

Map
of the
CRIMEA or TAURIDA,
to illustrate the Voyage
of J. REVELLY in
1803.



TRAVELS
IN
THE CRIMEA,

AND
ALONG THE SHORES OF THE
BLACK SEA.

PERFORMED DURING THE YEAR 1803,

BY J. REUILLY,

AUDITOR OF THE FRENCH COUNCIL OF STATE, MEMBER OF THE
LEGION OF HONOUR, &c.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

THE present work is the result of my observations during my residence in the Crimea, as well as of my reading, and the information which I acquired from many well-informed persons, amongst whom, with pride, I mention M. Pallas, to whose liberal communications I am indebted for an ample series of interesting facts.

This venerable and illustrious traveller received me with peculiar kindness, and his house soon became my home. He bears his age uncommonly well; his dress is simple, and his conversation always interesting. When he was out of his study, this learned naturalist appeared one of the most agreeable men in the world, and nobody could be more capable of giving an accurate account of the country in which he has resided several years. He had the complaisance to read over and correct the observations which I had made, and even to enrich them with notes of his own.

The remarks which several travellers have made upon the Crimea, are either imperfect or obsolete. I have therefore availed myself of that information

which some of them have given, but particularly that of M. Pallas, as far as it corroborates, my own remarks; and I have given an account of the changes which have taken place in the Crimea, from its occupation by the Russians to the present day.

The kindness of M. Pallas has been seconded in France by the learned continuator of Buffon; and I with gratitude add the names of the celebrated Messrs. Lacépède, Langles, and Millin, who have enriched my work with two interesting essays on the coins and medals which are mentioned in my travels.



Crossing the Timan.



*A Tatar Nobleman on Horseback
A Mountain Tatar & a Shepherd.*



Taking leave of the Tatar Prince.

TRAVELS
IN THE
CRIMEA, &c. &c.

CHAP. I.

MY DEPARTURE FROM ST. PETERSBURG FOR ODESSA,
AND FROM THENCE TO THE CRIMEA.

I LEFT St. Petersburg in the beginning of February, 1803, in company with M. de Richelieu, who had just been appointed governor-general of Odessa. I was induced to quit the capital of Russia, after residing in it two months, merely through my desire to see the Crimea. Never did a traveller set off in higher spirits or more favourable weather; though, as I had several friends to part from, I went away with rather a heavy heart. I had been treated with great kindness, and had received such testimonies of friendship, that I experienced every sentiment which renders a separation painful. Being left to myself, without the power of communicating my ideas or sensations, I undertook a long journey to a country which was to me unknown; as was also the language of the people by whom it is inhabited. The anxiety which I experienced, and the silence which I was obliged to observe, were therefore rather irksome.

I soon, however, arrived at the Liman, which advances from the sea into the Steppe*: the south winds often render its passage dangerous; but I passed it, riding behind my conductor, and my carriage arrived safe: thanks to the care and strength of the Cossacks, who preceded my horses, and who drew it through the water.

About forty versts† farther, I past near a village partly in ruins, in which some Moldavians had just established themselves, and were dancing to the music of a kind of bag-pipe, to celebrate their new acquisition. In the environs I saw vast flocks of partridges and bustards; and if I had not been obliged to pro-

* Steppe is a vast rough and uncultivated plain, which produces neither trees nor shrubs. On meeting with a boy about thirteen years old, we asked him how long it would be before we should come to some trees? His only answer was, what do you mean by trees?

† A verst is about three quarters of an English mile.—EDITOR.

ceed immediately to Nicolaïef, I should have had the best possible sport.

I had already travelled eighty versts from the above village, and had only met with one man. The night beginning to fall, I was affected by a melancholy torpor, in consequence of my reflections on the barren regions which I had passed over.

About ten at night, I approached towards the banks of the Bog: this river is here nearly three versts in width; and the watermen, who were fatigued by their day's work, would not ferry me over. I was therefore obliged to sleep in my britschka, or Polonese carriage, which is not hung upon springs till break of day. On waking, I was much surprised to find myself already placed in the boat, which was to convey me to the opposite shore: being, however, detained, I could not conceive what prevented us from going off, when I observed a crowd of men and women rushing towards the boat, in order to be carried over to the market with various articles which they had for sale. In vain I remonstrated against their admission, in consequence of the great number of passengers who were on board, and who, including the sailors, amounted to eighty in number, besides four oxen. We were, indeed, all alarmed at the crowded state of the vessel; but we had a fortunate passage.

On arriving at Nicolaïef, I delivered my letters of recommendation, and met with the kindest reception from the Marquis de Traveysey, the admiral and commander in chief of all the Russian ships in the Black Sea. I was recommended to him by M. Richelieu, and this recommendation was attended with every effect which I could wish.

M. de Beklecheff, the governor-general, also received me with great familiarity; and being informed of the intent of my journey, he gave me letters of recommendation to the governor of Sympheropol.

In France and England, a person who travels post, may be said to run; but in Russia he flies, particularly when travelling in the government of New Russia. I set off at half past eight in the morning from Nicolaïef, and at a quarter past twelve I found myself at the gates of Cherson, having travelled sixty versts.

The Russian establishments on the Black Sea drew from me the reflection, that a country cannot be otherwise than unfortunate, in which every individual consults only his private interest or personal ambition. Enormous sums have been squandered on these settlements without effect: Potemkin founded Cherson; but after his death it was neglected. Falleef laid the foundations of Nicolaïef, but they were soon afterwards abandoned for

Odessa, of which admiral Ribas was the projector: this new establishment was in its turn neglected, and would have gone to ruin, except for the paternal views of the emperor Alexander.

I left Cherson on the 22d of April, at ten at night, and soon arrived on the banks of the Ingulet, or little Ingul, which is so called in order to distinguish it from a small river of the same name, which the Bog receives at Nicolaief; this river, which empties itself into the Dnieper, some versts above Cherson, is not very wide, and is passed in an open boat, made far more carefully, than any of those that I before observed in this country.

The scite on the other side of the river is tolerably pleasant: on the banks of a small bay, which is formed by a winding of the Ingulet, is a little well-built village, which is called Repniska; all the shore is bounded by rocks.

By break of day I had reached Bereslaw, formerly called Kizikerman. A dreadful cloud of dust is one of the greatest inconveniences of this journey: because nothing can secure the traveller against it; it penetrates every where, and renders the eyes uncommonly painful. I was, however, assured, that the Nogay Tartars cover their eyes with a kind of spectacles, to prevent its operation during their excursions. The Dnieper is crossed opposite to the village lately mentioned; and at which the violence of the wind forced me to pass the day. From the Dnieper to the sea of Azof and the lines of the Ukraine, in the Crimea, is called Nogays' Tartary; it is an immense plain, in which neither the smallest shrub nor hillock is perceptible.

I met several bodies of travellers with caravans, who were conveying, either to Poland or the ports of the Black Sea, the salt which the Crimea abundantly produces. The caravans were halting, and the conductors were sleeping around a large fire with their vehicles behind them, while their oxen were grazing in the vicinity.

It was from these vast deserts that the hordes of Tartars issued, who overran Russia and Poland. These savage and ferocious people subsisted by robbery and murder, and lived under tents, which they removed from place to place; while they kept numerous troops of horses, which, during a great part of the year, sought their own provender.

The Nogays were, and are still of opinion, that no stranger can traverse their plains without envying them such possessions; so much are men attached to early habits and prejudices.

I was not long in reaching the Crimea, which, since it came into the possession of Russia, has been distinguished by its ancient name of Taurida.

 CHAP. II.

GEOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT OF THE CRIMEA, ITS NATURAL HISTORY, GENERAL APPEARANCE, COMPOSITION OF ITS MOUNTAINS, MINES, &c.

THE Crimea, which was formerly known by the name of the Tauridan Chersonesus, is a peninsula, bounded to the south and west by the Black Sea; to the east by the strait of Zabaché and the sea of Azof; while to the north it is limited by a large isthmus, about a geographical mile in extent, by which it is united to the continent, where it communicates with the steppes of Nogays' Tartary. It is probable, that the Crimea was formerly detached from it, and constituted with its higher and southern part, a perfect island. This opinion was maintained by the ancients, and has been supported by several modern authors, who, as well as Pliny, Herodotus, Strabo, &c. assert, that the flowing of the Black Sea into the Mediterranean, is in consequence of its separation from the Caspian sea, and the gradual desiccation which resulted from it.

The Crimea is situated between $51^{\circ} 9'$ and $53^{\circ} 44'$ east longitude, and $44^{\circ} 44'$ and $45^{\circ} 65'$ north latitude. Most of the maps now extant, place it on an average between $51^{\circ} 30'$ and $55^{\circ} 10'$ east longitude, and from $44^{\circ} 5'$ to 46° north latitude.

On looking at a map, it will be seen that three fourths of the Crimea towards the north, form nothing but a vast plain, bounded to the south by a chain of mountains which runs from S. E. to N. W. in a direction parallel with the southern shore of the Black Sea. This chain, which is seldom interrupted, extends from Balaclava almost as far as Caffa, being a length of about 150 versts, by an unequal width. It is composed of several links, and closed in the interstices by a second file of mountains, which are lower and more northerly.

On entering the Crimen, the eye wanders over a barren and level surface, consisting of an immense plain, without trees, rivulets, or hills, which reaches farther than the perceptible horizon, and stretches towards the southern part of the peninsula. On approaching towards Sympheropol, the scene suddenly changes, and the fatigued eye discovers in the distance a chain

of high mountains, interspersed with several Tartar villages and woods of high poplars, scattered here and there amidst cultivated fields and meadows, refreshed by the waters of the Salghir: the soil now visibly begins to rise as far as the apparent bases of the mountains, which also rise by degrees one above the other as far as the sea, of which they form the southern boundary.

All the chain of mountains in the Crimea, rises in an evident manner towards the south; and forms, almost without interruption along the maritime coast, a line of prodigious escarpments: their general form consists of elevated cones, or, as they are philosophically called, nipples, which are fractured and traversed by long and narrow valleys. These cones become flat in a gradual manner towards the north; some of them are barren, but the greater part are covered with woods: this chain of mountains contains several springs of water: those which run towards the north, spread themselves through all the valleys; while those which take a southern direction, fertilize all the spots situated along the south shore of the Black Sea.

The most elevated point of the Crimea, is the summit of a mountain, the configuration of which had induced the Tartars to give it the name of Tchatyrdagh, or the tent mountain, and which was certainly the Trapetzos of the Greeks. Having been so imprudent as to ascend the Tchatyrdagh, towards evening, notwithstanding the representations of my guides, night overtook us, and the darkness was increased by the woods through which we were obliged to pass. After a journey of two hours, through rugged and very narrow paths, in which we were every instant in danger of breaking our necks, my guide confessed to my interpreter that they knew not where they were, having totally lost their way. Being much pressed by hunger, we endeavoured, but in vain, to retrace our steps, and find the path which we had missed; every now and then our progress was stopped by trees, and we could not prevent many blows in the face which we received from the branches. Our horses were wearied; mine had even lain down overcome, as I supposed, by fatigue, when M. Guleira, a Genoese, who accompanied me, came to assist me in forcing the animal to get up; but he obstinately refused to stir. Disgusted with his resistance, I endeavoured to find out what occasioned it, when I saw that he was entangled amongst the branches of underwood, which concealed one of the perpendicular precipices so common in these mountains: his instinct therefore evidently saved my life. After wandering much longer about the mountain and through the wood, often incurring imminent danger, our guides made us consent to pass the night without proceeding farther, notwithstanding the extreme cold and hunger with which we were afflicted. One of them,

who was worthy of being a Friday to a new Robinson Crusoe, succeeded in kindling a fire from some dry leaves and branches, which we increased to a great extent, and then slept around it till break of day. We then met with the path which led us to a village on the road to Aluchta, where a breakfast of sour mare's milk and black bread appeared to us delicious.

To return to a description of the Tchatyrdagh: its clouded point may be seen in clear weather at the distance of eighty versts. The mountain, comprising the extent of its base, must be nearly ten versts in length from north to south, and between five and six from east to west. The Tchatyrdagh appears to be divided into three parts or degrees; though rough, the road of the first part is tolerably good, and even passable for carriages: it is about two versts in length, and is shaded by medlar and oak trees; and from this first division of the mountain issues a fine cold spring. The second division is much steeper, but the road is passable by horses. The elm is the only tree which this part contains. On reaching the base of the uppermost division, horses can no longer be used to ascend towards the summit, as this part is composed of rocky terraces, disposed above each other like steps, which it is even difficult to climb. The uppermost platform of the mountain seems to be a small plain of stones. The rock is peeled or naked; and there are seen several large spots, which seem as if hollowed out, as well as others, which resemble round pits, wherein the snow remains throughout the year. On taking possession of the Crimea, the mountain was measured, when its height was found to be about 1200 feet above the level of the sea; but as the crevices in which the snow remains are not very deep, I am induced to think that this estimate is inaccurate. In clear weather one may see from this eminence the greatest part of the peninsula, and the sea, which runs along its whole extent. The Tchatyrdagh is considered in the vicinity as an excellent barometer: when covered with clouds it indicates rain; but when it is entirely clear, it announces a succession of fine weather.

The mountains often change their apparent forms and aspects; and the embellishments of the scenery vary at every step, as if by magical power. Sometimes the oaks, beech, elms, pines, wild cherry-trees, walnut-trees, elders, hawthorns, and albut-trees, which cover the mountains, give them a degree of liveliness which delights the traveller, who is wearied by the nakedness of the Steppes; at other times, the enormous rocks which are heaped above each other, present a prospect that is both interesting and sublime. Here, the gradations of the mountains, which are covered by gardens filled with odoriferous flowers, and watered by numerous springs, every where impart a health-

ful fragrance :—there, are to be seen nothing but barren rocks without verdure, and even without soil ; while nature seems to have taken delight in diversifying their shapes. In several parts the springs fall in cascades from the summits of the steep rocks, particularly those of the Akar sou. At length the sensations and pleasure of the observer are varied by the appearance of mountains abundantly covered with wood of all kinds, portions of well cultivated lands, rocks rising to a prodigious height, which are seen through chasms, and whose sides are covered with numerous shrubs, the bark of which being of a blood red, and the flowers white, form a striking contrast with the grey colour of the stone. The prospect is greatly heightened by the flocks and herds that graze on the summits of the mountains, the dull roaring of the sea, the noise from the falls of the water, the roughness of the roads, and the depth of the precipices ; so that the traveller does not leave these parts without regret, particularly as their distance, and the difficulty of the road, seldom permit of his paying them more than one visit.

With respect to the structure of the mountains, they are formed of calcareous rock, which is hard, grey, and arranged in strata of different degrees of thickness, together with layers of a schistous and argillaceous nature. There are also found in these horizontal strata, which are alternate and repeated a great number of times, a quantity of breccia, formed of flints compacted together, as well as several varieties of wakke and serpentine ; but the last are the scarcest of any.

The hard calcareous rock exhibits scarcely any trace of recognisable petrifications ; and those which are found, are mostly degraded corallites. Amongst the hard schisti which are often inserted between those of clay, is found a blackish kind of slate, sometimes mixed with sand, and at others disposed in very thin laminae. In the most eastern part of these mountains the sandy schistus is often a sort of free-stone, so very fine, that the grain of it can scarcely be perceived. The hardest parts of this stone exhibit in their fractures many chrystalised filaments of transparent quartz, which are sometimes replaced by real rock-crystal. There may also be reckoned among this free-stone many strata of mill-stone, which form whole mountains in the environs of Sudagh.

In several parts of the Crimen, but particularly near Inkermann, the rivulet Sabla, about sixteen veists from Akmetshet, and in a valley between Aktiar and Balaclava, are the mines of Kil ; a name which the Tartars give to an excellent kind of greyish fuller's-earth, that serves as soap. They dig wells in the form of funnels, to penetrate as far as the argillaceous strata, which, at about two feet in depth, presents an uncommonly

fat crust, underneath which is a white cretaceous marl. When they have dug as deep as possible in one of these wells, they abandon it, and dig another; while the lumps of earth which fall from the sides soon fill it up.

The strata of argillaceous schistus are sometimes as hard as that of the same kind in mines, and they are often coloured by a martial ochre; they sometimes contain, in lumps or strings, and at others, in entire beds, masses of detached ores, or perfect kidneys of a red, brown, or grey colour, loaded with clay, sometimes hollow and in laminæ, at others heavy and compact. These are chiefly found in the mountains to the east that are situated near the villages of Koos and Sudagh; and in those to the west, between Laspi and Foros, near a part which the Tartars call Alasma. There has not hitherto been discovered in the Crimea the least trace of any other metal.

The highest and oldest mountains of the Crimea form the southern boundary of this peninsula, and extend from Caffa to Balaclava. After having passed the cape behind which Caffa is situated, you ascend the eastern side of the mountain of Karadagh, in which there was formerly a Tartar village, with a metshet and a handsome fountain. The road runs round the base of this great mountain, the crest of which is very high, and surmounted by rocks of a conical form. Soon after you arrive at the valley of Otus, in which are two little villages at a short distance from each other: this valley is watered by a rivulet, and its soil is favourable for the culture of the vine and other fruit-trees; the surrounding heights are covered with wood. The road which leads to Koos passes over some steep hills, and soon becomes impracticable for carriages; while there may occasionally be observed on it some beds of iron ore. The valley beyond Koos contains several orchards, and the population of this village is still very considerable. Before the emigration of the Greeks there were many persons in it who occupied themselves with the culture of the vine: the mountains in the vicinity furnish an abundance of blocks of free-stone, which the inhabitants use for building their houses and the walls of their vineyards. The valley of Koos is very hot, being secured from the cold winds by the high mountains, which all run in a south-east direction, and nearly in parallel chains. This valley contains a number of gardens and vineyards; it extends to a length of upwards of three versts as far as the sea, and near the village it divides into two other spacious plains.

To the left you leave the great mountainous ridge called Buyuksirt, which advances into the sea, and soon afterwards arrive at the village of Tokluk, situated four versts from the sea, and surrounded by vineyards, which produce a tolerably good

wine. Between this village and the shore there is seen on a hillock a remarkable rock, composed of enormous masses of fractured calcareous stone. The Tartars have given it the name *Paralem-kaja*, or the broken rock.

The road which leads to *Sudagh* extends to a considerable distance along the shore, on account of the numerous ravines which descend from the *Tokluk-sirt*. After passing between the *Altch-kaiz* and the *Atshik-sirt* you perceive the valley of *Sudagh*; which is upwards of three versts in length, by twain width, and is famed for the excellent wine which it produces. It extends from the sea-shore amongst the mountains in a direction almost from south to north, and is prolonged in a narrower manner to the north and the west. It is covered with vineyards and orchards; its lower part, which forms an oval plain perceptibly inclining to the south, is exposed to the rays of the sun, which gives a remarkably rich flavour to the grapes, that is not possessed by those in the higher valleys. It is watered by several rivulets, the streams of which being conveyed by means of canals, produce fertility in every part. The mountains in the vicinity are not the highest in the *Crimea*, but they are generally fractured and extremely steep.

The ancient Genoese fortress of *Soldaya* is situated on a very steep rock, which, towards the sea, is almost perpendicular. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall furnished with towers, some of which are round, and others square. The wall on the sea-side is interrupted by the rocks which project in a perpendicular manner; it contains arched wells, which are large and deep. A few years ago there might be seen the ruins of several buildings in a gothic style; but on the eastern side of the town there remain none except the large and handsome cathedral church, and the towers and walls of the place.

On following the course of the rivulet *Karagatch*, and climbing the heights, you come, about ten versts from *Sudagh*, to the hamlet of *Kutlak*, which is situated in a spacious valley planted with vines and surrounded by hills of a moderate height. Near *Kutlak* is a very high quarry, which the inhabitants work with great perseverance, and roll down into the valley the blocks which they detach from the upper parts; almost all the mills in the *Crimen* are supplied with these stones.

After crossing several valleys, you perceive, at about a verst and a half from the sea, that of *Kapsokor*, which is covered with orchards and vineyards; it lies between the mountains in a very advantageous position. The Tartars who reside on this spot are, in easy circumstances; their plain is surrounded by eminences, and contains many extensive fields, which produce cucumbers and hemp. The hills are covered with woods.

About half way from Uskut there^e may be observed, on a promontory, an ancient Greek tower, in tolerable good preservation, to which the Tartars have given the name of Tchobankale, which signifies the fort of the shepherds. The coast forms a good-sized bay in front of the village of Uskut, which stands at some distance from the sea in a valley watered by several springs, and filled with vines which produce a wine of a very bad quality. Uskut is well peopled: from the neighbouring heights one may distinctly see to the southward an extent of nearly sixty versts of coast.

About ten versts further is the village of Tuyak, in a warm and agreeable valley near the sea, and most of which is sown with nothing but hemp; but that which is cultivated in the environs of Aluchta always has the preference, while its culture forms the principal means of subsistence amongst the Tartars.

A narrow path, which is steep and bordered by precipices, conducts the traveller to the village of Kutchuk-ozon; which is built in a narrow valley near a high mountain that runs towards the sea, and is called by the Tartars Kutilla. After passing this village you meet with a hillock, called Kara-ul-obo, or the guard's hillock: it derives its name from a piquet of Cossacks which is stationed there. Part of this hillock lately gave way.

A few hours' journey leads the traveller into the valley of Aluchta, which separates the eastern part of the high mountains of the Crimea from those of the west, which we lately passed over.

