

# HISTORY OF MALTA.

## BOOK I.

### AN ACCOUNT OF ANCIENT AND MODERN MALTA.

#### CHAPTER I.

*The first Authors of Antiquity who have written on Malta. Different Changes in the Government. Monuments left by the Nations to which, at various Times, the Island has been subject.*

Nations.	Monuments in Malta and Goza.
Phœacians . . . . .	Ancient tombs.
Phœnicians . . . . .	Medals, vases, &c.
Greeks . . . . .	Altars, statues, medals.
Carthaginians . . . . .	{ Base and shaft of chandelier with inscriptions.
Romans . . . . .	Inscriptions, basso-relievos.
Vandals and Goths . . . . .	Statues of bronze.
Arabs . . . . .	Medals, or rather gold coins.
Normans } . . . . .	{ Nothing remains of these nations but some title deeds relative to church endowments.
Germans } . . . . .	
French } . . . . .	
Spaniards . . . . .	

**T**HE most ancient author who mentions Malta is Homer, in his Odyssey, where it is called the Isle of Hyperia, which, according to fabulous history, was originally inhabited by the

Phæacians, a race of giants\*. The Phœnicians, to whom the navigation of the Mediterranean almost entirely belonged, landed in Hyperia about 1519 years before Christ, and finding the island of great importance to their trade, they seized upon it, and established a colony, which soon became powerful and considerable. They introduced the worship of their own peculiar gods, together with those of Egypt and Persia; such as the Tyrian Hercules, to whom the Greeks in after times gave the name of *Alexicacos*, or Averter of Ills; Juno, in honour of whom was built a temple in the space now existing between the castle St. Angelo and the city Vittoriosa; as also Mithras, Isis, Osiris, and Mercury. The latter was particularly revered as the protector of commerce, to which the Isle of Hyperia (then called Ogygia) principally owed its riches and population. It was governed by kings; and many medals or Punic coins are preserved in the museum of the library of Malta, together with two monuments, on which may be perceived letters in Punic characters.

Industry and commerce made great progress among the Greeks, and extended themselves to Sicily, and a part of Italy, where were founded some celebrated colonies in an extent of country, to which they even gave the name of the *larger* Greece. They drove the Phœnicians from Ogygia, took possession of it

\* Some authors have attributed the building of different edifices to this people, on account of the enormous stones of which they are composed; and have also imagined, that many tombs of more than ordinary size were erected in these fabulous times.

themselves 736 years before Christ, and called it *Melitaion*; whether on account of the excellent honey it produced, or in honour of the nymph Melita, the daughter of Nereus and Doris, we cannot pretend to determine.

The Greeks, being accustomed to navigate along distant shores, and there found their colonies, according to the oracles of Apollo, established the worship of that god in every place they visited, and engraved his effigy, horses, and lyre, upon all their coins. They dedicated a temple to him in Melita, in the very place which is now a square before the Town-house in the city Notable. They created a high-priest, by the name of *Hierothites*; and afterwards established *Archons* to govern the island, with power like that of those who afterwards presided in the government of Athens. There is not the smallest trace remaining of the Temple of Apollo; and the only ruins existing of Grecian architecture are those of a castle called Ghorgenti or Agrigenti, in honour of Phalaris the tyrant, of the town so named. Some excavations made in a hill called Benjemma, intended for a burying place for the inhabitants, may also be deemed Grecian remains\* to be seen in Malta.

Amongst a variety of antiquities of that time in the museum of the public library is a square altar dedicated to Proserpine, on the sides of which are sculptured two men offering a fish to that goddess (Pl. I. fig. 3): the front represents the emblem employed by the Syracusians to describe Sicily;

\* See Chap. III.

this consists in a head, out of which issue three legs, with the feet so disposed as to form the extremity of the three angles of a triangle. There is likewise a statue of Hercules (Pl. IV. fig. 4) of white marble, in high preservation. The god leans upon his club, and is crowned with poplars. This statue, most probably, decorated a temple near the port of Marsa-Sirocco.

Many medals still remain, some of which bear on one side the effigy of Juno (Pl. I. fig. 1), and on the reverse either a tripod of different shapes, or a lyre with the word *Melitaion*. There are others in bronze more curious, and of a larger size: these have the figure of an Isis or Juno, the head-dress composed of numerous small triangles (Pl. I. fig. 2), with the flower or double fruit of the lotus on the top of the head, at the back of which is the word *Melitaion*, and in front either an ear of corn to mark the fruitfulness of the island, or a caduceus hung round with a double vestment, the symbol of the commerce of the inhabitants, and their excellent method of manufacturing cotton. There is also a small coin struck from one of these medals, stamped with a head, to distinguish it from some false money coined about that time. On the reverse of these medals is a Genius crouched, with wings on the shoulders and heels; he wears a mitre on his head, and holds a scourge in each hand (Pl. I. fig. 3). This is the Genius of Commerce, of which his attitude and attributes are the emblem—*Power, Dispatch, and Confidence*.

About 528 years before the Christian era, the Carthaginians disputed the possession of Melita with the Greeks, and for some time divided it betwixt them; but the Greeks were in the end obliged to yield up their power to the Carthaginians. The inhabitants, however, neither abandoned their dwellings nor their gods; and both the Greek and the Punic or Phœnician languages were equally spoken in Melita.

The riches of Carthage flowed to Malta, and rendering its situation still more important, made it an object so interesting to the ambition and cupidity of the Romans, that it engaged their attention in the first Punic war; it was therefore plundered by Attilius Regulus, and seized upon by Cornelius. The Romans, however, lost it soon afterwards, and never recovered it till the naval victory gained by C. Lutatius, 242 years before Christ, had produced a peace, which was granted to the Carthaginians, on condition of their giving up to the Romans all the islands in their possession between Africa and Italy. T. Sempronius, at the beginning of the second Punic war, was the first who entirely established the Roman dominion in Melita.

The only Punic monuments remaining in Malta are two pieces of marble (Pl. II. fig. 3 and 4), supposed to have been the base and shaft of a chandelier, with a Phœnician inscription on each; and the same inscription in Greek. These have frequently been explained; but the only good translation is by the learned Abbé Barthelemy, and is as follows:—"We, Abdassar and Asseremor, the sons of Asseremor, the son of Ab-

“dassar, having made this vow to our lord *Melcrat*, the tutelary divinity of Tyre; may he bless and guide us in our uncertain way! Dionysius and Serapion of the city of Tyre, the sons of Serapion, to Hercules surnamed *Archegetes*.”—This inscription shews that the Hercules worshipped in Melita bore the surname of *Archegetes* during the government of the Carthaginians. (The meaning of this title is chief or conductor.) He was also called *Melkartos*\* or *Melcrat*, which signifies a powerful king.

Though the names in the Greek and Phœnician inscriptions are different, this only proceeds from a common custom in the East; where individuals, as well as towns, have not only an Eastern, but a Greek name, by which they are distinguished by turns. The same brothers are therefore meant in the record upon the monuments, though the language is different; the Phœnician inscription indeed adds one more degree to their genealogy.

It is thought these brothers who made the vow to Hercules were sailors, who returned thanks to that god, the protector of the commercial city of Tyre, for having conducted them safely into the port of Melita. They likewise invoked him to grant them in future prosperous voyages.

The possession of Melita was of too great importance to a power which aspired to universal empire over the Mediterranean; for the Romans to neglect any possible means to preserve it. They had driven away the Carthaginians, but they wished

\* This word in Hebrew signifies *king of the earth*.

to gain the friendship of the Greeks, who composed a considerable part of the inhabitants: they, therefore, permitted them to continue their ancient customs, and still called the island Melita: they made it a municipium, allowing the inhabitants to be governed by their own laws; though they sent a pro-prætor who depended on the prætorship of Sicily, and in whose name they struck some medals.

The Romans particularly encouraged commerce and manufactures; cotton and linen cloths were so famed for fineness, and the nicety with which they were finished, that they were regarded at Rome as an article of luxury.

The greatest attention was paid to improving and beautifying those temples, which were esteemed the pride of Melita, and to which both sailors and merchants repaired to offer incense to the protecting gods of their island and their trade. The altars of these gods long continued to be respected, but they were too rich to escape the rapacious hands of different depredators. A general officer belonging to Massinissa king of Numidia arrived at Melita with a fleet, and stripped the Temple of Juno of some curious works in ivory, which he presented to his sovereign. No sooner was that prince informed from whence they came, than he hastened to restore them; but the less scrupulous Verres seized upon them afterwards, and they contributed\* not a little to adorn his magnificent gallery.

\* See Abbé Fraquier's description of the Gallery of Verres.—Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions, Vol. X.

There are no ruins now existing either of the temples erected at that epoch, or of the theatre near the Temple of Apollo: there have indeed been found, at the bottom of the Marsa, some remains of a vast mole which bounded the port.

Among the monuments which evince the dominion of the Romans over the island, and the privileges continued to be granted to the inhabitants by the emperors, are medals, inscriptions, and statues. There are none of the former with the effigy of the emperor. Some have a head of Juno (Pl. I. fig. 1) on one side, with the Greek word *Melitaion*; and on the reverse a curule chair, with the following inscription,—*C. Arruntanus Batb. Propre*: others the Juno's head without the Greek word, with a tripod and the Latin word *Melitaion* (Pl. I. fig. 1) on the reverse. Some of the inscriptions indicate the Temple of Proserpine being repaired. There is an inscription in the Town-house of the city Notable, which mentions the repairs of the Temple of Apollo (Pl. III. fig. 1 and 2), and the public theatre being enlarged.

In the marquis Barbaro's cabinet of curiosities is the head of Augustus (Pl. IV. fig. 5) in basso rilievo\*, and the bust of Antinous (Pl. IV. fig. 6); and in the grand master's gallery a female wolf in alabaster (Pl. IV. fig. 4) giving suck to Romulus and Remus. These pieces of Roman antiquity were found at different times when Malta and Goza were ransacked, together with a large sepulchral lamp (Pl. I. fig. 5), of a beautiful curious

\* Of Maltese stone.



form: likewise a round piece of marble (Pl. I. fig. 4), the use of which is unknown: the sculpture on one side represents a griffin with its paw on the head of a ram, and on the other a theatrical mask.

On the division of the Roman empire, the island of Malta fell to the lot of Constantine; religious disputes arose, and engaged the attention of all parties. The energy which distinguished the ancient masters of the universe was destroyed, and they were unable to resist the swarms of barbarians who, in the beginning of the fifth century, issued from the North, ravaged the empire, and subdued the greatest part of it. The empire being thus dismembered, the Vandals seized upon Sicily in 454; and next took possession of Malta, from which they were driven, ten years afterwards, by the Goths. The island, whilst under the oppressive rod of these barbarians, could not possibly flourish, nor could its trade be preserved.

