

the ministerial bench in the Commons, and a new principle was introduced, that the representatives of what are called the spending departments—that is, the Secretary of State for War and the First Lord of the Admiralty—should, if possible, be members of the House which votes the supplies. Mr Disraeli followed this precedent.

Although the Government of this country is one of extreme publicity, it is to the credit of the good sense and good faith of Englishmen that the deliberations and proceedings of the Executive Government are veiled in impenetrable secrecy, until the moment when the result of them is made known. Beyond the meagre announcement in the *Court Circular* of the bare fact that a Cabinet has been held, and that certain ministers were present, nothing is communicated to the public. Cabinets are usually convoked by a summons addressed to "Her Majesty's Confidential Servants," by direction of the Prime Minister; and the ordinary place of meeting is the Foreign Office, but they may be held anywhere. No secretary or other officer is present at the deliberations of this council. No official record is kept of its proceedings, and it is even considered a breach of ministerial confidence to keep a private record of what passed in the Cabinet, inasmuch as such memoranda may fall into other hands. But on some important occasions, as is known from the *Memoirs of Lord Sidmouth*, the *Correspondence of Earl Grey with King William IV.*, and from Sir Robert Peel's *Memoirs*, published by permission of the Queen, Cabinet minutes are drawn up and submitted to the sovereign, as the most formal manner in which the advice of the ministry can be tendered to the Crown and placed upon record. More commonly, it is the duty of the Prime Minister to lay the collective opinion of his colleagues before the sovereign, and take his or her pleasure on public measures and appointments. The sovereign never presides at a Cabinet, and at the meetings of the Privy Council, where the sovereign does preside, the business is purely formal. It has been laid down by some writers as a principle of the British Constitution that the sovereign is never present at a discussion between the advisers of the Crown; and this is, no doubt, an established fact and practice. But like many other political usages of this country it originated in a happy accident. King William and Queen Anne always presided at weekly Cabinet Councils. But when the Hanoverian princes ascended the throne, they knew no English, and were barely able to converse at all with their ministers; for George I. or George II. to take part in, or even to listen to, a debate in council was impossible. When George III. mounted the throne the practice of the independent deliberations of the Cabinet was well established, and it has never been departed from. In no other country has this practice been introduced, and perhaps this is one reason why in many instances constitutional government has failed to take root.

Differences of opinion, of course, occur in all bodies of men, and arguments are frequently presented with greater ability and temper in private than in public debate. These differences are decided in the Cabinet, as in all committees of council, by the majority of votes, and the rule holds good in all of them that "no man shall make publication of how the minority voted." The vote once taken and the question decided, every member of the Cabinet becomes equally responsible for the decision, and is equally bound to support and defend it. A decided difference of opinion cannot be persisted in or publicly expressed without withdrawing from the Cabinet, as when Mr Gladstone quitted Sir Robert Peel's administration upon the proposal to endow Maynooth. Hence it arises that resignations, or threats of resignation, are much more common than the public imagine; and a good deal of tact and management is continually exercised

in reconciling these differences. A serious "division in the Cabinet" is, as is well known, an infallible sign of its approaching dissolution. There are cases in which a minister has been dismissed for a departure from the concerted action of his colleagues. Thus, in 1851, Lord Palmerston having expressed to the French ambassador in London his unqualified approbation of the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon against the Assembly, when the Cabinet had resolved on observing a strict neutrality on the subject, Lord Russell advised Her Majesty to withdraw from Lord Palmerston the seals of the Foreign Department, and his lordship never again filled that office.

A clause was introduced into the Act of Settlement of 1705 requiring all Acts of State to be transacted in the Privy Council and signed by all the members present. This provision was found to be inconvenient, and was repealed two years afterwards. According to modern usage only one kind of public document is signed by all the members of the Cabinet, as privy councillors, and that is the order for general reprisals which constitutes a declaration of war. Such an order was issued against Russia in 1854, and was signed by all the members of Lord Aberdeen's Cabinet.

Upon the resignation or dissolution of a ministry, the sovereign exercises the undoubted prerogative of selecting the person who may be thought by the Court most fit to form a new Cabinet. In several instances the statesmen selected by the Crown have found themselves unable to accomplish the task confided to them. But in more favourable cases the minister chosen for this supreme office by the Crown has the power of distributing all the political offices of the Government as may seem best to himself, subject only to the ultimate approval of the sovereign. The First Minister is therefore in reality the author and constructor of the Cabinet; he holds it together; and in the event of his retirement, from whatever cause, the Cabinet is really dissolved, even though its members are again united under another head, as was the case when Lord Melbourne succeeded Lord Grey in 1834, and when Mr Disraeli succeeded Lord Derby in February 1868. Each member of the Cabinet, in fact, holds office under the First Lord of the Treasury, and in the event of resignation it is to him that the announcement of such an intention should be made.

