

it assumes a green colour for more than a fortnight, owing to the quantity of vegetable matter which it brings down from its upper course. It then resumes its turbid character for the period of the rise, and retains it, though in a less degree, for the remaining portion of the year, until the following midsummer. The water is extremely sweet, particularly in its turbid state. A careful filtration destroys its peculiar flavour, and the best method is to allow it to settle in the porous jars manufactured in the country. It is very wholesome, except during the short period at which it is green. The turbid appearance, greatest during the rise and inundation, is owing to the presence of large quantities of earthy matter, which are annually deposited. This deposit or mud of the Nile has been analyzed by M. Regnault. The specimen was dry, and taken from a canal which conducted the waters of the inundation. He obtained the following results:—

Water.....	11
Carbon.....	09
Oxide of iron.....	06
Silica.....	04
Carbonate of magnesia.....	04
Carbonate of lime.....	18
Alumen.....	48

M. Regnault remarks that the quantities of silica and alumen vary according to the places whence the mud is taken, and that on the banks of the Nile it contains much sand, but when carried by the waters of the inundation to distant tracts it loses a quantity of sand in proportion to the distance, so that, when the distance is very considerable, the argillaceous matter is nearly pure; and thus the soil presents this matter in the different degrees of purity which the arts of pottery and brick-making require (*Descr. de l'Égypte*, xx. 162-164).

The Nile shows the first signs of rising in Egypt about the time of the summer solstice. At Khartoom, where the White and Blue Niles join, the beginning of the increase is observed early in April (Clot-Bey, *Aperçu*, i. p. 36, 37). The slowness of the rise in the earlier stage causes this difference. Usually the regular increase does not begin in Egypt until some days after the summer solstice, and the inundation begins about two months after that solstice. The river attains its greatest height at, or not long after, the autumnal equinox, and then, falling more slowly than it had risen, sinks to its lowest point at the end of nine months, when it remains stationary for a few days, until it begins again to increase. The inundation continues rather longer than it naturally would do, because the waters are retained for some time upon the lands by closing the mouths of the canals (see the table, *Descr. de l'Égypte*, xviii. i. 630, *seqq.*, for the details of the state of the Nile, from July 2, 1799, to April 10, 1800). The river's banks being a little higher than the rest of the cultivable soil, the water is conveyed by canals or cuttings, and does not pour over the banks.

The inundations vary considerably, and, by either failing or rising to too great a height, cause much damage and distress. In the *Description de l'Égypte* (xviii. i. 626-629) there is a table of 66 inundations, of which 11 were very high, 30 good, 16 feeble, and 9 insufficient. This table was taken from the official records of the Nilometer on the island of Er-Ródah, near Cairo, and comprehends the inundations of A.H. 1150-1215 (A.D. 1737-1800).

The Nile rises about 40 feet at the First Cataract, about 36 at Thebes, about 25 at Cairo, and about 4 at the Rosetta and Damietta mouths during a good inundation (*Englishwoman in Egypt*, i. 89; *Descr. de l'Égypte*, xviii. i. 576, 577). When it is said, however, that the river has attained to a certain height in feet or cubits, the height at the Nilometer of Er-Ródah above-mentioned is meant; and

by ancient writers, that of the river at Memphis, which was situated on the western bank, a little higher than Er-Ródah. If the river do not attain a greater height than 18 or 20 feet, the rise is scanty; if only 2 or 4 feet more, insufficient; if it attain to 24 feet, or a greater height, not exceeding 27 feet, the inundation is good; but a higher rise must be characterized as a destructive flood (*Descr. de l'Égypte*, xviii. i. 616). Sometimes the inundation has failed altogether; as for seven years (A.H. 457-464) in the reign of the Fátimée caliph El-Mustansir bi-lláh, when there was a seven-years' famine (see below, page 752); and low inundations always cause dearths. Excessive inundations, on the other hand, produce, or at least foster, the plague and murrain; so that a variation of a few feet is productive of the most serious consequences.

The current, when the Nile is low, has been estimated at about 2 miles in the hour, and at about 3 miles an hour when it is high. The volume of water which the Nile pours into the Mediterranean in 24 hours is as follows, according to M. Linant:—

		Cubic Metres.
During the low Nile,	{ by the Rosetta Branch,	79,532,551,728
	{ by the Damietta Branch,	71,033,840,640
		150,566,392,368
During the high Nile,	{ by the Rosetta Branch,	478,317,838,960
	{ by the Damietta Branch,	227,196,828,480
		705,514,667,440

—(Clot-Bey, *Aperçu*, i. 41).

Although the water is abundantly charged with alluvium throughout the year, and especially during the inundation, the annual deposit by the river, except under extraordinary circumstances, is very much smaller than might be supposed. Various computations have been made as to the exact deposit left in a century on the land, but they have not usually differed above an inch. If, however, we compare the quantity of deposit on certain very ancient structures, of which we know the date, we shall find that the amount has materially differed in various places. Such differences are the natural results of irregularities in the river's course, of the strength or weakness of the current at particular places, of the nature of the country, and many other disturbing causes. The mean ordinary rate of the increase of the soil of Egypt has been calculated by Mr Lane as about $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches in a century. M. Girard, in the *Descr. de l'Égypte*, makes it "very nearly" 126 millimètres, or 4.960 English inches. (For a remarkable instance of rapid deposit, see the *Englishwoman in Egypt*, i. 132-134, and plan, p. 126.)

The cultivable land of Egypt must be regarded as wholly the deposit of the Nile, but it is vain to attempt a calculation of the period at which this process began, since we cannot conclude that the same rate has always obtained, and we must suppose that the causes at first in operation were very different from those which now regulate the phenomenon.

At the time of the French occupation of Egypt it was found that the cultivable soil occupied only 6921 square miles, or somewhat more than two-thirds of the whole space included between the deserts; but the quantity actually under cultivation did not exceed 5500 square miles, or six-elevenths of the entire surface. This proportion has since not materially changed. It was not always so, and the deficiency of the population is the principal cause that so large a proportion of the soil which might possibly be brought into a state of culture is left uncultivated.

