the Egyptian dominion. At present (1852) a post travels every week to and fro between Beirut and Jerusalem, by way of Yâhâ; another passes northwards weekly to Tripoli and Lahlâkhiyeh, and thence to Aleppo. The communication with Damascus (from Beirut) is twice a week. From Aleppo and Antakia a land post goes regularly through Asia Minor, both to Constantinople and Smyrna. The transmission of letters on all these routes is tolerably rapid, and not expensive. At Beirut there existed in the same year a native "Society of Arts and Sciences," which had been founded in 1847, a part of its members having been educated in the American mission at that town. The Society met twice in a month, when members were present, questions discussed, and occasionally lectures delivered; and in the first year of its existence 750 volumes had been collected for library, amongst which were 527 Arabic and Turkish manuscripts, some of them dating back seven or eight centuries. Professor Robinson attended some of the meetings, and remarks "With one exception the speakers were all natives, and I have heard much worse speaking before Literary Societies in London and New York." (p. 27). Such a circumstance is one of better omen for the progressive advancement of the countries under Turkish rule, than any mere political events could afford.

In reference to Lejûn, the ancient Lejio, the author reminds the reader that in a former volume he had set forth the grounds for assuming the identity of Legio with the more ancient Megiddo of the Old Testament. He adds, "Our visit only strengthened this conviction." (p. 118). In his criticism relative to the rock-hewn tomb beneath the church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, Professor Robinson gives his reasons for not referring its formation to even so early an age as that of Constantine—and, in fact, all his researches in that city attest the difficulty of identifying the correctness of sites to which specific names have been applied in accordance with monastic traditions. With respect to the antiquity of the arch in masonry, he asserts that "it was well known in the East long before the period of the Jewish exile, and at least seven or eight centuries before the time of Herod" (p. 229).

At Urta, near Hebron, the author fell in with seven or eight Americans, men and women, who had come out as missionaries to introduce agriculture among the Jews, but being unacquainted with the language and customs of the country, and therefore helpless, they had been taken by Meshułîm, a convert from Judaism, into his employ, where they found at least food and shelter. They had brought out with them some American ploughs, but could make no use of them for want of stronger teams. A similar colony of Germans had been in like manner employed by Meshułîm, but two years before, but they, too, had become dissatisfied, and dispersed (p. 274). Professor Robinson says, "It is hardly necessary to remark that the idea of speedily converting the Jews, living as strangers in Palestine, into an agricultural people, is altogether visionary." More inclusive in any object, unsupported by sufficient knowledge to enable its being properly carried out, can be expected to result in nothing but lamentable failure.

In recording the arrangements made by himself and his companions previous to embarking upon the tour, Dr. Robinson remarks (p. 31), "That the most usual mode of traveling in Syria is for a party to put themselves under the charge of a dragoman—a native who speaks more or less of English, French, or Italian—and who undertakes to provide them with sustenance, servants, tents, bedding, and means of transit." The party found the expenses of travelling comparatively less on this journey, than on the preceding one under the Egyptian rule; they amounted to somewhat less than £L. each daily. It is stated that the travelers took with them no weapons whatever, and never for a moment felt the need of any. Each had a Schmalinkaider's compass, measuring tapes, and thermometers. Besides the books enumerated in his former work, Professor Robinson took with him the first two parts of Ritter's great work on Palestine, the sheets of the

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Mr. Hutchinson has resided for eight years in Western Africa, and was the officer in medical charge of the Pielaid expedition by Dr. Birkie's expedition up the Tsada in 1854. During the last two years he has occupied his present position of British Consul for the Bight of Biafra and Fernando Po, in which capacity he has acquired considerable acquaintance with the African coast first commenced.

The former part of his volume is occupied with cursory remarks on the numerous settlements in West Africa, from Portinclick down to Falana, but more copious information is afforded as to the scenes of his present duties. The chapters on Fernando Po will be of great interest to those who have read the opinion entertained by the late Sir T. P. Buxton and others, that the geographical position of this lofty island marked it out as a most important station where European influence might act upon the civilization of Western Africa. The account given by Mr. Hutchinson of the whole history of our connection with this island is the only one that has yet been published, so far as the writer of the present notice is aware, and it is to the following effect.

Fernando Po was discovered by the Portuguese in 1471, ceded, for some equivalent, to Spain in 1778, together with the neighboring island of Ano Bon, and in the same year taken possession of by her by means of a large expedition which contained 150 intended settlers. But the fate of this expedition was disastrous: the old Portuguese settlers at Ano Bon considered the new comers as intruders, and resisted and repulsed them. They then settled at Fernando Po, but in three years the climate had carried off 128 out of the 150, and the survivors were then recalled to Spain, and from that date until 1845 the Spanish Government seems to have blotted Fernando Po out of their maps.

In 1827 the English Government was induced to establish a colony on this island. The settlement was commenced by Captain Owen. The ground was formally taken possession of in the presence and with the permission of two
natives, from whom it was bought for a trifle, and Europeans were forth- with set to work, in the blazing sun, to dig and clear the ground, and to mound forts for defense. A fearful mortality ensued, which would not have been the case had Krumpen been employed, whose services are always easily to be obtained, and the settlement prospered poorly. Into the cause of its failure, Mr. Hutchinson does not enter.