It appeared once more to raise its head under the reign of Justinian, who sent Belisarius to wrest Africa from the Vandals. This general landed in Malta in 553, and took possession of the island, which he reunited to the empire, and thus again made it of very essential use to all commercial nations. The fate of Goza was always the same with that of Malta.

These islands became afterwards still more rich; but, the emperors not allowing them the same privileges they enjoyed under the ancient Romans, they never entirely recovered their former splendour.

The Greeks who still remained to defend Malta, and to share its commerce, unfortunately possessed nothing in common with their ancestors but their name, except, indeed, their pride; but being devoid of all their ancient virtues, they soon contrived to draw upon themselves the enmity of the other inhabitants, who at last sacrificed them to the Arabs.

The catacombs\* still existing near the old city may be reckoned among the ancient monuments of that time. These were originally intended for sepulchres; but their number was afterwards considerably increased, particularly when the different heretical sects became so numerous throughout the empire: they then most probably served as asylums for individuals of each sect, who wished to escape the bloody persecutions of the others; mutual hatred being the only passion which influenced the actions of all. Since that time the inhabitants have flown to them for refuge, whenever the barbarians invaded the country.

The only Gothic monument remaining in Malta is an inscription in the church of St. Agatha, in the city Notable. There are no remains of the three centuries which intervened between the reign of Justinian and the capture of the island by the Arabs, but one epitaph preserved in the museum of the public library, and a small, but curious, bronze figure (Pl. III. fig. 4) found at Goza, which we shall notice in the proper place.

According to the Cambridge Chronicle, the Arabs seized

\* See Abela, for the plan of these catacombs.

upon Malta in 870. They were resisted in the bravest manner by the Greeks, three hundred of whom, being shut up in the city Notable, were burned to death by the other inhabitants. The Arabs then made their entry into that town, not as conquerors, but as friends and brothers: they, however, were driven from thence the same year, and the Greeks remained masters of the islands thirty-four years.

The Arabs took possession of Malta and Goza a second time, when they exterminated all the Greeks, though they acted with great clemency towards the rest of the inhabitants. The wives and children of the Greeks were even sold by them for slaves; and thus reduced to obey those whom they were born to command. Their land was likewise divided among the Arabs, who established a government dependent upon the emir of Sicily. During the whole of the time they inhabited Malta, they treated the Christian religion and its ministers with proper respect, and were humane and just in their conduct towards the inhabitants, upon whom they laid no taxes. To supply the want of that resource, they armed cruizing vessels every year, which brought them in very considerable prizes.

This perilous manner of gaining riches naturally pleased the Maltese, a brave and active people, who were at that period deprived of a large portion of their land by foreigners, and were unable to supply their wants by commerce, which, owing to the distress of the times, became every day less important. The Arabs having thus instructed them in piracy, their own

experience perfected them in the business; and the Maltese became, indeed still are, the ablest corsairs in the Mediterranean.

Some golden medals remain as monuments of the abode of the Arabs in Malta, two of which are in the marquis Barbaro's cabinet of curiosities. There is likewise a large sepulchral stone with Arabian characters, in the possession of baron Xara.

The Arabs reduced the circumference of the city Notable, to enable them to fortify it more easily; and built a fort, where the castle St. Angelo now stands, to guard their vessels on entering the great port.

The Normans took possession of Malta in 1090, and permitted those Arabs who chose to quit the island to carry away the whole of their property. Those who remained were allowed the free exercise of their religion, on condition of paying an annual tribute to the prince: they also insisted that all Christian slaves captured at sea should be restored to liberty: after which count Roger (Pl. III. fig. 5) returned to Sicily. Some Arabs who had taken refuge on an eminence called *Kalua Ia Bahria*, so fortified by nature that it was impossible to approach it but through a defile, attempted to surprize the chiefs of the island whilst at divine service on a holiday; but they failed in their enterprize, and every Arab was soon afterwards sent out of Malta. The Normans gave up the island to the Germans, on account of the marriage between Constance heiress of Sicily and Henry VI. son of the emperor Frederick Barba-

rossa. Malta was erected into a county and marquisate; but it was depopulated by the havock of war, and its trade entirely ruined, which reduced it to a state of the greatest misery. For a considerable length of time it was inhabited by soldiers alone, and had no other capital than the fortress which defended the port; but at length Frederick II. having taken possession of Cevalano in Calabria, in 1224, sent to Malta the unfortunate inhabitants of that place, who, by dint of industry both by land and sea, once more, in some degree, enriched the island. History takes notice, that William, surnamed the Fat, admiral of Sicily, and his descendants, were counts of Malta; but it does not appear that any of its lords contributed to the happiness of their vassals. The Maltese remained seventy-two years subject to the emperors of Germany.

Charles of Anjou, brother of Lewis IX. king of France, who was king of Sicily, made himself master of Malta; and it was in this island that John Procida formed the conspiracy, which was followed by the well-known affair of the Sicilian Vespers. A change of sovereigns immediately took place in Sicily, but Malta continued faithful to the French. Two years after, Roger admiral of Arragon attacked Corneille, who commanded the fleet of Charles, near Malta; and the death of the French general decided the battle in favour of the Arragonians, who took advantage of their situation to disembark in the port *Marsa Musceit*, and possessed themselves of the whole island. The inhabitants of the town surrendered at discretion;

and their conquerors insisted upon provisions and 2500 crowns by way of contribution. The fortress still held out; but the Arragonians arriving a few months afterwards with a formidable army to blockade it, the inhabitants pressed the besieged to surrender, and the French were obliged to capitulate. Charles made an effort to retake the island; but a naval combat between the two fleets, to which he was witness, destroyed his hopes for ever, and firmly established the empire of his enemies.

All that remains of the government of the Norman, German, and French princes, consists, according to the spirit of those times, in pious foundations. They endowed churches, and the cathedral was founded by the Normans. It is needless to mention the title deeds of the other church endowments: the most ancient are those at the burgh of Malleha and at Casal Tartani: the latter no longer exists.

The island of Malta, as appears from the foregoing pages, had long suffered from the discord which reigned between its successive sovereigns; and it groaned still longer afterwards under the tyranny of different individuals to whom the kings of Arragon, and the kings of Castille who succeeded them in 1414, ceded it in title of fief: it thus became either the appanage of some illegitimate son of their prince, the reward of one of his favourites, or the price of personal services done to the sovereign, rather than of those rendered to the crown.

The Maltese, under the reign of Lewis, son of Peter II. vainly imagined they had succeeded in procuring the islands of

Malta and Goza to be attached to the Sicilian monarchy without power of alienation; they having been twice since that time mortgaged for sums lent to their princes.

These islanders, weary of complaining, though too loyal to revolt, determined, at their own expence, to free themselves at once from the shame they felt at seeing their sovereign constantly making a traffic of his territories; and likewise from the unjust and frequent claims made upon them by the different governors so continually placed over them. They therefore made a generous effort, and offered king Alphonso to discharge themselves the 30,000 florins for which the island was pawned: this the king accepted, in 1428; and promised in return, that the islands of Malta and Goza should never, in future, be separated from the kingdom of Sicily: he even permitted the inhabitants, in case of a breach of promise, to oppose him by force of arms, without such conduct being deemed either disobedience or rebellion; but this permission did not extend to the liberty of choosing another sovereign.

The government of Malta, after it was united to Sicily, consisted of a council termed *popular*; which appointed to all places in the administration, and chose the members of the tribunal. This council was composed of all the nobles, and the heads of the villages or casals\*: the members were approved by the sovereign, who was always regarded as supreme chief in matters of justice. In other branches of the administration,

\* Hamlets.

the Maltese had seldom any share. A person high in the military line was appointed to execute the laws, to maintain a proper police, and to defend the island. The poverty of this people was so great, that Sicily was obliged to furnish them at a very moderate price with the common necessaries of life: it was therefore impossible to tax them highly; so that in 1516 the two islands of Malta and Goza only paid the trifling sum of forty-one ducats to the treasury.

Goza and Cumin were always attached to the fate of Malta: the ancient name of the former is unknown; but it was called *Gaulos* whilst in the possession of the Greeks. Cumin was distinguished by the name of *Hephastias*.

Among the most remarkable monuments at Goza, are the remains of an edifice built with enormous stones, commonly called the Giant's Tower; various medals, one of which bears a helmet, with a crescent under it, on one side; and on the other a warrior with a buckler and javelin, having in front a star, and behind the word *Gauliton* (Pl. I. fig. 2). This designates Castor and Pollux, divinities ever favourable to mariners. There are likewise a variety of inscriptions preserved in the castle, together with a mutilated statue. Julia Augusta, the mother of Tiberius, is named *Ceres* in one of these inscriptions upon marble. A very curious monument found at Goza, and preserved in the museum at Malta, is a small bronze figure (Pl. III. fig. 3 and 4), representing a lame beggar\* without a beard, seated

\* See Chap. IV.



in a kind of basket: he rests his left hand on the ground, which, on that account, as it appears, is covered with something resembling a sandal; and he presents a cup with the other: the rags which serve him for clothing as low as the knees, are fastened round him by a cord, and a cloak, like that of a pilgrim, is hung on his shoulders. The whole of this figure is covered with characters, some of which are Greek, some Etruscan, and others those of an unknown language. The monogram of Christ may be plainly distinguished; and the letters which precede it form in Ionic ΘΥΠΕΤ for ΕΤΥΠΗ, which joined to the monogram signifies—*The Lord is struck*. This figure holds upon his arm the feet of another figure, which have been broken off and lost. According to all appearance, the former represents one of those sectaries who, in the second and third centuries, employed themselves in imagining a kind of arithmetical theology, according to which they pretended that the letters of the alphabet, particularly those which expressed numbers, contained the power that created the universe; and became, as they asserted, even the physical cause of its production. The principal proof on which they relied in defence of this absurdity was, that Jesus Christ had himself said, I am Alpha and Omega. It was customary with these heretics, in consequence of this extravagant and ridiculous superstition, to inscribe on their monuments a vast number of mysterious alphabetical characters; and it is therefore probable that this figure represented one of their principal chiefs, and afterwards

became an object of adoration. The torments he had undergone had, as it appears, deprived him of the use of his legs; and forced him, in that miserable state, to become a beggar. His cloak was covered with characters, according to the custom of his sect; and the words, which are plainly to be distinguished, *Jesus Christ was struck*, were meant either as a consolation for his own sufferings, or intended to exhort his brethren to bear with patience the pain and mortifications they might possibly be exposed to endure.