The best account of the Cabinet council and of the other executive machinery of the constitution is to be found in Mr Alpheus Todd's *Essay on Parliamentary Government in England* (2 vols. 8vo, 1867-69), where all the authorities are collected—Hallam, May, John Austin, Lord Macaulay—and a vast quantity of political information, compiled from debates and bearing on this subject. Mr Bagehot's *Essay on the English Constitution* contains an ingenious comparison, or rather contrast, between the British Cabinet and the administrative mechanism of the United States of America. (H. R.)

CABIRI (Κάβειροι), in Mythology, usually identified with the Dioscuri (Castor and Pollux), in common with whom they were styled *μεγάλοι Θεοί* (*magni Dei*), and had the power of protecting life against storms at sea, the symbol of their presence being the St Elmo fire. The worship of the Cabiri was local and peculiar to the islands of Lemnos, Imbros, and Samothrace, extending also to the neighbouring coast of Troy, in which places it appears to have been inherited from a primitive Pelasgic population. It was, however, in Samothrace that this worship attained its chief importance, coming first into notice apparently after the Persian war, and from that time extending its influence down into the Roman period. The point of attraction was in the religious Mysteries, initiation into which was sought for, not only by large numbers of pilgrims, but also by such persons of distinction as Philip and Olympias—the parents of Alexander, his successor Lysimachus, Arsinoë, and those Roman commanders whose duties led them to that quarter.

What the rites were in which the Mysteries consisted is unknown, and it is therefore impossible to say how far they may have been organized on the model of the Mysteries of Eleusis, though it is clear that Athens took a considerable part in being the first to extend the influence of the Samothracian Mysteries. Initiation included also an asylum or refuge, if required, within the strong walls of Samothrace, for which purpose it was used among others by Arsinoë, who afterwards caused to be erected there (276-247 B.C.), to record her gratitude, a monument, the ruins of which were explored in 1874 by an Austrian archaeological expedition (*Untersuchungen auf Samothrake*, by Conze, Hauser, and Niemann, Vienna, 1875).

In Lemnos an annual festival was held, lasting nine days, during which all the fires in the island were extinguished and fresh fire brought from Delos. From this and from the statement of Strabo (x. 437), that the father of the Cabiri was Camillus, a son of the god Hephestus, it has been thought that the Cabiri must have been, like the Curetes, Corybantes, and Dactyls, dæmons of volcanic fire. But this is very uncertain. In Lemnos they fostered the growth of the vine and fruits of the field, and from their connection with Hermes in Samothrace, it would seem that they had also aided the fertility of cattle. Both the names and the number of the Cabiri are doubtful. On late authority they are given as *Axiéros*, *Axiokersa*, and *Axiokeros*, with a fourth called *Kadmilos* or *Kasmilos*; but in the usual tradition they were *Dardanos*, *Jasion*, and *Harmonia*. *Jasion*, who was a favourite of the goddess Demeter, instituted the Mysteries. *Harmonia* married Cadmus of Thebes, whose name is to be recognized in *Kadmilos*, one of the Cabiri. On the other hand it has been argued that there were only two Cabiri, *Dardanos* and *Jasion*, corresponding as deities to the Greek Poseidon and Apollo, or Uranus and Gæa, i.e., sky and earth. On these points, the statements of ancient writers are not only few but generally irreconcilable with each other. On Etruscan bronze mirrors representations of what are called the Cabiri frequently occur, consisting of two youthful figures, sometimes with the addition of a female figure, apparently their sister; sometimes there are three brothers. This subject is dealt with in detail by Gerhard in his *Etruskische Metall-Spiegel*.

CABLE, a rope or chain used for connecting a ship with her anchor. Chain cables are generally used, but on account of their weight they are unsuitable for mooring in very deep water, when several lengths of cable would be hanging at the "hawse pipe;" and they cannot be used, also on account of their weight, when it is required to lay an anchor out at some distance from the ship. Hemp cables are, therefore, supplied to all ships as well as chain cables. For sizes, number, and lengths of cables carried by ships of the Royal Navy and required by Lloyd's rules to be supplied to merchant ships, see article ANCHOR.

The length of a chain cable is 100 fathoms, and that of a hempen cable 101 fathoms. The term "a cable's length," by which the distance of vessels from each other is usually given in nautical parlance, is understood to mean 100 fathoms, or 200 yards. Cables are sometimes made of common chain, but the best and most approved are made of stud-link chain, as shown in fig. 1, which gives the relative proportions of the various parts. Cables are made in lengths of 12½ fathoms, connected together by "joining shackles," as shown at D. Each length is "marked" by a piece of iron-wire being twisted round the stud of one of the links, the wire being placed on the first stud inside the first shackle, i.e., the stud nearest to the shackle on the side remote from the anchor,—on the second stud inside the second shackle, and so on, so that the length of cable

which is out may always be known. For instance, if the mark is on the sixth stud inside the first inboard shackle, it is known that six lengths, or 75 fathoms, of cable are out, measuring from that shackle. In joining the lengths together the round end of the shackle should be placed towards the anchor. The end links of each length C, C are made without studs in order to receive the shackles, and it is necessary to make them of iron of greater diameter than that used for the stud links, in order to keep them of equal strength. The stud keeps the link from collapsing, and increases its strength considerably.

