

these, however, were local deities merely: this city was famous for the worship of one animal, that for the worship of another; and the people of one village treated with contempt, what those of a neighbouring village held sacred.

We have already observed, that christianity soon took root in grecian Egypt, where it quickly flourished, but soon corrupted as it spread. The verbal disputes that arose, and ultimately produced scenes disgraceful to humanity from a source calculated to exalt human nature to it's highest pitch of perfection, were not all it had to lament. Among the egyptians, previously addicted to a life of contemplation, seclusion, and pious indolence, monachism soon spread wide, with it's unnatural and unholy vows of celibacy, idleness, and poverty; certainly far from beneficial to the general morals of those sects by which it has been cherished, and even in the present day not extinguished in some of the enlightened nations, as they are called, of Europe. The city of Oxyrinchus so abounded with monasteries, that the greater number of it's inhabitants we are told consisted of monks, and the deserts of the Thebaid were peopled with anchorites.

The copts, or present natives of Egypt, still profess christianity; of which, descended to them through this polluted channel, they know little but the name; their monkish priests themselves being almost as ignorant as the vulgar. But this is not to be considered as the established religion of the country, though the copts are indulged in it's exercise by their mohammedan conquerors, who introduced islamism; which is the faith of those who have the law in their hands, as well as of the arabs that



wander about the deserts, or cultivate the fields on which they are settled as farmers.

The population of Egypt is estimated at four millions of people. Consisting of a mixture of turks, mamalukes, arabs, and copts, each of these races has it's peculiarities, though the general manners of the east are more or less common to them all. The turks, who at least claim the title of masters of Egypt, are chiefly to be met with at Cairo, Alexandria, Rosetta, and Damietta, either as soldiers, or in religious employments. They have little authority, however, and the janizaries themselves, without discipline and without spirit, are as much afraid of the mamalukes as any others of the people. This may be one reason, perhaps, why they are much more insolent than the arabs to europeans, against whom they are early taught to conceive an antipathy, for their mothers employ the term european as a bugbear to frighten them when infants. By the arabs they are looked on with no friendly eye; and such of them as make the pilgrimage to Mecca with the caravans are exposed to be plundered and ill treated by them, after they have left Cairo.

The mamalukes, who are the real governors of Egypt, are a body of slaves. Torn from their native country; strangers to the ties of parental affection, for they have been most of them sold by their own parents, and have seldom any offspring of their own; bred up in the most infamous practices, and surrounded by the vilest examples; no wonder that they deserve in general the character Mr. Bruce has given them. Not but that some among them possess good qualities, and even virtues of a certain class:



and perhaps it affords one of the strongest proofs of the radical excellence of human nature, that these should occasionally appear among a set of men, whose education, as well as all the circumstances amid which they are placed, tends in almost every way to corrupt the mind, and deprave the heart. Many of these were born of christian parents, and a few among them are negroes: but all have been brought hither from a foreign country as slaves, and purchased in the market by some bey, who was once himself a mamaluke. Whatever the boy may have been, as soon as he is brought into the house of the bey, he is initiated into the faith of his master by circumcision, taught to manage a horse, and instructed in the use of arms, chiefly the javelin and the scymetar. To excel in these, and to pay implicit obedience to his master, who has early made him acquainted with a vice, from the very mention of which every one who deserves the name of man turns with abhorrence, are the only objects of his regard; and by their means he may hope to reach the height of power. When of a proper age, and sufficiently expert in his exercises, the young mamaluke considers himself as a soldier, a title he does not allow to the turk who fights on foot; and never appears abroad but on horseback, a privilege confined almost to himself, for on the horse the christian is forbidden to ride, and even the wealthy mussulman merchant or priest contents himself with the ass or mule.

The mamaluke who is so fortunate as to please his master may expect, to be soon provided with some post, whence he is promoted in proportion to the power and interest his patron possesses, till at length he is created a bey himself. As all power





MAMALUKES EXERCISING IN THE SQUARE OF MOURAD BEY'S PALACE.

*J. Meyer, del.*

*Published by R. Payne's Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, August 1802.*



here depends upon the strength a man has at command, each of the beys is eager to purchase as many of these slaves as he can maintain, and put them into posts where they may acquire the means of procuring similar followers for themselves, that he may enlarge the number of his partisans, and thus obtain the sovereignty over his fellow beys, or at least preserve an equal share of authority, without being overborn by a superiour. In this contest for power battles are often fought; and he who can bring the most followers into the field, or whose adherents are the bravest and most expert in the use of their weapons, generally expels his rival from the metropolis, if he do not deprive him of his life.

This martial retinue is happily very expensive, a circumstance which tends to diminish the number of tyrants. The dress of the mamalukes consists of a wide shirt of yellowish cotton, over which is a gown of india linen, or some of the light stuffs of Damascus or Aleppo. This gown is covered by the caftan, usually made of some finer stuff, or silk, and having sleeves that reach down to the ends of the fingers. These garments are fastened by a sash, that divides them into two bundles. Over all these is worn the jouba, a sort of coat nearly similar in shape to the former, only the sleeves are cut at the elbow. This is made of cloth, sometimes without lining, at other times lined throughout with fur, even in summer. The benish, or robe of ceremony, is put over this, and so completely covers the wearer, that even the ends of his fingers are not to be seen. Out of this sack are thrust a bare neck, and a bald head covered with a yellow turban, which has a roll of muslin artfully folded up round it's lower border. To complete this cumbersome



attire, they wear a kind of trowsers long enough to reach up to the chin, and so large that each of the legs is big enough to contain a man's body. That they may not be totally incapacitated for walking, all the loose parts of their dress are bound up by a sash.