Such were the changes which had taken place in the government of these two islands, when Charles V. added them to his vast domains. This politic prince, whose prudence equalled his activity, considered these possessions in a very different light from his predecessors, who had ever regarded them as of small importance to their dominions. To command the Mediterranean, to secure the coast of Sicily, to threaten that of Africa, and to interrupt at pleasure all commercial intercourse between the two seas in the centre of which they were placed, were objects of sufficient importance for Charles to be well aware of the great advantage of possessing these two islands. His policy alone would have induced him to profit by such a circumstance: but his foresight extended still farther; for fearing these important places might in future be taken from his successors, who, being obliged to attend to the centre of their dominions, or to the opposite confines, might not be able to keep a force sufficient for the defence of Malta and Goza—

and at the same time reflecting of what importance such a conquest would be to his enemies in the political balance of Europe—he determined to place them in the hands of some power which would be particularly interested in preserving them; and which, without being able to annoy any other state, would be respected by all. Added to these considerations, he found it very advantageous to save the expence of 340,000 French livres, which his treasury was obliged to furnish for the maintenance of the different garrisons it was necessary to keep in the forts and castles of Malta, Goza, and Tripoly. He, in consequence, made choice of the order of St. John of Jerusalem; which, having been driven from its principal place of residence, had been wandering on the coast of Italy: and in 1530 he established the knights as perpetual sovereigns of the islands of Malta and Goza, together with the city of Tripoly.

## C H A P. II.

*Situation of Malta. Description of the Ports, Towns, old City, and Edifices; Judicial and Civil Government; the Grotto of St. Paul; the City Valette, its Situation, Foundation, principal Edifices, curious Monuments both in Painting and Sculpture. The University; its Functions, Utility, and Abuses in the Administration.*

**T**HE island of Malta is situate between Sicily and Africa, in 33 degrees 40 minutes of east longitude from Ferro (15 degrees 54 minutes east from London), and 35 degrees 44 minutes 26 seconds of north latitude\*. It is the most southern island in Europe: distant sixty miles from Cape Passaro; a hundred and ninety from Cape Spartivento in Calabria, the nearest point on the continent of Europe; two hundred from Calipia, the nearest part of the continent of Africa; and two hundred and seventy from Tripoly. It is sixty miles in circumference, twenty long, and twelve broad. It faces on the east the island of Candia; on the west, the small islands or rocks of Pantaleria, Linosa, and Lampedosa; on the north, Sicily; and on the south, the kingdom of Tunis.

\*Ptolemy places Malta in Africa (lib. iv. cap. 3), in 38 degrees 45 minutes longitude from Ferro, and 34 degrees 40 minutes latitude. Pliny (lib. iv. cap. 8) and Strabo (lib. vi.) place it between the islands of Italy. Dapper makes it situated in 49 degrees longitude, and 35 degrees 10 minutes latitude: but the description given in this work is taken from the author of the Political and Historical Researches on Malta, and the Observations of Father Feuillée; (see Journal of Physical Observations, Vol. II.)

There is nothing to be seen to the south and towards Tripoly, but shelves and rocks, without either creeks or ports; but to the east there is the port of Marsa-Scala, and towards the south-west that of Marsa-Sirocco, capable of containing a great number of vessels: farther on, and likewise between the south and east, are the two gulfs of Antifeya and Musiaro; and at the very extremity of the island, towards the west, is an extremely commodious cove, serving as a road for ships: this is named Melecca, and is separated from Goza by a channel about four miles broad. The small islands of Cumin and Cuminino are in the middle of this channel.

The port of St. Paul is on the coast opposite Sicily, and is so called from a tradition that the vessel in which St. Paul was sent prisoner to Rome was driven in there by a storm. St. George's Port, towards the north, is not far distant from that of St. Paul. Directly facing Cape Passaro are two considerable ports: that to the left is *Marsa Musceit* or Port *Musset*, in the midst of which is a small island; near which all vessels from the Levant, or any other place suspected of contagious disease, perform quarantine. The other is merely called *Marsa*, or the Great Port, and is situated to the east. These two are separated by a point of land, at the extremity of which is Fort St. Elmo, serving to defend the entrance of both ports. There are two parallel points of land, shaped like two fingers; these are in the Great Port, and project into the sea, being much less broad than long: the castle St. Angelo is built on the one

nearest the entrance of the port, and was the only fortress in the whole island when the knights first took possession of it. The grand-master L'Isle Adam added bastions, ramparts, and ditches, to this fort: he also made cisterns, and built an arsenal and different storehouses.

*Il Borgo* (or the Burgh), to the north of the castle St. Angelo, is now separated from it by a wet ditch. This was the original place of residence of the order of Malta, and where the Turks failed in their efforts against the knights. It indeed resisted all their assaults, and deservedly gained the name of *Citta Vittoriosa*, or the *Victorious City*. The minister from the court of Rome, who has the title of inquisitor, has a palace in this place: but all the other foreign ministers live in the city *Valetta*; in which, during the reign of the last grand-master, the inquisitor, by consent of the order, was likewise permitted to reside.

On the other point of land to the left is the Great Port. A fort and burgh have been erected; and though in fact it is only a peninsula, it is called the *Island of La Sangle*, from the name of the grand-master who fortified it. The inhabitants of this burgh, during the siege of Malta, resisted every bribe offered them by the Turks; and, continuing constantly faithful to the order, defended the place with so much valour, that it was surnamed *Citta Invitta* (the *Invincible City*). The point of land on which the city *La Sangle* is built, divides the galley port from the French port. Fort St. Michael is on the side next the land, and defends the two ports of *La Sangle*.

Near the city *La Sangle* is the suburb *Burmola*, now called *Citta Cospicua* (the Conspicuous City). This is commanded by St. Margaret's Hill, on which is a fort of the same name. The grand-master Nicholas Cotoner formed a plan, which he afterwards executed, of a considerable fortification, which, by being joined at each end to the city *La Sangle* and the Victorious City, should form a large square, into which the inhabitants of the country might retreat in case of being invaded by the enemy. "It is capable of making a long resistance" is the expression employed by the chevalier Folard, in his Commentary on Polybius; where he relates, that, being summoned to Malta, he disapproved of the construction of a fort which was intended to be built and enclosed in what is called *La Cotoner*. This fortification consists of a succession of bastions without any advanced works.

There are two forts on the point of land on each side of Fort St. Elmo: the one called *Ricasoli* is intended, in conjunction with St. Elmo, for the defence of the entrance of the Great Port; the other, lately built on Point Dragut, bears the name of Fort *Tigné*, and is meant to defend the point of Marsa-Musceit, and to prevent a landing from the sea coast. It was scarcely finished when the French invaded the island, in 1798.

The point of land on which St. Elmo is built, was formerly called *Sceb-e-ras*, signifying, in Arabic, *a place elevated above another*. It was also named *la Guardia*. The city *Valetta* is built on this spot; and, in order to secure it still more effectually

ally on the land side, a suburb, surrounded by fortifications, has been since erected, to which is given the name of *la Floriana*.

The island of Malta contains two principal cities, and twenty-two villages or *casals*—a name derived from the Arabian word *rahal*, signifying *station*; and which indicates the manner in which these villages have been composed by degrees, through the means of the stations, colonies, and meetings of labourers, who successively built cabins or houses in the country, in order to be nearer their different occupations. There are several hamlets between these villages, and a great many country houses.

The *Old* or *Notable* City still preserves the name of *Mdina* among the inhabitants; this signifies city, and it was the only one at that time in the island. It is the seat of the bishopric: and its most remarkable edifices are, the palace of the grand-master, built on the site of a fort taken down in 1455, by command of king Alphonso; and the cathedral, erected on the foundation of a palace, which, according to ancient tradition, was inhabited by Publius, prince or *protos* of the island at the time of St. Paul's shipwreck.

The body of the cathedral has been rebuilt in a modern taste, and is very little ornamented. The greatest part of the pictures are by Matthias Preti\*.

\* Matthias Preti, surnamed the Calabrian, was born in Calabria in 1613, and died in Malta in 1699. This painter studied originally under his brother, who was director of the Academy



The service of the cathedral was performed by canons, chosen alternately by the bishop and the pope. The habit they wore in the choir was a purple *capemagne*; they officiated with a mitre, and wore a golden cross on the breast. The nomination to the deanery of this chapter was formerly a royal one; but it has since been transmitted to the grand-master, with all the privileges annexed to the crown: Charles V. in the act of donation, alone reserved to himself the right of choosing the bishop, who wore the grand cross of the order, and held the first place in the council, though the constitutional law of the order did not acknowledge him for conventual bailiff.

The Old City had for governor a *hakem* or *podesta*, chosen by the grand-master out of the class of principal citizens. This governor bore the name of *captain of the rod*; because the sign of his jurisdiction was a rod. This civil and criminal jurisdiction extended over the old city, and the six following casals; Dingle, Siggiri, Zebug, Stadard, Lia, and Mosta. After this tribunal had pronounced sentence, appeals might be made to the supreme court, which was held in the city Valetta.—The captain of the rod, when he accompanied the sovereign through the island, had the privilege of riding on horseback on the left

of St. Luke, at Rome; but he afterwards was taught by Guercino. He succeeded best in large pieces in fresco. His colouring is strong, but his shades too dark. His manner of painting is bold, and his heads and hands finely drawn. All his pictures are distinguished by a great style of composition, and majesty of invention. There is much richness in the minute parts, and great variety in the disposition: but he generally made choice of subjects as dismal as his colouring, and the ground of his pictures has frequently a bluish tint.

hand of the prince's carriage. The Town-hall of the old city was called Banca Dei Giurati. The municipality consisted of four jurats, and the hakem, who acted as president.