From the foot of the Tchatyrdagh begins a wooded valley, intersected by several rivulets that run towards Aluchta: this spot is situated on an isolated elevation contiguous to the sea, and in it may still be perceived the vestige of an ancient Greek fortification. Aluchta, at that time the episcopal seat, had a considerable population. At the end of the valley the Tchatyrdagh takes its rise: the view extends to the sea, and the low turf-covered houses, built on the declivity of the coast, seem like the walls of a garden. The Tartars build their houses against the steep sides of the mountains; the front wall is formed entirely of rough hewn stone; and the roof is flat and covered with turf, on which the inhabitants can walk; while in summer they even sleep on it. The inside presents nothing but a spacious hearth, with a chimney to conduct the smoke. The whole of their furniture consists of a coarse kind of carpeting and some cushions. I had a letter for the chief of the village: he was a respectable Tartar, who gave me an excellent dinner, according to the fashion of the country, furnished us with very good horses, and sent his brother to act as our guide. After riding along the sea-shore for some time, we began to ascend a

path which was very narrow and bounded by precipices, the bottom of which was washed by the sea; in some parts the horses had scarcely room enough to walk, inasmuch that no animals but those which are accustomed to the country can pass it with safety.

The inhabitants of these parts have a few herds of buffaloes; indeed the prodigious strength of this animal seems necessary to perform so difficult a labour as the cultivation of the soil. The village of Kutchuk-lambat has a tolerably convenient harbour, in front of which is the Ayoudagh, or Bear's Mountain, which is covered with stones, though it here and there contains woods. It is situated in the sea, towards which it is particularly steep, and from which may be seen, on inaccessible rocks, a number of strawberry plants and arbutus.

In a little valley, about four versts from Kutchuk-lambat, appears the pretty village of Parthenik, which is inhabited almost entirely by Greeks; it contains a great number of gardens and fruit-trees, particularly walnuts, which are uncommonly fine; while the fertility is increased by a number of streams that pass over the grounds.

After we had continued to ascend till we reached the hamlet of Kurkulët, we crossed the small bank or ridge that unites the Ayoudagh to the mountains, and discovered the fine valley of Yursuf. At the top of an inaccessible rock, fractured in two parts, and which extends into the sea, we observed some remains of a Genoese fortification. The passage between the two rocks was closed by a wall: there still remain some vestiges of batteries and bastions, together with the foundations of a round tower; an out-work of masonry descends towards the sea, and a very safe harbour has been made across a shoal, which communicates with the shore by a small and ingeniously constructed mole.

Behind the promontory of Nikita, which stretches towards the sea, is a village of the same name; and farther on, beyond a heath occasionally interspersed with wood, are two others, called Magaratch and Marssanda. They were formerly inhabited by Greeks, who emigrated from Mariopol; and their numerous gardens, which are watered by abundant springs, now remain uncultivated. Between the two last-mentioned villages here the ruins of a chapel, which are shaded by old walnut-trees, and beneath which a rivulet takes its course. Either the traveller repairs to rest, and finds a wooden bowl placed on a projection of the rock, from which he dips water from the spring to slake his thirst; after which he scrupulously places the vase on the spot from which he took it. This trivial accommodation is a striking, though simple, proof of the hospitality of the Tartars.

After passing the village of Derekoi, the environs of which abound in plants, we descended into the valley of Yalta. This place was formerly occupied by the Greeks; and to judge from the ruins which still remain, it must have been of a considerable size; at present it is only the residence of a few Tartars. Its bay is safe. It is exposed to the south, and though little frequented, a kind of lazaretto is established near it. This fine valley is filled with gardens, and surrounded by heights well covered with woods.

The road soon turns round a mill, and leads from the valley to the summits of the mountains; sometimes it is so steep as to force the traveller to descend with rapidity, and compel him to go far out of his way in order to avoid the dangerous parts. We were obliged, on this account, strictly to follow the young Tartar who acted as our guide: his agility was really astonishing; for he leaped like a goat, without any fear, from one rock to another.

About six versts from Yalta, and quite on the sea-shore, is situated the village of Aoutka, inhabited by Greeks, whose employment is principally in fishing for oysters. Here may be seen the cascades of the Akarsu, which fall upon the top of a rock sixty fathoms in height; a circumstance which I should delight to describe, if I were not diffident of the enthusiasm with which it inspired me.

The chain of mountains continues towards the right, and contains three Tartar villages, called Gaspra, Choris, and Muskor. Several olive and fig-trees, which are dispersed amongst them, indicate the fertility of the soil; but on approaching Alupka, the scene suddenly changes, and the image of chaos appears in all its horror. Whole woods rooted up, rocks heaped upon one another, trees suspended over an abyss by a single root; all give the traveller an idea of general destruction. In one part enormous fragments of stone, proceeding from the fall of a mass of rock on the sea-side, cover an extent of two versts inland; and it is upon and amongst these ruins that a village is established, with gardens and parcels of cultivated land. The Tartars have not even been afraid to build their huts under some of these enormous masses, which still seem ready to fall and crush them: nature, however, which seems otherwise to have treated the country like a step-mother, has not refused it every thing. The valley, which is one of the hottest in the whole southern coast, is sheltered from cold winds, and being only exposed towards the south, the heat is concentrated in it throughout the day. Vine-sprouts may be seen shooting round the rocks; while fig-trees, pomegranates, olive and walnut-trees, grow between their fractures; but these trees appeared with a scanty

and decayed foliage, in consequence of the severity of the winter of 1802. A laurel-tree alone seemed to have resisted its attack, whose green and vigorous head shot forth amidst those vast ruins. I was much astonished to hear the word *Daphne* proceed from the mouth of a Tartar; but I found that the laurel being unknown to the Tartars before its transplantation, they have adopted the Greek name.

The high mountain which surrounds the valley of Alupka is the famous Kriométopon (Κριε μετωπον) so well known to the ancient Greek navigators. After clearing the cape called Crotis-buron, you perceive the valley of Simous, in which are great numbers of olive-trees, mixed with abundance of pomegranates and other fruit-trees. The frightful aspect of the rocks, which form perpendicular faces on the land side, and the view of the sea, which extends as far as the horizon, render this valley delightful to the traveller who is pleased with contrasts. We continued to ascend along a road which passed over woody eminences, but was not altogether without danger. The cold began to be felt, clouds rolled under our feet, and seemed like a white sea in motion, which hid from the view the country beneath it.

After a rather tedious journey we arrived at a promontory, behind which is situated the village of Limann: this considerable cape terminates near the sea with an elevated, inaccessible, and lonely rock. On the summit of the mountain is a thick wall, constructed in front of the only practicable part. On the side next to the village the descent is so steep, that, on reaching the bottom with the greatest difficulty, you perceive nothing but a vast side, which it seems equally impossible to climb up or descend from. As this high mountain is to the east of Limana, the rays of the sun fall rather later on it than elsewhere.

The path, which is only a few inches wide, now becomes more dangerous. We travelled incessantly along ravines or dreadful precipices, to the bottom of which the eye could not penetrate; while the path was worn away by a heavy fall of rain, which had rendered it equally difficult both for pedestrians and horsemen. I did not trust myself, without much alarm, to the knowledge and instinct of my horse, though I fortunately arrived unhurt at the village of Kikéneis. Here the rocky front which rises from the mountains becomes lower, after having continued, without interruption, for the space of twenty-two versts. From time to time large fragments fall off and roll as far as the sea.

On approaching Kutchukoy, I saw a part of the mountain which had fallen in the preceding year as far as the shore, and at a short distance from the spot where the great overthrow occurred in 1784. I presume that this disruption succeeded the

shock of an earthquake which was felt at the same period; but I could not obtain any account of the accident: the event was unknown even to Pallas. I shall, however, quote his own words,

“ From the front of the rock the coast was a series of ravines, through one of which ran a rivulet. The 10th February, the surface of the soil began to crack and separate; and the same day the rivulet, which turned two Tartar mills, was lost in the crevices. Two days after the superficies of the soil had continued to break, and the apprehension of danger had caused the Tartars to leave their habitations with their cattle and effects, the whole of the space between the ravines abovementioned, from the elevated front of the rock, as far as the sea, fell in at midnight, with a frightful noise, to the extent of nearly two versts in length, and from 350 to 500 fathoms in width. This eruption, which continued till the 28th of February, made a ditch ten fathoms in depth, in which remained one large and two small parallel banks of the solid rock: in proportion as one part of the steep side became detached from the rock, the whole mass pressed in the same proportion on its base, and the shore advanced from that time into the sea, in a circumference of from sixty to eighty toises. In the night of the 28th, two slight shocks of an earthquake were felt, after which the water of the rivulet, which had disappeared, began to flow again at the superficies, but ran in a different direction; after forming several lakes and marshy places along the new shore, besides the two mills lately mentioned, this fall buried in its ruins eight houses, and destroyed whole fields and gardens.”

The inhabitants of Kutchukoy have already forgotten these disasters, and do not even think of those which now seem to threaten them.

We crossed the village Pechatka to arrive at that of Foros, situated at the foot of the mountain, on the other side of which is the valley of Baïdari. A dangerous and winding path leads to this steep and woody side. After climbing, with difficulty, for a long time, we discovered, on looking behind us, the sea, above which we found ourselves at an extraordinary height. The horses, accustomed to these paths, pass from one rock to another with such sagacity as to inspire confidence. Indeed it would neither be easy nor prudent to turn them from their ordinary route. After taking as much time to descend as we had employed in travelling upwards, we perceived the so-much extolled valley of Baïdari: this charming spot, which is surrounded by high mountains, abundantly covered with wood, is from fifty to sixteen versts in length, by eight or ten in breadth.

Several large meadows, through which runs a pretty rivulet,

are occasionally interrupted by small elevations, covered with villages, and fine woods and gardens. Great numbers of flocks are reared in the valley, and give animation to a delightful scene, which seems the residence of peace and happiness.

We next ascended a very high rock, which separates Baïdari from the small valley of Varnutka: the road which leads to Balaclava was made for the Empress Catharine II. at the time of her journey to the Crimea. The soil being a continued rock, it required infinite difficulty to make it passable. After a journey of some hours, we reached Balaclava, at which terminates the chain of the high mountains of the southern coasts.

CHAP. III.

VOLCANOS.—EARTHQUAKES.—DISRUPTIONS.—EJECTIONS OF MUD.—QUALITIES OF THE SOIL.—RIVERS.—SALINE LAKES, &c.

M. Hablitz, in his description of Taurida, and several authors who have since written, have asserted, that the soil of the Crimea proves it to contain exhausted volcanos, which might have subverted the whole peninsula. The mountains afford no indications of craters, nor do they contain any visible trace of extinct volcanos. Some thick beds of lava, which are found at Balaclava, and near Yursuf, doubtless have proceeded from the ballast of the Genoese vessels. The sea-shore near the mountain of Karadagh, is covered with pebbles of green jasper, sometimes veined with red, and chalcedony; this, indeed, is the only stone in all the Crimea which can be adduced in support of the opinion of M. Hablitz.

Earthquakes seldom happen in the Crimea; nevertheless, the almost perpendicular inclination of a bed of stone, which forms part of the Alchakaya, can only be attributed to a central overthrow. M. Pallas found in this bed a lump of blackish petrified wood: it was flat and fractured, and the apertures were filled with spath. The different layers of this stratum consist of free-stone blocks, irregularly placed one above the other. The junctures, and even the level parts, are filled and covered with a matter, the principle of which appears to be mud and schistous sand. Sometimes belemnites are found in this mass, broken, and with their fragments again partly united; large flat impressions of ammonites, of the size of one's hand; and St. James's shells, similar to those that are found on the shores of the Black Sea. It cannot be doubted that these stones have come from a horizontal bed, which was

formerly beneath the sea, and that the petrified wood alluded has been flattened in this position.

As to the great disruptions of rocks, they have been caused by the springs, which have undermined the soft strata on which they were supported, or by the ice and streams of rain-water, which, by gradually effecting a passage through, and enlarging their chasms, have at length detached vast masses.

Towards the north, about a verst from Yenikalé, some pools of saline water are found on the tops of hillocks; it seems to boil on issuing from the earth, and its surface is covered with a quantity of petroleum.

Between Kertch and Yenikalé, there may often be seen openings formed, without doubt, by ancient eruptions of mud; and near these are several exsiccated gulphs, as well as others, which sometimes in summer throw out soft mud and bubbles; but this phenomenon occurs most frequently in the isle of Taman. Near these gulphs the ground is elastic, and full of chasms and crevices: those which are still in action expand a certain degree of heat through the atmosphere which surrounds them, though the matter which they eject seems cold to the touch.

On the 5th of September, 1799, after a subterraneous noise, accompanied with terrific thunder, there was seen to rise from the bottom of the sea of Azof, opposite Temruk, an island, about 100 fathoms in circumference: from its centre a quantity of mud appeared to issue, and a volcanic eruption suddenly covered it with fire and smoke. In the following year this island totally disappeared; but it is not known whether it was dissolved by the sea, or sunk again to the bottom.

M. Pallas, in his journey through the southern provinces of the Russian empire, has given an interesting detail of this phenomenon, to which he adds his opinion relative to these volcanos of slime or mud, and their natural causes*.

* As M. Reuilly says nothing farther on this interesting subject, the Editor has thought proper to subjoin, in the following note, the account of that wonderful event, as described by M. Pallas himself. It will doubtless be new to the majority of readers.

Speaking of the island which rose from the sea, he says, "on the 5th of September, 1799, after having heard at sun-rise, in the sea of Azof opposite to Temruk, and a hundred and fifty fathoms from the shore, a subterraneous rumbling, accompanied with dreadful thunder, the surprise and alarm of the spectators were considerably augmented on observing, after an explosion similar to a cannon shot, an isle like a great sepulchral hillock, rising from the bottom of the sea, which at that part was from five to six fathoms deep. This isle ascended above the level of the sea, and appeared to be nearly a hundred fathoms in circumference: it seemed to rise, split, and eject mud and stones, till an eruption of fire and smoke had covered the whole place. The time required by Nature for effecting this change

The quality of the soil, which is in general marly, is not every where alike. That of the plain consists of a sandy clay and decomposed earth. Its fertility depends upon its mixture with this earth and upon its humidity. That of the vallies, manured with lime and chalk, is composed of clay and pebbles, under a thick stratum of mould; and its fertility is increased by the streams which descend from the

was two hours, and the sea was so impetuous on those days, that no one could trust himself on the element in a vessel, for the purpose of visiting the isle, which appeared to have an elevation of two fathoms above the waves, and was quite black, from the disgorgement of mud that had taken place. The same day, at seven o'clock in the evening, two strong shocks of an earthquake were felt at Ekaterinodar, which is two hundred versts distance from hence. Subsequent accounts respecting this isle, concur in describing it to be seventy-two fathoms in length, by forty-eight in breadth, with an elevation of seven feet above the level of the sea.

"My occupations of every kind, together with the fever with which I was afflicted at that time, prevented me from making a journey to Taman, to observe this remarkable phenomenon. The following year I learned that this isle had been either dissolved by the waves, or had again sunk, no traces of it being then perceptible at the surface."

The following account, by Professor Pallas, contains a new and interesting theory of the volcanos, of mud and slime peculiar to the Crimea.—
"In the month of March 1791, Lieutenant Constantine Lintvaref, inspector of the quarantine at Taman, wrote that on the 27th of February, at half past eight in the morning, the hillock on the point of land to the north, situated only twelve versts from Taman, in a diagonal direction across the gulph, but sixty by a circuitous course over land, had just exhibited the following extraordinary events. At first a rumbling was heard in the air, which was succeeded by a violent gust of wind, that lasted only a minute; next, a noise was heard similar to thunder, which came from the hillock, and immediately afterwards a column of thick and black smoke issued from the middle of its summit. In the space of a minute, there arose another of violent fire, which at a distance appeared to be fifty feet in height, and thirty in circumference. This flame lasted from half past eight till ten minutes before ten, when a messenger who had been sent to the point at the time that the noise, fire, and smoke seemed to decrease, returned, and reported that an aperture had been formed on the hillock, the size of which could not be ascertained, because the successive eruptions, accompanied by flames and smoke, emitted a hot mud, which spread in every direction, and rendered an approach impracticable. The eruption was neither preceded nor followed by any shock of an earthquake.

"It appears from the different accounts of ocular witnesses, who observed this phenomenon both at Taman and Yenikale, and visited the mountain after its eruption, that the explosion resembled the rumbling of thunder, and the report did not last longer than that of a thunder-clap. A noise and hissing were also heard in the air at Yenikale, both previous and subsequent to the explosion. At the instant of the report, there issued a white vapour, which was followed by a smoke as black as soot, and this was penetrated by a column of fire, with flames of a bright-red and pale-yellow colour in the form of an expanded sheaf, and which, notwithstanding a very strong wind which blew at the time, rose to a perpendicular height twice as great as that of a mountain. This column of fire disappeared in twenty-five minutes, but the black smoke lasted four or five hours, and spread forth,

neighbouring heights. On the mountains, this soil is strongly mixed with sand and pebbles; but wheat and vines succeed well upon it. The places that lie near the banks of the rivers are, in general, the best both for agriculture and pasturage; but the most famous are those of the Alma. This little river runs through an agreeable country; indeed the vallies which are wa-

thick and heavy clouds over both sides. By the following day, it had, however, entirely disappeared.

"When the first explosion took place, the mountain propelled with violence into the air several portions of mud, and vomited quantities of a similar substance, in every direction around it, to the distance of at least a verst. By displacing a portion of vegetable earth, to the extent of a fathom, which was at that time frozen, the great mass of mud made its way from the gulph; first it ran with rapidity, but afterwards slower, covering all parts of the mountain, without having any sensible degree of heat, according to the report of many respectable persons, who arrived on horseback to the place a few hours after the eruption; yet the mud then continued to emit a strong smoke through a very cold air. But some Cossacks, who had been sent there, made a contrary report, and insisted that the mud was hot at the time of its efflux. A continual hissing and boiling were heard in the mountain till night; and till the third day, the mud was sometimes thrown out to the height of ten or twelve feet. At a subsequent period the mountain made a cracking noise, and again began to throw out mud in the air, but without exhibiting an appearance of fire, even during the night. In the month of March, a surveyor was sent to Taman, to make a plan of the Kuku-oho, and he found the first aperture that had been formed at the summit of the hillock, to be ten or twelve fathoms wide, while the principal gulph was an arshine and a half in diameter. At the same time he observed to issue at intervals, some smoke and mud, containing a portion of petroleum, which tends to strengthen the opinion, which was then started, respecting the mud, as it was found to be very bituminous. The muddy ejections were at that time of the same extent as I found them in the following summer. For a length of time the deep, soft, and tenacious mud prevented any approach to the point of the mountain, but a long-continued dry season having desiccated and even hardened the whole mass, it may now be passed over, and examined in every direction. Its composition, when I visited the hillock, was as follows:—The summit was surrounded by a mass of mud, which might be estimated at upwards of 100,000 cubic fathoms. This mass, which covered the hillock in every direction, but in a more extensive manner, to the south and west, had overflowed in several unequal torrents, which were in some places two or three arshines thick, and resembled a fine paste with a thick border. The heap to the north-east, is the largest and thickest, it is very wide at top, and extends, as does the narrowest stream, to the west and south-west, even into the plain at the foot of the mountain. The former is 400 fathoms long, and the latter more than 300. Three others, in a direction almost parallel to the north-west, and a fourth extending to the south, are narrower, and do not descend to so great a length. Lastly, towards the east, the mass forms a prolonged circle, because the declivity of the mountain on this side presents a sort of ridge, or projection. On all the streams of this mud, but particularly at its margin, there may be seen small lumps, which have been propelled one upon the other by the pressure of the liquid mud, as the crust of the mass became dry; and by surrounding some small elevations, which it met with in two or three parts

tered by it, are delightful. It is here that the numerous pasturages are situated on which the khans of the Crimea used to breed their famous horses. The fine verdant plains, shaded by poplars and lime-trees, and covered with huts inhabited by the Tartars, together with the numerous flocks which graze on the neighbouring hills, and the springs which issue from the rocks, all give an exact idea of the Arcadia described by the poets.

of its passage, it has formed little islands. At the summit of the mountain around the gulf which ejected this enormous mass from the bowels of the earth, it may be observed in thicker heaps, while on one side may be seen a semicircular clod, nearly a fathom in length by two arshines in thickness, composed of an old vegetable argillaceous earth, of a deeper yellow than the fresh mud. This clod, which covered the gulph, was upset and partly buried in the mud. It also appears, that on the south-west side, in the direction of which the summit of the mountain is more inclined, and as it were furrowed, as much more liquid mud overflowed, which has left behind it a deep trace, similar to that of a rivulet, of the width of about twelve paces: it has several interruptions, and finally disappears at the bottom in the thick stratum of stronger mud, when the more desiccated matter is formed into several heaps that lie upon each other.

"I found beneath the mud, in these environs, some crystals of cuboidal pyrites, partly attached to the marl, and partly loose in shining laminae without alteration. I likewise observed this same kind of pyrites in the clefts of marly stone, a proof that the pyrites themselves had been torn from some upper stratum, on which the fire had not acted. Even the fluxes of the mud, the largest of which was from 60 to 100 fathoms wide, were dry only at the superficies, in consequence of becoming covered with a crust; but one could not tread upon it with safety, for it had separated in many places; and on taking up a lump, we found the undermost part to be soft and fat, like moistened clay. The superficies of this mud was rough and lumpy, so that it was as painful to walk over it as it is to proceed on strongly frozen dirt.

"The whole of this prodigious mass, which possesses the greatest uniformity, resembles a pinguid clay, of a blue ash-colour, and interspersed with points of sparkling mica. On the application of moisture, it admits of being kneaded, but when dried, it cracks like the argillaceous mud on the highways, in unequal parts, often of the width of three fingers, and may be crumbled, as it retains a degree of solidity only when in large lumps. On the superficies of the mud I remarked no particles of vitriol; and I saw, in a few places only, some parts covered with an efflorescence of salt, which made a slight effervescence with the acids. All the fragments of stone scattered throughout this mass, and which did not form the two-thousandth part of the whole, were mostly small, the largest not exceeding the size of a closed hand; some were recently broken, and others rather polished: they principally consisted of twenty-one species, without foreign bodies, or degradation, and here and there of a reddish colour, or as if burned.

"These species comprised different kinds of schistus, as calcareous, argillaceous, marly, &c. and possessed the qualities peculiar to each.