Throughout Egypt the cultivable soil does not present any very great difference, being always the deposit of the river; it contains, however, more sand near the river than at a distance from it. Towards the Mediterranean, its

quality is injured by the salt with which the air is impregnated, and therefore it is not so favourable to vegetation. This condition, however, is not usually found far south of the sea, or the salt-marshes and lakes, which intervene for the most part between it and the land. In Lower Egypt we find the greater portion of the neglected tracts principally to the east and west of the modern Delta, and in its northern portion. In Upper Egypt the narrowness of the valley, and the more numerous population, preserve the country in a better state of cultivation, and the soil is somewhat richer. The largest uncultivated tracts lie on the western bank, where the valley is broadest, and in places where the great canal running parallel to the Nile has fallen into a state of neglect.

Condition of the Country.—Although some of the accounts of the classics may be deemed exaggerated when they speak of the population and prosperity of Egypt, we cannot accuse them of errors, except in the number of towns and of the inhabitants of the country; for the monuments show us how rich was Egypt under native rulers, and indicate to what causes this condition may reasonably be assigned. From the time at which the Great Pyramid was built to the Persian invasion, a period of between 2000 and 3000 years, the population of Egypt and its extent of cultivated land far exceeded what they are in the present day. The country does not seem to have been over-peopled; and many causes conduced to prevent this, particularly the serious wars in which the Pharaohs engaged. The long and desolating struggles with the Assyrians and Persians inflicted a severe blow on the interests of the country. Under the Macedonians it recovered much of its former prosperity; and when the Romans held Egypt, it was one of their most productive provinces, and a granary of the empire. During the Roman rule various political causes contributed to the decline of the population. After the Muslim conquest this decay continued almost uninterruptedly until the time of the Fátimées; but from that time until the Turkish conquest the rulers of the successive independent dynasties generally governed the country with a regard for its interests, and cannot be accused of the systematic tyranny and misrule of the Turkish pashas. There was a temporary recovery under the independent or semi-independent Memlook rulers before the French invasion; and in spite of much of the Turkish system the country has again made good progress during the government of the family of Mehemet Ali. To over-taxation, forced labour, and needless wars,—in other words, government in a Turkish sense,—must be attributed the present misery of the peasant population, and the want of hands enough to cultivate the soil.

Physical causes have had far less to do with the impoverishment of Egypt than political ones. The elevation of the tract north of the Gulf of Suez, with the depression of the north coast of Egypt, has much diminished the cultivable soil in the Delta, by increasing the salt lakes and marshes which occupy its northern portion. There is, however, no greater fallacy than to suppose that the sands of the deserts have done injury by encroaching upon the alluvial tracts, and that once fertile regions are buried beneath them. In some places undoubtedly they have encroached upon the cultivable land, particularly where, as in the case of the canal of the Red Sea, the neglect of the Government had withdrawn the inundation, but no sooner was the Sweet Water Canal opened than fertility returned. On the other hand the deposit of the Nile has been constantly, in almost every part of the country, encroaching upon the deserts and diminishing their extent. It is neglect that has permitted the sand to drift over the soil where there have been no labourers to cultivate it. Above Gebel-es-Silsileh, in Upper Egypt, the change in the level of the river has placed cul-

tivable soil almost wholly beyond the reach of the inundation, and thus made agriculture very laborious, but this is only for the space of about 40 miles in Egypt, where the extent of the cultivable soil must always have been small on account of the narrowness of the valley. The failure of five of the seven branches of the Nile is partly due to the neglect of the Government, as they might all have been retained as constantly running canals; and the decay of the great canal which runs parallel to the Nile throughout the chief part of Upper Egypt is traceable to the same cause.

Under the government of Mehemet Ali a great engineering work was begun with the view of bettering the condition of Egypt. This was the construction of a barrage across both branches of the Nile at the point of the Delta, in order to regulate the inundation, and thus render the country more fertile and easy of cultivation. After being abandoned this work is now to be completed. Its operation will on the whole be beneficial, although undoubtedly the power to be thus acquired by the khedive, of regulating the inundation for the benefit of his lands without reference to small proprietors, will be productive of much injustice. Egypt can never regain her ancient prosperity without a radical reform. The country has been governed under the Turks upon the system of getting the maximum of revenue from a peasantry allowed the minimum of sustenance. This is what is meant by the high-flown phrases one hears about the welfare of Egypt. The welfare of the population has never been contemplated. The frugal peasantry are kept at starvation-point, and no one prospers but the tax-gatherers of all grades, who constitute the richer class. Yet Egypt is better governed than the other provinces of the Turkish empire which enjoy a purely Turkish administration, for it is held not on the uncertain tenure of an ordinary pashalik, but as a copyhold which it is the interest of the tenant to keep in decent repair.

Agriculture.—Under the Pharaohs Egypt was an agricultural country, and both commerce and manufactures were comparatively unimportant. The main energies of the people were expended in turning to the best account a soil of unexcelled richness, annually watered and renewed by the river. This natural policy was the true one for the prosperity of the country. From the sculptures and paintings of the tombs, we form a clear idea of the agriculture of the ancient Egyptians, while the classical writers give us information respecting the tenure of land, and the laws affecting the cultivators.

In the representations of the tombs which picture the daily life of the great proprietors of land, we learn what especial attention they paid to the processes of agriculture. We see them constantly overseeing the labourers, and thus watching the interests of their lands. They were especially anxious to conduct the water of the Nile over those tracts which were not above its level at different periods of the year, and to raise it by manual labour to the higher portions of the land. In their canal-system they displayed mechanical skill, as well as in the construction of dams and dikes to retain the water upon the lands; but for raising water they seem to have been contented with the rudest contrivances. Indeed we know of but two methods that were employed in raising water,—the use of the simple machine called in the present day the shádoof, and buckets carried by men. The ordinary shádoof still employed is of the same form as that used by the ancient Egyptians. It consists of a pole resting upon a beam placed across two columns of brick or mud, and having at one extremity a weight, and at the other a rude bowl-shaped bucket suspended by a stick. A man stands beneath it, and pulling down the bucket to the water raises it again, assisted by the weight. (For the ancient form of the shádoof, see *Anc. Eg.*, ii. 4; for the modern, *Mod. Eg.*, chap. xiv.)