The catacombs in the Old City\* have always been celebrated; and, indeed, with the greatest justice. They are very extensive: and contain streets in all directions; which are formed with such a degree of regularity, that the title of Subterraneous City has been given to this place. Many of the different passages have been walled up, lest the curious spectator should lose himself in such a labyrinth. The entrance communicates to a house belonging to M. Pietro Greco, rector of the college (see Hoüel); from whence the descent is about eight or nine feet by a staircase three feet wide, leading to a kind of gallery, extremely narrow, and containing sepulchres of different sizes; some proportionably formed for infants, placed in different recesses on each side. These corridors are extremely irregular, divided into several passages, which branch out in various directions, and form apartments very much in the same style as the first, only more or less large, but all equally full of tombs. The roof or ceiling of one of these halls appearing to want support, a group of fluted pillars has been erected; but without either strength, taste, or regularity!—These catacombs are about twelve or fifteen feet below the surface of the rock in which they are cut. The stone is soft and porous, consequently subject to be easily penetrated by water: in order,

\* See Abela, for the plan of these catacombs.

therefore, to prevent the ill effects of such filtration, small gutters or trenches were made at the bottom of the lateral parts of the galleries; which were covered over in a manner for any person to walk upon them, and served as conduits for the different streams of water which met together, and were afterwards lost in places made purposely to receive them. By such means these caverns were kept perfectly dry, and were not dangerous to those who were forced to take shelter in them: the bodies were likewise easily let down for interment. The stone from which these catacombs were dug is of so soft a nature, that vegetables and shrubs grow in it. The roots of many of the latter, in the upper surface, have pierced through the rock, without splitting it: these appear to grow naturally, even to the height of twelve or fifteen feet; and are two, three, (sometimes more) lines in diameter. It is remarkable that the roots of the shrubs thus growing in the heart of the rock should be as large as if exposed to the open air; for it is natural to suppose that so confined a situation would impede their growth.—These catacombs are infinitely superior to those at Naples, which are merely excavations made at different times for procuring stone for building.

Near this city is the Grotto of St. Paul, a cave divided into three separate parts by iron grates. The altar is in the part furthest from the entrance; in which is also a beautiful statue of St. Paul, in white marble, the work of Caffa\*. The

\* Caffa (Melchior) was born in Malta, in 1635; and studied sculpture under Ferrata, at

second resembles the nave of a church; and is a rock where the vegetation is constant, yielding a peculiar sort of earth, famous for the cure of fevers. This earth is continually regenerating, is of an absorbent nature, and reckoned very efficacious as an alterative in all disorders occasioned by acrimonious humours. The entrance serves as a place of worship: in fact, the primitive Christians themselves who inhabited Malta made use of it as a church; and in 1507, a hermit having fixed his abode in this place, drew after him a great concourse of devout votaries.

The City Valetta is situate 13 degrees 40 minutes to the east of the meridian of Paris. The first stone was laid in 1566, and this spot particularly chosen on account of its elevated situation between the two great ports of the island. The plan was given by La Valette himself, though it was thought at the time to be drawn by Captain Laparelli. It is said that the original idea of the grand-master was only to enclose the convent, with all its dependences, within the walls; and towards the end of the century there was but too much reason to regret that such a plan had not been carried into execution.

The walls of this new city were no sooner traced out, than the inhabitants of the island, of all ages and both sexes, voluntarily employed themselves to complete a town, which in future

Rome. He became so celebrated an artist, that he was fixed upon to execute a work in Malta, representing the Baptism of our Saviour; which was to have been placed in St. John's church: but, after having finished models both large and small, he met with an accident, which prevented his completing his plan; but it has since been executed from his designs.

was not only to serve them as a place of defence, but to encrease their commerce and secure their possessions.

By a decree of council, this new city was called *La Valetta*: but it being customary at that time in Sicily to join a suitable epithet to the name of each town, the grand-master expressed his wishes that a truly Christian one, worthy the modesty of an order which prided itself alone in the cross of our Saviour, should be chosen; it was therefore called *Humilissima*.

La Valette dying in 1568, his successor, P. de Monté, completed the different works commenced during the glorious reign of the great defender of Malta and the Christian faith. The whole being entirely finished; on the 18th of May, 1571, the entire body of the order quitted the Burgh, where they had resided from their first arrival in Malta, and proceeded in a most solemn manner to their new habitation in the city Valetta.

Much less attention had been paid to the magnificence and convenience of the edifices within the walls, than to ensure the safety of the city by strong fortifications. The only church at that time was the *Chapel of Victory*; built by La Valette in commemoration of the raising the siege, and in honour of the Blessed Virgin.

It was intended to have erected a palace for the grand-master on the spot where the Italian and Castilian inns now stand; but P. de Monté preferred a house built by Eustache Dumont, in the principal square, and which has ever since been the residence of his successors.

A piece of ground was given to every different language for their respective Inns. The one belonging to the English language, since succeeded by the Anglo-Bavarian, was then on the spot now called *La Polverista*. A particular post was also assigned to each language, to defend in case of attack: these were as follow:—

Provence, the Cavalier, and	Bulwark of St. John.
Auvergne, . . . . .	Bulwark of St. Michael.
France, the Cavalier, . . .	Bulwark of St. James.
Italy, . . . . .	Bulwark of St. Paul and St. Peter.
Arragon, . . . . .	Bulwark of St. Andrew.
England, . . . . .	the Platform of St. Lazarus.
Germany, . . . . .	Bulwark of St. Sebastian.
Castille, . . . . .	Bulwark of St. Barbara.

There are three gates to this city, viz. *La Reale* (Royal), the *Marine*, and the gate towards Marsa Musciet. The principal street reaches from the Royal Gate to the Castle of St. Elmo, and the others are built in a straight line parallel to the former; the whole paved with flat square stones. The pavement was however extremely bad till the year 1771, and many of the houses very inconvenient from having steps in the front: but the streets have since been levelled at a great expence, and subterraneous channels dug to carry off all impurities, and at the same time to open a passage for rain water; in short, to make conduits to convey fountain water into all the public and private cisterns throughout the city.—The greatest part of

the inhabitants being unable to provide for so enormous an expence, the public treasury advanced money to forward these improvements; by which means the city La Valetta is now magnificently paved, and the houses cleared from steps, which were not only inconvenient but extremely unsightly, and rendered the passage through the streets both embarrassing by day and dangerous by night.

Besides private cisterns to every house, there are likewise public ones; together with a fountain, the source of which is in the southern part of the island, but the water conveyed by an aqueduct, built at a considerable expence by the grand-master Aloff de Vignacourt. This aqueduct from Diar Chandal, where it commences, to the square before the grand-master's palace, is 7478 canes\* of eight palms each, in length. It having suffered extremely from the ravages of time, the grand-master Rohan repaired, and indeed partly rebuilt it, from his own private purse. The manner in which the water of this fountain is conveyed has been already described; and if the winter rains are not sufficient to fill the cisterns, it affords a constant supply.

The houses are neat, and built of handsome stone; the roofs forming a flat terrace plastered with pozzolana, with pipes conducting to the cisterns, by which means every drop of rain water is preserved. Most of the houses have a balcony advancing into the street, where the inhabitants pass a great part of their time.

\* A cane is nine feet.

The parish-churches in the city Valetta, and the chapels belonging to the different convents of religious orders, are daily ornamented by gifts of the Maltese, who have always been celebrated for a never-failing piety and devotion: they even continue the ancient custom of the African Christians in the time of the Romans, who used to engrave crosses with the point of a needle, in order to distinguish them from the Gentiles.

The church of St. John, built by the grand-master La Cassiere, and afterwards consecrated by D. Ludovico Torr s, archbishop of Montreal, was greatly enriched by presents made to it every five years by the sovereign, and all the grand-priors of the order. The first general chapter held at Malta assigned a separate chapel in this church to every language: these form the two aisles of a tolerably large nave, all the carved ornaments of which are gilded with sequin gold at the expence of the grand-master Coloner. The pictures in this church are almost all by Matthias Preti; whose talents ought to have induced the order to have received him as a knight by favour, of the language of Italy. Every compartment of the roof, between the pillars of the chapel, is ornamented by a picture representing the different events of the life of St. John: the greatest part of them are incomparably fine.

The pavement of the church is composed of sepulchral stones of inlaid marble of different colours. Nothing can be more magnificent than several of these monuments; some of



which are incrustated with jasper, agate, and other precious stones, and cost more than a thousand pounds sterling.

The principal altar is placed at a distance from all the others, in the middle of the choir; at the further end of which is a group in marble upon a raised basis, representing our Saviour baptised by St. John. There is a fine picture, though unfortunately injured by smoke, painted by Michael Angelo de Caravaggio\*, in a chapel called the Oratory, the entrance of which was formerly the chapel of the language of England. St. John's hand is kept in this oratory; a most precious relick, presented by the Turkish emperor Bajazet, to D'Aubusson, the grand-master of Rhodes †.

\* Michael Angelo was surnamed Caravaggio, from a castle in the Milanese, where he was born in 1560. He died in 1609. He was the son of a mason, and his original occupation was preparing colours for the use of painters in fresco. He afterwards went to Venice, where Georgione resided, whose colouring he sometimes imitated. He had no conception of ideal beauty; and when he painted a hero, he copied from a porter. He always said the originals of his pictures were to be found in the streets: like Rembrandt; who used to display a collection of old clothes, saying, "These are my *antiques*." Though he certainly might have chosen better models, it was impossible to paint them finer; and he succeeded so well in portraits, that his style became fashionable. Valentin adopted his manner; Guercino constantly, and even Guido did the same. The masterpiece of Michael Angelo was indisputably a portrait of the grand-master Aloy Vignacourt: this has even been compared to the portraits of Titian, for the strength, truth, and softness of the colouring. The heads of both the grand-master and page are admirable. This picture was engraved by Lemessin, but feebly executed.

† St. John's hand was preserved at Constantinople in a church built by Justinian, who removed it to a church in Antioch. This relick and many others were preserved by Mahomet II. at the capture of Constantinople. Bajazet, who trembled for his newly acquired throne, wished to be on friendly terms with D'Aubusson, then grand-master of Rhodes, and become very celebrated during the preceding reign by a great victory over the infidels: he therefore presented him with St. John's hand, for which he had repeatedly refused the offer of other princes. It will appear in the course of this history, in what manner the French restored this hand to the grand-master on his quitting Malta.

The chapel dedicated to the Virgin, contains two *ex votos* of immense value; and was lighted by a golden lamp, fastened to the roof by a long chain of the same metal. There are many different articles in the treasury of this church, not only extremely valuable, but of the greatest antiquity and finest workmanship. None of these, however, were spared by the French; who, from the first moment of their arrival, began to carry away, during the night, every thing made of gold or silver, in order to convert them into ingots.

The exterior of the church of St. John was by no means equal to the inside, which was so magnificent, and at the same time so curiously elegant, that they even imitated the pattern of the paintings on the ceiling, in the colours of the tapestry displayed on great festivals.