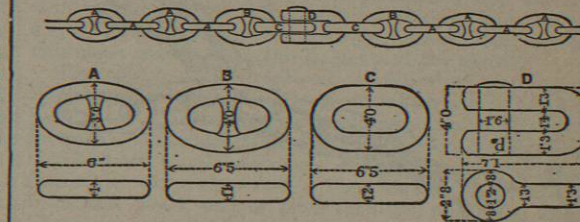


FIG. 1.—Stud-link Chain.¹

The next links B, B in their turn have to be enlarged to enable them to take the increased size given to the links C, C. It will be observed from the sketch of the shackle D that the pin is made oval, its greater diameter being in the direction of the strain. The pin of the shackle which attaches the cable to the anchor, and is called the "anchor shackle" in distinction from the "joining shackles," may project and be secured by a forelock; but as any projection would be detrimental when the chain is running out (sometimes with great rapidity) through the hawse pipes, the pins of the joining shackles are made as shown, and are secured by a small pin *d*. This small pin is kept from coming out by being made a little short, so that a lead pellet may be driven in at either end to fill up the holes in the shackle, which are made with a groove, so that as the pellets are driven in they expand or dovetail, and thus keep the small pin secure in its place.

The cables are stowed in the chain lockers, the inner ends being firmly secured to the ship by a "slip." This is done to render it impossible for the cable to run out and be lost accidentally, the slip being provided so that the cable may be let go without difficulty if stress of weather or any other cause renders such a proceeding imperative. It is necessary to fit one or two swivels in each cable to avoid turns being taken in it as the ship swings. When a ship is moored with two anchors the cables are attached to a mooring swivel (fig. 2); if this is not done the cables get entwined around each other, forming what is termed a "foul hawse," which is a troublesome thing to clear.

The cable is hove up in large vessels by a capstan, and in small ones by a windlass. It is brought directly to the capstan, the inner end passing to the deck pipe, and thence to the chain lockers; or it is brought in by means of a messenger, which is an endless chain passing round the capstan and a roller on each side of the deck near the hawse pipes. The cable is stoppered to the messenger by rope or iron nippers, and as the messenger goes round with the capstan the cable is brought in, the nippers being shifted as required. Messengers are now almost entirely superseded by the improved make of capstans.

Various means for checking the cable as it is running out, and for holding it, have been devised. The old-

¹ The dimensions marked in the figure are those for one-inch chains, and signify so many diameters of the iron of the common links—thus forming a scale for all sizes.

fashioned plan is to fit a strong iron lever called a "compresser" under the deck pipe, fixed at one end in such a position that when the other end is hoisted round by a tackle the cable will be jammed between the compressor and the lower edge of the pipe. In place of compressors, or to act in conjunction with them, several kinds of stoppers have been used, fitted either at the deck pipes, or just inside the hawse pipes; those patented by Harfield and Co. find the most favour in the Royal Navy, but the compressors are

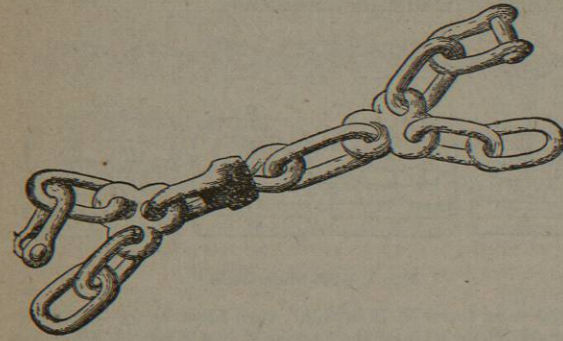


FIG. 2.—Mooring Swivel.

almost invariably fitted with them. Ships are generally held when "riding at anchor" by one or two turns of the cable being taken round the "riding bits," which are strong structures of iron or wood, placed for this purpose near the hawse pipes. "Stopper bolts"—i.e., ring-and-eye bolts, placed in the deck forward—are also fitted, to which the cable may be secured while the turns are being put on or taken off the riding bitt, while the mooring swivel is being attached, or at other times. (T. M.)

CABOT, SEBASTIAN,¹ the renowned navigator, and contemporary of Columbus, was the son of John Cabot, a Venetian merchant, and was born in Bristol, England, while his father was a resident of that city. On the disputed question of his birthplace, Richard Eden (*Decades of the New World*, fol. 255) says Sebastian told him that, when four years old, he was taken by his father to Venice, and returned to England while still very young, "whereby he was thought to have been born in Venice." Stow, in his *Annals*, under the year 1498, styles "Sebastian Gaboto a Genoas sonne, borne in Bristow." Galvano and Herrera also give to England the honour of his nativity. Neither the year of his birth nor that of his death can be stated with precision; conjecture fixes the former event in about 1476. No instructive details of his early life, until he had passed his twentieth year, can now be recovered.