"When the gulph vomited this enormous mass, it was covered with a dry and very hard crust of the same mud, over which one could pass. Judging of its size from its depth, its diameter must have been twelve feet, Paris measure. By the side of it, in the mud, we saw several traces of small

Amongst the rivulets which run to the north through the valleys and into the plain, several receive the name of rivers; some of them run towards the north-east towards the Sivache, and the others to the north-west, into the Black Sea. Amongst the former, the principal are the Salghir, the Great and Little Carasu, which join to it at about twenty versts from its mouth; and also the Bechterok, Suya, and Burultz, which empty themselves into the Salghir; the three Indales, or Andales, the Subachic, and the Eastern Bulganak, all of which fall into the Sivache. Amongst the small rivers which empty themselves into the Black Sea, the principal are the Alma, the Catcha, the Belbek, and the Cabarda.

With respect to the Salghir, its sources are very remarkable,

lava of the width of an arshine, which the more fluid matter had probably made at a later period. On placing the ear down in the direction of the large gulph, we could distinctly hear a noise similar to boiling and cracking, like that of a large covered cauldron, and which, when I was upon the hillock, was still perceptible, notwithstanding the rumbling of an approaching storm. It appears to me very probable, that a stratum of stone-coal, or bituminous schistus, burns at a considerable depth beneath the isle of Tanan, as well as under a part of the peninsula of Kertsch; that the sea, or the water of its gulphs, having found the means of penetrating the cavities occasioned in several parts from the eruptions of this concentrated focus, there must have resulted a mass of vapours, or gas, of several kinds, which being once introduced, have passed, by their elasticity, through the clefts of the upper layers, the old gulphs, and, in short, every part at which they found the least resistance, and effected an outlet at the top with a cracking, occasioning at the period of fresh muddy eruptions, the result of which I have treated, as well as the combustion of inflammable gas, which was of short duration, from its being speedily condensed by the external air. As soon as the force of the vapours of the fiery stratum ceased to act upon that above it, because the vapours themselves had found an outlet, the torn and perforated beds of this stratum would naturally sink, and by their pressure would afford, by means of the new opening, at first a rapid, and afterwards a slower passage, to the mud, originating from the ashes of the burned strata, and the sea-water that had gained an admission. Hence arises that saline principle which is found in this always swollen mud; and the same arguments will account for the appearance of the roots of reeds, or rushes, which the sea, on introducing itself in the subterraneous space, had brought with it, and mixed with the mud; and, lastly, we may thus account for those fragments of several species of stones, the strata of which were probably lying one upon another, and were perforated and broken by the vapours. The singularity of meeting with these rents or fractures several times on the hillocks, where the resistance naturally appeared more considerable than on the plain, may be attributed to the probability that these hillocks, having perhaps been entirely formed by more ancient eruptions, and in consequence having still internally the focus of a gulph, the vapours could there more easily find an outlet. At least it appears that this is the case beyond a doubt, with respect to the gulph of Kukuabo, and that of Kull-tepe; and, perhaps, even the insensible sinking of the strata of the isle of Tanan is only owing to the gulphs and the interior eruptions caused by the sea, which have thus filled the whole island with fractures and divisions."

and I had heard so much about them, that I was desirous to see them. For this purpose I proceeded to Sultan Mahmouth, the residence of Batyr-Aga, a rich Myrza, to whom I had letters of introduction: his house is surrounded by beautiful orchards, through which winds a branch of the Salghir. The notes of thousands of birds, added to the murmuring of the waters, produced a charming concert. These birds all seemed to build their nests round the house; and in the middle of the apartment, where Batyr-Aga received us, was a nest of swallows, to which the cock and hen passed and repassed without the least alarm at our presence. On expressing my surprise at seeing them so tame, my host answered, "they know that I do not wish to hurt them, and every year they punctually return to the same nest; I am attached to this spot as well as the birds. This garden is the result of my own labour; I planted the trees that you see, and this water has been conveyed hither under my direction." Batyr-Aga, at the time of my visit, was sixty years of age. Several Tartars of the environs came to take leave of him while I was present; which they did by making a low bow, kissing the palm of the hand, and then touching the head with it.

We had scarcely reached Sultan Mahmouth when it began to pour with rain; it was the first shower that had fallen in this country during the year, and our host was polite enough to attribute it to our arrival. After dinner, he gave us excellent horses and a guide to conduct us to the sources of the Salghir.

Near the village of Aian, at the bottom of an enormous ravine, surrounded by mountains of calcareous stone, we saw a spacious grotto, from which the springs of the Salghir issued. The light penetrates into this grotto through fissures in the rocks; and exhibits a gulph, the edges of which form nearly a right angle, and do not permit one to approach in safety to sound it. I shuddered when I saw the Tatar, who acted as our guide, walk very unconcerned round the brink of this abyss; for if his foot had slipped, he would have perished, without the possibility of obtaining assistance.

To return to the small rivers which were lately specified: the mountains which give rise to them are too near the sea to enable them to be of a considerable size; and though they are increased in winter by the falls of rain and the melting of the snow, they are in summer scarcely more than little streams running over a wide bed of stones, while the traveller passes over them almost with dry shoes, though a few days before they were strong enough to carry him away.

Before I speak of the saline lakes, I shall say a few words on their formation; and shall refer the reader for additional particulars.]

culars to the travels of Pallas lately quoted. They are all separated from the sea-coast by a bar of low and narrow land, composed of broken shelves and gravel. To judge of them from their shape, these lakes seem to have been creeks, which have been inclosed by the masses of gravel, stone, and mud, thrown up by the violence of storms. The evaporation of the water is sufficient to crystalize the salt contained in that which has been left by the sea. Some of these lakes probably also receive saline springs, though these are not indicated by any particular motion or current at the surface of the water.

The salt lakes of Perecop are the richest and most important ; but particularly those known by the names of Staroé-oséro (the Old Lake), and Krasnoé-oséro (the Red Lake); the former, which is eighteen versts from Perecop, is oblong, and about fifteen or sixteen versts in circumference. The latter, which is nearly two versts from the other, is likewise oblong, and its circumference may be about twenty-four versts. The lakes near Jenitché, Koslof, Kertch, and Caffa, are likewise abundantly furnished with salt. Near Koslof is a lake which has received the name of Saak, and to which is attributed the virtue of curing rheumatic pains and other chronic diseases. Persons afflicted with these complaints resort to it in summer, and bury themselves up to the neck in the mud, by which they often obtain very great relief.

The salt is found from the middle of June till August ; during which time the heat causes the water of the lakes to evaporate, and accelerates the condensation of the saline substance. The particles of salt that are formed are skimmed off with wooden shovels. The shallowness of the river, and the firm nature of the soil, are sufficient to admit carts, drawn by oxen, into the middle of the lakes, in which position they are loaded with the salt. When the season is favourable, that is to say, when there have not been heavy falls of rain, the salt is so abundant, that they only take a third or fourth part of it : it serves for the supply of a part of Poland, White Russia, New Russia, the Ukraine, and several neighbouring governments, to which it is conveyed by numerous carriages, drawn by oxen. There is also exported a considerable quantity to Anatolia and Constantinople.

There are no considerable forests in the Crimea ; the only ones to be found extend along the mountains of the southern coast, and the parts where most large trees grow are between Balaclava and Yalta, around the base of the Tchatyrdagh, and in the deep ravines which run towards Uskut ; the escarpments of rock, in the circle of Yalta and thereabouts, produce, on the sea-side, a few woods, which may be reckoned amongst high-grown forests ; but the more elevated places are only co-

vered with copses or collections of shrubs. In the vallies near the high mountains, there may be found enormous trunks of oak, beech, and elms, which are invaluable for ship-building.

Amongst the forest-trees of the Crimea may be reckoned the pine, the linden-tree, the maple, the alder, two species of oak, the elm, the ash, several varieties of poplar, and various species of shrubs.

Grass-hoppers are numerous in the Crimea, besides the large kinds, or those of passage, of which the Crimea has always shared the plague with a part of Africa and Asia. There has of late years introduced itself the little grass-hopper, with rose-coloured wings, which naturalists call *Gryllus Italicus*. Notwithstanding the rigour of the winter of 1799 and 1800, and the north winds, which forced by their violence a great quantity of these insects into the Black Sea, they have, nevertheless, increased to a dreadful extent. Numerous swarms of them have deprived of their verdure the trees and plants, particularly the vine, insomuch that the parts they attack seem as if consumed by fire. They deposit their eggs in the ground, and the next season a new race of these destroyers appears. The number of starlings and other birds which are enemies to this insect, having diminished in the Crimea, there is little hope of seeing them destroyed for several years, unless Nature herself should reduce their numbers.

The inhabitant of the Crimea is firmly convinced, that the winters have been longer and more severe in this country since its conquest by the Russians. The rigour of those which immediately followed the acquisition of that country, doubtless contributed to give them such an opinion: the alteration of the climate, however, may have been caused by the cutting down of the hedges, woods, and gardens, which was done by the Russian troops, and even by the Tartars themselves, so that the cold winds from the north and east had a free passage.

The temperature of the Crimea is in general very variable: the winters are sometimes so mild, that the frost does not last longer than four or five days, and rarely causes Reaumur's thermometer to fall below 8 degrees. Such was the winter of 1795 and 1796, when spring flowers were in full blow on the 6th of February. Others, on the contrary, are long and rigorous; such were those of 1798, 1799, 1800, 1802, and 1803, when, in January, and a great part of February, the thermometer was at 15 and 20 degrees. Snow, however, seldom falls in these regions, and never, during a whole winter, so as to cover the ground to any depth. The other seasons, particularly summer, afford similar variations.

The spring generally begins in the month of March, and lasts till the end of May: this is the most agreeable and healthy season. Nature appears dressed in her most beautiful colours, and a new source of pleasure may be said to rise almost at every step. In the month of June, the very hot weather commences, and lasts till the end of August; the verdure then disappears, and the springs, rivulets, and fountains, are dried up. The thermometer of Reaumur, even in the shade, often rises to 30 or 31 degrees: the heat, however, is happily modified by the sea-breezes, which set in at ten at noon, and blow till six in the evening; while a land-wind succeeds in the night. Rain and dew are very unusual in this season. A hard winter is often followed by a mild and rainy summer; for the prolonged resting of the snow on the mountains, and the conveyance of ice from the Sea of Azof, keep the air cool, and furnish a constant current of it till the end of May. The barometer varies but little in ordinary summers, and a long continuance of serene weather is then expected.

From the beginning of August, the nights become mild, and the sun's heat diminishes in day-time. The months of October and September are fine, the temperature is moderate, and agreeable weather prevails till the middle of November. At the end of this month the cold days begin, accompanied with slight frosts, and snow falls on the high mountains. The autumn is the most dangerous season in the Crimea, on account of intermittent and remittent fevers, the relapses of which occasion chronic and often fatal diseases, through the want of proper diet, as well as from negligence or bad treatment. The first cause of these diseases is bile, which is engendered by the hot season, and the inevitable influence of the first attacks of cold; the natural consequence of the freshness of the nights and of the winds which blow after the end of July.

The winter is seldom long and rigorous. In December the temperature is variable, and after four or five days of frost, fine weather often returns, and continues till January. The winds change continually, as does the barometer, and a new moon generally brings either fine weather or storms. The greatest degree of cold generally occurs in February; but a difference of climate happens in the Crimea, according to the situation of the places. There is felt in the plains an excess both of heat and cold; but rains are less frequent there in summer, because the barrenness of the steppes, and the violent winds that pass over them, prevent the moist air from accumulating, and resolving itself into rain.

In the mountainous parts, a great difference prevails between

the places towards the north, and those that lie along the southern shore; notwithstanding the small distance by which they are separated: often a heavy and abundant shower falls on one side of the chain of mountains, while on the other, the hot and clear weather remains unaltered; so that a journey of a few hours conveys a traveller from the scorching heat of July to the cold temperature of March.

The following is the division of the seasons among the Tartars. The spring begins on St. George's day, which is the 23d of April, and a solemn festival amongst those people, and lasts till the 22d of June. Their long summer of forty days, which follows, ends on the 1st of August. This month does not form a part of any season, till the 26th, on which day their autumn begins, and terminates in sixty-one days, or the 26th of October. By this period all the harvests of corn, grapes, &c. are finished, and the Tartars make bargains for the sale of their produce, and obtain new leases: the thirty-six days which follow, are the fore-runners of their great winter, which begins on the 1st of December, and lasts sixty-six days, or till the 4th of February. To the remaining twenty-four of this month they give the name of Gudchuk-ai. The other fifty-three days, from the 1st of March to the 23d of April, form their grand festival, or Kédrelès, which ends on St. George's day; and this period does not make a part of any season. It is remarked at this period, by the Tartars, that there are three cold epochs: they are tolerably accurate in their observation, and distinguish these variations of cold, by the appellations of the winter of the old woman, that of the swallows, and that of the lapwings.

Nature has not refused the Crimea any of the advantages that may be derived from its position; game is rather scarce in that country, though the forests afford a retreat to great numbers of goats, hares, and deer. The meadows, and even the mountains, all furnish excellent pasturage. The numerous orchards abound in delicious fruits; and the vineyards produce very good wine. Plants are as various in the Crimea as the districts which compose it are by their situation, the qualities of their soil, and the nature of the air. This fertility is not owing entirely to the goodness of the land, but also to the happy temperature of the climate, which facilitates the growth of several trees and shrubs, which are peculiar to hot countries. In the orchards grow black and other cherry-trees, peaches, apricots, almonds, mulberry and other walnut-trees, quinces, service-trees, cornil-trees, medlars and filberts. Abandoned, as one may say, to the care of Nature, they yet afford abundance of fruit of a good quality, so that, by a careful cultivation, they

might, in a few years, increase their success; and a great part of the productions of distant countries might be advantageously incorporated amongst them. In the kitchen-gardens the Tartars cultivate melons, cucumbers, gourds, cabbages, carrots, red and white beet-root, beans, peas, garlic, and a quantity of onions.

Besides the abundance of useful culinary vegetables produced in the Crimea, Nature has been equally liberal in granting it plenty of medicinal and dying substances, as well as some which are excellent for tanning.

Besides which, rye, barley, and oats, as well as millet and maize, which is every where cultivated, the Crimea possesses a number of useful objects which are peculiar to several places. There is found in profusion, on the plains of Caffa and Kertch, the *Atripex laciniata*, which, when burnt, affords excellent soda. In the environs of Aluchta and Uskut, the vallies abound with hemp and flax of the best quality; and Virginia tobacco is cultivated with great success. Madder grows in the low grounds about Inkerman, and woad and saffron are collected on the mountains and in the vallies of the southern coast. Between Yalta and Aluchta you meet with the *Agnus castus*, in Russia called the wild pear-tree, in consequence of the acid taste of the fruit resembling that of the pear; and in the woods of Yalta are numerous shrubs of sumach, or the vinegar-tree. The turpentine tree grows in the gardens near Sudagh, along the Alma, and spontaneously in the southern vallies. The diospiros, or *Lotus* of Linnaeus, appears in the gardens between Balaclava and Aluchta; while the arbutus springs up from the chasms of the steepest rocks. Near Derkoi, are the only two chesnut-trees in the Crimea: the vallies of Aluchta, as if proud of their laurels, divide with some others the possession of the olive, walnut, pomegranate, and fig-trees. The clayey mountains of Sudagh are covered with caper-trees; while in the vallies, the vine, sustained by propping or resting against trees, affords red and white wines of an excellent quality.

The animal kingdom is not very abundant in the Crimea. Amongst the tame or fallow beasts, and marine animals, are goats, deer, wolves, foxes, badgers, civet-cats, and hares; while the Black Sea, and that of Azof, abound in porpoises and sea-calves.

The domestic animals are dromedaries, horses, buffaloes, oxen, cows, goats, several species of sheep, and a large kind of greyhounds, which are much esteemed for the chase. I have got one of these animals, which was presented to me by Atay-Mirza: it is one of the most beautiful I ever saw.

The Crimea does not contain a great variety of birds;

amongst them, however, are the Alpine, and Egyptian vultures, the goshawk of passage, the kite, magpie, the blackbird, the partridge, the woodcock, the swallow, the thrush, the quail, the lark, the nightingale, the wren, the goldfinch, the tit, and the sparrow. There are likewise quantities of bustards in all the plains. The heron is found near the rivers, as are wild ducks and other water-fowl on the sea-shore. Several varieties of birds of passage also appear in the Crimea at different periods.

The fresh waters of this country contain a small species of barbel, as well as eels and excellent trout. The sea that environs the peninsula abounds in fish, of which several species are yet unknown to the inhabitants, for want of proper instruments to catch them; so that the people have hitherto not much employed themselves in this branch of economy.

The principal fish are sturgeon, mullet, mackarel, sardinas, pilchards, and several other species not generally known. One particular kind of sea-fish is a sort of burt or bret, which is of a considerable size, and is caught in the Black Sea and that of Azof. The testaceous fish in the rivers are lobsters; in the sea are found crabs, craw-fish, oysters, muscles, cockles, periwinkles, &c.

Reptiles are not numerous in the Crimea. A few serpents are found on the mountains, of the species called *Coluber jaculator*; but the asp and viper are very rare. There are several species of lizards and frogs, as well as fresh-water turtle.

The Crimea does not contain a great variety of insects. The bee is alone worthy of mention, as the inhabitants have numerous swarms. The hurtful insects are the tarantula, the scorpion, and the scolopendra.

The air of the Crimea is generally wholesome, being pure, dry, and light; all the places are sufficiently elevated above the level of the sea, in consequence of which there are no marshes of stagnant water; while the teraqueous vapours are purified and dissipated by the continual winds. Nevertheless, some parts of this country are supposed to be unhealthy. The only spots, however, which in reality are so, are the moist vallies that are covered with wood, like that of Catcha, or Katsha; the marshes of Tacklik, to the east of Caffa; the environs of the sources of the Great Cara-sou, and particularly the low grounds near Inkerman. As to the canton of Sivache, the mephitic exhalations which rise there, are considered at Perecop as an antidote to intermittent and remittent fevers.

The mountainous districts are the most healthy, on account of their exposure, and the purity of their waters. The cantons of Koslof and Kertch are preferred to all others.

In the plains there is a general scarcity of water, in consequence of the nature of the soil, which being flat and even, admits of the passage of the clouds and vapours towards the sea. The nakedness of the land also becomes a reason of its dryness, because the air which covers it being easily rarified, causes the clouds to rise. Storms are very rare, as the clouds are in general attracted by the high mountains; when, however, they do occur, they are terrible, though of short duration, and are almost always followed by violent falls of hail and rain.

In the plain, the water of wells is often brackish, sometimes insipid, and contains, according to the nature of the soil, more or less saline particles. That of the small rivers and rivulets, is generally thick, and has a bad taste, which arises from the muddy bottoms, together with the too great equality of the land, that prevents it from running freely, and renders it almost stagnant. The rivers are deep or shallow, according to the seasons. In the hot months of summer they are almost dried up; but in spring and autumn they have a strong current: their banks are in some parts stoney, and in others they consist of clay to a great extent. The heavy rains occasion frequent overflowings: at such times the water is brackish, but does not contain any hurtful particles, and on the whole is pure and agreeable. The Salghin, however, and a few of the rivulets, always hold some tartarous principles. The cantons of Koslof and Kertch are famous for the salubrity of their water.

The winds from the north and north-east may be considered as the most regular, as they pass over smooth plains: where they meet with no obstacle to their passage, they blow always with impetuosity, and carry with them snow and frost in winter; while in summer, by blowing in the same direction, they serve to refresh and purify the air, and may be regarded as a particular benefit of nature. All the other winds change their force and direction so often, that they may be called inconstant: some of them have many distinctive qualities, except those from the north-west, which are often impetuous, particularly in autumn. The sky then becomes disturbed, and a singular degree of heat is spread through the atmosphere, which increases as long as the wind lasts. Another of its qualities is its extreme dryness; in fact, it has all those which are peculiar to the dangerous hot winds of Egypt and other parts of Asia; but the degree of heat which this wind occasions is not so considerable in the Crimea, nor are its consequences so fatal: this amelioration probably proceeds from the passage of the wind across the Black Sea.

What is still more worthy of observation is, a variable kind of wind, peculiar to the district of Balaclava, and other parts of the southern coast. Like the sea-breezes, it begins with violence, and ceases in a short time. It most frequently occurs after sunset, and nevertheless produces a remarkable heat, with a strong smell in the air: it generally blows from the south. M. Pallas thinks it is produced by the sulphureous vapours of inflammable substances which are concealed in the abysses near the sea.

CHAP. V.

POLITICAL STATE OF THE CRIMEA.—SUMMARY OF ITS HISTORY FROM THE TIME OF ITS CONQUEST BY THE RUSSIANS.

FOR the space of 2300 years the Don has formed the recognised boundary between Europe and Asia; and the vast country through which it runs, has in every age been the scene of the most sanguinary wars. The people of the east, having become too numerous and too indolent to increase the productions necessary for their subsistence, gradually extended themselves to the westward, in search of new establishments.

On meeting to the right with parts intersected by forests, lakes, and marshes, while to the left was the Black Sea, they advanced in crowds towards the countries watered by the Don; One horde was soon followed by another in the precarious possession of those meadows, so often covered with blood, and the conquerors were expelled in their turn by new colonists, who passed the river in the same direction. Such was the ancient state of the plains contiguous to the Crimea.

According to M. Sestrenevich, the Tauridans, or aborigines of the mountainous part of Taurida, were the first inhabitants of the Crimea; and about 1700 years before our era, an Artaxonian queen led her warriors beyond the Tanaïs, the ancient name of the Don, and instituted in Taurida sacrifices in honour of Mars and Diana.