The ceremonies observed in this church, performed with great pomp and decorum, were particularly splendid. The canopy under which was placed the grand-master, was in the sanctuary next the evangelist; and the grand-crosses were on benches below the communion-table. The knights, and all persons attached to the service of the order, were ranged along the sides of the church; and, leaving an open space in the middle, added extremely to the beauty of the *coup d'oeil*. The prior of St. John officiated in his episcopal habit; and whilst he was at the altar, one of the acolytes was employed in refreshing him by means of a large fan of feathers, with a handle of burnished gold.

One festival, in particular, was celebrated with the most

solemn pomp. As a knight of Malta, I feel too sensibly how cruelly painful it is to be forced to speak on the subject; but such was the purity of its institution, and so grand its object, that it is impossible to pass it over in silence.

On the 8th of every September, the anniversary of the raising the siege of Malta was constantly celebrated; and no one could possibly carry the victorious standard to the foot of the altar without feeling a sentiment of the profoundest respect. This part of the ceremony was announced by warlike music, and a discharge of artillery from all the different forts. The standard was carried by a knight wearing a helmet and a habit in the form of those worn in the crusades of old: on his left hand marched a page bearing the sword and poinard sent by Philip II. of Spain to La Vallette; and on the right was the marshal, accompanied by the whole language of Auvergne, to whose knights the grand standard is particularly confided. A fine portrait of the grand-master was exhibited to the people on that day, and viewed by them with every sentiment of admiration and respect. This portrait belongs to the language of Provence, and was painted by the commander Favray\*.

The other churches were likewise richly decorated, and contained fine pictures. In the fourth chapel of the church of St. Dominick, to the left, was a picture of St. Rose, by the Calabrian. In the second chapel of the church formerly belonging to the jesuits, were three pictures, representing the

\* This modern painter has left some very fine pictures at Malta.

principal events of the life of St. Peter, viz. : the angel delivering him from prison ; his parting scene with St. Paul ; and his crucifixion. These were the *chef d'oeuvres* of the above-mentioned artist. There was also a picture by the same hand in the second chapel of the church of the Carmelites, representing St. Roch and the Blessed Virgin : the head of the latter not well executed.

Several families from Rhodes having followed the body of the order to Malta, and many of the Greeks having been since established in the island, it was ordained that divine service according to the rites of the Greek religion should be performed in one of the parish churches, and that the curate should have the title of *Papas*. This church enjoys a great number of privileges, which have been granted as rewards to the Greeks for their services during the siege of Malta.

The public edifices in Malta consist of the Palace of the grand-master, the Hôtels or Inns of the different languages, the Conservatory, the Treasury, the University, the Town-hall, the Palace of Justice, the Hôpital, and the Barracks, all of which are built with much simplicity : the opinion of *Houel* may indeed be adopted with justice, for two qualities certainly distinguish the Maltese architecture ; the one, a most exquisite taste in the composition of the general mass ; and the other, a noble plainness in the *minutiae*. The front of the Provençal Inn, and that of the Conservatory, are the most remarkable for their style of architecture. One part of the latter edifice

serves for the public library; which useful establishment was first instituted by the bailli de Tencin, in 1760, who during his life-time furnished it with nine thousand seven hundred volumes, which he had collected at a considerable expence. His portrait is in the library, which was founded for perpetuity by the last general chapter, held in 1776. It has been very greatly augmented since that time; and in 1790, consisted of sixty thousand volumes. Books were constantly arriving from all parts; it having been decreed, that at the decease of a knight of Malta, in whatsoever country he resided, his books should be sent to the public library.

The body of the library is handsome: and there is a museum adjoining divided into several cabinets, which contains a great variety of interesting objects; such as a large collection of ancient and modern medals; a few vases; the antiquities of the island; with some marbles, amongst which is one brought from Greece. The subject of this latter has been ingeniously explained by the abbé Navarro, who has determined the opinion of the learned concerning *Neotéra*. This goddess, whose generical name had been falsely applied to Cleopatra, is in reality *Livia*, or *Julia Augusta*, the mother of Tiberius, who was denominated the *New Goddess*, from being the first mortal ranked by the Romans among the Gods. Her grandson Claudius issued an edict, that she should be solemnly worshipped throughout the empire, and have altars and vestals dedicated to her service. This piece of marble likewise fixes the epoch not

only of *Spon's* marble, but of several others dated during the priesthood of Claudius Timotheus; which priesthood, according to this explanation, was in the time of Tiberius Claudius Lysias, chiliarch of Jerusalem\*.

There were two fine pictures in the Inn belonging to the language of France; the one, the Conversion of St. Paul, by Giuseppe d'Arpino; and the other, the Public Entry of the grand-master L'Isle Adam, by the commander De Favray: likewise two fine portraits of the grand-masters La Valette and Rohan, in the Provençal Inn.

The treasury contained all the accounts of the receipts and expenditure of the order; also a picture of Christ by Albert Durer, a fine portrait of the secretary of the treasury, and a Virgin by Concha.

The hospital consists of several large airy apartments, and of immense storehouses, which would contain four times the

\* The following is the Latin Inscription.

( . . . . . HONORAVIT)  
 HIEROPHANTIN NOVENSILIS. (DIVAE)  
 CLAVDIAM. PHILOXENAM.  
 TIBERI. CLAVDI (LYSIAS)  
 PATRONI MELITENSIS. FILIAM.  
 QVAE. ARAM. NOVENSILIS. DIVAE.  
 ARGENTO. ORNAVIT.  
 CVRANTE. DEDICATIONEM. (STATVAE)  
 FILIO. EJUS. TI. CLAVDIO. LYSIADAE.  
 TIBERI. CLAVDI. PATRONI. MELITENSIS.  
 FILIO. (ADOPTIVO)  
 SUB-SACERDOTE. CLAVDIA. TIMOTHEOS.

For the explanation, see *Diariam Florent Die 2 Octob. 1789*, and *Ephemerides Roman. Die 20. ejusdem mensis, &c.*

number of beds at present employed. This asylum is constantly open for the reception of the sick of all countries and religions; who are treated with every possible attention, and furnished with medicines and comforts of every kind. The knights not only inspect the different branches of the administration (the head of which is one of the first dignitaries of the order), but successively attend the sick, of whom more than two thousand are annually discharged cured from the hospital. The utensils employed are almost all silver; but of such plain workmanship as sufficiently proves that this magnificence was adopted from a motive of cleanliness, and not as an object of luxury.

The grand-master's palace is an immense mass of building; which, though unornamented, makes an imposing appearance. The apartments are large and convenient: most of the Frieres are painted by Giuseppe d'Arpino's two principal pupils; there are also views of the siege of Malta, by Matteo da Lecce. In the chapel is the Birth of the Blessed Virgin, by Treviran. The armoury was handsome; and ornamented with trophies on the walls, disposed with admirable taste. At one end is an extremely fine cuirass damasked with gold, which belonged to the grand-master Alose de Vignacourt\*, whose portrait at full length, by Michael Angelo de Carravaggio, hangs over it; the latter is in excellent preservation, and is looked upon as the master-piece of that artist. The grand-master's gallery con-

\* See in Vol. II. the drawing of the upper part of this picture.

tained a great number of pictures : among those allowed to be originals, are our Saviour by Guido ; the Death of Abel, by Espagnolet ; and many others, by the Calabrian. There are likewise three marble basso-relievos : the first representing Penthesilia (Pl. IV. fig. 2.), the famous queen of the Amazons, who, in order to revenge the death of Hector, boldly advanced to the walls of Troy to fight Achilles. The second is Julia, (Pl. IV. fig. 3.), Cicero's daughter ; and Claudia, the wife of Cicilius Metellus ; who both lived at the same time, and were much celebrated. Julia was distinguished by her great learning ; and Claudia was the Lesbia of Catullus. The third represents Zenobia (Pl. IV. fig. 3.), the wife of Odenatus, king of Palmyra : she reigned during her son's minority ; and the epithet *Domina* at the bottom of this basso-relievo, is in conformity with the *Dominus*, which Aurelian substituted for that of Emperor and Augustus. Zenobia, having conquered Egypt, assumed this title ; and greatly as she had despised the predecessors of Aurelian, saw herself constrained, in the year 274, to grace the triumph of that emperor, as a prisoner.

These basso-relievos were inserted into the walls of the galleries facing the windows, with the names of the persons they were supposed to represent. It appears most probable, that the heads formerly made part of a collection of female figures : but they were in too moderate a style to have been the production of those happy times when the arts flourished in perfection ; they were consequently the performance of other ages,



when those arts unfortunately were fallen to decay. Their antiquity being disputed, the abbé Navarro proved it incontestably in a dissertation printed in 1778.

It is as yet impossible to say, with any degree of certainty, what still remains of the different monuments of the arts in the city Valetta; though it is but too well known, that every article in gold and silver has been carried off from the churches, and the ancient municipal government suppressed, though so essential to the preservation of the inhabitants, that it would have been infinitely more prudent to have permitted it to have remained in its original form. The council of the city, called the *University*, was presided by the senechal, an officer belonging to the grand-master, who always named the other magistrates, termed *jurats*. The university exercised other functions, equally important with the municipal ones. Before the establishment of the order in Malta, it was exclusively charged with the purchase of corn for the consumption of the whole island. This part of the administration was termed *Massa frumentaria*; and it enjoyed the same privilege under the government of the knights.

The population afterwards prodigiously encreasing, and the number of the wealthy being greatly multiplied, the university was obliged to make a much more considerable provision of corn, and consequently to advance large sums for that purpose. To provide for this additional expence, recourse was

had to loans: and the ease with which they were negotiated, produced an excellent effect on the minds of the people; since it inspired the Maltese with so great a degree of confidence, that instead of placing their money elsewhere as formerly, they were quite eager to lend to the university, which by these means was enabled to build storehouses where a sufficient quantity of corn might always be kept, not only to ensure the inhabitants from the misery of famine, but at the same time to enable it to sell corn at a moderate price. The grain was preserved in extremely large pits hollowed in the rock; with beds of wood and straw placed at the bottom, on which it was spread. When these were entirely filled, they were closed by a large stone, which was plastered over with puzzolana; the corn thus kept from the air, might be preserved perfectly good a hundred years. One of these pits was discovered filled with corn, which had been forgotten for a great length of time; and the grain near the surface had alone suffered from the damp, the rest being in excellent preservation. Corn is kept in the same kind of pits in Sicily, and Malta had likewise others in that island; for it is well known that, according to different treaties, Sicily was obliged to furnish a certain quantity of corn free from all export duties. But the population of Malta having been quintupled in the space of a century, it was very insufficient to supply the wants of that island, which was forced to solicit the free exportation of a much larger quantity: this re-

quest occasioned frequent disputes, and was subject to very great difficulties.