The discoveries of Columbus infused into young Sebastian an ardent desire to emulate his brilliant achievements. Henry VII. resolved to enter the new field of maritime discovery, which had already rewarded Spain with the Antilles; and the Cabots having proposed to the king the project of shortening the voyage to India by sailing west, to them was confided its execution.

The first patent was granted March 5, 1496 (11th Henry VII.), to "John Gabote, citizen of Venice; to Lewes, Sebastian, and Santius, sonnes of the said John." It empowered them to seek out, subdue, and occupy, at their own charges, any regions which before had "been unknown to all Christians." They were authorized to set up the royal banner, and possess the territories discovered by their as

¹ Gabote, Patent of 1496; Kabotto, Patent of 1498; Cabote, Eden; Saboto, Gomara.—Stow.

the king's vassals. Bristol was the only port to which they were permitted to return; and a fifth part of the gains of the voyage was reserved to the Crown. The discoverers were vested with exclusive privilege of resort and traffic.

With respect to Lewes and Santius, the chronicles are silent. John and Sebastian sailed from Bristol in the "Matthew" in the following year (1497), and, as now seems probable, returned to England after the first discovery had been made (see BRISTOL, p. 350). There is in the account of the Privy Purse expenses of Henry VII. the following entry:—"10th August 1497. To him that found the New Isle, £10."

Although it is probable that the Island of Newfoundland was discovered in this voyage, a careful scrutiny of the various maps and chronicles sustains the belief that the Cabots saw the mainland of America before any other,—the term *Terra primum visa* having been used to distinguish the continent, or what was believed to form a part of it. The relation of Sebastian (see Hakluyt, 111, p. 7) does not warrant the inference that the first land seen was an island.

The most precise account of the discovery is from a map drawn by Sebastian Cabot, and engraved in 1549 by Clement Adams, which is known to have hung in Queen Elizabeth's gallery at Whitehall. The notice runs as follows:—"In the year of our Lord 1497, John Cabot, a Venetian, and his son Sebastian, discovered that country which no one before his time had ventured to approach, on the 24th of June, about five o'clock in the morning: He called the land *Terra primum visa*, because, as I conjecture, this was the place that first met his eye in looking from the sea. On the contrary, the island which lies opposite the land he called the island of St John,—as I suppose, because it was discovered on the festival of St John the Baptist."

On Sebastian Cabot's map of 1544, the original of which is in the Geographical Cabinet of the Imperial Library at Paris (see fac-simile in Jomard's *Monuments de la Géographie*), nothing is designated above the sixtieth parallel. *Prima terra vista* is delineated between 45° and 50°, with the island St Juan (corresponding with Prince Edward), within the great gulf at the embouchure of what is plainly the St Lawrence. The authenticity of the map being accepted, the "land first seen" could be no other than the coast of Nova Scotia, or island of Cape Breton.

A second "patent" to John Cabot, dated 3d February 1498, authorized him to take six English ships, of not more than 200 tons, in any port in the realm, "and them convey and lede to the lande and isles of late found by the said John in oure name and by oure commandment." Before the expedition was ready, John Cabot died, and Sebastian, with a fleet of five vessels, sailed from Bristol in May 1498. It is believed that this is the voyage referred to by Peter Martyr, Gomara, Fabyan, and by Sebastian himself in his letter to Ramusio. Cabot, upon falling in with the coast, ascended it as high as latitude 67½°, probably passing into Hudson's Bay. He persevered in the effort to find an open channel to India, until his sailors, appalled by the danger of navigating the ship among icebergs, broke out in open mutiny and compelled him to turn back. He then retraced his course, pausing at Baccalaos to refit; and, after examining the coast as far south as 38°, returned to England. Sebastian took with him in this voyage three hundred men, with the purpose, as Gomara states, of colonizing the newly-found regions. Thevet, French cosmographer, relates that Cabot landed these emigrants where the cold was so intense that nearly the whole company perished, although it was in July. Cabot brought to England three native inhabitants of the countries he had visited; his great achievement was the discovery of eighteen hundred miles of sea-coast of the North American continent.

Except the vague report of a voyage undertaken by him in 1499, nothing more appears relative to Sebastian until 1512, when he is found living at Seville, engaged in revising the Spanish king's maps and charts. The death of Ferdinand put an end to a design to renew the search for a north-west passage to Cathay, and Cabot, who was to have commanded, returned to England. In 1517 he undertook, with Sir Thomas Perte, another voyage,—whether of discovery or conquest in Spanish America is uncertain. In 1518 Sebastian revisited Spain, and was appointed pilot-major. After the conference of Badajos, a squadron was fitted out under Cabot to pursue Spanish discovery in the Pacific. It set sail in August 1526, but some of his chief officers having spread disaffection in the fleet, Cabot abandoned the original plan as impracticable, and put into the La Plata. He sailed up this river 350 leagues, built a fort at one of the mouths of the Parana, which stream he ascended in boats, and also penetrated some distance up the Paraguay. Failing to obtain the aid he solicited, and weakened by the assaults of the natives, Sebastian was forced to leave the coast for Spain.