Almost all authors, however, agree, that the Cimmerians or Cimbrians were the most ancient inhabitants of the Crimea. They were a part of the wandering Celts, who resided in Europe between the Pontus Euxinus and the Baltic. The Scythians, expelled from the north of Persia by Ninus, king of Assyria, took possession of all the country which bears their name; but they could not entirely drive the Cimmerians from their territory; for these people, after resigning to them the flat country, took refuge on the neighbouring mountains, and assumed the name of Taurinians, or Tauridans. Hence the Greeks used to call Tauro-Scythians those who inhabit the tongue of land com-

prised between the gulph of Carcinites and the mouth of the Boristhenes: they also called those who were in the Crimea by the same name.

The establishments of the Greeks in the Crimea, were as early as the sixth century before the Christian æra. The Milesians built there Ponticæum, or Bosphorus, which is now Kertsh, and Theodosia, now Caffa. The Heracleots of the Euxine, sailed towards those places in conjunction with the Delians of the northern coasts of Asia Minor, and built Cherson on the territory of the Taurinians. The commerce of the Greeks with that country soon became very flourishing.

The invasion of Darius may be considered as the period of the foundation of foreign colonies in the Crimea. The inhabitants of Asia Minor, subjects of his Persian majesty, who composed his naval army, had sufficient time to examine the coasts of the Black Sea, and formed the design of establishing themselves on such points as appeared to them most advantageous.

In the year 480 before the vulgar æra, the Archæ-Anaktides founded at Bosphorus, and in some other towns towards the mouths of the Kuban, a monarchical state, the throne of which passed 40 years afterwards to a new dynasty, in the person of Spartacus. These new monarchs, though of Thracian origin, according to all appearance, liked the Greeks, particularly the Athenians, and governed them with mildness: they drove the Scythians from the peninsula of the Kertsh, took possession of Theodosia, and extended their other possessions on the Kuban.

About 180 years before our æra, the Sarmatians, or Syromedes, originally of Media, having exterminated the Scythians, the Taurinians gradually established their dominion over the whole of the peninsula, and molested the kingdom of Bosphorus, as well as the independent state of Cherson. These two opulent towns fell a prey to the rapacity of those barbarians, who levied on them enormous contributions; and when their demands were not complied with, they committed the most horrible excesses.

These vexations continued till the beginning of the century which preceded the Christian æra. In the year 81 before Christ, Mithridates, king of the Euxine, having already subjugated Bosphorus and Cherson, conquered the Taurinians, and thus became master of the whole Crimea: with a view of insuring the possession of this conquest, he sent into Scythia two tribes of Sarmatians, who inhabited the town of Tauros or Tapropolis; one of them was called Yazique, and the other Royal.

Mithridates enjoyed his conquest about sixteen years, when being conquered by Pompey, besieged in his capital by his own son, and his army by revolting, rendering it impossible for him

to accomplish the noble designs he had conceived against Rome, his great soul preferred death to humiliation.

It was at this period alone that the Romans appeared for the first time in the Crimea. The difficulty of defending this country, determined them to cede to Pharnaces, the rebel son of Mithridates, the crown of Bosphorus. Pompey only excepted from this cession the town of Phanagoria, which he erected into a republic, to recompense it for having given to the other towns of the Bosphorus the first example of infidelity towards their legitimate sovereign.

In the first century of our era, the Alains penetrated into the Crimea, rendered tributary the kings of the Bosphorus, and about the year 62, succeeded in exterminating the Taurinians. The dominion of these new masters lasted nearly 150 years.

Towards the middle of the second century the Scythians, already known by the name of Goths, supplanted the Alains: it was during their domination, under the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine, that Christianity was introduced into the Crimea. There were several bishoprics erected from time to time, at Cherson, at Bosphorus, and amongst the Goths. The latter were forced to submit to the Huns in 357; but they retained their habitations amongst the mountains, where some Alains also remained, and in the peninsula of Kertsch: they there had their particular kings, who were Christians; but towards the end of the fourth century, the kingdom of Bosphorus was entirely abolished.

With respect to the origin of the Huns first mentioned, it seems lost in the earliest periods of antiquity. They once occupied, and perhaps originally, a vast extent of dry and barren country to the north of the great wall of China; but the valour of the Huns extended the limits of their states, and their chiefs, who were known by the name of Tanjoux, were successively the conquerors and sovereigns of a formidable empire. Having been overcome and dispersed, two numerous divisions of these daring exiles took different routes, one towards the Oxus, and the other towards the Volga. The Huns had a brown complexion, a flat nose, small eyes, and scarcely any beard. These characters are still peculiar to the Mongoles and Tungusians; but particularly the want of beard.

The fall of the Huns having followed the death of Attila, the Ongros or Hungarians, entered the Crimea in 464, and occupied the southern coast of the peninsula. It was the descendants of those Hungarians, who, after that period, over-ran the plains of the Crimea, under the names of Ultziagres, and Ultziugres; but in 679, they were constrained, like the rest of their nation, to submit to the Chazares, who afterwards subdued the Goths of the

mountains, and the Greek towns. Chazare, in the Slavonian tongue, has the same meaning as *métanaste* in Greek, which is *emigrant*. The Greeks gave this epithet to a Sarmatian tribe, which had separated from that of the Yazigues, residing to the east and west of the Palus Maeotis, when Mithridates transplanted them into Scythia. It is worthy of remark that the Yazigues having emigrated towards the Danube, and established themselves between that river and that of Theisse, took the name of *Métanastes*.

In 840, the Emperor Theophilus erected a province under the name of Cherson, and reunited in that government all the Greek towns of the Crimea, and the Tsikic, or Kuban; for those people, who were tributaries of the Chazares, acknowledged as their sovereign the emperor of Byzantium. The Jews were at this time very numerous in the Crimea.

In 882, the Petchenegues, or Kanglis, expelled the Hungarians from the Crimea, and their other possessions, and formed on them a powerful republic. Towards the middle of the eleventh century, they were driven out in their turn by the Polovres or Comanians, who, it is fair to presume, were originally Huns, as well as the Petchenegues; the Comanians then established themselves in the peninsula, and permitted the Genoese to take possession of it.

About the same period, the town of Sugdaia, or Soldaya, now called Sudagh, acquired such great importance on account of its commerce, that it gave its name to all the territory that the Greeks possessed in the Crimea, which was called Sugdaia, or Soldania. Till the year 1204, it acknowledged the sovereignty of the Greek emperor, but it finished by shaking off its allegiance to the empire of Constantinople: its own princes were afterwards exterminated by the Ottomans, as well as those of Theodori, or Inkerman, and Gothia, or Mangut.

In 1237, the Mongholes or Tartars subjugated and destroyed the Comanians. At this time some Tartar princes, provided with some appendages, and taking the title of Ulugh Bey, spread themselves over the flat country with their horde, and continued in it till towards the 883d year of the Hegira, or 1478 of the vulgar era, at which period Mengueli Guerai Khan founded, with the protection of the Ottoman Porte, what was properly called the kingdom of the Crimea. The Greeks, and other inhabitants of the Crimea, paid the Mongholes the same tribute as was received by the Comanians. In the first years of the dominion of the Tartars, a great number of Tcherkasses, or Circassians, came and settled in the Crimea. Till 1333, Kertsh remained vassal to a prince of that nation; and as the Mongholes carried on a considerable trade with the town of Krim, all the peninsula took that name, particularly the eastern part, which

still retains it. As long as the Romans were masters of Constantinople, the towns of Krim, Tamana, now Macrigna, and Azof or Tana, also carried on a considerable trade, in which the Venetians were principally engaged; but when the emperor Michael Paleologue, by a treaty made with the Genoese, in the year 1061, granted them an exemption from the usual custom duties, or tolls, throughout Greece, and the liberty of navigating the Black Sea, they began to monopolize the commerce of the Crimea, to the exclusion of the Greeks and the Romans. They likewise enjoyed nearly all the advantage that arose from the sanguinary wars that took place in consequence of this monopoly; and they rebuilt, with the permission of the Khan of the Mongholes, the town of Caffa, which they made the centre of their trade: this soon became so considerable, that it gave its name to the peninsula for a time. By degrees the Genoese effected the conquest of Soldaya, or Sudagh, and Combula, or Balaclava. They paid, indeed, a tribute to the Mongholes, while the latter were powerful; but as soon as their intestine divisions began to weaken them, the Genoese shook off the yoke, and the princes of the flat country were for the most part elected and disposed of according to their will.

At this epoch, the commerce of India with the Crimea, and the neighbouring countries, was divided into two branches; one of which passed by the Amón, or Oxus, the Caspian Sea and Astrachan, and terminated at Tana or Azof; while the other went by way of Bagdat and Tauritz, to Trebizond and Sevastopol. Tana, though in submission to the Mongholes, belonged to the Genoese and the Venetians, who had consuls at Trebizond and Sevastopol. The Genoese, in fact, had extended their commerce by land as far as China; and had obtained from king Leon the privilege of trading in all the provinces of Armenia, from the Black to the Caspian Sea.

Genoa had recovered herself with much difficulty from the evils caused by her war with the republic of Venice; and being obliged to let the Venetians enjoy a complete liberty of commerce in her colony at Tana, she found them soon afterwards conclude a treaty with the Sultan of Egypt, which did her great injury. The Genoese colony, therefore, opened another branch of commerce in Bulgaria; and when Tana or Azof, ceased to belong exclusively to the Venetians, by passing under the domination of the Mongholes, the Genoese made it again the entrepôt of their merchandize.

In 1775, the Genoese power was annihilated in the Crimea. The Turks, at the demand of the Tartars, (the acts of injustice committed by the Genoese having excited the Tartars against Menguey Guerai, who protected that avaricious colony), took

possession of Caffa, Soldaya, Comhalo, and even of Tana on the Don. These new conquerors put an end, at the same time, to the principalities of Gothia and Theodosia, established garrisons in the chief towns, particularly in those situated on the coast, and thus held in check the Khans of the Crimea. Nevertheless the latter were rather the allies than the subjects of the Porte, till 1584, when it succeeded in appointing them itself, or at least, in confirming them, when they were so rash as to dispense with its nomination. The Ottomans at first sent to Caffa a sandjag, and afterwards a beglierbey, who governed all these possessions in the Crimea on the Don; and finally, on the banks of the sea of Azof:—they also placed a strong garrison in that town, to keep the khans in awe, as by this means they closed the entrance of the Black Sea to all other European nations; commerce was almost annihilated, and the whole exportation from the different ports of the Crimea, did not consist of any thing but slaves and the productions of the country.

Mahomet II. having assured himself of the devotion towards him of Menguey Guerai, appointed him khan of the Crimea, in the 883d year of the Hegira, (1478-9) after making him sign a treaty, by which he recognised the feudality of the Crimea to the Ottoman empire. When the sovereignty of the peninsula passed to Menguey Guerai, there were not many Tartars amongst its inhabitants; but the wars which he carried on with them on the banks of the Volga, afforded him an opportunity to bring with him into the Crimea, several thousand Nogays, who were obliged to establish themselves in that country. His successors used the same means to people the Kuban, and the territories situated between the Don and the Niester.

The Khans of the Crimea, as has already been shewn, were rather the allies than the subjects of the Porte; but in 1584, Mahomet Guerai having dared to disobey the grand seignior, the Sultan Keniad nominated another khan, and sent the grand vizier, at the head of an army to punish the disobedience of Mahomet, and to cause the new sovereign to be acknowledged. Since that epoch, the khans have often been deposed, and sometimes recalled to the throne, according to the caprice of the grand seignior, till at length they were entirely subjected to his controul. But though the Porte had the privilege of raising whomsoever it pleased to the throne, it always regarded the recommendation of the khan, who might appoint a successor previous to his death.

Amongst the khans who reigned successively, we ought to distinguish Ghari Guerai, the ninth khan, Islam Guerai, the seventeenth, and Hadgi Selim Guerai, the nineteenth. Under the reign of this last, the Venetians in vain endeavoured to recover their commercial influence in the Crimea: two yes-

sels richly laden, though furnished with a firman of the Grand Seignior, were stopped in the harbour; the Divan being in league with the custom-house officers, took into consideration the motives which they alleged in their defence, and, notwithstanding the money that was received, it prohibited to the Venetians the navigation of the Black Sea. This Selim Guerai having beaten, in one campaign, the Austrians, Muscovites, and Poloneses, saved the standard of the Mahometan religion; which was on the point of being carried off, and re-established the affairs of the Ottoman empire, which were falling into decay, the Janissaries wanted to raise him to the throne of Constantinople; but he refused to ascend it by using treason as the means: he therefore contrived to appease the sedition of the Janissaries; while the only recompence which he demanded of the Grand Seignior was, to make a pilgrimage to Mecca: this he obtained, and by it acquired the title of Hadgi, or Pilgrim, which is borne by all the Mahometans who make a journey to the tomb of the Prophet. He enjoyed, till his death, the greatest respect in Turkey; and the Porte, out of gratitude for his services, declared that his descendants alone should be raised to the throne of the Crimea; which was afterwards scrupulously observed.

In 1711, under Devlet Guerai, the twenty-fourth khan, Peter the Great, blockaded by the Turks and the Tartars, reduced, in short, to extremities, and not being able to procure provisions, offered a considerable sum to the grand vizier, and thus succeeded in saving his army, by concluding a treaty, in consequence of which he engaged to restore Azof.

The incursions of the Tartars having determined the empress Anne, to declare war against the Grand Seignior, in 1736, as sovereign of the Crimea, the Marshal de Munich, at the head of a Russian army, penetrated into this peninsula, and put it literally to fire and sword. The following year Marshal de Lascei burnt the town of Carasubusa, and a great number of Tartar villages; he entered the Crimea in the following spring, but the devastations of the last campaign forced him to make a retrograde movement.

In 1757, Alim Guerai, the thirty-fourth khan, having augmented the taxes and duties imposed on the Nogays, they engendered a dislike to him; and, shortly afterwards, he violated the fundamental laws of those Tartars, by appointing one of his sons seraskier of the horde of Budjak, to the prejudice of the brothers of the deceased: at last, other vexations induced the Nogays to revolt. Krim Guerai, whose character will presently be described, profited by these arrangements, and the manner in which he paved the way to the throne proved the extent of his

genius, the greatness of his courage, and the fertility of his resources. On attaining his end, he shewed the greatest attachment towards Aym, and the other deposed sultans, was good and affable towards the poor, and haughty and imposing towards the great; he was, nevertheless, just and liberal to all. He has been reproached only for too great a degree of severity, and for being subject to sudden anger; but it is a fact, that the good qualities of this prince surpassed all his faults.

Deprived of his empire in 1764, it was restored to him within four years afterwards by the Porte, who repented having taken it from him. War having broken out between Turkey and Russia, Krim Guerai, at the head of an army of fifty thousand Tartars, and one hundred and twenty thousand Turks, made an incursion into New Servia, and ravaged the whole country: his army, however, composed of Asiatics, was almost entirely destroyed by the severity of the climate. Having arrived at Bender, and finding himself afflicted with hypochondriacal complaints, a Greek physician administered to him a potion, the effect of which justified but too well the suspicions entertained of the hand which had prepared it. Krim Guerai died two days after having swallowed the draught: he was fifty-five years of age, and had reigned seven of them: never was there a khan more beloved by the Tartars, nor was there, perhaps, any one who merited better their esteem.

The two successors of Krim Guerai, were almost as soon deposed as elected; the war continued its ravages, and the Russian armies were crowned with laurels. The Prince Dolgoruky being dispossessed of the Crimea in 1771, the Empress, with the consent of the Tartars, placed the young Saheb Guerai upon the throne. The new sovereign, in union with the wishes of his people, renounced all alliance with the Porte, and the kingdom of Crimea was declared independent, under the protection of Russia, his new ally. The year following, Saheb ceded to the empress the towns of Kertch, Jénikalè, and Kilburun on the Nieper.

Mustapha III. who reigned at the time, was anxious to destroy these new alliances, and with that view set up several khans; but not being in a condition to support their claims, he attempted a reconciliation with Saheb, which last was disgraced at the court of St. Petersburg for the intrigue, and his brother Dèvlèt was put in his place, who also, by new intrigues, was gained over from the side of Russia. At length, in 1774, the treaty of Caimardgi was concluded, which settled the independence of the Crimea. By this treaty Russia remained mistress of Kertch, of Jénikalè, and of Kilburun; and the Porte allowed a free navigation in all the seas dependent on the Ottoman states. In the same

treaty was stipulated the independence of the Tartars, and the liberty of their choosing a sovereign for themselves from among the descendants of Gengis Khan.

In the treaty of Menguey Guerai with Mahomet II. the contracting powers could only stipulate by virtue of their respective rights. The power of deposing the khan, which was assumed by the grand seignior, did not strike at the independence of that nation. To declare a country to be free which has never been otherwise, is the first step towards its subjugation. Hence the pretended independence of the Tartars made them immediately subservient to Russia.

The treaty of Kainardgi reserved to the Grand Seignior at all times the spiritual supremacy, and the administration of laws devolved to the caliphs, as well as the investiture of the khan, which last was, at his accession, to notify his nomination to the two courts, to order public prayers to be made for the Grand Seignior in all the mosques; to receive from the cadilesker of Constantinople the *Munaceleh* or patents of the cadies (judges); and lastly, to cause money to be coined with the impression of the Ottoman Sultan. Sahab was graciously accepted, having been confirmed khan by the empress; and the Grand Seignior sent him several insignia of royalty.

Nevertheless, the numerous party of Devlet Guerai knew too well how to profit by the natural inconstancy of disposition of the Tartars; whose discontent at seeing the principal places of the Crimea in the hands of the Russians, occasioned them to revolt against their new sovereign, who having fled to Constantinople, Devlet Guerai was re-elected khan by the Tartars, and soon after received the insignia of investiture from the Grand Seignior. Russia did not delay her interference; she seconded the ambitious views of Chahyn Guerai, brother of the last khan, with an armed force, who, at the head of the Nogais, attacked Devlet. The two parties came to a battle; that of Chahyn supported by the Russians, gained a complete victory, and Devlet was about to solicit assistance from Constantinople, when the empress having advanced with a new army, under the pretext of maintaining the treaty of Kainardgi, the Porte, which was not in a condition to allow of a rupture, abandoned Devlet, established Chahyn, and the peace was considered by the two powers as not having been broken.

Chahyn was desirous to introduce among his troops, the European discipline, of which he felt the superiority; he established the revenue of his kingdom without regarding the discontents occasioned by the rulers; expressed a too marked predilection for the manners of the Russians, and of the Christians; and thence drew upon himself the hatred of his subjects. *Jea-*

REUILLY.]

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lous of the preference which he seemed to give to strangers, parties were formed, ambition soon gave them chiefs, and the disaffected were to be found even in the family of Chahyn himself. Russia, whom a révolution had deprived of her influence in the Crimea, did not fail to take advantage of these troubles, and to support the prince who was her own creature. The Porte, after having in vain urged the act of independence by which the Tartars were made free of the interference of the neighbouring states, at length determined, on her side, to support the party opposed to Chahyn Guerai.

The Russians cut the Tartars to pieces at one of their posts near Batchisnai, took Caffa from them, and defeated at Balaclava, Selym Khan, who had been recalled by the Grand Scignior. The whole Crimea then submitted again to Chahyn, and the Porte was compelled to acknowledge him as khan.

Chahyn, however, experienced a cruel interference and opposition from his protectors; the marshal Suwarof received orders to banish into different parts of the empire all the Greek and Venetian families which were to be found in the Crimea, and a great number of those unfortunate people perished, from the rigour of the winter in that climate.

In 1779, the cabinet of Versailles made use of its power with the Porte to cause it to sign articles explanatory of the treaty of Kainardgi, the principal of which were: The absolute confirmation of that treaty; The consent on the part of Russia, that the khan elected independently by the Tartars, should convey to the sultan the *proces verbal* of his election, to the end of having his confirmation as to the spiritual supremacy: The engagement on the part of Russia to withdraw its troops, &c. &c.

In the month of December 1781, the Crimea was reduced to the most dreadful state of calamity. Since the insurrection of the Christian subjects, the cultivation had been almost totally neglected, and the population was already considerably diminished. Some new revolts having occurred in the *Kuban*, and among the *Nogais*, all the ports in the Black Sea were blockaded by the Russians, whose operations were directed by the khan. These troubles and continual disorders in the interior, furnished the empress with a specious pretence to possess herself altogether of the Crimea and of the *Kuban*. The prince Potemkin, charged with that important affair, completed it with as much address as good fortune, in the beginning of the year 1783. Chahyn Guerai abdicated the throne, and ceded the Crimea, the *Kuban*, and the Isle of *Taman*, to the Empress Catharine. By a new treaty made at Constantinople, the 10th of June 1783, peace was concluded between Russia and Turkey, and the empress confirmed in the quiet enjoyment of her new possessions.

Thus disappeared the remnant of the empire of the Mogols, the most powerful and extensive which had, perhaps, ever existed on the face of the globe.

In 1451, the empire of Quaptchaq, which made a part of that of Gengis Khan, was entirely dissolved, and its wreck formed several mighty kingdoms; such as Quaptchaq, properly called Kasan, Astracan, and the Crimea. These kingdoms have been successively absorbed by the growing power of Russia, which, until that epoch, had been tributary to the khan of Quaptchaq; such are the changes and vicissitudes in empires.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE TEMPLES OF DIANA, AND OF ORESTEON IN TAURIDA.—OF THE CHERSONESIAN REPUBLIC, OR THAT OF CHERSONESUS IN THE CRIMEA.—AND OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS AND MOUNTAINS IN THAT COUNTRY.

THE magnanimous conduct of Orestes and Pylades claimed the admiration of all who were witnesses of their noble deeds. The Taurians were so much pleased that they presently forgot the insult offered to their goddess, or at least they remembered it only to do honour to the memory of those illustrious strangers: they erected a temple to them under the name of the Temple of Oresteon. It followed that the arts transmitted to posterity the recital of the events which had occasioned its erection. An inscription of the circumstances was engraved on a column of brass, and the principal events depicted on the walls of the gallery which surrounded the edifice; which painting, in *fresco*, lasted until the time of Lucian, who died in the 193d year of the Christian æra.