The accoutrements of their horses are little less clumsy. On the back part of the saddle is a trussequin about eight inches in height, and in front the pommel rises four or five inches. Instead of a stuffed frame three thick woollen cloths are placed under the saddle, the whole being tied with a surcingle, which is not fastened by a buckle, but by leathern thongs tied in very complicated knots, and liable to slip. The stirrups are made of copper, frequently gilt, longer and wider than the foot, having circular borders, an inch high in the middle, and the edge terminating posteriorly in a sharp point, which is used instead of a spur. These stirrups never weigh less than nine or ten pounds, and often thirteen or more, while the saddle and its other accessories are not less than five and twenty. Their principal weapon is the scymetar, the blade of which is at least thirty inches long, though it is so much curved, that it measures but two feet in a straight line from hilt to point. This is slung in a shoulder-belt, richly adorned with gold and silver. They have likewise an english blunderbuss, about thirty inches long, and capable of discharging ten or a dozen balls at a time; and sometimes they carry a heavy mace at their saddle bow, beside a brace of large pistols stuck in their sash.

Every return of the fast of Ramadan their masters must give them a new suit of clothes; and they frequently require fresh



horses, or furniture for them. Thus there is not one of them who does not cost above a hundred pounds a year, and many of them above two hundred.

It is a singular circumstance, that for a series of ages a set of men in power should never have attempted to leave their wealth and dignity to their own offspring, in preference to a stranger, to a slave they have bought. It is true the beys rarely have children, and if they have any they seldom live; both which circumstances are probably owing to their prostitution from early youth: but whatever number of children a bey may leave behind him when he dies, his hasnadar, or treasurer, who is the chief of his domestic officers, chosen by the bey from among his mamalukes, and governs his whole household, marries his wife, and inherits his dignity and fortune.

Of the arabs, who are reckoned to constitute two thirds of the population of Egypt, there are different tribes, but they are commonly distinguished by their mode of life into two classes; the fellahs, who are inhabitants of the villages; and the bedoweens, or wandering arabs, who dwell in tents. The fellahs having fixed habitations, and a more settled intercourse with the other people of the country, have in some measure adopted the manners of those about them; but the bedoweens remain the same as they were in remote ages. Roaming the deserts in quest of pasture for their sheep and camels, they have an invincible aversion to constraint, and consider the inhabitants of cities as buried alive. They hold themselves the sovereigns of the barren districts over which they wander, and think they have consequently a right to exact an



arbitrary toll from those who pass through it, if they do not esteem the property of all who enter upon their territory as confiscated. This the traveller styles robbery; and to avoid it he arms himself, associates with others, and a numerous caravan is formed. The bedoween chief, conceiving himself thus defrauded of his dues, assembles his tribe; and, if he be strong enough, attacks the caravan openly; if too weak, endeavours to surprise it, cut off some of the stragglers, or carry off a part of its camels by night. To pursue a regular commerce in such a mode, however, exposes the merchant to hazards he would willingly avoid, and to free himself from which he agrees to pay a certain tribute. But perhaps the love of gain prompts him to endeavour to evade what he deems an imposition, the arab finds the compact infringed, fresh feuds arise, and a state of warfare commences, terminating in a new accommodation.

In this manner the principal part of the trade of Egypt is carried on. Every year two caravans arrive at Cairo from the south and western parts of Africa, bringing slaves, gum, ivory, gold-dust, ostrich feathers, ebony, civet, musk, the leathern thongs used for giving the bastinado, leathern water-bags, parrots, and monkeys. That from the south consists of nubians, the other of jalofs. A third caravan comes from Morocco with pilgrims for Mecca, who pass through Cairo.

That the bedoweens are addicted to plunder, whenever a favourable opportunity offers, is not to be denied; but they are certainly capable of executing with fidelity any engagement into which they enter, they hold the laws of hospitality sacred, and



they have been known to succour and convey to the place of their destination those whom they have robbed. There is an oriental proverb, which says, the people of Aleppo are splendid, those of Syria are sordid, the egyptians are thieves, and the hindoos are the favourites of God. To which of the different races that inhabit Egypt this particularly applies, we know not, or whether it be common to them all. It should seem the latter, according to a celebrated traveller of Florence, abate Sestini, who observes; 'the climate of this country, though esteemed the best in the world, has both a moral and physical influence on the inhabitants; so that, without disparagement to the probity of any particular person, Egypt may be styled a den of thieves.' Possibly, however, the oriental proverb is of no very ancient date, and this characteristic may be less ascribable to the climate, than to the government, of which we have already spoken, and of which the same italian writer says: 'when a government once good arrives at a certain pitch of depravity, it's annihilation must ensue, and probably the period is not far distant, in which this country will experience a great revolution.' It may not be amiss to observe, that this prediction was published above thirteen years ago.

The hospitality of the arabs has always been a subject of praise, and is a virtue still practised among them, in common with all people whose life approaches to the state of nature. The civilities they show the passenger, and the invitations he receives to whatever they may have to bestow, are no unwelcome circumstances of his journey; though in a country where villages are thinly scattered, and the peasant has seldom much beyond a bare sufficiency of



coarse food, the traveller can place little reliance on this for his accommodation or subsistence.

It has been remarked, that the people of Egypt are never truly gay, yet they are by no means without their festivities. The view of a ball at Ned Sili will give a just idea of their mode of dancing, and instruments of music; and the fair at Kafr Raduan is curious, as a delineation of their manners on such occasions. These fairs are commonly held once a year, and continue a month. As the savoyard in Europe, so here the native of Yemen travels about with the docile ape of his country, taught to exhibit a thousand antics for the amusement of the populace, and to gain a livelihood for his master.

The coffee-houses of the city, where the mussulman, squatting in silence on the floor on his mat, slowly inhales the fume of tobacco through his long pipe, or sups a simple decoction of pounded coffee without milk or sugar, would be dull indeed, were they not occasionally enlivened by different amusements. Among these the itinerant orator holds a distinguished place. Some poor scholar usually visits them at stated hours, reciting sometimes the illustrious deeds of Antar, an arabian hero, who lived before Mohammed, of Rustam Zaul, the persian, or of Bibars, king of Egypt: and sometimes the comical adventures of Bahluldahn, the buffoon of the celebrated khalif Haroun al Rashid, in which excellent morals are often pointedly inculcated. The skilful orator walks about as he recites, suiting his action in a lively manner to his discourse; and occasionally delivers tales or fables of his own composition. When he has finished, he collects his remuneration





AN EGYPTIAN BALL, AT NED SILI.