Immediately after the water of the inundation had subsided, the land was ploughed or broken up by the hoe, and sown, the seed being sometimes trodden in by goats driven over the field for the purpose. Wheat being the most important field-produce, we find the various agricultural processes connected with it frequently represented. Besides the ploughing and sowing, the harvest is depicted, the reapers cutting the wheat just below the ear, the ears being carried in nets or baskets by men or on asses to the thrashing-floor, where they were thrashed by kine. Sometimes the wheat was bound in sheaves. The same or similar processes with reference to other kinds of grain are portrayed in the tombs, in which we also find curious representations of the vineyards and gardens. The vineyard was not the least valuable part of an estate. Egypt was famous for its wines in the days of the Greeks and Romans; and it is evident that wine must have been prized in earlier times from several kinds being enumerated in the inscriptions, and from its always being seen at the feasts. Besides the vine, other fruit-trees were cultivated, and especially the date-palm. The gardens were often extensive, and were laid out with great formality, partly in consequence of their being watered in the same manner as the fields generally, and contained tanks for fish as well as for purposes of inundation. The Egyptians paid great attention to preserving fish, and the produce of the fisheries of one great artificial lake, that of Moëris, formed an important branch of the revenue. There were also tracts left to reeds, which, if not planted, were at least carefully maintained, on account of their value for manufactures, and as covers for wild-fowl.

Diodorus Siculus states that anciently the land was the property of the priests, of the king, and of the military class (i. 73), and the monuments leave little room to doubt that such was generally the case; for though there were no castes, the upper classes consisted of priests and military officers, and the son usually followed his father's profession. It is stated in the Bible that Joseph purchased the whole of the land of the Egyptians for food during the famine, and gave them seed to sow it, claiming a fifth of the produce as the king's right. The land of the priests alone was not purchased.

The agriculture of the modern Egyptians differs little from that of the old inhabitants. In one respect it is the converse: the ancients excelled in the management of dikes and dams, and raised water only by the simplest methods; the moderns, while they have paid less attention to the great canals, and the means by which they were regulated, have employed more ingenious methods of artificial irrigation. The deficiency of population has partly caused the decay of many of the canals and dams and dikes, and has at the same time necessitated the economizing of human labour, for which that of cattle has been in a great measure substituted.

Of the machines the most common is the shádoof, already described, but there are also two kinds of water-wheels. The more usual of these is that called the sákiyeh, which is composed of a horizontal wheel turned by a pair of cows or bulls, or by one, and connected with a vertical wheel which is on the same axis as another around which are earthen pots in which the water is raised and poured into a trough. The táboot is a similar machine, which differs from the sákiyeh principally in having a hollow wheel instead of the wheel with pots, in the jaunts or fellies of which the water is conveyed. Sometimes a katweh is employed, which is a bucket like that of the shádoof, having four cords by which two men dip it into the river or canal and raise the water. (*Mod. Eg.*, ch. xiv.) Steam-pumps are now largely used.

"The 'rei' lands (or those which are naturally inundated) are, with some exceptions, cultivated but once during the year. After the waters have retired, about the end of October or beginning of

November, they are sown with wheat, barley, lentils, beans, lupins, chick-peas, &c. This is called the 'shitawee' (or winter) season. But the 'sharákee' lands (or those which are too high to be subject to the natural inundation), and some parts of the rei, by artificial irrigation are made to produce three crops every year; though not all the sharákee lands are thus cultivated. The lands artificially irrigated produce, first, their shitawee crops, being sown at the same period as the rei lands, generally with wheat or barley. Secondly, in what is called the 'seyfee,' or in the southern part of Egypt the 'keydee' or 'geydee' (that is, the summer) season, commencing about the vernal equinox, or a little later, they are sown with millet ('durah seyfee'), or with indigo or cotton, &c. Thirdly, in the 'demeereh' season, or period of the rise of the Nile, commencing about or soon after the summer solstice, they are sown with millet again, or with maize ('durah shámee'), &c., and thus crowned with a third harvest. Sugar is cultivated throughout a large portion of Upper Egypt; and rice in the low lands near the Mediterranean."—*Mod. Eg.*, l. c.

The culture of cotton was introduced by Méhemet Ali with a view to promote his manufacturing schemes, and the Turkish grandees have found it a source of temporary profit. During the American War the profit was at its height, but subsequently it declined. The necessity of constructing dams to exclude the Nile water from the cotton-growing fields has rendered the inundations destructive, and the speculation seems on the whole to have injured the welfare of Egypt.

The agricultural implements of the modern Egyptians are rude in construction, and similar to those anciently employed in the country. One of these, however, was not known to the earlier inhabitants. This is the nórag, a machine "in the form of a chair, which moves upon small iron wheels or thin circular plates, generally eleven, fixed to three thick axle-trees, four to the foremost, the same number to the hindmost, and three to the intermediate axle-tree. This machine is drawn in a circle by a pair of cows or bulls over the corn." It is employed to separate the grain of wheat, barley, &c., and to cut the straw, which is used for fodder. (*Mod. Eg.*, l. c.) The ancient Egyptians, as before remarked, generally cut the wheat near the ear.

An Egyptian garden is a miniature Egypt. It is intersected by numerous small channels which are filled by one or more water-wheels. By these channels the water is spread over the garden, divided by them into many square compartments, edged with ridges of earth. This system of course makes it very difficult to keep a garden in good order, and no great variety of flowers is cultivated.

Though Méhemet Ali was very desirous to encourage manufactures, he did not endeavour enough to apply modern science to the improvement of agriculture. Ibrahim Pasha, who succeeded him, always maintained that the country should be agricultural rather than manufacturing, and introduced important improvements during his father's government. This system has been steadily pursued by the present ruler.

Before the time of Méhemet Ali a kind of feudal system prevailed, and much of the land was held by small proprietors under the protection of the great emeers. By the massacre of the Memlooks, the pasha destroyed feudalism, and by arbitrarily seizing almost all the landed property, rendered private tenure of land a most rare condition. He allotted to those whom he thus unjustly dispossessed annual pensions for life, as the only compensation for an act of tyranny to which even the history of Egypt scarcely affords a parallel (*Mod. Eg.*, ch. iv.). Those whose lands were not confiscated yielded them up through fear, and buried their title-deeds, which are yet so concealed. A system of government in which the supreme authority overlooks such acts, and subordinate governors perpetrate them, in defiance of the Muslim code and Arab jurisprudence, demands the most thorough and searching reform.

Lakes.—Egypt has always been famous for its lakes,

which have either aided commerce, or supplied the inhabitants of the country with fish and wild fowl, or with valuable vegetable productions, or assisted in regulating the effects of the inundation. All have enriched the land in some one of these ways, and thus they have been important sources of its natural wealth.