The Taurians had in themselves the seeds of those sublime virtues which they admired in their conquerors, and after the appearance of these two heroes, those seeds put forth such deep roots, that the people made a law of the inviolability of friendship. This religious regard for that virtue, was increased and strengthened by time. The Scythians adopted the same maxims, they ranked friendship as the highest of the virtues, and practised all its duties with a zeal unknown to other nations.

There were three temples dedicated to Diana in Taurida. Let us fix our attention to that from whence Orestes took the statue of the goddess: when we arrive thither, we shall be unquestionably in the neighbourhood of the place where the temple of Oresteon was built: not to leave any thing to chance, we shall go step by step with the writers of the first century.

We have beneath our feet the ruins of the wall which inclosed

the Isthmus; we are distant about four leagues from ancient Chersonesus: to arrive thither, in coasting the shore, three forts are found; as according to Strabo, "*inter urbem (Chersonesum) et promontorium (Parthenium) portus sunt tres*." The sacred promontory of Cape Aja Burun is before us, on the Parthenium Promontory, and upon a steep rock is situated the monastery of St. George. There are some trees on this spot, and among others we observed the black juniper resembling the cypress. The monastery consists of a small church, a refectory, and some smaller apartments, inhabited by the monks. These anchorites are secluded from the rest of the world. I passed the evening on a terrace which overlooks the Black Sea. The day closed, and all was still, except the sound of the waves, which broke against the flinty shore; peace and quietness reigned on the surface of the sea; and in the monastery, overcome with lassitude, I yielded to the soft and melancholy impressions which subdued my mind: I imagined myself encircled by friends yet living, and by those I had lost: some tears fell on the balustrade upon which I leaned. Presently the air became sultry and heavy, the clouds thickened, a rushing wind, the precursor of storms, proclaimed the approach of a dreadful tempest; lively impressions of terror succeeded to the softest sensations. The thunder roared, the rain fell in torrents, the lightnings darted from the clouds, the thunderbolts fell, and a volume of fire succeeded the most horrible obscurity: all was chaos, every thing disappeared. But presently the rain ceased, the flashes of lightning were not so frequent, and the thunder was only heard from afar; the air became clear, the clouds began to dissipate, and there remained only on my mind the recollection of the awful scene I had witnessed. The monks, accustomed as they were to the frequent storms of these parts, assured me, that they had seldom beheld one so terrible.

On this promontory our guide called our attention to the temple of a certain virgin goddess, *Tanum: Demonis Virginis*, and its idol: we compared, we measured the scite, and we applied to the geography and description of the cotemporary poet OVID. Every thing agreed, we were in front of the temple of Diana, where that goddess was worshipped under Thoas; we trod, beneath our feet, the blood of the Greeks sacrificed during so many centuries, and the dust of the altar of white marble upon which Iphigenia had nearly offered up her own brother. On this spot, doubtless, stood the altar, and here also was the pedestal of the golden statue of Diana, carried away by Orestes.

We have before our eyes the valley from whence we ascended to the temple by forty steps, under which was the grotto consecrated to the nymphs; we measured, with an eye of horror, the place from whence they threw into the sea, according to Herodotus,

the remains of those unhappy victims. This enormous rock, which raised its head above all others, and whose base defies the waves, and withstands the storm, is the same rock behind which Orestes concealed himself to watch the favourable opportunity; of this we can doubt no longer: we behold too, the cape whereon was erected the temple of Oresteon, not far from that of Diana, which always preserved the name of the deity, although, since the carrying off her statue, they sacrificed to Iphigenia.

In following the coast to the north-west, we observe a ridge of steep rocks which extend into the sea, and which form a kind of natural arch, under which the waves pass. On the same shore is to be seen the foundation of a considerable building; it consists of two regular squares, the walls of which are nearly in the direction of the four quarters of the world; that which is most to the north is thirty-three feet in extent, and is built on a base elevated in the form of a hill; it seems to have had a way out towards the sea. From the south-west side it is surrounded on all parts, without the foundation, with a range of enormous stones rudely shaped. In the midst, but rather nearer to the wall on the north side, is a cubic stone level with the ground*; round this we observe, in an open square on the same side, other smaller flat stones placed in the ground, which seem to have served as bounds, and to have had some relation to the stone in the middle, on which was, probably, either an altar or a statue. The square towards the south nearly approaching the sea, and adjoining the former one, is oblong and a little larger. It seems also to have had a way out at the south-east angle, and another towards the north-west; it consists equally of large hewn stones. Near the wall which looks to the sea, are to be seen large flat hewn stones also, which describe a sort of path as if drawn with a line: this file of stones follows the same direction for the length of the other square.

All the south-west angle of the Crimea, almost cut through on one side by the port of Sevastopol, and on the other by that of Balaklava, was formerly called the Heracleotic Chersonesus, founded by Greek colonies from the city of Heraclea in Asia Minor, about the commencement of the sixth century before Christ. The peninsula called Thrace by the ancients, was inclosed by a wall which joined the two ports of which we have just spoken.

The early state and progress of the colony is obscure, as is the case with all the cities of great antiquity. This little state, sufficiently well-governed to be happy during peace; but

* M. Pallas caused this stone to be raised, and a light earth was found beneath.

too weak to resist the attacks of the barbarians, who often laid waste those countries, courted the protection of Mithridates king of Pontus, who had compelled Parysades II. to surrender to him his kingdom of Bosphorus, situated on the confines of Taurica.

After the victory of Pompey, Chersonesus became subject to Rome; when the emperor Adrian limited the bounds of his empire, this city, which set a high value on the protection and friendship of the Romans, continued to acknowledge their dominion. Interiorly governed as a republic, it had its *protevous*, who were the chiefs of the senate during peace, and of the army in the time of war. These magistrates bore the popular title of Fathers of their Country: conducted by them, the people of Chersonesus defeated the Bosphorian Sarmatians, who were at war with Rome. In the following century Constantine the Great employed them to repel the Scythians, who being numerous, and masters of the shore right of the Danube, could not see, without considerable uneasiness, the translation of the Roman metropolis from Rome to Byzantium. To recompense the zeal of the people of Chersonesus, the emperor not only confirmed their ancient privileges, but granted them new ones. The Bosphorians made two other unsuccessful attacks against the Chersonites, which last, after having obtained a complete victory, freed them from the dominion of the Sarmatians; but the hatred of the Bosphorians was not extinguished.

Here the thread of the history of Chersonesus is broken until the epoch of the siege of the Hung in the sixth century. The emperor Justinian assisted to raise it. As Chersonesus was the most remote city from Constantinople, they banished thither the state prisoners, the most remarkable of whom were Pope Martin the First, the emperor Justinian the Fourth, and Rhinometus, dethroned and castrated by Leontius, who, when he was restored to the throne, exercised unheard of cruelties against the Chersonites and Bosphorians. The Chersonesian republic persecuted, and almost annihilated, by the chief of the empire, who owed it his protection, in gratitude for its patriotic attachment and former services, was indebted for the remnant of its existence to the tutelary support of the Chazarians.

About the middle of the ninth century, the emperor Theophilus constituted Chersonesus a Roman province: thus vanished all the remainder of its republican form of government. Its interests and its fears caused it to submit easily to the yoke; and Saint Cyrilla was sent to Chersonesus, to convert the Chazarians.

The Grand Duke Uladimir having menaced the empire with invasion, at the head of a powerful army, the emperor thought proper to buy a peace by the richest presents, and concluded

with him a treaty, the conditions of which he no longer observed when the danger was passed. The Grand Duke Vladimir determined to do himself justice, and besieged Chersonesus with a considerable fleet. This great man, struck with the absurdities of paganism, which he professed, and which appeared to him an obstacle to the prosperity of his country, as soon as the light of the faith was shewn him by the preachers of the missionaries of the Pope, and the precepts of a Greek philosopher; their doctrine according perfectly with good morals, and differing only in the forms of worship; mistrusting his own choice between two paths, which should lead to the same end, appointed, by the advice of his counsel, ten of the most enlightened men of his nation to go to Constantinople, for the purpose of taking exact information on the subject, and consented to be determined by their report. They returned enchanted with what they had seen and heard in the Greek church, and the Grand Duke and his people, affected with the recital, decided unanimously for the Greek ritual. The prince came to the resolution of being baptised at Chersonesus.

Vladimir took the town after an obstinate resistance, accomplished his vow, and abandoned his conquest to the emperors by a treaty of peace.

The jealousy of Sudagh prompted the Chersonites to rise against the emperor Michael Ducas, who, at the time, engaged in a disastrous war with the king of the Bulgarians, implored the assistance of Wsevolod, grand duke of Russia, which last caused an army to be marched to Chersonesus, commanded by his two sons, Vladimir and Glebe: the death of the emperor happening about the same time, put a stop to these hostilities. The Chersonites having seized some Russian merchant vessels, they were compelled, not only to restore them, but to pay the expences of the war. The concurrence of Shudagh was not the cause of the destruction of Chersonesus, it had not less to suffer from the jealousy of Theodosius.

Gedimir, grand duke of Lithuania, and Olgord, his son and successor, made several incursions into the Crimea, and almost entirely destroyed Chersonesus: however, it was not entirely overthrown, until in the year 1350; the magnificent Genes hastened its ruin, by refusing to allow the imperial cities to send ships to Chersonesus by the Bosphorus, nor generally towards the north beyond the mouth of the Danube. This crisis was yet more fatal to the Chersonites, as they were surprised in a state of inactive imbecility, the effect of luxury, and increased by the last invasion of the Lithuanians. The remnant of this unfortunate people sought for safety under the protection of the Tartars; but they only changed their oppressors, and the bar-

barians completed the ruin of Chersonesus. In the sixteenth century its towers and walls were yet entire, being the only monuments of the magnificence of its founders. We saw in one part of the town near the isthmus, the ruins of its ducal palace, and farther off, those of a monastery and a church. The marble columns, and all the works of art, the solid materials of which would have resisted the ravages of time, have been carried to Constantinople, for the decoration of great private houses, and of public edifices.

At some versts from Sevastopol the traveller passes through the ruins of its numerous walls, which inclose large spaces, and which form in some parts, streets, and small squares. It is not, however, to be supposed that Chersonesus extended so far; it is more likely that those walls inclosed the gardens of the inhabitants, and of their country houses: with respect to the foundation of edifices constructed with large hewn stones, found scattered and isolated throughout Chersonesus, they served, doubtless, for retreats and asylas to the inhabitants, who were constantly exposed to the attacks of the barbarians.

It is nearly about two versts from Sevastopol, that the ruins of Chersonesus are discovered. The building of Sevastopol has entirely completed the ruin of that ancient city, of whose walls we still behold the ruins. At the time the Crimea came into the possession of the Russians, there were discovered among the ruins, sculptured marble, coins and medals, of different metals. It is remarkable that these curiosities were found by the soldiers and sailors, for no other person has had the common sense to make the search; conducted, however, with care, such a labour would richly recompense those who would give themselves the trouble to undertake it.

Where the ancient Chersonesus, destroyed since the time of Strabo, was situated, has been the object of research of numerous geographers; but their contradictory opinions leave the matter in an uncertainty, from which it is not, however, difficult to relieve it, by attending minutely to the description of Strabo, who says, *inter urbem* (that is to say, the new Chersonesus) *et promontorium* (Parthenium) *portus sunt tres, sequitur vestita Chersonesus nunc diruta et post hanc portus angusto intraitu. Symbolon dicitur.*

It may be clearly perceived that this ancient city was situated between the last bay, and Balaclava, the port of which was Symbolon, from which the Genoese have named it Cembalo. It is, then, Cape *Funary* to which the passage of Strabo relates. The two sides of the bay extend so far into the peninsula, that it is not more than three hundred toises in breadth at the place where the isthmus is narrowest: from thence it enlarges, and

acquires again, at its extremity, a surface of more than a verst and a half. Nearly half the surface of this peninsula is covered with the rubbish of old buildings.

The towns of the Crimea are few in number, and are but thinly peopled. Those which have been built by the Tartars contain only a few narrow and unpaved streets, which are always in a filthy condition. The courts around the houses are closed with high walls, and the houses, which are built on the inside, are so low that a stranger thinks he is walking between half-ruined stone walls. Too much praise, however, cannot be given to the Tartars for their care in conducting the water by canals, sometimes from a very considerable distance, and the purposes to which they apply it; either by making public springs, or conveying it into their houses. Unfortunately, these fountains have been in a great degree destroyed by the Russians, and those which remain, decay daily for want of necessary repairs. The ancient splendour of some of these towns is attested by the ruins they contain; while others seem to be built upon the rubbish of their former edifices. War and destruction have every where left the traces of their passage, and the traveller has incessantly before his eyes a picture of the vicissitudes of human affairs.

For the facility of description, I shall divide the Crimea into three parts; the plain, the mountains, and the peninsula of Kertsch.

Or Capi, now known by the name of Perecop, is a small town situated on the isthmus, which joins the Crimea to the continent, and serves as a port to the peninsula. This isthmus has been fortified since the earliest ages; but the fortifications that are now to be seen on it, are the work of the Turks. The line of walls runs from the Black Sea to the Sivache, an extent of eight versts and a half, and is defended by batteries.

To arrive in the Crimea you pass a bridge and a small arched gate, near the fortress of Perecop. The town of Perecop consists only of a few miserable houses of turf and wood; and they are inhabited entirely by the garrison, or the persons employed in the salt-pits. This post, however, is of the greatest importance; for should an increased commerce with Constantinople and Natolia introduce the plague, or should any seditious commotions take place amongst the Tartars, this fortress could stop all communication with the empire; on the other hand, should Russia make free ports in the Crimea, in order to facilitate the important commerce which might be carried on with the Black Sea, the Mediterranean, and Natolia, custom-houses might be situated here with the greatest advantage.

About four versts inland is Amanskoi Bazar, which consists of a few houses and shops, chiefly inhabited by Greeks and Arme-

nians. Koslof is situated to the west of the peninsula, on the banks of a sandy and circular bay. This town is inclosed with walls flanked by towers. It is built, like all the Tartar towns, in narrow and irregular streets; and in it are several handsome mosques, some of them partly in ruins, as are many of the houses. The number of the latter, altogether, may be seven or eight hundred. The road of Koslof is bad and dangerous, in consequence of the western winds. About thirty ships come to it annually. Its commerce is considerable. Its importations consist of rice, coffee, sugar, dates, figs, dry and other fruits, woollen and other stuffs; and its exports of corn and salt.

Akmetshet, or the white church, situated at the foot of some mountains, has received from its new owners the name of Sympheropol, which is given also to a large and fine plain, on which is built the palace of government, and which is soon to contain a new town. Akmetshet was formerly the residence of the Kalga Sultan. The Salghir runs near the town, which is inhabited by Tartars, Russians, Greeks, Jews, and Armenians.

Bachtchisarai, the ancient residence of the Khans of the Crimea, is situated between two high mountains, in a narrow valley, through which runs the rivulet Dshuruk-su. The houses are built partly in the valley, and partly in ridges, one above the other. The gardens, the towers of the mosques, the Italian poplars, and the rocks, which seem ready to fall and crush the town, afford a picturesque view, which, perhaps, scarcely has its equal. The principal street, which is about a verst and a half in length, contains, almost the whole way along, two rows of miserable wooden shops. As the empress Catherine gave up this town to the Tartars, it contains no Russian burgesses, but is inhabited entirely by Tartars and Jews, who may amount to 5 or 6000 souls. Bachtchisarai contains thirty-one mosques, and seventy-five fountains.

The palace of the khan is situated near the Dshuruk-su, on the edge of a quay. You arrive at it by means of a stone bridge, built across the rivulet; near which a gate opens into the outer court: to the left is a large and handsome mosque belonging to the khan, and farther on are the stabling, while to the right is the building which is properly called the palace: it is only one story high, and consists of several fronts, of different heights, the roofs of which have an agreeable variety of structure.

Near the palace, and on the declivity, is a fruit-garden divided into four terraces. Behind the mosque is the cemetery, where are deposited the remains of the khans, their families, and the most considerable persons, myrzas, and priests.

At about two versts from Bachtchisarai, in ascending a strait path, which is scarcely any thing more than steps cut in the rock,

we arrive at Dehufutkali, built on the summit of a mount, which rises into a peak on each side. This town, composed of about two hundred houses, contains twelve hundred inhabitants of both sexes. They are Karait Jews, reject the Talmud, and have their Bibles from Poland. All the shops at Bachtchisarai are kept by these people; they repair thither on horseback in the morning, and return home at night in the same manner. They have adopted the costume and manners of the Tartars, and speak their language. As they have no water in this town, they carry thither, on the backs of asses in small vessels, that of a fountain situated on the side of a neighbouring mountain. Their cemetery, shaded by ancient trees, is without the town, at the beginning of a valley. The tombs bear the Hebrew inscriptions; and the most ancient of them is three hundred and fifty-eight years old.

There is not any thing can be more awful than this little valley of Josaphat: ranges of tombs in the form of sarcophagi, are shaded by trees of great age and growth; the singing of the birds, and the rushing sound of the leaves with the breeze, disturb only the silence of this abode of peace. I enquired of the rabbi who accompanied me, since what time his ancestors had reposed in that spot. He led me to the most ancient of the tombs: it was almost entirely sunk into the earth, and M. Pazzardi, who served me as interpreter, could only read the following words:

CECY—JOSEPH, FILS DE SCHABATAI,
LE TOMBEAU—5204,

which answers to the year 1445 of our era.

“The question that you have put to me,” said the rabbi, “is simple and natural. You are, however, the first traveller who has thought of doing it, and the first who has seen the tomb of Joseph.”

SEVASTOPOL.—I shall make an article by itself of this city. Inkerman, called by the Greeks Theodori, was a flourishing town situated at the extremity of the port of Sevastopol. Formalioui considers it to have been the Ctenos of the ancients. There are to be seen in the surrounding mountains several grottoes with chambers, cut in the rocks, which are without doubt the works of some Greek monks. These ancient cells serve at present as magazines for powder. The like grottoes are to be frequently met with in the mountains of the Crimea, particularly in those of Tépékirman.

Mangut, or Mankup, anciently Gothia, was formerly a somewhat considerable town, situated upon a very high mountain on the borders of the river Carbada. A little time before the possession of the Crimea by Russia, the population of Mangut appears to have been composed of Tartars and Jews, but it is now entirely deserted.

Balaclava, formerly Symbolon and Cymbalo, is situated to the south of the peninsula, at the extremity of the mountain Aiadagh. This town, founded, according to all appearance, by the Greeks, re-peopled afterwards by the Genoese, and now deserted and fallen into ruins, has been restored to its first inhabitants. It is thought by Strabo to have made part of the Heracleotic Chersonesus and a wall joined its port to that of Cherson. It has a garrison for a Greek battalion, which Russia maintains in the Crimea. The water is in general bad. The port, situated to the west of the town, is about a verst in length by two hundred toises in width. It has depth, however, sufficient to receive vessels of the largest size. The high mountains shelter it from every wind, in such a manner, that the water is always as calm as that of a pond. Its entrance to the south is so narrowed by high rocks, that two vessels cannot pass together without danger of running foul of each other. Although this entrance appears dangerous, the port has been gladly made by vessels which the storms had driven near the peninsula, and which could not double the point of Chersonesus, as they there found an asylum. The fear of contraband trade, which it would be easy to prevent, has occasioned them to shut this port against ships of all nations. The orders are to fire upon all vessels which would enter, even those of the crown. This vigorous measure has occasioned a number of shipwrecks. Last winter, four ships driven by the tempest, asked in vain for permission to enter; they struck opposite to the monastery of St. George. The crew and cargo of two of them were entirely lost.

At the entrance of the port, upon a high mountain to the east, is situated the old Genoese fortress, defended by high walls and towers. It is to be remarked, that all the strong places of the Greeks and Genoese, were situated upon inaccessible rocks. Carasubasar, or Karas-basar, is situated between two mountains in a valley, across which runs the Carasu. The town is well peopled, because its position, in the centre of the peninsula, renders it commercial. The inhabitants, to the number of three thousand, are Tartars, Greeks, Jews, Russians, and Armenians. They reckon in Carasubasar, twenty-three mosques, and three Greek or Armenian churches. The khans, or houses of dépôt for commerce, resemble old Gothic palaces; they sell all sorts of merchandize, as shawls, stuffs, muslins, bales of cotton, &c. These depôts can only be made in the khans; this is generally observed throughout the Crimea.

Eski-krym, anciently Krim, which, under the Tartars, gave its name to the whole peninsula, is situated, with its extensive ruins, in a fertile plain at the foot of the mountain.—Agermych. This town, formerly so populous and flourishing, presents only

heaps of scattered rubbish, is almost totally uninhabited, and its numerous gardens are entirely neglected.

Caffa, called by the Genoese Theodosia, is situated upon a high mountain, which descends with a half circular slope towards the roadstead, where the promontory protects the vessels from almost every wind, except the north and south-west. The advantageous position of this town, has procured it a considerable commerce. It was so flourishing under the Genoese, that it obtained the name of Krim-Stambul, (Constantinople of Crimea). Its numerous ruins attest its ancient splendour and great population. The most remarkable things to be noticed in this place are, the fortifications, which surround the town and the fortress; the walls, tolerably well preserved and flanked with towers; the many half effaced inscriptions thereon; the principal mosque, a handsome building, constructed with noble simplicity; and the grand reservoir, which receives the water from the mountains, and supplies the other conduits.

After having given to Caffa its ancient name of Theodosia, the Russian government seemed desirous to restore its commerce; a quarantine was therefore established, and encouragement given to merchants who would settle there. Yet Caffa contains no more at this time than a hundred houses, built upon ruins, and the greater part inhabited by Greeks.

The peninsula of Kertsch, formerly called Cybermique, is situated very high up the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof. Between Caffa and Kertsch, there are seen, near Akos, a rampart and a moat, which was the ancient line of demarcation of the empire of Bosphorus, and of the possessions of the Chersonites.