L. Mayer del.

Published by R. Bonyon, Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, July 1802.





AN EGYPTIAN FAIR AT KAFR RADOIN.

*J. Meyer del.*

*Published by R. Bowyer Historic Gallery Pall Mall, May 1802.*



from the company; and as this will commonly be proportionate to the skill of his performance, he has another incentive to excel, in addition to the desire of fame. They have likewise vocal and instrumental music, puppetshows, the magic lantern, and other diversions.

While the men have their coffee-houses, the women in Egypt, as we have already observed, have their baths, where they enjoy some degree of emancipation from the secluded state, in which they are kept by their domestic tyrants. In some respects indeed they enjoy advantages over the men. They are not exposed like the men to be plundered and ill treated by the great. All their clothes and jewels are their own property, over which the husband has no power. They may inherit land, as well as the men, and receive possession of it on paying a fine to the government, from which none are exempt: and as the public opinion is favourable to them, their property is in general more respected, and they are treated with more equity. Their complaints likewise are heard with far more patience, though sometimes, when they imagine any injustice is done them, carried to intemperance.

That the dissipation of the higher classes, in countries arrived at a certain pitch of luxury, should stifle the sentiments of nature, need not excite our wonder; but it is remarkable, that, even among the arabs of the desert, some of the wives of the more opulent do not suckle their own children, but employ wet-nurses.

The manner in which the egyptian women carry their children, is calculated to excite astonishment in a european spectator. An infant not more than a year or two old, perfectly naked, as



they are all, both boys and girls, till they are twelve or fourteen years of age, sits on one of the mother's shoulders, and preserves it's seat by grasping it's parent's head. Thus the woman takes it constantly about with her, on whatever she may be employed. Even when washing her clothes at the river's side, as, kneeling on a stone, she bends over the water in which both her hands are busily rubbing them, the child clings to her head like a little ape; having nothing to secure it from falling into the stream, if it should let go it's hold.

Where the best means of accomplishing our purposes are wanting, frequently simple yet ingenious methods suggest themselves to the uncultivated mind. By night the arab, like Shakspeare's waggoner, reads the hours in the position of the stars; but in the day he measures the length of his shadow, making proper allowances for the season of the year. Thus, at the summer solstice, when his shadow extends the length of one of his feet from the vertical point, it is noon; and when eight feet, it is midway between noon and sunset or sunrise: but in the winter the shadow at noon extends nine feet, and so in proportion.

For navigating or crossing the Nile boats of various sizes are used, but these are not always at command. Different expedients are then employed. Two men will place themselves on a truss of straw: the foremost holds in one hand the tail of a cow swimming before it, and guides the animal by a rope fastened to her horns, while the other steers this temporary boat with an oar. But perhaps neither cow nor straw is at hand: a large log of wood then answers the purpose, on which they get astride, after tying their





FERRY BOAT NEAR NEDSSILI.

Published by R. Beyer, Historic Gallery Pall Mall, September 1<sup>st</sup> 1801.



clothes in a bundle on their heads, and paddle it along with their hands. Even this is not necessary. The gardener going to market will frequently fasten his load of melons and other vegetables together with wisps of straw, and thus let it float behind him, while he swims over the river, and draws it along by means of a rope fastened to a coarse cloth, that goes round his breast; his clothes being bound upon his head, as in the former instance. When loaded camels are to pass the river, they are tied in a string, one to the tail of another; a man swimming before holds in his mouth the bridle of the first camel; and another man, sitting on a truss of straw, brings up the rear, and sees that the rest follow in order.

The dealers in earthen jars likewise dispense with the use of boats. To convey these down the Nile, from the places where they are fabricated, to Cairo and the Delta, they bind a number of them together in a triangular form, and fasten on the top of this float a deck of palm branches. Here the owner sits, and rows with a pair of oars, or drives with the current, till he arrives at the place of his destination; then he unties his raft, disposes of his jars, and makes the best of his way home with the money, or with the necessaries he purchases, which he carries on his back. Sometimes these rafts are made larger, two or three joining their wares together; and not unfrequently the men are provided with nets, resembling our casting nets, with which they catch fish on their passage. In the use of these they are very adroit, one man, standing at the point or head of the triangular raft, throws in his net; as he draws it out, two others, at the opposite corners, throw in



theirs; and this they repeat in perfect time with surprising regularity. In carrying the materials, making the pots, and conveying them to market, two thousand men are said to find employment.

There are several kinds of fish in this river, among which a large variety of the sprat is very plentiful, and there are a few that are not known elsewhere. Of these some are very good eating, and others are used as food only by the common people, who scarcely ever taste any other sort of animal diet. The arabs, indeed, are very fond of locusts, which they broil; and sometimes considerable flights of these are brought even to Cairo by the winds blowing from the desert. When they have large quantities, they boil them slightly, and dry many of them on the tops of their houses, to keep; the rest they eat fresh with a little salt. The chief food of the common people, however, is a kind of heavy bread, made of coarse flower of the dourra, a plant of the grass tribe, which yields an abundant increase, but the seeds are small, nearly as those of millet. The peasant sows wheat, it is true, but it is a luxury he does not taste; and the barley, that grows in his fields, is appropriated to the use of the horse, of which it is the common food. The date palm, the most common tree in Egypt, affords another article of diet, which is particularly useful in long journeys. Its fruit, pounded and kneaded together, is formed into large solid cakes, and dried. Pieces of these, which are so hard they must be cut with a hatchet, make, when diluted with water, a refreshing and nutritious beverage. The sugar-cane grows in Egypt, and sugar is made from it, some of which is of a pretty



good quality; but the greater part of it is eaten green, chiefly by the common people and women, who are very fond of it; and in this state it is sold, tied up in little bundles, in all the cities.