Beginning our examination at the north-western extremity of Egypt, we first observe the lake now called Boheyret-Maryoot,¹ and anciently Lake Mareotis. This is an extensive salt marsh rather than a lake, except during the inundation, when its contents are augmented by filtration. Anciently this lake was navigable, and thus contributed to the commercial importance of Alexandria. The country around was cultivated, and produced the famous Mareotic wine. The relations of various travellers show that it was still a lake during the 15th and 16th, and even towards the close of the 17th century; and Villamont in 1590 mentions that in his time the fisheries produced a considerable sum (*Descr. de l'Égypte*, xvi. 201). When, however, the French army conquered and occupied Egypt (1798–1801) they found its basin to be "a sandy plain, of which the lower portion retained the rain-water, which remained there for a great part of winter" (*Id.* 200, 201). On the 4th of April 1801 the English army, which was co-operating with that of the Grand Vizir against the French garrison of Alexandria, cut the dikes of the canal of that city, and admitted the waters of the Lake of Aboo-Keer into the ancient bed of Lake Mareotis, in order to cut off the water supply of the besieged (*Id.* 201, 202). The basin of the lake being partially inhabited, some loss of life and property was the result of this act, which has reasonably been much called in question. The unhealthiness of Alexandria is also traceable to the formation of this marsh. The precedent thus set has been twice imitated, first by the Turks in 1803, and a second time by the English army under General Fraser in 1807. At the present day the lake or marsh is unprofitable, and its shores are uncultivated and uninhabited, the whole wearing the most dreary aspect.

To the north of Lake Mareotis is situate that of Aboo-Keer, Boheyret-Aboo-Keer. It is the northernmost portion of the other lake, from which it is separated by the Mahmoodeech Canal (which here occupies the line of the older Canal of Alexandria), and the embankments or dikes which form its banks. It is very small, nowhere measuring 10 miles across, and extremely shallow, usually not exceeding 3 feet in depth. The water is salt, being chiefly derived from the sea, from which the lake is separated by a narrow strip of land on the western side, and on the eastern by a similar strip of far less breadth, the shore of the memorable Bay of Aboo-Keer.

To the east of the Lake of Aboo-Keer is that of Atkoo, Boheyret-Atkoo. It spreads when full nearly to the town of Rosetta, and is separated from the sea by a narrow neck of land on which stands the large village of Atkoo. Its extent varies according to the quantity of water which it receives from the inundation (*Descr. de l'Égypte*, xvi. 204).

The great Lake of El-Barullus begins a little to the eastward of the Rosetta Branch, and stretches to somewhat beyond where the canal which was anciently the Sebennyitic Branch enters it, and passing through it reaches the sea. Like the other northern lakes, it is separated from the Mediterranean by a narrow strip of land, the coast of Egypt. It is throughout very shallow (*Id.* 205). It is chiefly known for its water-melons, which are

¹ "Boheyreh," (pronounced "Boheyret" when followed by a genitive) signifies "a little sea," being the diminutive of "bahr," "a sea," and is applied to large lakes, smaller ones receiving the appellation "birkel." The distinction is not always maintained, for the great lake of the Feiyoom is called Birket-el-Karn.

yellow within instead of being red or pink, and come into season after those grown on the banks of the Nile.

The easternmost of the lakes of Egypt is Boheyret-el-Menzeleh, which greatly exceeds the others in size. It extends from very near the Damietta Branch of the Nile to the mouth of the old Tanitic Branch, now called the canal of El-Mo'izz, which passes through the lake to the sea. It also receives the waters of the canals which were once the Mendesian and Pelusiac Branches. The northern shore is separated from the sea by an extremely narrow strip of land. At its south-eastern extremity is a long marshy creek extending into the desert. Its average length is about 40 miles, and its average breadth about 15. The depth is greater than that of the other lakes, and the water is salt, though mixed with fresh. Upon the surface are numerous islands, and the whole lake abounds in reeds of various kinds. It supports a considerable population of rude fishermen, who dwell in villages on the shore and islands, and live upon the fish of the lake. The reeds are cover for water-fowl of various kinds, which the traveller sees in great numbers, and wild boars are found in the marshes to the south. (*Mod. Eg. and Thebes*, i. 446.)

The Lake Serboais, well known in former times as having swallowed up those passing over its marshes concealed by shifting sands, is now dry, and cannot be any longer included in the list of the lakes of Egypt.

Besides the lakes above mentioned are those called the Bitter Lakes, which should rather be termed marshes, occupying part of the ancient bed of the Red Sea between Suez and Lake Menzeleh, and also the Natron Lakes. The latter, which are very small, are situate in a valley of the western desert, not very far from the river: they will be noticed below.

In Upper Egypt there is but one lake of importance. It is the Birket-el-Karn, or Lake of El-Karn, at the extremity of the Feiyoom, which is, as already mentioned, an oasis on the western side of the river, to which an opening in the mountains leads. The lake is about 35 miles long, and its widest part a little exceeds 7 miles, according to Sir Gardner Wilkinson, while in several places it is considerably narrower. About the middle is a single island. The depth is not great, for the same author, who "sounded in several places," "found what is considered the deepest part to be only 28½ feet" (*Mod. Egypt and Thebes*, ii. 344–5). Its level is far below that of the Nile, as the bank of the river at Beneh-Suweyf, at the entrance of the valley leading to the Feiyoom, is upwards of a hundred feet higher than the water of the lake (*Ibid.* 346). The shores are barren or uncultivated; the northern is desert and bounded by sandy mountains; the southern was in ancient times partly cultivated. The water is brackish and unwholesome, though the fishermen, of whom there are a few, drink it.

The famous Lake Moëris lay between the Feiyoom and the Nile, not far from the river. It was an artificial work executed by Amenemhat III., of Dynasty XII. The irrigation of neighbouring tracts was regulated by it, and its fisheries formed an important part of the revenue. After the subjugation of Egypt by the Romans its dikes were neglected, and by degrees it became ruined. Its position and extent were considered doubtful, until M. Linant's excellent memoir, published by the Egyptian Society of Cairo, established these points most satisfactorily from the remains of its basin, which are yet traceable (*Mémoire sur le Lac Moëris*, Soc. Eg., 1843).