He now, for the second time, returned to England, and notwithstanding a demand by the emperor that "he might be sent over to Spain," settled at Bristol. Edward VI., in 1549, granted the now aged seaman a pension of two hundred and fifty marks. Hakluyt states that the office of Grand Pilot of England was created for him. It was at this period that he explained to the king the phenomenon of the variation of the needle. He was active in promoting the expedition of 1553 to Russia, the success of which gave him the life appointment of Governor of the Muscovy Company.

Cabot is supposed to have died in London, in 1557, sixty-one years subsequent to the date of his first commission from Henry VII., and not far from eighty years old. The place of his burial is unknown, and we are indebted to Eden for the death-bed scene of this intrepid navigator, who saw the American continent before Columbus or Amerigo Vespucci. His character is extolled by contemporaries, and was distinguished for lofty courage and unflinching perseverance in the execution of his designs. Few lives exhibit such incessant activity in the pursuit of an idea. The maps and discourses drawn and written by himself would, if in existence, have shed much light on an illustrious career; but, with the exception of a map said to have been recovered in Germany, and another existing in France, no trace of them remains. The memoir by Richard Biddle, London and Philadelphia, 1831, though faulty in arrangement, is still the best.

CABRA, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova, about 28 miles S.E. of that city, situated in a fertile valley near the source of the river of the same name. It contains a cathedral church (de la Asuncion) which was formerly a mosque, and has also a theatre, a hospital, a college, and several monasteries. There still remains a part of its old castle called the Tower of Homage; and the abyss into which Don Quixote's Knight del Bosque precipitated himself is pointed out. The fields of clay in the neighbourhood afford materials for a considerable trade in bricks and pottery; and there is an abundant supply of wine, vinegar, oil, and flour from the surrounding districts. The manufacture of coarse linen, woollen, and hempen stuffs is considerable. There are some interesting Moorish remains to be seen in the town and suburbs. Cabra is a town of great antiquity and is identified with the Bæbro or Ægabro of Pliny, which was probably of Punic origin. It was delivered from the Moors by Ferdinand III. in 1240, and entrusted to the order of Calatrava, but in 1331 it was recaptured by the king of Granada. In the reign of Henry IV. it was bestowed on the count of Baena. For several centuries it was the seat of a bishop. Population 11,076.

CABUL, or KĀBUL, in modern days the capital of AFGHANISTAN (*q. v.*) The city stands on the right bank of the river called after it, on the fork made by the junction of the Loghar River, where the productive plain, which extends north to the foot of Hindu Kush, narrows rapidly into the gorges from which the streams issue. The city stands in 34° 30' N. lat., 69° 6' E. long., at an altitude of 6396 feet above the sea.

Cabul is about 3 miles in circuit; it was formerly walled, but now is not so. The mountains surround it pretty closely except where the plain opens to the N.E. It is triangular in form, the Bala-Hissar or Acropolis, in which the Amir resides, forming the S.E. angle, and rising about 150 feet above the plain. The old wall had seven gates, of which two alone remain, viz., the Lahori and the Sirdar.

The city is divided into six *mahalas* or quarters, and these again into *kuchas* or sections, which are enclosed and have gates. In tumult these enclosures form small separate fortresses. The streets hardly merit the name, and nowhere could admit wheel carriages; they are narrow passages, frightfully dirty after rain. The houses are of sun-dried brick and wood, seldom more than two stories in height. There are no public buildings of any moment; some mosques are spacious, but none have any magnificence. There are thirteen or fourteen sarais for foreign traders, but they bear no comparison with those of Persia. The public baths lack cleanliness, and the odour of the filth which is used as fuel is most offensive. The greatest ornament of the city was the arcaded and roofed bazaar called *Chahar Chata*, ascribed to Ali Mardān Khān, a noble of the 17th century, who has left behind him many monuments of his munificent public spirit both in Cabul and in Hindustan. Its four arms had an aggregate length of about 600 feet, with a breadth of 30. The display of goods was remarkable, and in the evening it was illuminated. This edifice was destroyed by Sir G. Pollock on evacuating Cabul, as a memento of the treachery of the city. The several crafts, such as saddlers, drapers, braziers, armourers, congregate together, as is usual in the East and to some extent in the south of Europe. Itinerant traders also parade the bazaars, each with his peculiar cry. The old-clothesman of London is represented by the Moghul of Cabul, with his cry of "Old bullion, old clothes!"

Including the Bala Hissar, Cabul contains about 9000 houses, giving a probable population of 50,000 to 60,000. In summer the population is more dense. Without the limits of the old city to the westward is the fortified quarter of Chandol, once a detached village, now a large suburb occupied by the Kizilbashs (see AFGHANISTAN), and containing 1500 to 2000 houses. It has independent bazaars, baths, mosques, &c.