Kertsch, formerly Panticapæum, and more recently Bosphorus, is situated at the foot of a steep mountain, upon the borders of the Cimmerian strait, in which is to be found an excellent and a spacious roadstead. It was within the walls of the Bosphorus that the great Mithridates died. When the Crimea was under the dominion of the Porte, this place was governed by a pacha, and contained a garrison: in 1774, it was ceded to Russia, with Jenikale.

This town, formerly opulent, had an extensive commerce. The young Anarcharsis speaks as follows of his abode at Panticapæum: "In waiting the day of departure, I walked up and down its streets, and could not sufficiently admire the citadel, the arsenal, the port, the ships, their equipment, and their manœuvres. I wandered into the private houses, into the manufactories, and into the meanest shops. I left the town, and my eyes remained fixed upon the orchards loaded with fruit, and upon the country enriched with harvests."

The population was also great: at present there are only a hundred houses, inhabited by Greeks, who have no other means

of existence than by fishing. A beautiful fountain, in good condition, supplies a limpid and healthful stream; it is of stone, ornamented with white marble. The fortress, which is in bad repair, contains an extremely ancient Greek church; there are to be found here several bass-reliefs, with inscriptions on white marble, as the Venetian lion, on marble of the same colour, which is placed over the gate of the citadel.

Jenikale is situated twelve versts from Kertsch, on the south corner of the most advanced point of the peninsula. The fortress is on a high mountain, of which the slope to the sea is covered with about one hundred houses, inhabited by Greeks, who employ themselves in fishing for sturgeons. The Turks, who built the fortress, kept a garrison there until the cession of this town to Russia.

The Crimea has been subject to revolutions, which have intermixed the race of its inhabitants. Without dwelling on this medley of different nations, I shall content myself with speaking of the Tartars, who form almost the whole of the population. I shall separate them into three classes, the Nogays, the Tartars of the plain, and the Tartars of the mountains. The seven or eight thousand Tartars who are to be seen wandering from the Berdan to the Molochna, are (as well as the Nogays made prisoners in the fortress of Anape) a remnant of the Tartars of the Kuban. They encamp themselves in little cabins of felt; their tents, according to Thunmann, are a kind of portable huts, of a circular form, of about eight feet in diameter, made of lath-work or hurdles of twigs, about the size of a thumb, forming a sort of wall about four feet in height, upon which rests a dome or roof of the same structure; the hole is covered with mats of rushes and brown felt, which neither wind nor rain can penetrate; at the top of the roof is a hole of two feet diameter, which serves as a passage for the light and the smoke; the door, covered with a mat, is as narrow as possible; three or four cushions stuffed with horse hair, a low wooden table, two iron pots, two or three wooden dishes, and a rush mat, compose the whole of the furniture.

These Tartars wander in hordes, and, according to the ancient custom of the Mogols, support themselves on horse-flesh and the milk of mares. They begin, however, to build fixed habitations, and to occupy themselves in the cultivation of the soil: a sheep's skin and a coarse cloth compose their covering. They have flat faces, of a blackish brown colour, the eyes small and sunk in the head, the nose hooked, and little beard. The Nogays are Mahometans, but very ignorant in matters of religion. They relate the answer of a buffoon of Selym Guerai, pressed by his master to embrace the Mahometan faith, "No," replied he, "I cannot; but not to disoblige you, I will turn Nogay."



Tartarian Encampment.



Costumes of the Tartars of the Crimea.

The Nogais have obtained a great many of the superstitious idolatries of the Mogols: all of them are, as the features of their faces demonstrate, the descendants of the purest of the Mogol race, who comprised the greater part of the armies of Gengis Khan.

The Tartars of the plain occupy the steppes of the Crimea, and have preserved, particularly in the district of Perecop, in their faces a great resemblance of the Mogols. They till the ground, and employ themselves in the feeding of cattle, but have no taste for the cultivation of gardens; they inhabit small houses built after the Turkish fashion, and make use of bricks, when they cannot procure stone. Their fuel is a kind of cake, made of turf and dung, which they cut into squares, and place in high heaps to dry.

The mountain Tartars are a mixed race, and seem to be composed of the remains of the various tribes who once inhabited the Crimea. Their beard is thicker, and the hair of their heads lighter, than those of the other Tartars, who apparently hold them in contempt: their houses, which are built on the steep sides of the mountains, are roofed with turf in a flat manner, so that the inhabitants may walk on them; and they are built so close together, that these flat roofs seem like a street for the row of houses which stands next above them on the ascent of the hill. These Tartars are tolerably good gardeners and vine-growers; but they are too idle to make new plantations. Some of them who live in the southern vallies, employ themselves in the culture of tobacco and hemp. Their dress is much lighter than that of the inhabitants of the plain.

The physiognomy of the real Tartars of the Crimea, is very similar to that of those of the Turks and Europeans: their hair is brown, and they are above the common size. The mild temperature of the climate, the frugality of their meals, and the activity of their lives, all contribute to render them very robust.

The young people who belong to rich families and noble casts, dress themselves nearly like the Circassians. They wear whiskers on the upper lip, and shave the chin; while the old noble Tartars, on the contrary, let nearly all their beard grow: they wear half-boots of morocco, and when they go out they add slippers to them. Their heads are either shaved, or have only short hair on them; and they cover them with a high cap, generally of a green colour, and bound with lamb-skin.

The Tartar women are in general small, and of an agreeable shape. They wear an ample hood, a shift, open in front, which is fastened round the neck, and descends as far as the knees; over this is a robe, likewise open at the bosom, with long narrow sleeves; and above this robe is worn a surtout, bordered with ermine and other furs, the sleeves of which are short, and in the

Turkish fashion. They dye their nails, and frequently their hair, with a reddish brown, in the manner of the Persians; they also colour their faces with red and white, and paint their eyebrows and hair with a composition which imparts to them a dazzling black colour for several months. When they go out, they put on a large robe of white woollen, wrap a white handkerchief round the head, and tie it under the chin; they then cover this with a large veil of white linen, which comes round the face so as only to leave visible their black eyes. In fact they are exactly similar to the women of Alexandria in Egypt, as described by Volney; and resemble wandering ghosts rather than human beings.

Though the general language of the Tartars is only a Turkish dialect, yet it is intermixed with such a number of Mogol and Arabic words, that a Turk has a difficulty to understand it. The Nogays in particular render themselves scarcely intelligible, by the quickness with which they speak, and their guttural pronunciation.

With respect to their manners and religion: we understand by the manners of a nation, its regular customs and usages; not those which, indifferent in themselves, are the result of an arbitrary mode of life, but those which influence the manner of thinking, acting, and feeling, or which depend on those causes. It is under this point of view that I shall speak of the manners of the Tartars.

There is this difference between wild and barbarous people, that the former are small scattered nations, which, for some particular reasons, cannot unite themselves to each other; while barbarians are considered to be small nations, which can unite together if they please. The former are generally hunters; the latter shepherds, or breeders of cattle. It is also extraordinary at first view, when we find that the hunters are a sedentary, and the breeders a wandering people.

The Tartars have often been reproached for their cruelty and propensity to plunder, but it has not been considered that they do not practise this conduct except towards those foreigners whom they consider enemies. As to the state of society amongst themselves, they are faithful, disinterested, and possess a degree of hospitality and generosity, which would do honour to the most civilized people.

The influence of the government appears to me much more general and efficacious than that of the climate. The Tartars of the Crimea have preserved, under a pure sky, the manners which they brought from the north of Siberia. Ages have passed away without making any alteration in their customs and usages; but the conquest of the Crimea by the Russians, within these few years, has already effected a considerable alteration in their manners. By being deprived of their military arms, the Tartars

have forgotten the use of them; while those invasions which formerly laid waste Russia and Poland, carrying horror and desolation in every direction, are no longer to be apprehended:—the next generation will not retain even the remembrance of the conquests of its ancestors.

The noble Tartars of the first class, disdained all labour, and knew no profession except that of arms. In times of peace they lived upon their estates: they carried points of honour to extremes, but never quarrelled amongst themselves. Great and generous in their proceedings, they always receive strangers with affability and politeness. They still retain the practice of killing a horse, to make a feast on the arrival of a guest of distinction.

On my arrival at the house of the brother of Atai Myrza, this prince said to me, "You are very welcome. As soon as I heard that you had come, I ordered a young mare to be killed, to give you a feast." The interpreter who accompanied me, observed, on this occasion, that I should receive from my host the greatest mark of esteem, as a mare was the most precious article he had to offer me.

These people are hospitable in the extreme, as they freely share with travellers whatever they possess. Both their vices and their virtues are rude, and seem as if they were purely natural; hence outrages are seldom committed, and a person may travel through their country in the greatest security.

The spirit of rapine and plunder, is the only thing that can bring the Tartars from their natural propensity to idleness.—They require but little, as the necessities of life, and superfluous objects, do not attract them. As riches are now only the result of labour, idleness excludes avarice. To do nothing is to them supreme happiness, and when a Tartar has exhausted himself by performing any labour, he throws himself down and smokes: while such is their idleness in this recreation, that they consider it as a disgrace for one Tartar to light his pipe at that of another hand. The Tartars love their wives, and polygamy seldom occurs amongst them.

All the Tartars are Mahometans, but they are not so fanatical as the Turks. Being brought up with the prejudices of fatalism, they are convinced that every thing is predestined, and are consequently resigned to whatever may happen. When in conversation with Atai Myrza, on the difference between our dress and that of the Tartars, I observed to him, "*Your cap perhaps would defend your head against the strokes of a sabre?*" To which he answered, "*If the steel was destined to strike me, my bonnet would*"

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not keep it off." I would not have mentioned this observation, had not Atai Myza been one of the best of the Tatars, and not altogether ignorant of philosophy. Though the Koran admits of but little toleration, it left the Christians much liberty in respect of their religion, and affected scarcely any contempt for strangers.

The manners of the Tartars are like those of the orientals, in total opposition to our own. Their physiognomy is of a religious kind, and their actions and gestures correspond with their look of sedateness. Their air is grave and phlegmatic, their walk steady, and their visage serious and austere. They speak slowly, hear without interrupting, and pass whole days with their legs across and their pipes in their mouths; while their belief in predestination affects them with an apathy, which renders them insensible to every sort of regret or foresight.

Wine and gaiety are banished from their repasts; while the women being sequestered from their society, have neither the desire to please, nor the enjoyment of pleasure. Hawking and hunting the hare, form the greatest delight of the noble Tartars. In the towns their amusements are reduced to meeting in the coffee-houses, which, with respect to ours, bear no comparison but the name. There sitting with their legs across, they pass whole days in smoking their pipes, and talking at intervals with other lazy people who may drop in. Sometimes a singer recites a story or chaunts verses, accompanying himself with a bad instrument, in the shape of a guitar; the assembly listens with the greatest attention, and expresses the pleasure it receives by slight motions of the head. In general the Tartar song is grave, harsh, and discordant; their dance has the same grave character, as it consists of a continual agitation of all the limbs, though the feet scarcely ever quit the ground.

When at Koslof, with the chief of the police, I saw the performances of some Tartar merry-andrews. One of them played a kind of pipe to a single actor, who placed in the middle of the room a glass full of buzo, (a Tartar drink, made with fermented millet). The music making up, he began to dance and throw himself about like a drunken man, falling several times to the ground, in a way which induced me to think he would fall on the glass; but rising again with bursts of laughter, the music increased his activity, and he agitated all his limbs in keeping time. After a long continuance of this fatiguing exercise, he fell down again, caught the glass in his mouth, and drank its contents without touching the vessel with his hands.

The itch is the necessary and inevitable consequence of the quantity of bad and sour milk which the Tartars consume, and

is nevertheless a very common disease amongst them. Even the nobles and their wives are not exempt from it. A certain disorder, unknown in the Crimea before its conquest by the Russians, is very generally extended, though without causing such great ravages as in other parts of the world.

The Tartars have receipts for different diseases. I was witness to the application of the following remedy:—A domestic of Atai Myrza having fallen from his horse, and had two of his ribs broken, his master made him drink water gruel till his belly was prodigiously inflated; and when he refused to take more, he was threatened with the bastinado and drenched with the gruel: his food was nothing but rice, added to the gruel; and this regimen was continued all the time of my residence; his master assuming me that the ribs would get into their places spontaneously. Without pledging myself for the efficacy of this singular remedy, it is a fact that the man was considerably better at the time of my departure. I had many opportunities of convincing myself of the ignorance of the Tartars in medicine and surgery.

The remains of the family of Guerai have taken refuge in Turkey, and there is no longer in the Crimea a single male descendant of those princes.

The nobles and the clergy have preserved a great ascendancy amongst the Tartars. The great nobility of the country consisted of five families, each of whom had its particular bey: the eldest of the myrzas of a house, was always considered the chief of it. The first of those five great houses was that of the Chirines; and the Chirine-bey passed, next to the khan, for the most considerable personage in the whole Crimea, though the Kalga Sultan and the Nouraddin Sultan were superior to him in dignity. He had, however, like the khan, his Kalga and his Nouraddin, which the beys of the other houses had not. He was regarded as the defender of the kingdom and the liberty of the people, and possessed so much reputation and power, that he several times deposed the khan.

Atai Myrza, the Chirine-bey, is between 50 and 55 years of age; his constitution is robust, and his countenance grave, haughty, and impressive. He made his first campaign under Krim Guerai, and acquired by his bravery and talents a considerable military reputation amongst the Tartars. This prince is endued with much natural wit and an easy elocution. He is free and generous in his manner; as a Mussulman, he is very tolerant in matters of religion, and is partial to strangers. His manners are gentle, and his table is fitigally supplied. Atai Myrza enjoyed a considerable revenue under the khans, and when the Crimea was taken posses-

sion of, the court of Russia granted him a pension of two thousand rubles; which, however, was soon suppressed. Being now reduced to what he has left of his ancient domains, this prince can scarcely live without contracting debts: he appears alarmed at the future prospects which his family have before them; as he is much attached to his children.

During my stay I once supped with Atai Myrza, at the house of the musti. The repast was prepared and served in the manner of the country. Having excited the admiration of my hosts by my agility in jumping and tumbling, this exercise, to which I am partial, placed me in a situation of doing honour to the feast. The appetite with which I partook of all the dishes was remarked by the guests, and Atai Myrza taking me by the hand, was so pleased at my not despising their cookery, that he invited me to pass a few days with him, and promised that I should live entirely *à la Tartare*.

I did not hesitate to accept the invitation, and was received by my host in the most amiable manner. We passed the day in riding on horseback, and shooting with the bow and arrow. Nothing could exceed the strength and cleverness with which the prince drew the bow, and he rarely missed his aim, though the target was at a prodigious distance. The conversation for the rest of the day turned on France and Buonaparte. "What I am most astonished at," said Myrza, "is, that this great man has done so much in such an enlightened age as ours. When he sailed with the expedition to Egypt, I thought it was his intention to re-establish the kingdom of Poland, and that he would disembark, with this view, on the shores of the Black Sea; but the great man had other designs. *I know not,*" added he, "*whether I shall be deceived in my presentiments; but I think that within four years there will be a general war in Europe.*"

Next to Atai Myrza, Said Mahommed Effendi is the person who enjoys the greatest consideration. Said Mahommed has a spirited and expressive physiognomy, and I think him a man of talents; at least he gave proofs of them in his journey to Petersburgh. Being ordered to court, and accused of conducting himself in a manner injurious to the interest of Russia, he retired to the Crimea, and resumed his functions, after receiving a

* This passage is worthy of particular consideration. The Travels of Reuilly were performed in 1803, and the book was published at Paris in the spring of last year. We attach no credit to the pretended conversation with Atai Myrza; but the report of it says that the intentions of Buonaparte respecting Poland, were known to his officers long before their execution was attempted.—Ed.

medal surrounded with brilliants, having on one side an effigy of the Emperor Alexander, and on the other an inscription, which states that the medal was given him as a recompence for the services which he had rendered the empire. He enjoys a pension of 2,000 rubles.

CHAP. VIII.

OF THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COUNTRY UNDER THE
KHANDS AND THE RUSSIANS.—CLEANLINESS.—TAXES,
POSTS, ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, AND PRISONS.

IN the plains of Tartary the hordes, from their different interests, were only so many troops of banditti, armed for attacking or defending, or for obtaining plunder. Being incessantly either travelling or in encampments, the cattle-breeders were soldiers, and the horde was an army. Hence, as in an army, the only laws are the orders of the chief, these orders are absolute, and admit of no delay.—But the first elements of government amongst these barbarians, have already been described by Volney, Deguignes, and Gibbon.

In the early ages of the pastoral world, each myrza, if we may use this modern title, acted like an independent chief of a separate family; but the ambition of individuals soon effected their union under a supreme chief. One man was raised to a throne with the approbation of his equals, and received the name of khan, which, in the language of the north of Asia, expresses all the power of royalty. It was his duty to lead his subjects to battle in person; but at his death, little respect was paid to the rights of his child: though it sometimes happened that a prince of the blood-royal, distinguished by his valour and experience, took the sceptre of his predecessors. Two sorts of taxes were levied upon the different tribes: one for the support of the dignity of the monarchy, and the other for the particular chief of the tribe. Each of these taxes amounted to a tenth of the property of each individual, and of the spoils which fell to his share.

The manners of the Tartars, who, like their khans, are accustomed to murder and robbery, may excuse some acts of individual tyranny: but the arbitrary conduct of a despot has never been known in the deserts of Asia. The jurisdiction of each khan is restrained to his own tribe, and the exercise of his prerogatives has been moderated by the ancient institution of a

national council. The *courouliais*; or diets of the Tartars, were regularly held in spring and autumn, in the midst of a large plain where the princes of the reigning family, and the myrzaas of the different tribes, met on horseback, followed by all their warriors. The ambitious monarch, who might see all the strength of his armed people, would naturally consult his inclination. In the political constitution of the Tartars, may be perceived all the principles of a feudal government; but the perpetual conflicts in which these turbulent people have been involved, have sometimes terminated in the establishment of despotic power.

From the time of the subjugation of the Crimea in 1178, its government bore a resemblance to that of the empire to which it belonged. The khan had his *multi* or patriarch, his prime minister or visir, the *cadi-lesker*, or chief officer of justice, and his grand council or *divan*. But the power of the Khan of the Tartars bordered more upon monarchy than despotism: he derived no revenue from lands or subjects, and could not make any change in the privileges of the nobles; nor could he chastise a noble person without the concurrence of the *beys*.

Since the Crimea has belonged to Russia, she has made many changes in its constitution; and it is said she has tried in vain to procure the love of her new subjects, by respecting their religion, and allowing them to choose judges from amongst themselves. The reason is, that she has endeavoured to make an agricultural people of those who were warlike and turbulent, but which cannot be done without effecting an entire change in their manners. The obstacles are, that a great part of the Tartars have emigrated, and those who remain will do the same, on the first vexatious circumstance they experience. This period is probably not far distant; for a conquered nation, whose religion and manners are very different from those of its masters, conceives itself vexed and tormented by its governors, at the same time that those governors think they act with perfect liberality. Yet, this emigration appears at first view to be more inimical to the interests of Russia than it really is. The empire has little reliance to place on the faith of the Tartars, the prejudices of Mahomedanism inducing all its professors to consider the grand seignior as the successor of the caliphs and the chief of their religion. On the other hand, the idleness and the little genius of the inhabitants in the industrious arts, are the obstacles to such ameliorations as would soon render the Crimea a flourishing country.

When the feudal system existed in the Crimea under the khans, all the lands were divided into fiefs, which were possessed by the nobles, attached to dignities and domains, held by soccage. A certain number of fiefs and villages formed

a kadilik. The noble fiefs were all hereditary and independent, and not subject to any other fief, or even to the crown. The khan did not derive from them any annual impost, but when he repaired to the army, each kadilik was obliged to furnish him with a thousand pistols, and a chariot drawn by two horses, and laden with biscuit or millet, which ever he might choose. The uncultivated lands of which the khans make presents, on condition that they shall be cultivated, and villages established on them, were regarded as soccages, received directly from the khan, who had the tythe and all the other perquisites arising from them.

When the Turks under Mahomet II, expelled the Greeks from the Crimea, they kept all that part of the mountains on the southern coast, as well as several strong places. At the time when the Crimea was declared independent, the Khan Chahyn Guerai, having been put in possession of the territory and the revenues which belonged to Turkey, he farmed out the greatest part of them, and sold the rest, or gave away the surplus. Some Tartars of the ordinary class, already possessed, either by purchase or the munificence of the khans, a portion of lands, which they could sell, and which was not liable to any tax. The Crimea being afterwards joined to the Russian empire, and the laws of the country not permitting any plebeian to possess lands, a doubt arose whether the lower class of Tartars should be allowed to buy, sell, or leave such lands to their heirs. An ukase of the senate, dated October 19th, 1794, decided, that the burgesses might possess and inherit the lands which they enjoyed; but that they should not, under any circumstances, sell them to the nobility. The numerous concessions made by the empress at the time of the conquest, and the right which the Tartars pretended to have to the greatest part of the conceded lands, gave rise to an inconceivable number of lawsuits. The landed property thus lost its value, from the uncertainty and indecision which prevailed, respecting the owner having peaceable possession of it. The evil at length became so great, that a commission of five members, appointed by order of the crown, was sent to the Crimea to examine the titles of each party, and restore each owner to his rights; but the disorder was at its height, and at the time of my residence in the Crimea, nothing had been settled on the subject.

Under the Empress Catharine, the Tartars obtained an exemption of every kind of tax, and of the quartering of troops, as well as the privilege of not furnishing recruits. They undertook to maintain two regiments of Bechler, amounting to nearly 5000 men; but Paul I. having abolished the regular troops, those regiments were disbanded, and the senate proposed to subject

the Tartars to the same taxes as the rest of the empire. These people, however, complained strongly of the infraction of their privileges, and it is not known what might have been the result of their remonstrances, if the Emperor Alexander, on his accession to the throne, had not re-established them in their rights which they enjoyed under the Empress Catharine; and instead of maintaining the two regiments of Boohlay, they were only required to supply wood for all the troops who might be quartered in the Crimea.