Canals.—The canals of Egypt deserve especial attention from their great importance in extending the beneficial influence of the inundation. In Lower Egypt we find, beginning from the west, first the Mahmoodeech Canal, which connects Alexandria with the Rosetta Branch, taking

a similar direction to that of the ancient canal which it has succeeded. It was dug under Mehemet Ali; and although not quite 50 miles in length, and not 100 feet broad, about 12,000 labourers are said to have died in ten months while the work was in progress (*Englishwoman in Egypt*, i. 47, 48). This is well known to be a tolerably accurate statement of the losses experienced by the unfortunate workmen, and is only one of the many instances which the history of our own times affords of that reckless disregard of human life, which is one of the worst traits of Turkish character.¹

Between the Rosetta and Damietta Branches are several canals, some of which are of importance, particularly the short canal of Manoof connecting the two branches not far from the point of the Delta. To the east of the Damietta Branch are others, of which the most remarkable occupy the beds of the Tanitic and Pelusiatic Branches, which have been cleared to a sufficient extent to form canals. The former of these, which lies to the westward of the other, is called the Canal of El-Mo'izz, the first Fátimée caliph who ruled in Egypt, having been dug by his orders, and the latter bears the name of the Canal of Abu-l-Munegga, a Jew who executed this work, under the caliph El-Amir, in order to water the province called the Sharkeeyeh. The last mentioned canal is connected with the remains of that which anciently joined the Nile and the Red Sea. Of this important work the greater part was destroyed through neglect, but it has been restored, as the Sweet Water Canal, in order to supply the establishments on the Suez Canal with fresh water. It was of the Pharaonic times, having been begun by Ramses II., or Sesostris, continued by Neku II. and by Darius Hystaspis, and at length finished by Ptolemy Philadelphus.

The extent and character of the great canal called the Bahr-Yoosuf, or River of Joseph, which runs parallel with the Nile on its western side, from a little below Cairo to near Farshoot, a distance by the river of about 350 miles, render it the most important work of the kind in Egypt. It is a continuous series of canals rather than one canal. Although the Joseph whence it takes its name is the celebrated Saladin, or Saláh-ed-deen, yet it is related that he merely repaired it, and it is not doubted to be of a much earlier period. Most probably it was executed under the Pharaohs. In the present day it is not navigable except during the season of the inundation, and at other times is dry in various places. Its restoration would not be a work of extreme difficulty, and would greatly benefit the commerce and agriculture of the country, perhaps more than any other undertaking of the kind.

¹ A note from the eighth edition of this work is here reprinted in substance:—Writers on the East have not generally been careful to distinguish the Turkish and Arab national character, and the former has thus had the advantage of the virtues of the latter, which has received in return the odium of the other's vices. The remarkable characteristics of Arab character are high honour, generous hospitality, and humanity, coupled with much deceit in small matters not considered points of honour, carelessness as to religion, though not irreligion, and a love of plunder. The Turkish character is as strongly marked by treachery, often of the blackest kind, little hospitality, particularly to strangers, cruelty and disregard of human life, bigotry as to their religion, which is now giving way to deism, and the same love of plunder which is so common among the Arabs, as well as darker vices unknown to them, which have rendered the Turkish name a bye-word in the East, as well as in the West. The conquests of the Arabs were not marked by desolation; their rule preserved the philosophy of Greece, which was welcome at the court of Baghdad when unknown in Europe. Arab art was due to them, and though long maintained under Turkish rule, at last perished through it. The rule of the Turks is traced by ruined cities, and whole provinces laid waste; literature has forsaken its most famous seats, Constantinople, Athens, Alexandria, and Antioch; the arts have decayed. Until they held Egypt and Mesopotamia, these were the richest countries of the world, now they are half deserts. All these are facts which can be proved.

Vegetable Products.—Egypt differs from most other countries in having neither woods nor forests. Besides the palm groves, we rarely see even a grove of trees, except in Lower Egypt. The largest common trees are acacias, sycamore-fig-trees, and mulberry-trees, all of which are frequently planted on each side of the great roads near Cairo; and the most beautiful trees are the date-palm and the banana. The beauty of the palm is, however, in a great measure owing to art, for its lowest branches are annually cut, which causes it to grow high, and renders its head of elegant form. When wild, this tree has a far inferior appearance, being low, and having long ragged branches reaching to the ground; and its dates are small and poor in flavour. The Theban or dóm-palm is a very different tree, having two great branches, each of which divides into two other branches, a subdivision which continues still farther. The weeping-willow, myrtle, elm, and cypress are found in the gardens and plantations, with various trees bearing the fruits to be next mentioned: and the tamarisk is to be seen everywhere.

The most common of the fruits are dates of various kinds, which are sold half-ripe, ripe, dried, and pressed in their fresh moist state in mats or skins. Many different sorts are enumerated as known in Egypt. The dependencies, however, and not Egypt, produce the finest of these dates. The hotter and drier climates of the Oases and Lower Nubia best suit the date-palm; and the pressed dates of Seewah, the ancient Oasis of Jupiter Ammon, are among the most esteemed. The grape is a common fruit, but wine is not made from it on account of the prohibition of Mohammad. The Feiyoom is celebrated for its grapes, and chiefly supplies the market of Cairo. The most common grape is white, of which there is a small kind far superior to the ordinary sort. The black grapes are large, but comparatively tasteless. The vines are trailed on trelliswork, and form agreeable avenues in the gardens of Cairo; but little attention is paid to their culture, the common fault of Egyptian agriculture and gardening, due to the generosity of nature and the indolence of the inhabitants.

The best known fruits, besides dates and grapes, are figs, sycamore-figs, and pomegranates, apricots and peaches, oranges and citrons, lemons and limes, bananas, which are believed to be of the fruits of Paradise (being always in season), different kinds of melons (including some of aromatic flavour, and the refreshing water-melon), mulberries, Indian figs or prickly pears, the fruit of the lotus, and olives. Many of these are excellent, especially the figs and melons. The trees and plants which produce most of them are chiefly confined to the gardens. The cactus bearing the Indian fig is extremely common, and forms the hedges of gardens and plantations.

The general plan of an Egyptian garden has been already described. Although seldom in good order, such a garden is often picturesque, having a few date-palms and bananas, and perhaps overlooked by one of those houses of the old style of architecture which are rapidly disappearing. No great variety of flowers is cultivated. Among the more usual are the rose (which has ever been a favourite among the Arabs), the jasmine, narcissus, lily, oleander, chrysanthemum, convolvulus, geranium, dahlia, basil, the hinné plant (*Lawsonia alba*, or Egyptian privet, which is said to be a flower of Paradise), the helianthus, and the violet.