In 1838 Admiral Warren came out in the Iris, and, discovering the part of the Government, their intention of keeping up the settlement any longer.

From 1833 to 1837 the island remained in the hands of a private company, Dillon, Tennant, and Co., on whose failure in 1837, the West African Company became proprietors of the stores, and they sold them to the Baptist Missionary Society in 1841 for 1500.

In 1843 Spain resumed possession; the Spanish flag was hoisted there, as well as at Corisco and Anno Ben, and Mr. Beecroft was made Spanish governor of the three islands. In 1846 another expedition was sent, which left behind two priests and a few soldiers; the soldiers soon died, and the priests left the island.

In the meantime the British Government, recognizing the importance of its commercial interests in the Bights of Benin and Biafra, established a consulate, and Mr. Beecroft was appointed consul. His situation as Spanish governor did not interfere with this, as it was a mere nominal title, without any Spanish interests whatever for him to superintend; and at the death of Mr. Beecroft in 1864, he was succeeded by Governor Syningson, a Dane.

At the time of the arrival of a body of Spanish missionaries in 1866 not a single Spaniard was resident on the island.

Since the foundation of Clarence, British cruisers have landed negroes from many captured slavers, and in March, 1866, the census of the population was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Englishmen</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other British residents</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberated negroes</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children of old settlers, and others who consider themselves British subjects</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other negroes, working as artisans and servants</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>961</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fernando Po, though rising to 10,000 feet above the sea, is wooded to its very summit, and teems with indigenous products, but it is uninhabited except to a very low level. Mr. Hutchinson corroborates the opinion of Lander that Clarence is not the best place for a settlement, but that St. George's Bay offers a much better harbour, and that the high land on the top, Cape Doggy, would be as healthy for an European settlement as any place in a tropical island can be, since it is probably above the fever level and is fully exposed to the westerly breeze.

There has always been a difficulty about the ethnological group to which the natives of Fernando Po belong. Mr. Hutchinson describes them as perfect negroes, and undoubtedly with any of those Caucasian features ascribed to the Guanche, the indigenous population of the Canaries. He finds especial fault with the two likenesses of Fernandoo published in Linnæus-Cocceci Smith's work on the Natural History of the Human Species. They are utterly unlike Fernandians, either in colour or in form of feature. A long list of their ceremonies is given, with a view to their identification with other tribes. Their burials are very peculiar, for their dead are buried upright, with the bodies half out of the ground, and the family emigrates to another town. Their diet is a snake.

Considerable space is devoted to the preventive and treatment of African fever. Mr. Hutchinson especially insists on flannel next the skin, quinine in small daily doses to keep off the fever, and, in river expeditions, avoidance of storage of green wood in the bunkers. A recommendation of Admiral Bruce, some years since, is published as thoroughly falling in with his views, viz., that a regulation ought to be established, by which the masters of merchant vessels anchored for the purposes of trade up the African rivers should, during the first month after crossing the bar, serve out quinine wine to their crews in the place of lime-juice, which is in no way needed on account of the superabundance of vegetable produce.

As regards the development of commerce in Africa, he considers that Lagos cannot ever become an exporting place of importance on account of its dangerous bar and fearful surf,—impediments which are absent at the mouths of the Niger (Nun), Benin, Old Calabar, and Cameroons Rivers.—F. G.


This Report of Lieutenant-Colonel James, R.E., F.R.G.S., contains in a few pages a very complete and interesting account of the way in which the maps of the Ordnance Survey are drawn, reduced, and engraved at head-quarters in Southampton.

The Report refers to the state of the arrangements last year, immediately preceding the vote in the House of Commons, on the motion of Sir D. Norrie, by which a reduction was ordered in the scale upon which the survey of the country was then being carried on, and consequently a part of Colonel James's contrivances fell into disuse.

At that date the Ordnance Survey was occupied, 1st. In making a survey and a M.S. plan of all England and Scotland, excepting only the uncultivated districts, on the scale of 25 inches to a mile (or what is very nearly the same thing, a square inch to an acre).

2ndly. In reducing these to a scale of 6 inches to a mile, and engraving and publishing them, and likewise in surveying, publishing, and engraving the uncultivated districts to the same 6-inch scale.

3rdly. In making a further reduction of the above to a scale of 1 inch to the mile, in order to complete as rapidly as possible the still unfinished general map of Great Britain.

Lieutenant-Colonel James's Report shows the contrivances adopted by him to economise labour in all these steps, and 28 pages are devoted to illustrate the effects of his contrivances.

In drawing the original plans, stamps and stencil plates are used for the figures, letters, trees, and various kinds of shading; and in engraving the 6-inch scale plates, punches are used for the same purposes, and mechanical means are adopted to give the shading. Evenness of work is thus obtained, together with a great economy of skilled labour, while the examples added are in no way to be charged with stiffness of execution. For publishing copies of the large-scale plans, zincography is used; it was found far more convenient than lithography; the prints were equally sharp, and decidedly darker. When the necessary copies had been printed off, and the plate had been recharged, it was always possible, at any future time, to form a fresh zincograph from one of the old impressions by using the anaesthetic process. Examples of all these are given; and the cost of these publications is so small, that a copy of the M.S.