Under the khans the posts of Tartary were free, as those princes defrayed all the expences occasioned by them. Since the diminution of the Russians, they have been placed upon the same footing as all the other posts of the empire, and the Tartars are obliged to support them at their own expence. The horses with which they are supplied, are of a very miserable kind.

Justice was administered amongst the Tartars with more equity than amongst the Turks, though sometimes she was bought with impunity. The supreme tribunal was the divan or grand council of the khan; before whom was brought all the civil affairs of importance. The tribunal of the Cazi Asker, or Cedi Lesker, who is the principal officer of justice, takes cognizance of all the civil suits of the nobility. Each kadilik had its oadi or judge, who determined on all civil and criminal cases on which life did not depend. Their jurisdiction might be excepted against, before they had taken cognizance of the process; otherwise, though they did not decide according to law, there remained no resource but an appeal to the divan. The simplicity of the forms of justice, and the proximity of the tribunal, were two inestimable advantages; particularly as the appeal to the divan often prevented the venality of the qadis.

On being converted into a government, the Crimea received the same form of administration as the other parts of the empire, which has not a little contributed to alienate from it entirely the hearts of the Tartars. Not knowing the language in which their complaints must be made, they are exposed to numberless vexations, and are often left to the mercy of treacherous interpreters.

As the administration of justice under the khans did not require the aid of prisons, there are none to be found in the peninsula; but many unfortunate persons are heaped together in Akmetshet, in dreary subterraneous caverns, where air and light scarcely penetrate.

 CHAP. IX.

AGRICULTURE.—FISHERIES.—INDUSTRY.—COMMERCE.—
POPULATION.—REVENUES.—RUSSIAN TROOPS IN THE
CRIMEA, &c. &c.

THE idleness and inactivity of the Tartars, are the cause of the languishing state of agriculture in the Crimea. That country which formerly supplied all Greece, can now with difficulty furnish food for the few inhabitants which remain. It is to the negligence and bad management of the Tartars that we are to attribute the sterility of the land; they make use of a plough with two wheels, and of the most clumsy mechanism: they put to this machine, according to the nature of the soil, two, three, and even four pair of oxen in grounds newly cleared. In place of the harrow, the Tartars use long branches of thorns fixed between two transverse pieces of wood, upon which they place stones; the inhabitants of the mountains use the buffaloes, the prodigious strength of which animal is necessary for the laborious work of agriculture in these countries. The stony nature of the soil does not permit them to employ the great Tartarian plough with two horses; but merely a kind of graplin iron, which description of plough they call *labon*: it has a share in the shape of a spear, tied up almost horizontally to its frame, and directed by a long lever made of a single trunk of ash. To this frame, which has at the side two rakes, is fastened a beam double the length of the lever.

The Greeks first brought the cultivation of the vine into the Crimea, and the Genoese propagated it in those parts of the country of which they were the masters. It is cultivated at this time with success. The borders of the Alma, the Katcha, and the Belbeck, afford good wine, although of an inferior quality to those of the vineyards in the southern valleys, and particularly at Sudagh and Kooz. The culture of the vine is not so carefully attended to as it might be, and the Tartars do not pursue the means to renew the plants, satisfying themselves with laying layers of the old vine, which are no longer productive. The necessity of frequent waterings, which constant dryness of the soil, have occasioned them to plant in vallies, although the wine from thence is not of so good a quality as that from the mountains. The different sorts of grapes ripen from the middle of

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August until the middle of October. There are in infinite variety of them; and they differ as much in colour and in the form of the seed, as in the quality of the wines which they furnish. The white grape is of a superior quality, and has more spirit than the red; those of Sudagh and Kooz approach nearer to their goodness and warmth to some wines of Lower Hungary. They would acquire a considerable improvement if they were cultivated with more care, and more skill used in the dressing.

The chief fishery of the Crimea is in the Sea of Azof, where is taken a considerable quantity of sturgeon of all kinds. The Greeks of Kertsh and Jenikale have established a considerable trade; they esteem particularly the red and transparent backs, these fish dried in the sun; and their spawn salted, is the caviar upon which they set so high a value in Russia, Greece, and Italy.

The Crimea has almost entirely lost its spirit of industry since the emigration of the Armenians and the Greeks; besides that, a variety of trades have ceased in consequence of the few wants of the Tartars. Some manufactories of felt, some others of morocco's, which they dye red and yellow, some tanneries, and shops of cutlery, are almost the only branches of industry among the Tartars. When a stranger walks the streets, he meets only with locksmiths, farriers, potters, saddlers, braziers, shoemakers, venders of small loaves, barbers, and butchers very badly supplied. The mountaineers are the only cartwrights, and the work which comes from their hands is clumsy and badly done. In some villages the Tartars make salt-petre, by washing in ley the nitrous earth with cinders, which they collect in heaps before their houses.

The Crimea is advantageously situated for commerce. That peninsula, nearly surrounded by the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof, in which the Don empties itself, is able to receive in its ports, principally in those of Kertsh and of Caffa, the merchandizes of India, Persia, and Siberia. Under the Genoese, those of India, Persia, and Arabia, came to Astracan, went up the Volga, afterwards by land unto the Don, distant about sixty versts, and were conveyed by that river to Azof, from whence they were embarked for Caffa. Iron, copper, spars, pitch, tar, and skins, might arrive from Siberia by the way of the Volga, to be after conveyed by the Don. They might by the same means acquire other articles, as butter and fat. The lower parts of the Volga would furnish fish, glue, caviar, kali, as fish, and tallow; and from the tributary states of Russia, might be procured, hemp, linen, and sail-cloth.

The commerce of the Crimea is not considerable: several circumstances operate against its commerce; the want of popula-

tion, the little industry of the inhabitants, and the small quantity of corn which they grow. The exportation does not exceed four or five hundred thousand rubles, and the importation may be from three to four hundred thousand. The principal articles which they supply to the foreign markets, are salt and corn; the rest consist of leather, kali, butter, caviar, dried and smoked fish, felt, honey, wax, and wine. Woollen and skins are proscribed, but nevertheless a large quantity is exported.

The exportation of the Russian Crimea consists nearly in the same articles, to which may be added, wool, sheep-skins, and lamb-skins; moroccos, and several kinds of fruits.

From the borders of Perecop as far as Koslof, are to be seen the breed of grey sheep, the skins of which are so scarce and valuable, and which is the particular produce of the Crimea. The environs of the two towns where this breed prospers best, are open and level plains, which abound in saline plants. The experiments made until the present time, for the increase of this breed in other places, has not been attended with success. The race has degenerated. Poland takes a great part of these skins, the exportation of which is more than three hundred thousand. The ordinary price of a skin is three rubles, and sometimes higher, according to the beauty and quality. It exports also annually from fifty to sixty thousand black lamb-skins, but they are not in such estimation as the grey.

The imports of the Crimea are principally unwrought cotton, and all sorts of cotton and silk manufactures in the Oriental taste; the wines of the Archipelago, sugar, coffee, and other colonial commodities.

The Crimea had formerly more than five hundred thousand inhabitants. In 1778, the Greeks and the Armenians, to the number of about thirty thousand, were sent by order of the Empress Catharine to colonize the Steppe behind the Sea of Azof. Wars and revolutions had already diminished the population, when the Russians possessed themselves of the Crimea: at that time, thousands of Tartars parted with their possessions for anything they could get, and settled in Rameha and Natolia. The emigration continued to such a degree, that in 1798, the number of individuals of all ages and sexes, did not exceed one hundred and fifty-seven thousand one hundred and thirty-three.

This calculation mentioned by Pallas, is not, however, exact; for in 1796 the number was augmented to ninety thousand, principally with reference to the Tartars: and lastly, in 1800, the calculation was one hundred and twenty thousand Tartars, males of every age and degree, which number appears to approach nearest to the truth.

According to Peyssonnel, the revenue of the Khan scarcely

amounted to four millions of livres; and these revenues were charged with the salaries of the greater part of the officers of the court. The khan inherited, it is true, the estates of the nobles who died without heirs in the seventh degree, but that produced little. The princes of Moldavia and Wallachia held their fiefs by making him presents at his accession. The lands which belong to the khans were given or leased. The salt lakes belong to them by a particular tenure.

The military force kept up by Russia in the Crimea, consists of one regiment of dragoons (Smolensk), three regiments of musqueteers (Troitzky, Belevsky, Vitepsky), and a garrison regiment and battalion, distributed in the following manner :

At Perecorp, a garrison battalion.

At Koslof, a battalion of Troitzky.

At Ak-Metchet, two battalions of same.

At Sevastopol, the regiment of Belevsky, and a garrison regiment.

At Caffa, a battalion of Vetepsky.

At Kertsh, a battalion of same.

At Taman, a battalion of same.

At Carasubasar, the regiment of dragoons of Smolensk.

CHAP. X.

IMPROVEMENTS WHICH MIGHT BE EFFECTED.—ADVANTAGES WHICH RUSSIA MIGHT DERIVE FROM THE CRIMEA.—OF THE PORT OF SEVASIOPOL, AND OF THE RUSSIAN NAVY IN THE BLACK SEA.

THE establishment of a free port in the Crimea, proper encouragement given to merchants who might settle there, industrious colonists invited from foreign countries, an augmentation of the population, whether by a transplantation of the subjects of the empire or from foreign colonies, a culture better attended to, and better managed, are the means which could bring the Crimea to the state of splendid opulence to which it is entitled by its situation, the nature of its soil, and the climate.

The culture of cotton and of the Indian corn might be very well introduced into this country, and the plantation of the mulberry increased, as well as the growth of madder and saffron. The wines of the Crimea would soon obtain merited estimation, and would supply the neighbouring places. Its handry, the first of all the arts, would then make a rapid progress, and more abundant harvests of grain would allow of a considerable exportation. The riches contained in the bosom of the Sea of Azof, would be explored by able fishermen, and

would furnish Italy with fish, of which it consumes great quantities. The introduction of Spanish and Bulgarian rams, would furnish an abundance of wool, which would maintain the manufactories of cloth that might be established. Forest laws would prevent the devastation of wood, and would nurse the riches which Russia possesses from nature, and which she is on the point of losing. The Crimea, formerly full of timber, is threatened with a scarcity of that article: the Russians seem desirous to outdo the Tartars in the art of devastation: while the first fell beneath the axo, the finest trees for the construction of their miserable carts, the second do not content themselves with cutting the youngest wood, but wantonly tear up the saplings of five or six years growth. The mountains which surround the port of Sevastopol were covered with young trees, which have been all torn up by the sailors and soldiers. Having noticed some carts full of the roots, I expressed my indignation to an officer who was with me: "What would you do?" cried he; "the king does not find wood, and we must keep ourselves warm." To this waste of the young timber, may be added that of the damage occasioned by the numerous flocks of goats: thus the finest shapen trees are replaced by a variety of mis-shapen and stunted underwood.

An active coasting trade from the Black Sea to the Sea of Azof, would transport to Caffa all the productions of the empire; a depôt of the European manufactories, and of the productions of the New World, would furnish, to advantage, Naxos and the other Ottoman provinces in Asia, with merchandize, which they could transport by the caravans of Smyrna, and by Constantinople; a part of those of India and of Persia would return by the way of Astracan to arrive at Caffa, which would once more become the centre of a considerable commerce. The religious toleration of the Russian government, and the paternal views of the emperor Alexander, would enlarge considerably by its reciprocal action, the agriculture, the industry, the commerce, and the population of the peninsula of the Crimea.

It is worthy of mention, that, having met the emperor of Russia the day after my arrival, his majesty did me the honour to make some obliging enquiries as to the object of my travels into the countries I had visited, and asked me, among other things, what I thought of the Crimea. "Sire," replied I, "nature has done every thing for it." "You are right," answered the emperor, "but we have done nothing as yet to assist nature."

The foundation of the town of Sevastopol, or Actiar, so called after a little village situated formerly to the north of the port, was laid immediately after the investment of the Crimea, on account of the goodness of the harbour. It is built in the

form of an amphitheatre to the south of the port, the length of a point of land which extends between the bay of the little port called Juchnaia-buchta (bay of the south) and Artillery bay. This point rises gradually to the upper part of the town, where it is 180 feet in height above the level of the sea.

The town, built in streets parallel to each other, is on an ascent, and is divided into quarters by some other streets at right angles; at the point of the land is seen the house prepared for the reception of the Empress Catharine II. and immediately after the admiralty, the arsenal, and the houses of the officers of the marines: higher, the houses of the inhabitants, the market, and the Greek church; the hospitals, and the barracks for the seamen. The magazines are chiefly on the other side of the lesser port, and form a sort of suburbs, as well as the barracks of the garrison, built some distance in the upper part. Without the town, at the side of Artillery bay, are the barracks of the artillery. Near to the neighbouring bay is the quarantine, and some country houses. The town is a verst and a half in length, by two hundred toises at most in breadth. In this space is not included the barracks of the regiments, built at more than 400 toises from the upper part of the town; and those of the sailors situated as we have already said, fronting the other side of the lesser port. The naval arsenals are at Actiar, a little Tartar village situated to the north of the port, at about five versts from its entrance.

The situation of the town of Sevastopol, excludes it entirely from the interior of the peninsula, and exposes it to the danger of a failure of provisions and other articles necessary for its supply. It would have been more advantageously situated on the other side of the port. The trips, made in little shallops, which reach the town by traversing the port, cannot do it without considerable danger when the wind blows hard from the west. Provisions are very dear, with the exception of flour, rye, and fish, which are cheap: the flour and rye, because the soldiers sell what they do not consume, and the fish, because every captain sends out his shallop a fishing, and the produce is sold at the market. One of the greatest inconveniences of Sevastopol is, the want of a sufficient quantity of wholesome water. The scorbutic disorders which prevail in winter, are owing as much to the brackish waters which are furnished by some springs from the sea, as to the salt provisions which constitute chiefly the nourishment of the soldiers and seamen. The health of several thousands of men is an object worthy the solicitude of government; and the construction of an aqueduct seems to present the only means of furnishing the quantity of water necessary for the use of the inhabitants. There were

some of these, without doubt, in ancient Chersonesus; search should be made after the aqueduct of which they have already discovered traces, and it should be rebuilt.

The sea-side is the most advantageous situation in Sevastopol; where a dry soil, and wholesome air, may be found, tempered in summer by the winds, and softer in winter than in many parts of the Crimea, on account of the mountains which shelter it from the north and east.

The port of this town, one of the best perhaps in Europe, owes every thing to nature, which has alone borne the expence. The bottom is muddy towards the middle, and gravelly on the borders and in some other places. The port extends from the south-east side inland. Its length is six versts, by a little more than a verst in breadth. It is 800 toises at its entrance, and diminishes regularly from 350 to 300. It has almost in every part sufficient depth for the largest ships; and is surrounded with hills, which protect it from every wind, except those from the west. It forms four bays in the southern part, which are sheltered. There is not a shoal in the whole port, but only one small sand-bank at the entrance, before the point of land called Severnaia-Kossa.

The entrance of the port is defended by batteries placed upon the two opposite points of land, and by another constructed opposite the town. There are also two of them upon the double point of land, with a redoubt raised above. One of these batteries, which has the form of a half circle, defends at the same time the entrance of Artillery bay. It is in agitation to add a new battery to those which are already raised, and which seem insufficient; at least I have heard the officers of the marines say, that with a fair wind, a ship in full sail might enter the port without suffering from the cannon of the batteries, and a landing might be easily made on the flat shore which surrounds Sevastopol. At the mouth of the port is Quarantine bay, which extends southward about a verst in length, by 200 toises in breadth at its entrance.

The next is Artillery bay, which is not at most more than 300 toises in length. It is separated from the little port by the point of land on which the town is situated.

At about 700 toises from the exterior mouth of the port, begins South bay, Jysnaia Buchta, commonly called Little Port; it extends to the south-west more than two versts and a half into the interior of the land, and is 200 toises wide at its entrance, where it almost immediately forms a little narrow gulph: the shore is lined with habitations for the sailors. When the fleet is dismantled, the ships are towed into the little port, where they lie in safety; and when they are fitted out again for

service, they are warped into the great port, where they are brought to an anchor, in a line. On the same side, at about 900 toises from the little port, is a narrow creek of 250 toises in length, in which ships are commodiously careened and repaired.

The sea-worms, which eat into the planks of vessels, are in great quantities in the Black Sea, upon the coast of the peninsula of the Crimea. In two years they are able to destroy the sides of a ship.

These worms are four or five inches in length; the head is of the shape of an arrow, and the body consists of a whitish mucilage. The only way of destroying them, has been, until lately, to lay up the vessels for two years in the little creek of which we have just spoken, to careen them, and to pay the sides with burning pitch and juniper wood, an operation which exposes them to some danger. It was not yet thought of to copper the vessels bound to the Black Sea, but orders have been given, that henceforth they should be built with that regulation, and I have already seen three which have been done so.

The projects of aggrandisement manifested by the Empress Catharine II. have been wonderfully assisted by the possession of the Crimea. The Russians have, in that part, the finest ports in Europe, and which place them in a situation of having, in a little time, a powerful navy in the Black Sea; a good wind will carry a fleet in three days and nights, to the canal of Constantinople.

The two ancient castles which guard the entrance of the Bosphorus, are too far distant to use their cannon to advantage, and too defenceless to stand the fire from the ships of war, or even a brisk attack by land. The two new forts built in 1773, are badly planned, nor can they serve their cannon better, although situated nearer than the others. The cannon are all defective; there are numerous points of debarkation laid open in all the ancient fortresses of Europe and Asia.

The force in the Black Sea, consists of the flotilla of Nicolaïef, and of the ships stationed at Sevastopol.

The flotilla is composed of from 70 to 80 shallops, decked, and carrying guns, and some others which are row-boats. It is in a bad condition, and several shallops are totally unfit for service.

The flotilla at Sevastopol consists of four vessels of the line, and four or five frigates, and seems also but badly kept up. I have seen some old vessels condemned, and there are many others which would be altogether unfit for immediate service.

The Russian ships are usually manned at the rate of ten men



Coins found in Crimea.

a gun: the sailors comprise half of the equipment; the rest of it consists of marines, infantry, and cannoniers.

Russia, having but few merchant vessels, that nursery is wanting to supply the navy with sailors. Hence they are generally indifferent seamen. The officers are a little better, but a great number of foreigners may be reckoned among them. There exists, unhappily, a misunderstanding between the marine and land forces, which extends even to the officers.

The fleet in the Black Sea is not under the direction of the admiralty at Petersburg; it has an high admiral and an office at Nicolaïef. This fleet is under the command of the Marquis de Trarieux, a Frenchman, more than twenty years in the Russian service, and who is considered an excellent officer; he is low in stature, speaks with vivacity and clearness, like a man who abounds in ideas, and also has the art of associating them with facility; he has all the manners of a person well bred, and is beloved by those who serve under his command; and the courtesy with which he received me, was a proof that he had not forgotten he was born a Frenchman.

There are several of the principal officers English; as Rear-admiral Prisman, General Cobley, commandant of Odessa; General Fouch, governor-general at Caffa, &c. &c. I ought to acknowledge with gratitude, that the title of Frenchman furnished me with a high recommendation to the military and marine officers. I wish that I could say as much of the hospitality of the gentlemen in civil employments. I ought, however, to except from this remark M. de Miloradovitch, governor of Taurida, who afforded me a most flattering reception.

CHAP. X.

ON THE COINS AND MEDALS OF THE CRIMEA, WITH THE
NOTE OF M. M. LANGLES AND MILLIN THEREON.

AT my return from the Crimea, from whence I had brought different pieces of money, and a quantity of medals, I requested M. Langles, member of the Institution, and librarian for Oriental manuscripts, and M. Millin, member also of the Institution, and keeper of the medals in the Imperial library, to examine them, and to inform me if I had been fortunate enough to have collected any thing curious: he assured me that the coins were altogether unknown in France, and that several of the medals were valuable.

These two gentlemen were of opinion that it would be proper to have engravings made of the coins and medals; and the degree of interest which was attached to my fortunate research, engaged

me to cause it to be done, and to place them in the rich and curious collection in the library of his royal and imperial majesty.

M. M. Laugel and Millin have done me the honour to make some historical notes on these coins and medals, and I subjoin, for the satisfaction of my readers: the following from M. Laugel. The principal pieces of money have all, except one, been struck at Bachtchisarai, in the year 1191 of the Hegira, (1777 of the vulgar æra) according to the date of the Arabic inscription. It bears consequently the name of the same sovereign.

KHAN CHAHYNG GUERAI, EBN AHMED GUERAI, SULTAUN.
The Sovereign Chahyn Guerai, son of Ahmed Guerai, prince.

The signification given to the words Khan and Sultaan, require some explanation.

In Turkey, in Arabia, in Persia, and even in India, the title of sultan exclusively belongs to the reigning prince, and is synonymous to the words monarch and sovereign, whilst a governor of a province, and even a simple officer of state, takes the name of khan. Among the Tartars on the other side, a directly contrary usage prevails, and the sovereign only has a right to the distinction of khan, which he places before his proper names, either it is because the word is originally Tartar, and is to be found, indeed, in the Calmuc dialects, Monghol, Mantchou, &c.; while sultan is Arabian, or because the happy Temoudjyn adopted that qualification when he changed his name to take that of Djenguyz, (and that— “in the midst of a general rejoicing, having, at his right, the sword of vengeance, and the seal of power at his left; upon his head the diadem of the universe: he seated himself on the throne of the empire of the Tartars, according to the history of the inauguration of Djenguyz or Tchingis Khan, and of the fragments of the code of that conqueror and legislator in the universal history of Myrhhoud);” among the same people, the word sultan has only a subaltern distinction.