The vegetables, &c., are very common and of various kinds, so that we cannot wonder that the Children of Israel longed for them in the desert. The principal are beans, pease, vetches, lentils (of which a pottage is made, which is the common food of the Nile boatmen), lupins, chick-pease, the loobyeh (*Dolichos lubia*), fenugreek, mallows, the bamiyeh (*Hibiscus esculentus*), spinach, purslain.

meelookheeyeh (*Corchorus olitorius*), leeks, onions, garlic, celery, parsley, chicory, cress, radishes, carrots, turnips, colocasia, lettuce, cabbage, fennel, gourds and cucumbers (both of several kinds), the tomato, the egg-fruit or badingán (black and white), caraway, coriander, cumin, aniseed, and red pepper.

The chief field-produce is wheat (which is more grown than any other kind of corn), barley, several sorts of millet, maize, rice, oats, clover, pease, the sugar-cane, roses, two species of the tobacco-plant, and cotton, now largely cultivated. The sugar-cane is extensively cultivated, and excellent sugar is manufactured from it. There are fields of roses in the Feiyoom, which supply the market with rose-water. The tobacco produced in Egypt is coarse and strong compared with that which is used by the middle and upper classes and imported from Syria and Turkey. That of Syria is considered the best. Of textile plants, the principal are hemp, cotton, and flax; and of plants used for dyeing, bastard saffron, madder, woad, and the indigo plant. The intoxicating hasheesh, which some smoke in a kind of water-pipe formed of a cocoa-nut, two tubes, and a bowl, seldom used for any other narcotic, is not, as has been erroneously supposed, opium, but hemp. The effect is most baneful. The leaves of the hinné plant are used to impart a bright red colour to the palms of the hands, the soles of the feet, and the nails of both hands and feet, of women and children, the hair of old ladies, and the tails of horses. Indigo is very extensively employed to dye the shirts of the natives of the poorer classes, and is, when very dark, the colour of mourning; therefore, women at funerals, and generally after a death, smear themselves with it. Oil is extracted from the seeds of the cotton plant, hemp, colewort, the poppy, the castor-oil plant, sesame, and flax. The high coarse grass called halfeh (*Poa cynosuroides*) grows in great quantity in waste places and among ancient ruins.

Many kinds of reeds are found in Egypt, though, if we compare the representations in the ancient tombs with what we see in the present day, it is evident that they were formerly much more common. That they should be wasted away was prophesied by Isaiah (xix. 6, 7). The famous byblus, or papyrus, from which paper was manufactured, appears to be nearly, if not quite extinct, since Sir Gardner Wilkinson had never seen it (*Mod. Eg. and Thebes*, i. 441). M. Delile, in his excellent account of the Egyptian flora, merely mentions it by name in his list as the *Cyperus Papyrus*, called in Arabic *berdy*, and found at Damietta,¹ but gives no figure of it. The lotus, greatly prized for its flowers by the ancient inhabitants, is still found in Egypt, though it is not common. The French naturalist above mentioned enumerates three species which formerly grew in that country, one with white flowers, another with blue, and a third with rose-coloured, the last of which is now extinct there. On the botany of Egypt, see Boissier, *Flora Orientalis*, in progress.

Animals.—The zoology of Egypt is not of remarkable interest, although it contains some very curious points. The absence of jungle and of forest, and the little cover thus afforded to beasts of prey, as well as other wild animals, partly causes this; and we observe few birds of beautiful plumage for the same reason.

One of the most characteristic of the beasts is the camel, which is more at home in the dry climate of Egypt than elsewhere out of his native deserts. It has been remarked, however, that the camel, like his master the Arab,

¹ *Cyperus Papyrus*, Linn.—Arab. *berdy*, Damietta. Description de l'Égypte, tom. xix. 71. Other *Cyperi* are described at pp. 125-6 and 130-2 of the same volume.

degenerates when removed into a city or a cultivated tract, that the former commonly becomes mangy, and the latter experiences a physical and moral degradation. The Egyptian camel is of the one-humped kind, which has been erroneously called the dromedary, whereas the dromedary is merely a swift camel standing in the same relation to the ordinary camel that our saddle-horse does to our cart-horse. Camel's flesh is for the most part eaten only by the peasants and the Arabs of the desert; by the Copts it is considered unlawful food.

It is very remarkable that no representation of the camel has been found in the sculptures and paintings of the Egyptian monuments, among the very numerous figures of the animals of Egypt both tame and wild, and of those brought from foreign lands as presents. It does not appear to have been introduced into other African countries until after the Christian Era (comp. Desmoulins, *Mém. lu à l'Institut*, 28 Juin 1823); but it was known to the Egyptians, although it is by no means certain that it was one of their domestic beasts. Two passages in the Bible which speak of camels in the possession of Pharaohs (Gen. xii. 16; Ex. ix. 3) refer to the time at which foreign tribes had been settled in Egypt; and perhaps the camel was peculiarly the animal of one or all of those tribes, and, as they were hated by the Egyptians, it may have been omitted in the representations of the monuments.

To modern Egypt the camel is very valuable, since the traffic with Syria, Arabia, Western Africa, and Ethiopia is to a great extent carried on by caravans. But the ancient Egyptians appear to have derived their wealth more from tributary presents than from commerce, to have allowed their land commerce to be much in the hands of foreign merchants, like those who brought Joseph into Egypt, and to have left even their sea commerce partly at least to foreigners.

The horse is not known to have been used in Egypt before the time of the Empire. Thenceforward the horses of Egypt were famous, and the armies of the Pharaohs were noted for their war-chariots. From Egypt, Solomon, and in his time the kings of the Hittites and the kings of Syria, had horses and chariots (1 K. x. 28, 29). And long after, when first the kingdom of Israel and then that of Judah endeavoured to throw off the yoke of the great kings of the East, and made alliance with Egypt, they put their trust in Pharaoh's horses (Isa. xxxi. 1). In the representations of battles fought by the kings of the Empire we see no Egyptian cavalry, but only chariots, called "horse" in the inscriptions. At later times they may have had cavalry, properly speaking, of their own, and perhaps at all times among the mercenary or auxiliary forces.

In the present day the horses of Egypt are of a very indifferent breed, and the best that one sees in that country have been brought from Arabia and Syria, but these are seldom of great excellence. It is indeed surprising to find few really good horses in a country bordering on Arabia; and not many years ago this was still more remarkable, though not during the existence of the Memlooks. The finest Arabs, however, are kept in the background by their possessors, partly for fear of the "evil eye," and partly, in the case of all but the highest dignitaries, to avoid their forcible seizure by those of greater rank and power.