The university made such a good use of its funds, that its credit increased surprisingly; and it could always borrow any sums of money whatsoever at three *per cent.* whilst private individuals were obliged to pay six, which indeed was the interest fixed by the law. The university became by degrees possessed of very considerable funds; and would have been extremely rich, had not some of the last grand-masters made use of their influence to drain it of sums, which never afterwards returned into its coffers.

## CHAP. III.

*Malta divided into two Parts. Description (by way of Itinerary) of the most remarkable Places: as the Boschetto; ancient Ruts; Mountains and Fountains in the Neighbourhood of Casal Zebug; St. Antony's; Ruins of Ghorghenti; Hagiari Kan; Excavation near Makluba; Ruins of a Greek House at Casal Zorrick; ancient Tower at Gudia; Kasar; Ruins of the Temple of Hercules.*

THE island of Malta is divided into two very unequal parts; the one to the east, and the other to the west, of the old city. All the casals are in the eastern division, which is much larger than that to the west; the latter merely containing some country-houses, though there are in it a variety of picturesque scenes. But the air towards the coasts being unwholesome, and there being a scarcity of land capable of cultivation, farmers are not tempted to reside in it. There are, however, some valleys tolerably well wooded and watered; quarries of a very hard sort of stone; a hill named *Ta ben Gemma*; the ruins of St. Publius's country-house; and a spot called *Nyed el Osel*, or Torrent of Honey, because numerous beehives were formerly kept there, and the produce of the bees was very great. The whole of this part of the island abounds with odoriferous plants. There are also considerable salt-works, the revenue of which is the property of the grand-master.

*Kaalata Abia* is an elevated spot of ground, where, during

the time of the Arabs, some slaves, having escaped their chains, posted themselves, and having fortified the place, strenuously defended their liberty. This western division extends no farther than *Melleha Port*: near which is a cave called the Grotto of *Calypso*, sufficiently curious to deserve a particular description; as do likewise the *Bengemma Mountains*, which are extremely worthy the attention of a curious traveller. The summit forms a plain, where a town formerly stood. Though there are no remains left, and though no historian who has treated of Malta, not even Abela, has ever made mention of the circumstance, yet the appearance of every thing around these mountains sufficiently proves they were once inhabited by a powerful and ingenious race well skilled in the arts; for, facing the chapel dedicated to *Our Lady of the Letter*, there are at least a hundred sepulchral grottos: (Pl. V). On the outside of some are small black cavities; which, closely examined, appear to have been made as ornaments to the doors; whilst the others present to view nothing but the roughness of the rock, broken by time in a very irregular manner, but which, according to all appearance, likewise served for a place of entrance.

Some of these grottos are of easy access; and a part, probably once serving as a burying-place, is deeply dug into the rock. It is impossible not to be struck by the beauty of these small tombs, the exquisite taste of their composition, and the highly finished manner in which they are executed: they may, indeed, be esteemed the finest and most elegant monuments

existing of so small a size\*. There are different fountains in the environs; which, together with the appearance of the coast, furnish additional reasons for imagining that this place, now but bad pasture land, was formerly the residence of opulent inhabitants.

*The Grotto of Calypso.* (Pl. XVI.) The title bestowed on this cave must ever recall to remembrance that delightful spot, so enchantingly sung by the poets; and such is its situation, that the particular description given by these writers is very applicable to it.

This habitation, cut out of the rock on the side of a moderately high mountain, consists of two stories of apartments, the one immediately over the other; and a grotto below, forming the ground floor, with stairs leading up to the different rooms above. Some of the walls are fallen in, whilst others remain entire; and many of the chambers in the second story are still habitable.

The grotto at the foot of the rock is principally formed by nature: a spring of clear and excellent water spouts forth at the farthest end, which must have greatly tended to invite inhabitants. In the beginning of the 17th century, this place served as a residence for some hermits; but no one, at present,

\* See in Plate V. three figures of these tombs: one of which represents a man bearing on his shoulders a dead body in a horizontal posture, and who seems to be assisted by another man, who does not appear; in the second, the corpse is laid out, and wrapped in a sheet or shroud fastened with strings; the third represents the manner in which these different tombs are disposed.—(See Houel, page 112.)

dwells in this delightful and retired spot. There is a fine and extensive prospect of the sea from the top of the mountain: the island of Goza presents itself to view in the midst of the vast expanse, and Cumin is seen still nearer to the shore; which, joined to the other parts of Malta, form altogether the most interesting, rich, and varied *coup d'oeil* in the whole island. This place has also (as has been already observed) the advantage of being situated near one of the best ports in Malta.

There are twenty-two principal casals in the eastern part, viz.: Dingkli, Mosta, Nasciar, Ghargul, Itard, Zebug, Barran, Lia, Bircarcaro, Qurmms, Paula, Siggeui, Qrendi, Zorrick, Qergop, Gudia, Mqab, Luca, Tarscien, Zabbar, Zeitua, and Ghasciay.

All civil and criminal causes in the country and casals in Malta, might be carried before either the court of justice or castelany of the city La Valetta: except, indeed, those which belonged particularly to the jurisdiction of the Captain of the Rod's court in the old city; such as Dingkli, Siggeui, Zebug, Itard, Lia, and Mosta.

In order to describe as accurately as possible every thing the most remarkable in the eastern division, I shall begin at the casal Dingkli, the most southern part of the island, proceed to Mosta, and thus continue from one casal to another, describing at the same time the neighbourhood of each particular village.

*Dingkli*, takes its name from that of a Maltese family.

*The Boschetto*. The country round this residence (which belonged to the grand-master) is seen at a great distance; and is commanded by a kind of castle, with four towers at the corners, which at a distance make a singular appearance: at the bottom, towards the south, is a hanging road, partly cut out of the rock, which leads to the entrance of the garden.

The Boschetto itself is situated in a deep and extensive valley; and is the only spot in the whole island which can boast of tolerably large fruit-trees of different kinds; the greatest part, however, do not bear. Nature has so disposed them as to form pleasant walks; and there is a charming contrast between these trees of a wild growth, and the oranges, lemons, cedars, and bergamots, ranged with the greatest symmetry in avenues and arbours. What adds to the beauty of this spot, is a variety of springs of fresh water, so aptly dispersed as to afford a degree of coolness unequalled in any other part of the island.

On each side, and behind the pavilion in the garden, are different buildings. The entrance to these is by a flight of steps, and they contain courts filled with animals of different kinds. One of these courts was once covered with brass wiring, and formed a large aviary for ostriches, Chinese gold-pheasants, and other curious birds. The part in which the pavilion stands, was full of red and fallow deer; as also antelopes, remarkable for their elegant form and their activity.



At the distance of a mile from the *Boschetto*, towards the sea, is a very elevated spot of ground ; on the southern side of which are the vestiges of wheels, that have cut into the rock, and may be traced to the sea.

These ruts are from four to six inches wide, and from ten to twelve or fifteen deep: they traverse a large extent of ground, the surface of which is entirely rocky. On approaching the shore, the soil takes an inclined direction ; and the ruts may be perceived under the water at a great distance, and to a great depth ; indeed, as far as the eye can possibly distinguish any thing through the waves. This circumstance gives every reason to suppose, that the ground must have sunk very considerably in this spot.

As no traces of either mules or horses appear between the ruts, it is most probable that the carriages were drawn by men.

*The Bishop's Gardens* ; near which are some grottos formerly inhabited by the wandering fortune-tellers, commonly called *Zingari*, Bohemians, or gypsies.

*Ghar Kbir*, a spacious cave, serving, for a great length of time, for a dwelling for whole families of peasants, who were doubtless too poor to build houses, and whom Kircher (who was in Malta during the mastership of Verdale), in his work on the Subterraneous World, distinguishes by the name of *Troglodytes*, in order to give them some degree of celebrity.

*Bir Zegrella*, a spring said to have a febrifuge quality.

*Necriet*, a small hamlet.

*El Mitarsa*, a hill, on which, according to an ancient tradition, stood the Temple of Proserpine.

*Kirbu el Thut*, or the Jew's sepulchre. These brokers from every different nation were tempted to visit Malta, in hopes of enriching themselves by commerce; but Ferdinand the Catholic banished them from the island in 1494.

*Mosta*. This village was plundered by the Corsairs in 1526.

*Baydar el Blat*. The plain where the Turkish generals planted the royal standard, when, raising the siege, they strove to rally their troops on their taking to flight and hastily re-embarking.

*Hal Dhiesil*, a deserted village.

*Nasciar*, the casal inhabited by the first Christians: it is very handsome, and contains some pleasant gardens.

*Ghargul*, or casal Gregory.

*Uyed el dis*, *Uyed el Gamit*, *Uyed el Klir*; three valleys planted with vines and trees.

*Manua* and *Bord*, two inconsiderable villages.

*Itard*. This casal takes its name from a Maltese family.

*Tabira*, a fief chosen by the grand-master Lascaris, for erecting mills, on account of a great variety of springs, which furnish running water in abundance.

*Zebug*, situated on a hill, from seven hundred to eight hundred fathoms long, reckoning from south to north, and not

more than two hundred in its whole surface. This casal is a most interesting object to the curious. On the highest part of the rock are three fountains, situated at the distance of between thirty and fifty feet from each other. There is likewise a grotto dripping water in the driest seasons; the roof is only eight or nine feet above the upper part of the mountain, which is by no means the only one that has springs on its summit: this can be attributed to no other cause than the disposition of the pores in the constituent parts of the rock, which having the faculty of absorbing the vapours of the atmosphere, and dissolving them into water, they force a passage through different apertures, and form fountains more or less abundant. The truth of this observation will be more clearly proved, when I shall treat of a rock named *Sasso di San Paolo*.

*Santa Maria tal Chilas*, or Saint Mary of Child-birth: this church is held in high veneration by the Maltese.

*Sant Antonio*, a country-house belonging to the grand-master: the garden contained three thousand orange-trees, the fruit of which sold annually for two thousand Maltese crowns\*.

*Balzan*. This village is surrounded by olive and almond trees.

*Lia*. The name of a Maltese family.

*Aarar*, an ancient village, deserted by its inhabitants

\* Value two shillings each.

on account of the frequent incursions of the Corsairs, who were continually landing on the neighbouring coast.

*Saint Julian's Church*; near which an alabaster quarry was discovered in the reign of the grand-master Pinto.