Chahyn Guerai, in the impression of these coins, was descended from Djenguyz Khan; he was the thirty-ninth and last khan of the Crimea, according to the chronological account given of those sovereigns: he ascended the throne the 4th of March, 1777, and was deposed in consequence of the treaty entered into at Constantinople between Russia and the Turks; the 10th (2) June 1783, and ratified the 21st of September (1st October) of the same year. Soon afterwards he died a violent death, and his head was sent to the Porte.

This weak and unfortunate descendant of the great Djenguyz Khan, was not destitute of talents; during the short space of his

reign he attempted several great innovations, which are spoken of in the notice of his life. We shall confine ourselves to the mention of that of the coinage of money: until the time of his accession to the throne, all the coin in circulation in the Crimea, had borne the name of the Ottoman emperor, and was coined, as I believe, in Turkey. Chahyn Guerai was desirous that it should be struck in his own country. This work, which was not done without great expence, was entrusted to a German, a very intelligent artist, if we may judge from the execution of the pieces which have come under our observation. The characters are drawn in a superior manner, and engraven with great exactness; but in rendering to the German artist employed by Chahyn Guerai all the justice which is his due, we cannot help rejecting, from the number of pieces worthy of praise, those of an irregular form, and which are badly struck, that is to say, a coin of Billon, (or below the standard) called aspre by the Europeans, and *âqtchch*, (or little white piece) by the Turks. It is worth about a centime, valuing the true piastre at one frank and fifty centimes, according to its intrinsic value.

Three aspres or *âqtchch* make a parah. The one before us, was struck at Estamboul (Constantinople), in 1171 of the Hegira, (1757-8 of the vulgar æra.)

Five parah make a bechliq, that is to say, a piece of fine parah; because, in fact, the bechliq is worth five parah of Crimen.

Two bechliq make a oulouq, or piece of ten parah, as the denomination itself indicates.

Two oulouq make a gnirmyliq, piece of twenty parah, or demi-piastre. The two we have noticed were struck at Bachtchisarai, in the same year, 1191 of the Hegira (1777 of the vulgar æra,) as the inscription indicates; but the reverse, in place of having the titles of the khan as in other pieces, bears his thoghia or cypher, in which may be made out, by an attentive examination, the words Chahyn-Guerai-Khan.

Two ygnirmyliq make a ghrouche, called by the Europeans piastre. At the epoch in question, and above all in the Crimea, the ghrouche or piastre was worth two French livres: but the Ottoman saltans, Abdoul-Hamed, and Selym III. during their reigns, so much altered the money, that now the piastre is not valued at more than one frank, fifty centimes.*

A piastre and a half form a piece named altnichtiq, that is to say, a piece of sixty parah.

Besides the pieces mentioned, M. Reuilly has brought over some others in leather, struck in the same year, 1777. Their enormous size proves that they are imitations of the Russian

* About eleven pence English

pieces of five or six kopeks, they bear the same inscriptions as we have described, except that upon one of them we read Kaffah and Kaffa, instead of Bachtchisarai; we know, indeed, that Chahyn-Guerai caused money to be coined in those towns alternately.

M. Millin's notes on the medals found in the Crimea, &c. as follows:

The medals of the Chersonesus Taurica, and of the Eurota and Sarmatia, are as yet but little known. There is no doubt that if they were sought after with diligence, a great number would be found; but the clumsiness of this coinage does not excite the desire of collecting them: nevertheless, they would assist to throw some light on the ancient history of the country. Embroke, Pellerin, and M. Sestini, have discovered several; since their time, M. De Waxel has published an account of some. Those which M. Reuilly procured during his stay in Crimea, are almost all unknown; which proves how much the research of these medals would be a labour of utility and interest.

The two first belong to Chersonesus. There are, as yet, but few known of that city: they are, therefore, an important acquisition; one of them is extremely curious; Reuilly found it fifty paces from the spot where it is believed stood the temple of Diana. The subject is interesting: the goddess drest in a tunic tucked up, is about to kill a hind which she has run down in the chase; her left knee is supported on the back of the animal; beneath are the characters XEP. At the reverse is an ox cornupete, that is to say, threatening with his horns. In the exergue are the characters ΥΡΙΣΚΟ. This name cannot have an allusion to the Tauricus, the inhabitants of which were called Tauri, and not Taurisci. It is that of a magistrate, who probably was called ΣΥΡΙΣΚΟΣ, Syrisus. Upon a medal discovered by Eckhel, *numi ancoti*, we see also on one side the head of Diana, and on the reverse, the bull cornupete, with the word ΑΓΑΣΙΚ, which is also the name of a magistrate. Upon another, in the cabinet of the Countess of Bentinck, is the word ΕΥΔΡΟΜΟ, Eudromus.

The next medal, which is also of Chersonesus, although more defaced, is of still more importance. They had not as yet discovered any other than the autonomous medals of that city: this one is the first that has been known with the head of the emperor. The side of the face is almost destroyed by time, but there may be distinguished the remainder of the head, and the letters ΟΥΗ, which shew that it belonged to Septimus, or to Alexander Severus, but more probably to the first: on the reverse is Diana standing; she has the right hand raised; in the left she carries a bow; at her feet is a stag, or rather an antelope, for the horns are not branched; around are the characters XEP.

The three medals which follow are of European Sarmatia. One of them presents a large head, with the inscription $\Delta\text{ΒΙΟΗ}$, that is to say, $\text{O}\Delta\text{ΒΙΟΠΟΛΙΕ}$, or $\text{O}\Delta\text{ΒΙΟΠΟΛΙΤΕΟΝ}$, the town of Olbiopolis; behind the head there is a monogram; on the reverse, is a barbarous figure much effaced, where I think may be distinguished also, confused traces of an eagle devouring a fish. M. de Waxel, in his collection of antiquities found on the shore of the Black Sea, has a very large medal of about five inches in diameter, where may be noticed the same design, and where he thinks he can discover also the traces of an eagle's form. This medal was found in the ruins near Adjeder, or Ovidiopole; another was discovered in the ruins of Olvio, of the same dimensions as the preceding; and the type of the eagle is better perceived. These accounts convince me that the medal mentioned by Waxel of the character with the one we describe, is of Olbiopolis.

We have just described the medals of a large size; we shall now speak of those which are, on the contrary, very small, and the only ones which are known of the kind: on the face of one of these is a head, respecting which we could distinguish nothing further. On the reverse is a fish, and the retrograde characters of the word ΟΙΓΑ , Olbio, can be made out. On the front of another is also a head much defaced; and, on the reverse, the same fish, with the letters $\Delta\text{Β}$, which make part of the word $\text{O}\Delta\text{ΒΙΟ}$. It is of an irregular form.

Two other medals were found at Panticapus; however, as they are without inscriptions, we cannot decide, with certainty, that they are of that city. The quiver is to be noticed as often on the medals of Phanagoria, of Hieraclea, and upon those of Moesia Inferior, as upon those of Panticapus. These two medals have, on the front, the head of Bacchus crowned with leaves of laurel and of ivy, which would occasion one to believe that they were of Dionysiopolis, a city situated on the Pontus Euxinus, which received its name (Town of Bacchus) from there being a statue here of that god which had been brought thither by sea; Pan, as well as Bacchus, has also his head crowned with ivy.

The large quiver, which is on the reverse of these medals, serves to contain the bow and arrows. It is ornamented with the figure of the oistodoche, or case designed purposely for the placing of arrows. These medals have each a different monogram, which is unfavourable to the opinion of those who think that the monogram on the medal, in which we distinguish the ϕαρ , means a city called Pharnacia.

On the medal found at Balaclava, we discover the figure of a man, who appears to be in a chariot; and on the reverse, a dog running. M. de Waxel speaks of one nearly like it.

There are numerous medals of Sinopus, a city of Paphlagonia,

which had become the residence of the kings of Pontus after Pharnacia had been taken from them: several are known to have, like this, on one side, the head of Jupiter, and on the reverse, the eagle perched on a thunder-bolt, with the word ΣΙΝΟΠΗ in the exergue. One has in the field the letters ΤΥΣ, which indicate an epoch that must have been after the year which we believe to have been the vulgar one at the Pontus and Bosphorus, and which, according to Carey, Trelick, and Beck, began at the year of Rome 467. The epoch of our medal is that of the year 223 of that era, 680 of Rome, the 41st year of the reign of Mithridates VI. 74 years before the vulgar era. Mithridates VI. was the king who put himself to death the year of Rome 691, 63 years before the vulgar era, that he might not add to the triumph of the Romans; his son Pharnaces had betrayed him in the moment when he would have carried war into the heart of their capital.

This piece is, however, still more curious, as we had not yet had any autonomous medal of Sinopus which bore a date, and that there is only one known besides of Mithridates VI.

Two others of these medals are commonly known in the Crimea. They have been cast, and are of an uneven shape, but of which the rudeness bears no comparison with those of the antique coins of the same country. They bespeak rather the ignorance and barbarity in which that country was plunged at the time it was under the dominion of the last emperors of Constantinople. I believe that the emblems on them are those of Christianity: on one side is a cross, symbol of Salvation; on the other, the anchor, which is that of Faith.

The two last pieces are coins which were in circulation in the Crimea at the time the Genoese were masters of that country, and had established commerce. The cornelian was found at Panticapéum; it represents a sacrifice which is offered before the portico of a temple. The victimarius is observable who holds a crown; he carries a knife also. The popa carries the club to fell the victim; a young priest, Camillus, holds a vase full of fire; another priest carries a torch; the pontif is at a distance, his head covered; behind him, is a woman, for whom the sacrifice is offered. This intaglio is charmingly executed: however, it is not antique; it is easy to discover the style of the sixteenth century, called by artists the Cinque Cento, and the subject is probably copied after a bas-relief antique. It is an error of some travellers to believe, that every thing dug out of the earth in the countries which they visit, is of antiquity; but they are not so on that account. There are often brought from Egypt, Greece, and Asia Minor, engraved stones which are evidently modern. The intaglio which we have described is of that class.

 CHAP. XI.

ON THE COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA.

THE storms frequent in the Black Sea, and the savage state of the people inhabiting its coasts, prevented the Greeks for a long time from visiting its shores. The expedition of the Argonauts is the first trace of navigation and commerce in that sea, which antiquity has transmitted to us.

This trade took place principally in the Oriental parts, but notwithstanding the establishment of several colonies upon its coasts, it was inconsiderable during the first ages of Greece, and under the empire of the Romans. It did not begin to flourish until the time of the crusades, when the Latins possessed themselves of Constantinople: at that time the Genoese and the Venetians carried on this trade with such considerable advantage, that the conquest of Egypt by the Arabs having entirely ruined the ancient commerce of Alexandria, the merchandize of India opened itself a new way to the European markets; they went thither sometimes by the Indies, and the Russian Sea, or were transported by caravans across Georgia and Mingrelia; sometimes by going up the Persian gulph, the Tygris, or the Euphrates; they went, by way of Armenia, to Trebizond, whither the Genoese and the Venetians went to meet them, for the purpose of supplying Europe with their commodities.

Jealousy, the inevitable consequence of the great advantages this commerce procured, was the occasion of some bloody wars between the Venetians and the Genoese, which terminated in the last becoming the masters; by contributing to the overthrow of the dominion of the Latins at Constantinople, profiting dextrously by the favour or the weakness of the Greek emperor, they obtained from them such advantages, that they had no longer any rivals. To secure to themselves this exclusive commerce, they fortified their settlement at Pera, established colonies on the coasts, principally in Crimea, and put their factories in a state of defence: Caffa was the principal city of their commerce with the East, and the port at which was deposited all the merchandise which had been transported to the Black Sea. The merchandise of India, Persia, and Arabia, came to As-

tracian, went again up the Volga, was carried afterwards by land as far as the Don, distant about sixty versts, conveyed by that river to Azof, and thence embarked for Kaffa. The Genoese procured to themselves immense riches, and put themselves in a situation, notwithstanding the smallness of their territory, to hold rank among the first of the maritime powers. They enjoyed these advantages until the taking of Constantinople by Mahomet the Second, of which almost the immediate consequence was, their expulsion from the Crimea. With the annihilation of the power of the Genoese, ended the commerce of the Black Sea.

It is to be observed, that, at this epoch, the re-establishment of the ancient route by Alexandria, which took place under Tala-Eddin, had already turned that source of riches.

The progress of navigation, by the discovery of the route to India, and America, gave a new spring to the mercantile spirit of the Europeans, lessening, in some degree, the regret which the loss of this ancient seat of their prosperity had occasioned, and turning their thoughts to the means of restoring that advantage. It was not until the beginning of this century that Peter the First, desirous to create commerce, unknown in his vast empire, saw the immense advantage it would derive from the possession of some ports in the Black Sea: he succeeded in the acquisition of Azof; but the misfortunes which he met with afterwards, and the peace of Pruth, was the occasion of his surrendering his conquests, and the advantages that might have been derived from them. Catharine the Second following the steps of this great legislator of Russia, had the glory of accomplishing the design his genius had conceived.

After two long wars, the Turks found themselves compelled to surrender to Russia a part of Lesser Tartary, and, at length, the Crimea; to allow them to establish in that quarter a navy, and to permit their flag the free passage of the Dardanelles.

Austria, the ally of Russia, has partaken of this last advantage, and these two nations alone carried on the commerce, always inconsiderable for want of means and of concurrence, until the time when, after the conquest of Egypt, the French government obtained, by its treaty of peace with the Porte, the free navigation of the Black Sea. It has been granted with the like facility to the other principal powers of Europe in such an extent, that the commerce of that sea may be considered to be absolutely free. It embraces that of the Crimea, that of the shores of the sea of Azof, and those of the Abazes; that of Natolia, and of the Ottoman provinces of Asin, of Romelia, of Bulgaria, of Wallachia, and of Moldavia, and, above all, that of Poland and of Russia.

The Crimea is advantageously situated for the purposes of commerce. That peninsula surrounded by the Black Sea, and by the sea of Azof, in which the Don empties itself, is able to receive in its ports, principally in those of Kertch, and of Caffa, the merchandises of the Indies, of Persia, and of Siberia, in the same manner as in the times of the Genoese. These merchandises, which consist in raw iron, copper, spars, pitch, skins, &c. come from Siberia, by following the course of the Kama, and of the Volga, unto Dubofka, or by crossing the isthmus sixty verstes; which separate the Volga from the Don; and by being shipped at Katchalinskaya, these merchandises come down by the Don, to the sea of Azof, to be carried to Taganro, or directly to Kertsh, or Caffa. Butter and fat come also by this route, and with considerable profit to the traders. The sail-cloth of the interior part of Russia, the hemp, the linens, of which there are great abundance, above all in the departments of Penza, of Nishnei-Novogorod, and of Woronesh, have a short passage to make, to come down by some lesser rivers to the Don.

It is necessary to the commerce of France to establish marts in the Black Sea, of the different merchandises for which there would be a demand in the neighbouring countries; and in return it could receive the productions of the country, at a price which would turn the advantage in our favour.

If, from the situation of the colonies, we were prevented from supplying sugars, coffee, and other colonial commodities, of which the provinces of the Black Sea have a great consumption, our alliance with Spain could place us in the situation of taking them from their ports, and particularly from that of Cadiz. It may be useful to observe that the port of Trieste, which was nothing thirty years ago, owes its importance entirely to the colonial merchandise with which it has furnished the provinces situated on the shores of the Black Sea. A depot of the merchandises which Natolia draws at present from the caravans of Smyrna, and by Constantinople, might be more advantageously situated in the Crimea, if a privilege to remove it could be obtained from the court of Russia; or if a free port was permanently established. In taking by this mart the silks of Brouse and of Persia, it would turn to the account of Russia herself. It is to be remarked that the drugs which came from the confines of Persia, instead of being sent into Russia by Tifflis, and from thence to their destination, are embarked at the Persian Gulph, and return afterwards by the Baltic, after having made, as one may say, the tour of the world.

The situation of France gives it a superiority of position in Europe, and its interests are in unison with those of Russia. These two states possess most of the articles which are the objects of exchange, and are the only countries which can satisfy their mu-

tual wants without the intervention of strangers. A direct and reciprocal commerce would increase their sphere of action, and their particular advantages; but a great many obstacles are as yet in the way, before this commerce can take the range of which it is capable.

NOTES ON THE PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE CRIMEA.

Odessa is situated between the Niester and Nieper, to the west of a gulph which forms the Black Sea. Its port is easy of entrance, and has an excellent anchorage, while its bottom is so smooth, that the anchors of ships are obliged to be raised from time to time, in order to prevent them from sticking too fast.

Odessa enjoys a wholesome air, of a mild temperature; the vast plains by which it is surrounded, are uncommonly fertile, but the want of hands causes them to remain uncultivated. Those extensive and barren Steppes, in which the horizon alone terminates the view, are entirely deprived of wood; and hence the town is in want of fuel. The water is of a bad quality, and is extremely scarce in summer.

When the carriers bring corn into the interior, they are often in danger of losing their oxen, of which they sometimes possess two or three thousand; but this devastation might be prevented, by digging a greater number of wells.

This town, which has risen, as it were, from the bowels of the earth, already contains more than 800 houses. They are well built, and the streets are wide, but the dust and mud render them very inconvenient. The population of Odessa amounts to about 4,500 inhabitants, of which Italians, Jews and Greeks form two thirds. It contains five commercial houses, viz. one French, one English, one Italian, and two German, with a few brokers' residences.

Odessa, whose existence was scarcely known eight years ago, and whose bay was frequented only by a few Turkish vessels, received in 1802, more than 300 ships, and in 1803, when I left it, nearly 400 vessels had arrived to take in cargoes of corn; which had been supplied from Podolia and the Ukraine to the amount of 1,000,000 rubles.

Some time since there was a great emigration from Bulgaria. Russia favoured the exiles, and allowed the inhabitants every facility for leaving a country, where they were exposed to all sorts of vexations. Those who were at Odessa are to be distributed over the Steppes of Now Russia, and the government affords each family a house, a pair of oxen, and a plough; they

also receive a trifle of money, and are exempted from taxes or furnishing recruits, for the space of 25 years.

Nicolaief, which was founded about thirteen years ago by an individual named Falleri, is situated on the Bog, at the point where it receives the Ingul. The town is built in the modern style, the houses are of stone, and the streets are wide. It, however, wants the two principal necessities of life, water and fuel. The winds that blow from the sea, render the waters of the Bog and the Ingul brackish. The harbour contains a flotilla, which consists of about an hundred vessels, mostly old and in a bad state. Although the fleet of the black Sea be in the port of Sevastapol in the Crimea, the admiralty office is at Nicolaief, which necessarily retards the naval operations.

Cherson was founded in 1774, in $46^{\circ} 38'$ latitude: it is on the western bank of the Nieper, about 100 versts from its mouth in the sea, and 40 versts above the Bog.

The town is agreeably situated on a little eminence, at the bottom of which runs the Nieper; its width is about seven versts, and it forms several small isles, which are covered with shrubs. The principal inconveniencies at Cherson are the insupportable dust which continually blows in clouds by the wind, the excessive quantity of mud in winter, and the innumerable swarms of gnats, which are produced in the marshes. The town is defended by a fortress, which occupies a great extent of ground, and contains some good barracks.

The Population of Cherson amounts to ten or eleven thousand. Several ships of war and merchant vessels are built in its docks: those which belong to the crown are situated along the Nieper, and the grand depot of timber is on the opposite bank. The rope-walk is excellent, as are the ropes and cables that are made in it. The merchants' harbour is at the end of the town, and the quay is built on piles.

There is a lazaretto in one of the isles of the Nieper: but the quarantine of Cherson having been suppressed, it is now useless.

The commerce of Cherson is inconsiderable; it contains but two or three French houses: the suppression of the lazaretto causes all the vessels to take the route to Odessa; and the merchants of Cherson are obliged to send thither all their goods, in order to profit by the advantage which the vessels derive by taking in their cargoes while under quarantine. A coasting trade is about to be established along the Black Sea, which will produce much benefit; for often one town contains a superabundance of necessary articles, while another is in want of them, and this want of communication causes a factitious scarcity, which is very injurious to commerce and agriculture.

There are vast plains near Cherson, on which great herds of oxen are fattened; they are sold at a low price, and their meat might be salted, and exported to great advantage.

Kaffa, otherwise Theodosia, is situated in the Crimea, in the latitude $44^{\circ} 58''$.—The Roadstead is secure from winds, except those from the north and south-west. Ships anchor very near the shore in a slimy bottom. This town, which was of such great importance in the time of the Genoese power, and whose port, at that period, was the principal depôt of the commerce of the Black Sea, now contains nothing more than heaps of ruins. Its great population has disappeared, and a small number of merchant-ships can now scarcely find cargoes at it. About an hundred houses, partly inhabited by Greeks, are all that remain of that once powerful town. Fishing, in the bay of Kaffa, is carried on to some extent; and the Palus Mœtidès affords a great quantity of sturgeons, the spawn of which, when salted, is called caviar, and forms a considerable article of trade.

Taganrog is situated on a tongue of land, at the extremity of the sea of Azof. This place might become important for commerce, by the navigation of the Don, and the proximity of the Volga, by which an easy communication might be carried on with Moscow and Astrachan. It was fortified by order of Peter the Great. The advantages of Taganrog are, however, counterbalanced by several inconveniences: the sea of Azof, in the strait of Taman, is so shallow, that it will not admit vessels which draw more than eight or nine feet water, while its numerous sand-banks, and violent currents, render its navigation long and dangerous. Throughout the winter season it is impassable, on account of the ice.

The commerce of this town is extensive. It consists in corn, leather, hemp, sail-cloth, tallow, tobacco, horse-hair, caviar, iron, salt-petre, hides, &c. In 1803, about 200 ships entered its port.

The population of Taganrog, may amount to about 6000 souls, including the seamen, and the garrison. Its environs are uninhabited, though there are great inducements to emigrants, to arrive, and cultivate its fertile soil.

When the treaty of Amiens was concluded, I finished my journey, and returned to France, strongly impressed with the natural and commercial advantages of most of the parts which I had visited.

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