The river of Cabul is traditionally said to have several times flooded or swept away the city. There is but one bridge within the city limits, but there are others above and below in the vicinity. The city is well supplied with water, chiefly by canals drawn from the two rivers, and the streets are frequently intersected by covered aqueducts. There are also many wells, water being found at moderate depth throughout the valley.

Though there is some malarious influence in autumn from the marshy ground north of the city, Cabul is on the whole healthy. In addition to good water it has at most seasons a fine atmosphere, and an excellent supply of food. The children are chubby and ruddy. Vast supplies of fruit of fine quality are brought into the markets from the gardens of the Koh-daman and adjoining valleys. And the shops for the sale of fruit, fresh and dried, are a notable feature in the bazaars.

Cemeteries are numerous in the vicinity, including places of Jewish and common burial. One of the graveyards near

the shrine called Sháh Shahíd contains a tomb bearing in Roman characters the following inscription:—"Here lies the body of Joseph Hicks, the son of Thomas Hicks and Edith, who departed this life the eleventh of October 1666." An annual day in spring is appropriated to visiting the tombs, as in continental Europe. The graves are sprinkled, garlands placed, and small repairs executed.

Many sacred shrines are interspersed among the cemeteries and gardens. The gardens are often on acclivities, formed into terraces, supplied with springs, and abounding in song-birds. Both shrines and gardens are greatly resorted to by the Cabulis, who are passionately fond of this kind of recreation. Most of the roads are bordered by running waters, and shadowed by mulberry, willow, or poplar trees. The tomb of the illustrious Sultan Baber stands about a mile to the west of the city in a singularly charming spot, on a slope spreading before the sun. The grave is marked by two erect slabs of white marble. Near him lie several of his wives and children; the garden has been formerly enclosed by a marble wall; a clear stream waters the flower-beds. From the hill that rises behind the tomb there is a noble prospect of his beloved city, and of the all-fruitful plain stretching to the north of it.

The geographical position of Cabul, in a tolerably open country intervening between the passes which lead to India on the one side, and those which lead to Turkestan on the other, is highly favourable to trade. Baber exalts the importance of its traffic in his day, saying that the products of Khorasan, Róm (Turkey), Babylonia, and China were all to be found there. People in easy circumstances are numerous. The presence of a court and a considerable military force contributes to the bustle of the place, and imparts animation to many trades. But the people do not excel in any handicraft or manufacture.

Cabul is believed to be the *Ortospanum* or *Ortospána* of the geographies of Alexander's march, a name conjectured to be a corruption of *Urúdhasthána*, "high place." But the actual name is perhaps also found as that of a people in this position (Ptolemy's *Kabolítae*), if not in the name of a city apparently identical with *Ortospana*, *Carura*, in some copies read *Cabura*. It was invaded by the Arabs as early as the thirty-fifth year of the Hegira, but it was long before the Mahometans effected any lasting settlement. In the early Mahometan histories and geographies we find (according to a favourite Arabic love of jingle) *Kábul* and *Zábul* constantly associated. *Zábul* appears to have been the country about Ghazni. Cabul first became a capital when Baber made himself master of it in 1504, and here he reigned for fifteen years before his invasion of Hindustan. In modern times it became a capital again, under Timur Shah (see *AFGHANISTAN*), and so has continued both to the end of the Durrani dynasty, and under the Barakzais, who now reign. (H. Y.)

CABUL (Kábul), is also the name of the province including the city so called. It may be considered to embrace the whole of the plains called Koh-daman and Beghran, &c., to the Híndu Kush northward, with the Kohistan or hill country adjoining so far as it is in actual subjection to the Amir's authority. Eastward it extends to the border of Jalálábád at Jagdalak; southward it includes the Loghar district, and extends to the border of Ghazni; north-westward it includes the Paghman hills, and the valley of the upper Kábul River, and so to the Koh-i-Baba. Roughly it embraces a territory of about 100 miles square. Wheat and barley are the staple products of the arable tracts. Artificial grasses are also much cultivated, and fruits largely, especially in the Koh-daman. A considerable part of the population spends the summer in tents. The villages are not enclosed by fortifications, but contain small

private castles or fortalices. The revenue of Cabul province has been stated at £180,000.

For the CABUL RIVER, see fully under *AFGHANISTAN*. CACAO. See COCOA.

CACERES, the capital of the province of the same name in Estremadura, in Spain, 20 miles south of the Tagus, and 24 miles west of Truxillo, on a ridge of hills which stretch from east to west. It is the residence of the bishop of Corias, and contains a handsome episcopal palace, as well as a public school, a college, and several charitable institutions. The monastery and college of the Jesuits was one of the finest in the kingdom, but has been secularized and converted into a hospital. In the neighbourhood are large gardens, well-cultivated fields, and extensive pasture grounds; while in the town are oil and fulling mills, soap-works, tanneries, and lime-kilns. There is also some trade in wool. Caceres occupies the site of the ancient *Castra Caecilia*, and was a place of some importance both under the Romans and under the Moors. There are several fine specimens of the domestic architecture of the Middle Ages, such as the houses of the duke of Abrantes, the count de la Torre, and the count de los Carbajales. The bull-ring, a modern structure of granite, is one of the most remarkable buildings of its kind in Spain. Population, 13,466.