A common culinary vegetable in Egypt is the lablab, a leguminous plant, of which arbours are frequently formed, as it may be trained in any manner like our scarlet bean. The common mallow, too, is cultivated for the use of the kitchen, being more usually boiled with meat in lower Egypt than any other vegetable; and two other plants of a more mucilaginous nature, resembling the marsh mallow, are equally employed as food.

The gardens of Egypt abound with pleasant fruits. The banana, custard-apple, pomegranate, orange, lemon, tamarind, grape, fig, melon, apricot, and olive, are found in them; beside some fruits peculiar to the country, as the nabeca, which grows on a species of rhamnus, and resembles a small round apple, pleasant enough to the taste, when neither green nor too ripe; and the doum, which is a species of date. They likewise produce a species of cyperus, the fleshy tubercles among the roots of which, called abelasis, resemble the chesnut in flavour, and are much esteemed in some places. Nurses frequently eat them, imagining they increase the quantity of their milk.

As a substitute for intoxicating liquors, a species of hemp is cultivated in Egypt, called hashish, or the herb, by way of eminence. The fruit of this, with its capsule, is pounded to a paste, mixed with honey, pepper, and nutmeg, and swallowed in pieces about the size of a nut. The poor merely pound the capsules in water, and swallow the paste, or eat the capsules without any



preparation. Sometimes they powder the capsules, mix the powder with an equal quantity of tobacco, and smoke the mixture. Not that they are without strong liquors, though forbidden to the rich mussulman by his religion, but still more efficaciously to the poor by his inability to purchase them; for the egyptian makes a syrup from his dates, and frequently distils from this a spirit.

All the arts that are requisite to furnish the people of Egypt with whatever is necessary for their use, and with some of the superfluities of life, are practised among them; though the artisan has seldom the skill of the mechanic of Europe, or rather perhaps is rarely furnished with implements so well adapted to his purposes. The object however is answered, and frequently by means that would foil the european: where two hands are insufficient, the egyptian readily employs one of his feet as a third. One circumstance in the art of shipbuilding is particularly worthy notice. The canja, well adapted to cut the sometimes rapid current of the Nile with speed and safety, would be in imminent danger in a river where shallows continually shifting their situation abound, and where there is no flow of tide; if, when impelled by a brisk wind acting on it's ample sail, it struck upon a sand; were it not for a very sagacious contrivance. The keel, instead of being straight, as in european vessels, is a section of a parabola; so that it is deepest in the water where it meets the stem, which is straight, and not rounding upwards. This part, therefore, necessarily touches the shoal first, and is soon stopped, while the bulk of the vessel continues afloat, so that it can be gotten off again without much difficulty. Possibly this invention is to be ascribed to the ancient





AN EGYPTIAN BEY.

*L. Meyer del.*

*Published by R. Bowyer, Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, Sep. 1802.*



egyptians, so eminent for their skill in the arts and sciences, and preserved by custom, or from a sense of it's utility, to the present day. This is the more probable, as the figures of some of the vessels in the ancient grottoes are close resemblances of the modern canjas; except that the cabin appears a little loftier; that they have a square sail, for which the latin sail, adopted we may presume from the romans, has been substituted; and that they steered with a wheel: not indeed as we do, for the wheel appears to have been fixed to the end of the tiller as to an axis, and to have revolved on the deck. But whoever were the inventors, might it not be employed by us with advantage for ships exploring unknown seas, or where perpetually exposed to the danger of those coral rocks, lurking beneath the surface of the water, that render navigation so perilous?

Having thus briefly touched on the peculiarities in the manners and customs of Egypt, we shall conclude this head with an account of the dresses of it's inhabitants.

The egyptian bey is distinguished by a very high kaouk, or turban, the upper part of which is enlarged with orange-coloured cloth wound spirally round it, and the long band of muslin is crossed obliquely by a cord of gold twist. His gown is of silk and cotton, flowered with gold and silver: his caftan of the same materials, but of a different colour and pattern: over this is a pelisse of ermine or sable: an india shawl forms his sash: his benish is of scarlet, ornamented with six gold clasps: and his trowsers, of the finest scarlet cloth, reach down to his shoes. Of these he wears two pair; the outer ones, which he leaves at the door, when he



goes into a house, of yellow leather; the inner ones, generally of similar leather, but sometimes of cloth, or silk. The mamalukes, whom we have noticed already, have no gold twist round their turban.

Dress is an object of considerable attention among the ladies, whose husbands are in the least degree of affluence. The following is the description of that of a merchant's wife at Cairo. On her head a round diadem, like a plate, covered with an india shawl, which conceals all the hair in front, only a few locks appear at the temples; and the hair behind is interlaced with gold twist, reaching down to the small of the back, and having various ornaments of gold fastened to it. Round the arms, bracelets of gold. A fine shirt of silk and cotton, with striped sleeves. A gown of silk, flowered with gold and silver, and reaching to the feet, with large sleeves. An india shawl as a sash. A pelisse of coloured silk lined with fur, which reaches to the calf of the leg. A pair of silk trowsers of some light showy colour. Inside shoes of silk embroidered with gold, and outside shoes of the same. Her slave commonly wears a shirt of silk and cotton; a very short gown, with a sash of common muslin either worked or printed; and a pair of striped trowsers.

Among the amusements of Egypt, as well as of the more polished countries of Europe, the exhibition of public dances makes a part. The female performers on these occasions wear a band of black silk, covering half the forehead, and concealing all the hair in front: a handkerchief of yellow cotton, with flowers and stripes of various colours, bound round the head above the ears: the hair





A LADY OF CAIRO.

L. Mayer del.

Published by R. Bowyer, Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, Oct. 1. 1802.





EGYPTIAN DANCING GIRLS.