*Bircarcara*, signifying *Lime-pit*. This casal has a collegiate church.

*Hal Caprat*, the ruins of an ancient village.

*Qurmi*, or the *City Pinto*. It derives its original name from being formerly in a vineyard; and, on account of its vicinity to the city Valetta. Many ovens for baking bread have been erected there, whence it is likewise called *Casal Fornaro*.

*Ayn Filep*, a spring, which formerly furnished water for the use of ships sailing from the port of Malta.

*Kortin*, a hill; at the bottom of which some remains of antique baths were found in an excavation made in 1729.

*Corradin*, the stables of the grand-master.

*Paula*, formerly *Casal Nuovo*, built during the reign of De Paule.

*Farragi*, a small village.

*Siggeui*, signifying *repose*.

*Ghorghenti* consists merely in the ruins of some houses, the walls of which had been built on the naked rock, and in some cisterns hollowed out of the same rock. There are also some small springs or fountains towards the port, and large stones scattered here and there. Every thing seems to prove that the village called Ghorghenti was situated in this place.

According to ancient tradition, it was particularly consecrated to the use of the inhabitants of Agrigentum, who disembarked their merchandise at this port when Phalaris was the ally of the Maltese.

*Aayn el Khira*, the inquisitor's country-house.

*Ghartuta*, a grotto; near which are the ruins of different edifices built with stones of an enormous size.

*Hal Tabuni*, a ruined village.

*Rahal Kbir*. This village, if we may judge from its name, was formerly large, but is now very inconsiderable.

*S. Maria tal Kneis*, the ruins of an old Greek church.

*Biar Blat*, *Talenik*, *Taltami*, and other neighbouring places, containing immense cisterns.

*Hagiar Kan*, likewise called *Agiar Kim*. The walls, partly rectangular partly circular, are only elevated one single tier above the rock on which they are built. They extend to a great distance from south to north; and their colossal construction clearly proves, there was a considerable habitation on this spot. Near it are other ruined walls, consisting likewise of only one layer of stones. These are perpendicular, and from twelve to fourteen feet high, and three or four thick. To the north of these walls is a stone eighteen feet in height; and to the west, near the coast, the ruins of another square edifice, built in the same manner; the different fronts of which are composed of stones in the style of the Giant's Tower in Goza. These fronts are about seven fathoms broad, and fifteen feet

high. At the distance of eight or nine fathoms is another in a circular form, in which the door-ways are still to be seen. The most considerable edifice in this neighbourhood is called *Tadarnadur Isrica*, (Pl. VII.) It is a perfect circle, nearly a hundred feet in diameter. Among the great number of stones which compose this building, only five remain upright; these, however, give an idea of its height: four of them are placed vertically, each being eighteen feet high. They still remain strongly connected together: one stone, which has fallen to the ground, is twenty feet long; which gives reason to believe that the others were of the same length.

The foundations of walls running in lines across the extent of this vast enclosure are still to be traced in different places, and it is to be supposed they made parts of houses. Houel confesses that this is the most considerable monument of the kind he ever saw in the whole course of his travels.

*Rahal Sciluk*, a small village.

*Qrendi*.

*Makluba*. Near St. Matthew's chapel is a most remarkable excavation of a circular form, twenty fathoms deep, and from twenty-five to thirty in diameter. The most extraordinary circumstance is, that, though this cavity is in the solid rock, a garden has been made in it: this is at times deluged with water, and when that happens it takes ten or twelve days to dry. The sea is more than a hundred feet below the bottom of this excavation. The coast on this side of the island is full

of grottos, the rocks being for the most part craggy. A mile farther to the east towards the sea, and at the very farthest extremity of this perpendicular rock, a superb arch reversed is formed by the same rock towards the coast. This has a wonderfully fine effect, from its enormous altitude and the regularity of its form.

There is a small uninhabited island near this place, called the *Black Stone*: though the whole extent is not more than two or three acres, it is said to have been inhabited in former times.

*Hal Seych*, a ruined village, near a hamlet called *Milleri*.

*Zorrick*. In a garden belonging to the curate of this casal are the beautiful remains of a Greek edifice, (Pl. VI.) According to the observations of Houel, who has published a fine engraving of this ruin, it appears to be the remains of a private Greek house, and the only one of the kind he ever met with in his travels. The part in the highest preservation is a square tower, nine feet in front on each side, and about seventeen high, including the cornice. It has only one window and a folding door. The walls are of fine stone, nicely cut, and exactly fitted, and surrounded by a small cornice, elegantly executed in the true Grecian style. On the road from this garden to casal Qrendi is a fine cistern to the right in the arable land covered with large stones supported by well-built arcades. This cistern communicates with another by a door: the latter is dug at the distance of six fathoms from the former, and the stones which cover it are supported by pillars. By the side of

the way to the nearest casal are the remains of a wall sixty feet in length, which consist of only three layers of large and fine stones. This village takes its name from *Zirieck*, which signifies *blue*, the eyes of almost all the inhabitants being of that colour. They are in general fond of hunting and shooting; but when the season prevents their taking these diversions, they pass their time in spinning cotton. The air of this place is particularly wholesome. There are two extremely fine pictures in the church: Saint Andrew, by Mathias Preti; and the Death of Saint Catherine, by Matheo da Lecci.

*Cenus tal Mansah*, a piece of ground where they take falcons in a net.

*Bubakera*, a tolerably large village.

*Ghar Hassan*, a large cave in a rock above the sea; the access is very difficult.

*Sasi*. The name of this village signifies *pure*, and it was the only one free from the contagious distemper which made such terrible ravages in 1676.

*Qergop*.

*Torre ta Gianhar*, an old tower, supposed to be built by the Arabs.

*Gudia*, signifying high ground. At this place are the ruins of a tower built of large stones; which, though irregular, is less so than other edifices of the same kind: it is called in Arabic *Giauard*, signifying *jewel* or *pearl*, perhaps from its being better built than the others.—The layers of stones are not all equally



high; some of them are thirty-three inches, and the walls are three feet six inches thick. An urn of baked earth filled with Roman copper medals was found in this place; but, as there was no local inscription, it gave no insight into the history of the tower.

Three hundred paces from thence to the west, near a small Gothic chapel dedicated to St. Anthony, is the base of a little ancient edifice, which appears to be of Grecian architecture; it is about nine fathoms in length, near thirty-three feet wide, and built of very large stones rudely piled. A cistern, twenty-three feet deep and nine wide, is cut out of a rock near the above-mentioned base: the stones which cover it are supported in an excellent manner; and in the centre of a neighbouring enclosure there is another cistern of the same kind, though of a smaller size. The ruins of a variety of buildings are scattered here and there to the south-east, which sufficiently proves that this part of the island was formerly well inhabited.

*Halspital*, a ruined village.

*Halarrig*, the remains of many ancient habitations.

*Mqabba*, signifying the *cover of a vase*.

*Luqa*. This village is built on a high spot of ground above the *Marsa*, which is the end of the Great Port. Almost all the inhabitants are masons. The name is derived from *poplars*, there being formerly many of those trees in the environs.

*Tarscien* takes its name from *Tarsis*, or *Carthage*, and was

probably the first place inhabited by the Carthaginians on their arrival in Malta.

*Zabbar* signifies *drinker*.

*Aaffeli*, formerly famous for excellent honey.

*Hal Saïd*. This village no longer exists.

*Uyed Aain*, a small pond.

*Halcharrat*, *Hal Tnin*, ruined hamlets.

*Zeitun*, or *Biskallin*: this last name means the *Sons* of *Sicily*, from a number of Sicilian emigrants who inhabited this island after having landed at *Marsaskalla*.

*Gioan*, a hamlet.

*Ghasciaq*. This word, in the Maltese language, means *to have pleasure*.

*Ghar Dalmain*, a large grotto.

*Kasar*. Two hundred paces to the north of this *casal*, behind the small chapel of St. George, are the ruins of a very ancient edifice, built in the same style as the Giant's Tower, though not the work of the Arabs. It is composed of two circular parts, from twelve to fourteen fathoms in diameter; these are about twelve or fourteen fathoms distant from each other, but joined by a wall. This edifice, at first sight, appears like a vast heap of stones, some of which are enormously large.

The ruins of the Temple of Hercules are to the east of *Marsa Sirocco*, three hundred paces from the port, and situated

on a little hill close to the road, near a retired house, in a field which belonged to the Augustin Friars.

The ruins consist of a fine wall; of which, four layers of stones two feet high only remain: these stones are five or six feet long, and laid without mortar in a workman-like manner. The wall is ninety feet in length. This edifice, as we have already said, is called the Temple of Hercules; but it is not easy to say which part of the building was dedicated to that demi-god.

The chapel of *Our Lady of Snow* is near this place; the disposition and ornaments of which are in a remarkably good taste, both for the form and the simplicity, not only of the sides, but of the whole mass of the building.

The road of which the above is an itinerary is not passable for a *caleshe*; that is to say, if the traveller quits the direct one, which leads from one casal to another: this journey must therefore be performed on horseback, and, indeed, in some parts, on foot. A *caleshe* is a carriage of the country, with two large wheels, and drawn by a single mule.

## CHAP. IV.

*Goza not sufficiently fertile to supply its Inhabitants with Corn without foreign Assistance. Form of Government established in that Island, which only contains six Casals. Description of the most interesting Objects of Curiosity, viz. The Castle; Rabbatto; The Grotto in the Biasi Garden; Quaccia; Ruins of an ancient Edifice; Giant's Tower; Zebug; Alabaster Quarry; Convent of Capuchin Friars; Port St. Paul; Grotto; Clock-maker's Salt-Works; extraordinary Phenomenon; Mushroom Rock; dangerous Manner of catching Birds and Fish; Sasso di San Paolo.*

THE island of Goza, though fertile, was not sufficiently so to furnish the whole of its inhabitants with corn; seven or eight thousand salmes of which they were constantly obliged to purchase every year. The pasture land is fine, and they fed great quantities of cattle for the use of Malta, with which there was a daily communication; five or six boats filled with provisions going every morning to the city *Valetta*, and returning the same afternoon with all such merchandise and eatables as were not to be found at Goza. The grapes of this island are particularly fine, and so highly esteemed by the Maltese, that they buy up the greatest part for their own particular use.

Corn and cotton were cultivated with great success in Goza, and generally yielded from sixteen to eighteen for one. The inhabitants attended particularly to the plantations of cotton trees, and never suffered any other kind of tree to be

planted near them, lest they should attract and absorb any of the nutritive qualities of the earth. The annual produce from cotton in Goza might be estimated at five hundred quintals of rotoli, each rotolo weighing thirty ounces.