The Egyptian ass holds a middle place between that of Great Britain and the wild ass, which is more swift of foot than the horse. It is tall and handsome, docile, and having excellent paces, particularly a quick and easy amble. Thus it is well suited to the narrow streets of the towns of Egypt, and is therefore commonly used for riding by persons of the middle and lower classes. The mules are

handsome, but noted for vice, and for not being sure-footed.

The cattle are short-horned, rather small, and, as of old, very beautiful, speaking artistically. They are exceedingly quiet in disposition, and much valued for agricultural labour by the people, who therefore very rarely slaughter them for meat, and then only for the Franks. Buffaloes of an uncouth appearance and of a dark slaty colour, strikingly contrasting with the neat cattle, abound in Egypt. When voyaging on the Nile, one often sees them standing or lying in the river by herds. They are very docile, and the little children of the villagers often ride them to or from the river. They are sometimes slaughtered, but their flesh is tough and coarse. Sheep (of which the greater number are black) and goats are abundant in Egypt, and mutton is the ordinary butcher's meat. Swine are very rarely kept, and then almost wholly for the Franks, the Copts generally abstaining from eating their meat. It appears that the ancient Egyptians, though not forbidden this flesh, rarely ate it, perhaps because it is extremely unwholesome in a hot climate.

The Muslims consider dogs unclean, and therefore those of Cairo and most of the towns are half-wild and without masters, living upon offal, and upon food thrown to them by humane persons. In the villages, however, and particularly in the Thebais, their case is better, for they are kept as guards to protect live-stock from thieves, and from hyenas and other wild animals, which come from the deserts by night in quest of prey. The common dog of Egypt is generally of a sandy colour and strong, though not remarkable for courage; but in Upper Egypt, about Thebes, there is a fierce breed of dogs with wiry hair, generally black, and much esteemed for courage by their masters. Cats are as numerous in Cairo as dogs, and many of them are as homeless. They are, however, liked by the natives, who assign as their reason that Mohammad was fond of cats. This may perhaps be regarded as a relic of the veneration in which they were held by the ancient Egyptians. It is not a little curious, that there is at Cairo a royal foundation for the support of destitute cats. The author of this charity was the famous Memlook sultan, Edh-Dhahir Beybars, whose humane intentions have of late years been sadly neglected by the trustees.

The wolf, fox, jackal, and hyena chiefly inhabit the deserts and waste places of Egypt, and lurk in the ancient tombs and deserted quarries. The wild cat is also found in that country, though it is not common. The weasel abounds in Cairo, and is proverbial for its mischievous and revengeful disposition, and rats and mice are not among the least of the plagues. The ichneumon, jerboa, hare, and hyrax are likewise natives of Egypt or its deserts, and the tame rabbit is kept for food.

The beasts of the chase of the Egyptian deserts are antelopes of various kinds, and the wild ass, esteemed by the Arabs and Persians to be the prince of game, which is found in the southern part of the Eastern Desert. The most beautiful of the antelopes is the gazelle, which is often tamed and kept in the large courts of the houses of Cairo. In Lower Egypt, principally in the desolate marshes near the Mediterranean, the wild boar is found and occasionally hunted. It is, however, a timid animal, so that the sport is not, like boar-hunting elsewhere, exciting and dangerous.

From the representations in the tombs we see that in old times the hippopotamus was one of the wild beasts of the country. It has now retreated above the First Cataract, the southern boundary of Egypt. The crocodile has retreated in the same manner, and instead

of being found throughout the Nile in Egypt, is rarely seen even in Lower Nubia. The name of the island of Elephantine, situate a little to the north of the First Cataract, bearing the same signification in hieroglyphics as in Greek, makes it probable that at some remote period elephants were found in Upper Egypt, though now they are not seen north of Abyssinia.

In exploring the tombs and dark parts of the temples the traveller is annoyed by crowds of bats, which extinguish his candle, fly into his face, and cling to his clothes, sometimes rendering examination impossible without a lantern. One species is very large, but the common one is small.

Birds of prey are numerous in Egypt, and of many kinds. Of the most remarkable are three species of large naked-necked vultures—the Arabian, the sociable, and the fulvous; as well as the smaller species called the aquiline vulture. The aquiline vulture has a feathered neck, and when standing is by no means a handsome bird, but it is much to be admired when on the wing from the contrast of the black and white of its plumage, and the steady manner in which it soars in circles. Perhaps the bearded vulture breeds in the most lofty parts of the desolate mountains of the Eastern Desert; for when the French army was in Egypt, one of these birds was killed. It is said to have been of extraordinary size, measuring more than 14 Parisian feet, or more than 15 English, from point to point of its expanded wings. Several species of eagles and falcons, two kinds of hawks, the common buzzard, and the moor-harrier live in Egypt, or visit that country, according as they are migratory, erratic, or sedentary. The common kite abounds at Cairo, and is one of the chief scavengers of the city, the others being the crow, the aquiline vulture, the half-wild dog, and the cat. The ruins and tombs of Egypt, and the modern houses, scarcely ever in perfect repair, shelter owls of various kinds.

The Spanish sparrow, which differs little from that of Britain, the water-wagtail, linnets, and larks are among the birds of Egypt. The kind of kingfisher which is commonly seen on the Nile, perched on some eminence, and darting suddenly to seize a fish, is very inferior in its plumage, which is speckled, black and white, to the common kingfisher, which is also occasionally seen. The beautiful hoopoe is among the least rare birds, and there are also three species of bee-eaters. The hoopoe may be often seen in Cairo, where it is regarded with some reverence, as the bird of Solomon. Crows of the kind which we call the Royston crow are very numerous at Cairo. Birds of the swallow tribe, the wood-pecker, and the cuckoo are also known in Egypt.

In the metropolis, in the towns and villages, and in the fields, no bird is more common than the pigeon, tame or wild. Pigeon-fancying is a favourite amusement of all classes at Cairo, and in the villages the pigeon-houses are often loftier than the huts upon which they are raised. Tourists on the Nile inflict great loss on the poor peasantry by recklessly shooting these tame birds. Wild turtle-doves build in the courts of the houses of the capital. These courts often serve for the purpose of poultry-yards, in which fowls wander about without any care being taken of them, except that food is occasionally thrown to them. They are consequently meagre, and produce very small eggs. Turkeys, ducks, and geese are kept in the same manner.