L. Mayer del.

Published by R. B. Rowse, Stationers' Hall, Fleet Street, 1802.





AN EGYPTIAN PEASANT AND FAMILY.

*L. Mayer, del.*

*Published by R. Bowyer, Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, Jan<sup>r</sup> 1803.*





A BEDOWEEN MAN AND WOMAN.

*Published by R. Beowor Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, Jan 1803.*



hanging down behind, interlaced with long red strings, to which are appended various jewels of silver: a very long cotton shirt, striped with thin silk: a short gown of similar materials, with sleeves reaching only to the middle of the arms, and lined at the corners with coloured silk: a broad sash of coloured silk, fringed, and the fringe adorned with small pieces of silver coin: and a pair of trowsers of striped cotton, nearly reaching to the ground. They wear likewise rings on the fingers, bracelets round the wrists, and a necklace; and to complete their ornaments, the face, bosom, and backs of the hands, are marked with black spots, stars, and other figures in black.

The dress of a female peasant consists of a white handkerchief, passing round the head, and tied behind; a band of black silk reaching to the forehead; a triangular mask of black silk, fastened behind by two of its corners, and prevented from slipping down by a ribband passing to the forehead; and a very wide shirt of blue cotton, reaching to the feet, with large sleeves. The man wears a cap of red cloth, with a band of white cotton rolled round it to form the turban; a shirt of yellowish cotton, not reaching to the knees, and a sash of red cloth.

The bedoween wears a shirt of coarse woollen cloth, tied round the waist commonly with a girdle of red or blue woollen; and a sort of cloak, wound about the head, and descending to the calf of the leg: this dress is common to both sexes, but the cloak of the woman is somewhat longer, and folded up to the girdle; and she has usually a piece of cloth passing over the forehead, and tied under the chin. In a basket resting on the back, or supported



by the arm, and secured by a string passing round the head, the man carries provision, and the woman ordinarily a child. The sheik of his tribe has a cap of red cloth; a large turban of coarse white muslin; an under gown of silk and cotton, white with coloured stripes; a caftan, or second garment, somewhat longer, of the same materials, but of a different colour, and drawn up at the two corners to a sash, which is generally a coloured or flowered shawl of indian manufacture; a pair of trowsers of coarse white cotton; slippers of yellow leather, turning up at the toes; a large white or coloured shawl thrown over the shoulders; and a benish, or upper garment, of common cloth, with long sleeves, which is worn only when he goes out.

## HISTORY.

The ancient history of Egypt, like that of other countries, begins with fable, which gradually gives way to accounts on which greater dependance can be placed, as we approach more recent times. Some particulars of the most striking parts of it have been briefly noticed in the description of Alexandria; and we do not think it necessary here to enter into what has been given at large by all, who have written on the subject; as the events that have recently occurred, and of which no connected view has yet been published, will probably be more interesting to the majority of our readers.

We have already observed, that the authority of the grand seignior in Egypt was little more than a shadow; some powerful





AN EGYPTIAN HERDSMAN.

*L. Mayer, del.*

*Published by R. Bowyer Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, Oct. 2. 1802.*





THE GATE OF ROSETTA IN ALEXANDRIA.

L. Mayer del.

Published by R. Bowyer, Historic Gallery Pall Mall, May 1<sup>st</sup> 1801.

T. Milnes sculp.



bey, or beys, being in fact it's precarious sovereigns, obeying or despising the mandates of their nominal liege, as it suited their own purposes, and tyrannising over an oppressed and abject people without fear, and without control.

Such was the state of Egypt, when that revolution burst out in France, which spread the flames of war far and wide. The events of this war, however, are foreign to our purpose, till the conquest of Egypt was meditated by a man, who has shown himself equal to the most daring enterprises; and proved by his successes how much resolute impetuosity may achieve, when guided by keen and comprehensive intellect.

After an empty parade of a threatened invasion of the British isles, one of the wings of the army of England, as it had been ostentatiously called, embarked at Toulon. On the 19th of may, 1798, a hundred and ninety-four vessels sailed from that port, carrying nineteen thousand soldiers, beside two thousand artificers, artists, and men of letters. These steered their course up the Mediterranean, and captured Malta in their way. On the 1st of july they entered the road of Alexandria, and the same evening disembarked, being at this time thirty thousand strong. In the night they reached the city; and at daybreak commenced the attack, without waiting for the landing of artillery. General Kleber was to scale the wall on the side of Pompey's pillar; general Bon, to force the Rosetta gate; and general Menou, to blockade the triangular castle with a part of his division, while with the rest he went against another part of the enclosure, and forced it. He was the first that entered the town. General Kleber was at



the foot of the wall, pointing to the place by which he wished the grenadiers to ascend, when he was struck on the forehead by a ball, which brought him to the ground; but he was not fated to meet death in the field of battle. All the three divisions having entered the place, the defendants fled for refuge into the triangular fort, the pharos, and the new town. Even the houses were defended; but before the close of the day the city was quiet, the two castles had surrendered, and the french were in complete possession of Alexandria.

The arabs, collecting in the desert in troops of cavalry, harassed the skirts of the army, and fell upon the stragglers: but it was not long before Bonaparte concluded with them a treaty of friendship. Desirous if possible to prevent his scheme from being opposed by the forces of the Porte, the french general erected the ottoman standard in conjunction with the tricolor flag on the walls of Alexandria; and professed that his only objects were to chastise the mamalukes, by whom the french merchants had been oppressed; and to restore to the grand seignior the sovereignty of Egypt, which the beys had long in reality usurped. A letter to this purpose he transmitted to the bashaw at Cairo; and he entered into a convention with the mufti and principal sheiks at Alexandria, by which he engaged not to interfere with the laws, religion, or institutions of the country. Before he quitted Alexandria, he ordered the bodies of the french soldiers, about a hundred and fifty, who had fallen there, to be interred at the foot of Pompey's pillar, and their names to be inscribed on it's base.

