 3.3345 geog. miles.

The mile ditto = 1.1115 English geog. mile.

The league of 1/4th of 1° = English statute miles 3.180.

The mile ditto = 1.160.

The league of 1/4th of 1° = English statute miles 3.860.

The mile ditto = 1.290.

† I have assumed the metre to represent as usual 39.37079 English inches. Some writers (Haswell, &c.) give 39.38091.
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