Quails migrate to Egypt in great numbers; and sand-grouse, called by the natives *kata*, from their cry, are common in the deserts. There also the Arabs, like the ancient Egyptians, hunt the ostrich. A red-legged partridge is likewise found in Egypt.

The islands of the Nile, the sand-banks which appear when the river is low, the lakes and marshes, the sheets

of water caused by the inundation, and the mountains near the river, are the favourite resorts of many kinds of wading and of web-footed birds.

Of the waders the most interesting would be the sacred ibis of Egypt, if that bird be now found there. But it does not appear certain that only one species was anciently held sacred, and if so that this is the *Ibis religiosa* of Cuvier now known in Egypt. The Egyptian plover is famous on account of the story, which modern observation has confirmed, related by Herodotus respecting it and the crocodile. Among the most common waders are the spur-winged plover, the snow-white egret, which has been erroneously called the ibis, and the pelican. The cormorant, too, is often seen, as are wild geese and ducks, both of several kinds.

Of the many reptiles the crocodile occupies the first place. It is seldom observed in the present day in Upper Egypt. Some years ago it was usual south of Asyoot to see several crocodiles basking in the sun in the heat of the day on a sand-bank; at the approach of a boat they would quickly plunge into the stream. They rarely attack a human being, but it is unwise to bathe in the river at places where they are reputed to be fierce, and to bathe at any distance from a boat in the part of Upper Egypt where they are found. It is said that the crocodile's common mode of attacking a person on shore, who is near the river's edge, is to approach stealthily and sweep him into the stream by a blow of his tail, the great weapon of all the lizard-tribe. The smaller saurians are found in great numbers: of these a species of chameleon may be mentioned.

Serpents and snakes are among the most common reptiles, and are of various kinds, including the deadly cerastes and cobra di capello. The house snakes, however, which are numerous at Cairo, are harmless.

Fishes abound in the Nile and in the Lake Menzeleh. The modern inhabitants of the country are partial to fish as food, but they say that only those fishes which have scales are wholesome. The fishes of the Nile are generally insipid in comparison to those of the sea; though a few of them, particularly the bultee (*Labrus niloticus*, Linn.), the kishr (*Perca nilotica*), and the binnee (*Cyprinus bynni*, Arted.), are of a delicate flavour.

One of the most common insects is the dangerous scorpion. Its sting is very painful, and, if no remedy is applied, sometimes fatal, particularly if a person is stung in the heel.¹ Large spiders are abundant, including more than one species of *solpuga*, incorrectly called tarantulas by the Europeans, and believed by the natives to be very venomous, but this is most likely an error. Egypt has ever been famous for what may be termed insect-plagues, but not to the extent that has been asserted by some modern travellers. Caution will enable one partially to escape the attacks of fleas and bugs, and altogether to avoid the more dreaded insect usually spoken of with them. Beetles of various kinds are found, including that which was anciently held sacred, the scarabæus. Locusts are seldom seen, and very rarely in large numbers. When, however, such is the case, they commit great havoc in the fields and gardens, reminding one of the account of the plague of locusts which preceded the Exodus, and the remarkable passage in the book of Joel (ii. 1-11) describing an invading army as a destructive flight of locusts. Sometimes they merely cross the valley of Upper Egypt, and leave the mark of their passage in desolated fields, entirely stripped of verdure; and at other times they spread themselves for days, or even weeks, over the cultivated lands, committing far more extensive mischief.

¹ A little ipécacuanha, made into a paste with water and applied externally to the place stung, has produced, in the many instances in which the writer has known it used, almost instant relief.

Bees are kept in Egypt, and their honey is much prized by the inhabitants, who usually eat it in a clarified state. It is inferior to that of England, and also to the famous Greek honey. Butterflies and moths of many kinds are observed in the fields. There are plantations of mulberry trees in the eastern part of Lower Egypt, for the rearing of silk-worms. The manufacture of silks was a Government monopoly, but has lately ceased to be so. The silks of Egypt are generally inferior to those of Syria and other Eastern countries, though some have been produced of great excellence. Among the other insects may be mentioned the common fly, rightly deserving a place among the plagues of Egypt, as does also the mosquito, which, however, is not found throughout the country.

Ancient Inhabitants.—In the following remarks on the ancient Egyptians great assistance has been derived from the valuable work of Sir Gardner Wilkinson on their Manners and Customs, which has made us better acquainted with them than we are with any other people of antiquity. From the representations of their monuments, and from the mummies which have been unrolled, we can form an accurate idea of the personal characteristics of the ancient Egyptians. In consequence of a misconception of a passage in Herodotus (ii. 104), and confused notions respecting the inhabitants of Africa, it has been often supposed that the Egyptians were very nearly allied to the negro race. A careful examination of the most distinct data in our possession has, however, produced a far different result; and it is now acknowledged that they were more related to the Caucasian than to the negro type. It has also been shown that most of the modern inhabitants have preserved many of the characteristics of their ancient predecessors, and that it is, therefore, erroneous to suppose that they are chiefly of Arab origin, although the intermixture of Arab blood has so much changed the national type that it would not be safe to describe the earlier people from the appearance of the present. Nevertheless, one is often struck, among the remains of ancient monuments, by the similarity of an early representation to some one of the natives standing by, priding himself upon an Arab origin, and repudiating the reproach that he is of the race of Pharaoh.

Judging from the monuments and mummies, the countenance of the ancient Egyptians was oval, and narrower in the case of the men than of the women. The forehead was small and somewhat retiring, but well-shaped; the eyes large, long, and generally black; the nose rather long, and with a slight bridge; the mouth expressive, with rather full lips, and white and regular teeth; the chin small and round, and the cheek-bones a little prominent. The hair was long, full, crisp, somewhat harsh, and almost always black. The beard was worn in so artificial a mode that one cannot judge whether it was full or not. The skin of the men was dark brown; that of the women varied from olive to pink flesh-colour in different persons. The colour of the women was natural, and the darker hue of the men the result of exposure to the sun, and the scantiness of their clothing explains why their faces were not darker than the rest of their bodies.

The dress of the ancient Egyptians did not much vary at different periods. Under Dynasty IV. it was, however, simpler than under the Empire. As most monuments remain of the Empire, the dress of the inhabitants at that time will be described, and this description will apply, in its main particulars, to the earlier and later times of their ancient history.

The men of all classes either had shaven heads, with skull-caps, or wore their own hair, or wigs, very full, and in numerous plaits or curls, falling to the shoulders, but sometimes much shorter and in the form of a bag; there