After giving directions for putting the port and town of Alex-





PART OF THE NEW CITY OF ALEXANDRIA, WITH THE LIGHT HOUSE.

J. Goussier del.

J. Millar sculp.



andria into a proper state of defence, and arranging a provisional government, Bonaparte set out for Cairo, which he deemed it necessary to reach without loss of time. He began his march by way of Damanhour with the main body of the army on the evening of the 7th of July; general Desaix having preceded him with his division on the 4th; and the division of general Kleber, who was left to command at Alexandria till his wound was healed, being ordered on the 5th to take possession of Rosetta, leave a garrison there, and proceed up the left bank of the Nile. Annoyed by extreme heat in their forced march across a sandy desert, and perpetually harassed in their rear by the arabs, they reached Damanhour on the 8th. After a day's rest, they proceeded toward Rhamanie; midway to which place the division of general Desaix was attacked by a body of six thousand mamalukes: but the artillery of the french, and the advantages of discipline, soon compelled them to retire.

Meanwhile Mourad bey, at the head of his numerous army of cavalry, and having seven gunboats, with 29 or 36 pounders, on the Nile, waited for the french at the village of Sharbrass. On the 13th at daybreak the hostile armies were in sight of each other. Bonaparte had commanded the french flotilla to follow the movements of the army, and to harass the right of the enemy by a brisk cannonade. Forming his troops in parallelograms, with their baggage, and such as were lamed by their march, in the centre; and drawing them up in divisions, disposed in the order of steps, so that one flanked another, with their fieldpieces pointing on every side; the mamalukes found no weak point, on which



they could make any impression, and several times endeavoured to charge, but without effect. Having thus spent great part of the day within about half cannon shot of the french, they retreated with the loss of near three hundred men. The squadron of Mourad likewise retired, leaving behind three french vessels, which it had taken in the beginning of the action, plundered, and run aground.

The french pursued their march, in want of almost every thing, and scorched by excessive heat, till the 20th of july. On the morning of this day they perceived the pyramids, and in the evening were within fifteen miles of Cairo. Here they learned, that twenty-three beys, with all their troops, were intrenched at Embabe, a village opposite Bulac, and had fortified their intrenchments with fifty pieces of cannon. On the 21st at daybreak they fell in with the advanced guard of the mamalukes, and drove them from village to village, till two in the afternoon, when they had nearly reached their intrenchments. Advancing in the same order of battle as the 13th, the divisions of generals Desaix and Regnier took a position on the right, between Giralo and Embabe, so as to cut off from the mamalukes all communication with Upper Egypt, to which they would naturally endeavour to retire, if defeated; the division of general Kleber formed the centre of the army; and that of general Bon the left wing, which was covered on it's flank by the Nile.

As soon as Mourad bey was apprised of the movement of general Desaix, he determined to attack him, and dispatched for this purpose one of his most resolute beys, with a chosen body of cavalry, which rushed with the rapidity of lightning on the two



divisions. They were suffered to approach unmolested within a hundred yards, when a shower of great and small shot was poured on them, which made considerable havock; and as they threw themselves into the opening between the two divisions, they were received by a cross fire, which completed their defeat. While this was passing on the right, the divisions of Menou and Bon attacked the intrenchments of Embabe. General Rampon, at the head of the assaulting columns, advanced with impetuosity, in spite of the cannonade. The mamalukes too made a vigorous charge from the intrenchments, darting from them at full gallop: but the french columns had time to halt, to present a front on every side, and to receive them at the point of the bayonet, after a general discharge of their muskets. Their dead fell thick on the field of battle, and the french soon carried the intrenchments. The discomfited mamalukes urged their flight in a crowd toward their left, where many fell by the fire of a battalion of carabineers, under which they were obliged to pass at the distance of five hundred paces, and many were driven into the Nile and drowned. In this battle the mamalukes lost seven or eight hundred killed and wounded, among whom were several beys; their commander, Mourad, was wounded in the cheek; and more than four hundred camels laden with baggage, and fifty pieces of artillery, fell into the hands of the french, who had about two hundred men killed and wounded.

The mamalukes, having experienced this defeat of their army, evacuated Cairo in the night, after burning the greater part of their ships of war: and on the 22d of july the french took pos-



session of the capital of Egypt. At the same time, to hold in check the troops of Mourad, Bonaparte directed an intrenched camp to be formed higher up the Nile, at the distance of ten miles from Cairo.

While such was the progress of the french by land, the fleet, which had conveyed them to Egypt, lay at anchor in the bay of Aboukeer, under the command of admiral Brueys. Expecting an attack from the english, the french admiral had anchored his ships in a line, as near the shore as he thought he could venture with safety, and, as he hoped, to preclude the english from getting between them and the land. In this however he was mistaken. On the 1st of august lord Nelson arrived in the bay, and by one of those bold and scientific manœuvres, which distinguish british seamen, he ran between the french line and the shore with half his squadron, so as to place it's van between two fires. The french, thus hemmed in, defended themselves with great gallantry. At half past five in the afternoon the attack commenced: about a quarter after nine the admiral's ship, l'Orient, of 120 guns, took fire; and at ten o'clock it blew up: the brave Brueys having before been cut in two by a chainshot on the quarterdeck, on which he maintained his post though he had previously received three severe wounds. As the english silenced the fire of the headmost ships, they proceeded to those in the rear, and thus the action continued till the afternoon of the next day, when two french ships of the line, and two frigates, which had yet suffered little, cut their cables, and stood out to sea. These alone escaped, only one of the english ships being in a condition to pursue them: six



sail of the line were taken: one was run on shore, and burnt by its captain: three others were burnt by the english, two of them having previously run aground during the action: one frigate was burnt, and another sunk. In this action the french fleet consisted of thirteen sail of the line, and four frigates, mounting 1190 guns, and was supported by a battery of guns and mortars on shore, with several gunboats on the flanks: the english fleet had likewise thirteen sail of the line, one of which however ran aground, and could have no concern in the action, one fifty gun ship, and a brig, carrying in all 1026 guns.