CACHAO, or, as it is variously spelled, KACHO, KESHO, HECHO, or KESHO, formerly known as Donk-king and now officially as Bacthian or Bact-king, is the largest city of Anam, and the capital of the province of Tonquin. It is situated on the west side of the Tonquin River, about eighty miles from the sea, in 105° 35' E. long., 21° N. lat. It is of great extent. The principal streets are wide and airy, and for the most part are paved with bricks and small stones, but the others are narrow and ill paved. Most of the houses are constructed of mud or sun-burned bricks and timber, and thatched with leaves, straw, or reeds, and are generally one story in height. The public edifices are spacious, particularly the royal palace, which is several miles in circuit, and is surrounded by high walls. Besides this palace there are to be seen the ruins of one still more magnificent, said to have been six miles in circumference. Cachao is a place of some commercial resort; its imports are long cloths, chintz, arms, pepper, and other articles, which are exchanged for gold and manufactured goods, namely, beautiful silks and lackered ware, which last is generally reckoned superior to any in the East. The English factory, which stood on the banks of the river north of the city, and that of the Dutch, south of it, have long been withdrawn. Cachao is peculiarly liable to fires; and to prevent or extinguish these, the city is governed by a rigid police, and divided into wards. Fires for domestic use are only permitted during certain hours of the day. About the middle of the 18th century the city was nearly burnt to the ground by a conflagration, which was the work of incendiaries. In 1873 François Garnier, the famous French explorer, with an expedition of two hundred men and two ships, having come into collision with the authorities, took possession of the city after capturing the fort of Hanoi, which was constructed on European principles and defended by a large garrison. Not long after he was assassinated by the natives; but his victory led to a treaty between the French Government and the Anamese, by which the port is declared open to the flags of all nations.

CACHEO, or CACHAO, a town of Western Africa in Senegambia, in the land of the Papels, a few miles inland from the mouth of the River Cachao or San Domingo. It is a fortified post of the Portuguese, and carries on a trade in gold dust and ivory. Population 15,000.

CACHOEIRA, a town of Brazil, in the province of Bahia, and 62 miles N.W. from the city of that name, is situated on the River Paraguassu, which is subject to

heavy floods. It contains a town-house, a prison, a convent of Carmelites, and some five or six churches, and carries on an active trade in tobacco, coffee, and sugar. Population 15,000.

CACONGO, a small kingdom of Western Africa, separated from Congo by the river Zaire. The surface is mountainous but fruitful, the climate healthy though unsuited for Europeans. A strong tendency to adopt European customs and conveniences is displayed by the inhabitants, who carry on a considerable trade at the seaport towns of Mallemba and Cabinda. The capital is Kinguela.

CACTUS. This word, applied in the form of *káktos* by the ancient Greeks to some prickly plant, was adopted by Linnaeus as the family title of a group of curious succulent or fleshy-stemmed plants, most of them prickly and leafless, some of which produce beautiful flowers, and are now so popular in our gardens that the name has become familiar. As applied by Linnaeus, the name *Cactus* is almost coterminous with what is now regarded as the natural order *Cactaceae*, which embraces several modern genera. It is one of the few Linnæan generic terms which have been entirely set aside by the names adopted for the modern divisions of the group.

The *Cacti* may be described in general terms as plants having a woody axis, overlaid with thick masses of cellular tissue forming the fleshy stems. These are extremely various in character and form, being globose, cylindrical, columnar, or flattened into leafy expansions or thick joint-like divisions, the surface being either ribbed like a melon, or developed into nipple-like protuberances, or variously angular, but in the greater number of the species furnished copiously with tufts of horny spines, some of which are exceedingly keen and powerful. These tufts show the position of buds, of which, however, comparatively few are developed. The stems are in most cases leafless, using the term in a popular sense; the leaves, if present at all, being generally reduced to minute scales. In one genus, however, that of *Pereskia*, the stems are less succulent, and the leaves, though rather fleshy, are developed in the usual form. The flowers are frequently large and showy, and are generally attractive from their high colouring. In one group, represented by *Cereus*, they consist of a tube, more or less elongated, on the outer surface of which, towards the base, are developed small and at first inconspicuous scales, which gradually increase in size upwards, and at length become crowded, numerous, and petaloid, forming a funnel-shaped blossom, the beauty of which is much enhanced by the multitude of conspicuous stamens which with the pistil occupy the centre. In another group, represented by *Opuntia*, the flowers are rotate, that is to say, the long tube is replaced by a very short one. At the base of the tube, in both groups, the ovary becomes developed into a fleshy (often edible) fruit, that produced by the *Opuntia* being known as the prickly pear or Indian fig.