This destruction of their fleet cut off all hope of retreat from the french, as well as every expectation of reinforcement or supplies; so that no safety remained for them but in victory, no dependence but on their own resources. When Bonaparte had remained a sufficient time at Cairo, to form such regulations, and adopt such precautions, as he deemed necessary to secure this acquisition, he set out on his march to finish the conquest of Egypt, and drive entirely out of the country Ibrahim bey, who had fled with his army toward Syria. On the 7th of august he departed with an army draughted from three different divisions of his troops; and after a forced march of four hours, the advanced guard arrived at Salahieh, just as Ibrahim was hastening off at the news of their approach. His rear guard was attacked by a small body of french hussars and chasseurs; but these were too few, to make any impression on it. Ibrahim was pursued into the desert, where he abandoned two pieces of cannon scarcely serviceable, and a few tired horses laden with tents: and near Belbeis the french



rescued a part of the caravan of Mecca, which the arabs had carried off into the desert.

While Bonaparte was arranging the government of Egypt, and establishing a society of arts and sciences in it's capital, as in the midst of a country enjoying the profoundest peace, brigadier general Fuguières was sent with a battalion to Mehallet Kabira, the capital of Garbich, where he was obliged to sustain a conflict for an hour, before he was able to gain admittance into the village. At Gomila, too, a battalion commanded by general Damas was attacked by a party of arabs, but they were soon dispersed. At the same time the arabs of Bonde, believing their village impregnable, as it was surrounded by the inundation, infested the Nile by their piratical depredations. Generals Murat and Lasne marching thither, where they arrived on the 28th of september, dispersed the arabs after a few vollies, and pursued them for twelve miles up to the middle in water. Their horses, camels, and effects, fell into the hands of the french, and about two hundred were killed or wounded.

Meanwhile general Desaix had left Cairo, and proceeded up the Nile with two half-galleys and six advice-boats. At Fehuesa, on the canal of Joseph, fourteen boats, laden with baggage, tents, and four pieces of cannon, belonging to Mourad bey, fell into his hands. He continued his course two hundred and fifty miles from Cairo, following the bey's little fleet; which at length took refuge in the neighbourhood of the cataracts, and then he gave up the pursuit. On his return he had several skirmishes at Felmese, which were the prelude to the affair of Sediman. On the



7th of october, when the day broke, he had arrived in sight of Mourad bey's army, consisting of six or seven thousand horse, and a body of foot, which defended the intrenchments at Sediman with four pieces of cannon. The mamalukes did not long hesitate to commence the attack, and were received by the french with great coolness. The chasseurs of the twenty-first demibrigade did not fire, till their adversaries were within twenty yards, and then they rushed on with fixed bayonets. Many of the brave mamalukes fell dead in the ranks of the french, after having thrown maces, battleaxes, muskets, and pistols, at the heads of their enemies. They even alighted from their horses, to avoid the bayonets, and cut the legs of the french soldiers. Their intrepidity, however, was of no avail; they were at length obliged to flee; and the french made themselves masters of the intrenchments by assault. Two of the beys with Mourad were wounded; and three left on the field of battle, with four hundred of his bravest troops; while the loss of the french was but trifling.

While such was the state of the country, Cairo itself had not settled into a calm submission. Informed that the inhabitants were plotting in secret, to throw off the yoke of their new conquerors, Bonaparte deemed it a necessary measure of security, to arm every european in the metropolis. This was done in the beginning of october, but it did not stay the rising ferment. On the morning of the 21st, general Dupuis, to whom the command of the town had been intrusted, heard that a crowd was collecting at the grand mosque. The cause assigned for this tumultuous meeting was the oppressiveness of the taxes imposed. Attended



by twelve dragoons, general Dupuis repaired thither, and attempted to disperse the mob by force. Some of his men were killed in the conflict; the rest bore him off, mortally wounded in two places, to his own house, where he died two hours after. This was the signal for a general insurrection. The turks immediately flocked in crowds to the grand mosque, where they entrenched themselves, armed with lances, stakes, and a few fire-arms. But they did not assemble here alone: every mosque was a fortress, to which parties repaired for defence, or from which they issued to the attack, as occasion required. The drums of the french beat to arms, and every soldier hastened to join the corps that first fell in his way. A battalion was ordered by Bonaparte to march toward the great mosque; and a few bombs thrown into it created great terrour and confusion. Other battalions proceeded to different parts of the city, where crowds had collected, and soon drove them all into the mosques for refuge. But here they found no security. With all the veneration they had professed for the religion of Mohammed, the french hesitated not to burst open the gates of the mosques, now converted into castles, and deluge their pavements with blood. Though thus defeated, still the insurgents were not subdued; expecting no mercy, fresh multitudes succeeded those that were slain, to fall like them in rash and unsuccessful enterprise.

This was a bloody day, but the scenes of the following were still more sanguinary. Every person seen armed with a stake or a bludgeon was immediately put to death; and the turks on their part had already assassinated several frenchmen found alone in the



streets. On the 23d symptoms of the same resentful feelings still prevailed; but in the evening tranquillity began to return. On this occasion five or six thousand turks were computed to have been slain; and of the french at least a hundred fell, beside numbers being wounded, chiefly by large stones thrown from the tops of the houses.

Though the danger that threatened the french in the capital of Egypt had thus been crushed, Bonaparte was well aware, that he had others of serious aspect to encounter. Ibrahim bey had fled toward Gaza, with a body of mamalukes; and had been welcomed by Djezzar, the bashaw of Acre, who was making hostile dispositions on the eastern frontier of Egypt. With this it was to be expected an attack on Egypt by sea would be made by the porte, with some assistance from the english. To frustrate these designs, therefore, Bonaparte resolved to march without delay into Syria, and attack Djezzar before he had time to collect all his forces. By this he would spread the terrour of his arms, already victorious in Egypt, throughout the ottoman dominions in Asia; success would probably add to his strength by the addition of allies; and perhaps he might be enabled to dictate his own terms to the grand seignior under the walls of Constantinople, and make even Vienna tremble.

Previous to this, however, he deemed it necessary to take possession of Suez; where he learned, that Djezzar had been created bashaw of Egypt and Damascus, that he was collecting his troops, and that a body of them was already in the neighbourhood of el Arish, situate only a day's journey from the border of the desert.



Having returned to Cairo, appointed commanders for that city, Alexandria, and Damietta, and issued such directions as he deemed necessary, Bonaparte commenced his march for Syria. On the 9th of february, 1799, general Regnier, with his division, arrived before el Arish, which he found occupied by two thousand of Djezzar's troops. The village was carried by assault; and the fort, to which a great number had retired, was blockaded. Different reinforcements of mussulman cavalry and infantry, with a convoy of provision, arrived near the place; and on the 14th they boldly advanced, and encamped before the fort, under a platform, defended by a very deep ditch, where they thought themselves secure. General Kleber having arrived with some more troops, general Regnier communicated to him a project he had of surprising the mamalukes in the night, which Kleber approved. Accordingly, in the night of the 14th, part of Regnier's division turned the ditch that protected their camp, fell upon them unawares, killed great numbers, put the rest to flight, and took several horses, with all their provision, ammunition, and baggage. On the 17th Bonaparte arrived; one of the towers was cannonaded; a breach was made; and the garrison was summoned to surrender. On the 20th a capitulation was signed, when sixteen hundred men marched out with arms and baggage, on condition of going to Bagdat by the way of the desert.

To enter into the particulars of the campaign in Syria would be foreign to our purpose: suffice it to say, that the french met with no check till they reached Acre, before which place they opened their trenches, at the distance of three hundred yards, on



the 20th of march. Here Bonaparte was fated to find, that his arms were not irresistible. Sixty days the trenches were open before the town; during which extraordinary efforts of unavailing bravery were made by the besiegers; the obstinacy and perseverance of whose repeated attacks sufficiently show the importance, which the commander in chief attached to the success of this expedition. Fortunately for the turks they were assisted in their defence by a detachment from the gallant crews of a small english squadron, under the command of sir William Sidney Smith, to whose courage and abilities the preservation of the place may be ascribed.

His purpose baffled, and all his exertions foiled, on the night of the 20th of may Bonaparte raised the siege, and quietly decamped, to return to Egypt. On the 14th of june he arrived again at Cairo; where, as well as at Alexandria, several disturbances had taken place during his absence; but they had been quelled by the commanders of those cities. It was not long before Bonaparte was informed by general Desaix, that the mamalukes in different divisions were preparing to cover a landing, either at the tower of the Arabs, or at Aboukeer. On the 14th of july general Lagrange left Cairo with a flying column, surprised an encampment of the mamalukes at Sababiar, drove them into the desert, and took all their baggage, with seven hundred camels. General Murat, with another column, dispersed the arabs at the Natron lakes. On the same day Bonaparte set out from Cairo with the horse and foot guards, two companies of grenadiers, the pioneers, and two pieces of cannon. At Geeza he halted, and



ordered general Murat to join him. Near the pyramids the advanced guard came in sight of some arabs, belonging to the rear of Mourad bey's army, pursued them, killed a few men, and took some camels.

But Bonaparte was prevented from following Mourad by a letter from Alexandria, which informed him, that a turkish fleet of a hundred sail had anchored at Aboukeer on the 10th, and appeared to have some hostile intentions against that place. Immediately he returned to Geeza; and, after making the necessary arrangements, and issuing his orders, set off for the seacoast. On the 19th he arrived at Rahmanie, where he was joined by different divisions of the army on the two following days. Here he learned, that the turkish fleet had landed about three thousand men, with some artillery; and on the 15th attacked the redoubt of Aboukeer, which they carried by assault. The fort of Aboukeer, the commanding officer of which was killed, surrendered the same day. On this the turks landed the rest of their cannon; began to fortify themselves in the peninsula of Aboukeer; supplied the castle with provision and ammunition; and embodied the arabs; in expectation of the arrival of Mourad bey with his troops. This however was prevented by Bonaparte, who had continued his march from Rahmanie, and taken a position that cut off their communication with the country. On the 25th he marched to attack them, and victory was long disputed with the utmost obstinacy on both sides. After performing prodigies of valour, the whole ottoman army was put to the rout, killed, or drowned. The carnage on this occasion was dreadful, and the plains to a consi-



derable extent are still white with the bones of those who fell. Mustapha bashaw, the commander in chief of the turks, was taken prisoner, with about two hundred of his men only: near two thousand were left dead on the field of battle: and all their tents, baggage, and twenty pieces of cannon, fell into the hands of the french. The next day the castle was summoned to surrender; and on it's refusal was bombarded. Battered by the artillery of the besiegers, it was soon reduced to a heap of stones; yet it held out till the 4th of august; when the garrison, having no longer any communication with the fleet, and dying of hunger and thirst, rushed out in crowds, and fell at the feet of the conquerors, imploring their mercy.

At this period Bonaparte was informed, through the communication of some english flags of truce, of the defeats the republican armies had experienced in Italy, and on the banks of the Rhine; and of the struggles that were taking place in France. Accordingly, as this recent defeat of the turkish expedition tended to confirm the security of his conquest, he resolved to repair to a more important field of action. Having ordered admiral Gantheaume to get ready for sea two frigates, an advice boat, and a tartane, without any intimation of his design; sealed notes were delivered to generals Lannes, Marmont, Murat, and Andreossi, and likewise to Monge and Berthollet, which they were to open at a certain hour, on the 22d of august, at a particular point on the seashore. These notes enjoined them to embark immediately, which they did without the least communication with any person. Berthier alone, who likewise accompanied Bonaparte to Europe,