The principal modern genera are ranged under two subdivisions, which are separated by the differences in the flower-tube just explained. Those with long-tubed flowers, the *Cactæe tubulose*, form the genera *Melocactus*, *Mammillaria*, *Echinocactus*, *Cereus*, *Pilocereus*, *Echinopsis*, *Phyllocactus*, *Epiphyllum*, &c.; while those with short-tubed flowers, the *Cactæe rotatæ*, are referred to *Rhipsalis*, *Opuntia*, *Pereskia*, and one or two of minor importance. These plants, whether viewed as the *Cactus* family or the natural order *Cactæe* or *Cactaceae*, belong almost entirely, if not exclusively, to the New World; but some of the *Opuntias* have been so long distributed over certain parts of Europe, especially on the shores of the Mediterranean and the volcanic soil of Italy, that they appear in some places to have taken possession of the soil, and to be

distinguished with difficulty from the aboriginal vegetation. The habitats which they affect are the hot dry regions of tropical America, the aridity of which they are enabled to withstand in consequence of the thickness of their skin, and the paucity of evaporating pores or stomates with which they are furnished,—these conditions not permitting the moisture they contain to be carried off too rapidly. Occurring thus as they do in situations where ordinary vegetation could not exist, they may be considered as one of the means which nature has provided for the support of man and animals where other means of subsistence fail. The stems are filled with wholesome though insipid fluid, and the succulent fruit are not only edible but agreeable. In fevers the fruits are freely administered as a cooling drink, and when bruised are regarded as a valuable remedy for the cure of ulcers. The Spanish Americans plant the *Opuntias* around their houses, where they serve as impenetrable fences.

MELOCACTUS, the family of Melon-thistle or Turk's-cap Cactuses, contains, according to Labouret, a monographer of the order, about thirty species, which inhabit chiefly the West Indies, Mexico, and Brazil, a few extending into New Granada. The typical species, *M. communis*, forms a succulent mass of roundish or ovate form, from 1 foot to 2 feet high, the surface divided into numerous furrows like the ribs of a melon, with projecting angles, which are set with a regular series of stellated spines,—each bundle consisting of about five larger spines, accompanied by smaller but sharp aculei or bristles,—and the tip of the plant being surmounted by a cylindrical crown called a cephalium, 3 to 5 inches high, composed of reddish-brown acicular bristles, closely packed with cottony tomentum. At the summit of this crown the small rosy-pink flowers are produced, half protruding from the mass of wool, and these are succeeded by small red berries. These strange plants usually grow in rocky places with little or no earth to support them; and it is said that in times of drought the cattle resort to them to allay their thirst, first ripping them up with their horns and tearing off the outer skin, and then devouring the moist succulent parts. The fruit, which has an agreeably acid flavour, is frequently eaten in the West Indies. The *Melocacti* are distinguished by the distinct cephalium or crown which bears the flowers.

MAMMILLARIA.—This group, which comprises nearly 300 species, mostly Mexican, with a few Brazilian and West Indian, is called Nipple Cactus, and consists of globular or cylindrical succulent plants, whose surface instead of being cut up into ridges with alternate furrows, as in *Melocactus*, is broken up into teat-like cylindrical or angular tubercles, spirally arranged, and terminating in a radiating tuft of spines which spring from a little woolly cushion. The flowers issue from between the mammilla, towards the upper part of the stem, often disposed in a zone just below the apex, and are either purple, rose-pink, white, or yellow, and of moderate size. The spines are variously coloured, white and yellow tints predominating, and from the symmetrical arrangement of the areolæ or tufts of spines they are very pretty objects, and are hence frequently kept in drawing-room plant cases.

ECHINOCACTUS is the name given to the group bearing the popular name of Hedgehog Cactus. It comprises some 200 species, of which more than half are natives of Mexico, and the rest are scattered through South America, extending as far south as Buenos Ayres. They have the fleshy stems characteristic of the order, these being either globose, oblong, or cylindrical, and either ribbed as in *Melocactus*, or broken up into distinct tubercles, and most of them armed with stiff sharp spines, set in little woolly cushions occupying the place of the buds. The flowers, produced near the apex of the plant, are generally large and showy, yellow and rose being the prevailing colours. They are succeeded by succulent fruits, which are exerted, and frequently scaly or spiny, in which respects this genus differs both from *Melocactus* and *Mammillaria*, which have the fruits immersed and smooth. One of the most interesting species is the *E. Visnaga*, of which some very large plants have been from time to time imported. A specimen weighing one ton, and measuring 9 feet high, and 3 feet in diameter, was received at Kew some years since, but owing to injuries received during transit, it did not long survive. These large plants have from forty to fifty ridges, on which the buds and clusters of spines are sunk at intervals, the aggregate number of the spines having been in some cases computed at upwards of 50,000 on a single plant. These spines are used by the Mexicans as toothpicks, whence the name *Visnaga*.

CEREUS.—This group bears the trivial name of Torch Thistle. It comprises about 150 species, scattered through South America and the West Indies. In one series, numbering between twenty and thirty species, sometimes separated under the name of *Echinocereus*, the stems are short, branched or simple, divided into few or many