Oxen or asses are employed in Goza for ploughing the land; and, in some particular cases, they dig a foot deep into the earth, in order to refresh it. The ancient plough was made use of both in that island and in Sicily.

The air of Goza is extremely wholesome, and the country presents a variety of agreeable prospects. The two hills called *Nodar* and *Sciahrer* are surrounded by gardens watered by different fountains, and are undoubtedly the pleasantest in the island.

There was a collegiate church in the castle, where the service was performed by canons; likewise a prison, and the governor's palace; the whole containing about two hundred inhabitants.

There were three convents of friars in the island; the Augustins, Franciscans, and Capuchins. Every casal or village had its separate parish; and in some of them were hermits, whose province it was to educate youth.

The governor of Goza was always a knight. The municipality consisted of four *jurats*: and there were three courts of justice; one for the laity, another for the clergy, and a third for the inquisition. The first tried all civil and criminal causes; the second had jurisdiction of every thing relative to spiritual

affairs; and the last (which consisted of only one canon), referred all causes to Malta which he could not immediately determine on the spot.

I shall now enter into some particulars relative to the most interesting objects in Goza, in the same manner as I have already treated of those in Malta.

Goza contains only six casals: *Garbo* or *Gharb*; *Zebucco* or *Zebug*; *Nadur*; *Quaccia*, or *Scicara*, or *Caccia*; *Zeuchia*, or *Scienquia*; and *Sannat*.

The first fort built on the coast of Goza was *Miggiaro*, situated between *Robiglium* and *Uyed el Rajos*. This was erected in 1605, from the fund left for that purpose by the grand-master *Garzéz*. The *Bailly de Chambray* began to build another, at his own expence, in 1749; but it not being completed at his death, it was afterwards finished by the order, and called city *Chambray*. The only fortress of any consequence in the interior of the island is the castle, situated on a solitary rock of not more than one hundred and fifty fathoms in diameter. Water is so extremely abundant, that in one of the vertical fronts a trench has been dug from the top to the bottom, through which runs a sufficient quantity to fill a well for the use of the inhabitants and neighbourhood. The road to this place winds round a rock; and the entrance is through very strong gates with draw-bridges, between which is a stone bridge, and at the foot of it a niche with an antique statue, thought by the historians who have written on Malta to be

that of Juno: the head, feet, and arms, are wanting; but what remains is beautifully executed; though it is not easy to guess why it is imagined to be Juno, since nothing appears which can possibly give an idea of that goddess, not one of whose attributes are perceptible. A female head in marble is shewn here: it is crowned with leaves resembling laurel, and is of a size proportionate to fit the above-mentioned statue; but it is mutilated in such a manner as to render it impossible to form any just idea of its original state; the projecting parts, the mouth, nose, and chin, being all flattened\*.—Broken trunks of pillars, together with chapiters, bases, and other fragments of the different orders of architecture, are scattered the whole way to the castle: and on examining a variety of ruins of the same kind in *Rabbato*, and the suburbs of the castle, it is natural to suppose the island of Goza was formerly adorned by the most sumptuous edifices. In the burying-place of the Augustin Friars at *Rabbato*, there is a monument called that of the *Ancient Bishops*. This consists of church trophies, such as mitres, crosses, stoles, &c. carved in basso relievo: they are incrusted in the wall, but are not very interesting. Between the castle and *Rabbato* is a Gothic monument with very curious attributes: the sculpture represents a woman, (Pl. X. fig. A), under whom are fetters like those worn by galley-slaves.—There is a grotto in a garden called *Biasi*, in the environs of *Rabbato*,

\* It remained a long time in the possession of a tailor at *Rabbato*; where Mr. Houel saw it, spotted all over with ink.

full of tombs hollowed out of the rock: they are at least sixty in number, very large, and six feet long: they have suffered greatly from time, but the workmanship is so moderate, that this circumstance is the less to be regretted.

The road lies through *Quaccia* or *Caccia* to a great enclosure formed by a wall of enormous stones, placed alternately lengthwise and breadthwise; the first mark the thickness of this circular wall, and the others jut out beyond it. The two sides of the doorway are formed of stones eighteen feet high, and six thick: these likewise prove the thickness of the wall; they are about four feet wide, and seven or eight feet distant from each other: these stones are so rudely cut, and so crooked, that it is impossible to take a perfectly exact measure. The diameter of the enclosure, which is entirely round, is twenty-three feet. There is the appearance of steps formed by the hand of nature in the rock on which this edifice is erected. To the east, at the distance of fifteen fathoms, are very fine remains of another building in the same style.

The ruins called the Giant's Tower (Pl. VIII.) are undoubtedly of very great antiquity; but the manner in which this edifice must have been built sufficiently proves it could not have been erected by the Greeks, who never produced any thing so irregular and colossal. It is evident that it was the work of the primitive people, whose ignorance of the arts shews itself in all their monuments, which constantly display more strength than taste. Their passion for the wonder-



ful, induced them to undertake the most dangerous enterprises. Through whatever country they passed, they sought to perpetuate the memory of their chiefs, together with the conquests they obtained. Many of these monuments have not only been spared by time, but respected by men; and the learned have constantly disputed about the epoch of their foundation, and the purposes for which they were intended. The Giant's Tower, I am of opinion, was constructed at the time when the Phœnicians took possession of Malta and Goza, but for what purpose I cannot pretend to decide. The style of masonry is very much the same as that of different ruins in Sicily, Etruria, Scotland, Lower Britany, and Denmark; though neither in shape, nor many other particulars, does it resemble any edifice I have hitherto seen. It is built with stones of eight, ten, and twelve feet long; the first layers of which are placed on the rock in the same manner as the ruins near Caccio, that is, length-wise and breadth-wise alternatively, so that every other one jutted out beyond the wall, and formed a kind of pillar, which added greatly to the solidity of the building. The stones of this first layer do not appear to be cut, nor is there any reason to believe they were fastened together by mortar, or any other kind of cement; but those of the upper layers are more regularly placed, without, however, being exactly cut, or in a very straight line. The walls are five or six feet thick; and it is most probable the masons of old had some kind of mortar or stucco, with which they filled up the crevices of these

stones, and laid them in so durable a manner as to remain for many centuries. It is likewise possible that the present irregularity of the building may be the effect of time, and not of any fault in the original construction. The form, however, of the edifice is not regular: it consists of three different rooms (Pl. VII. fig. 3); the first, a long square terminating in a half-circle, and the second also a long square: these two conjointly are twenty fathoms in length, by thirteen in breadth. The third is of a circular shape. The remains of these walls are certainly grand and imposing; but as to the form of the edifice, the experienced eye of an artist alone can distinguish, among such a heap of shapeless stones, the regular direction of the ancient foundations.

*Zebug.* In the heart of a mountain to the west, is an alabaster quarry\*. Nothing is to be seen at some fathoms below its summit, but some detached large stones stuck fast in the ground; the proprietors of the quarry, after removing the earth, dug out pieces from the alabaster rock, and had them sawed on the spot. Whilst this operation was performing they examined the colour of the veins, and contrived to cut them in such a manner as to produce a very fine effect on the surface. Tables and pillars have been made of them, and, packed up on mules, sent to different places. There are two quarries of the same kind, close to each other; and were they to

\* See Chap. VII.

dig deeper, there is no doubt but very fine pieces would be found.

A convent of Capuchin Friars was situated near this quarry; the style of the architecture of which was strikingly handsome, and the entrance remarkable for its peculiar elegance and beauty. The arcades of the cloister were ornamented with festoons of natural flowers; together with jars likewise filled with flowers, which were attended to with all possible care, and kept in the nicest order. At the distance of half a mile from the convent, on the road to Port St. Paul, is a grotto of great celebrity, situated in the centre of a valley. The entrance is towards the north, and so narrow that a man can scarcely pass through it. This passage is twenty-five feet long; and leads to a hall hollowed in the rock, thirty feet in diameter. It is supported in the middle by a pillar. At the end of this hall are two corridors, which appear to project into the country, but in reality have no aperture. This grotto has nothing particularly remarkable, nor does it deserve the reputation it has acquired.

*Port St. Paul.* There are some ancient habitations in the neighbourhood, hollowed in the rock, but they are almost entirely destroyed by the north wind and the sea acid which abounds in this part. The only object remaining worthy notice, is a closet with a table in the middle, large enough to hold eight people, and benches entirely around it.—Port St. Paul is capable of containing small vessels, as is another port in

the neighbourhood. To prevent the irruption of barbarian vessels during the night, a chain is placed at the edge of the water, and fastened to the two sides of the entrance.

*Port Miggjaro—Salt-works, called the Clock-maker's.* These salt-works are situated to the west of the mountain *Zebuccio* or *Zebug*, at the farthest part of a valley leading to the sea. The entrance is through a long range of rocks gently declining towards the shore, and within forty feet of the level of the water, when they become on a sudden entirely perpendicular. The making these salt-works was the cause of a phenomenon too remarkable to be passed over in silence.

Forty years since, a Maltese clock-maker, who owned the above-mentioned rocks, formed a plan of making salt-works by digging a reservoir, and letting in the sea-water. He flattered himself that the heat of the sun would cause the water to evaporate, leaving behind it a sufficient quantity of salt not only to indemnify him for the expence he had been at, but to enrich him considerably. The difficulty was to facilitate the entrance of the water, it being forty or fifty feet below the reservoir made in the rock. After a variety of attempts, he at last discovered that there was a grotto under the rock, which communicated with the sea; he therefore immediately pierced the rock in a perpendicular direction, and made an aperture like the mouth of a well. This plan succeeded extremely well; and he was delighted to find that the water in the reservoir diminished every day, which he attributed

to the natural effect of the sun: and he continued letting in as much water as possible, in hopes of encreasing the quantity of salt. But his surprise was beyond description on perceiving that the water was not evaporated, but absorbed by the spongy rock, from which, owing to filtration, it in time returned to the place from which it originally came. It was some time before he made this discovery; which at last was owing to his wishing to collect the salt he imagined to be contained in the reservoir, at the bottom of which the rock was entirely dissolved by the acid of the salt, and nothing remained but a thick kind of mud. The grief he suffered from this disappointment, threw him into a long and dangerous illness. On the approach of winter the weather became windy and the sea rough. One day in particular a terrible storm arose, and the violence of the wind drove the raging waves into the grotto; where the body of water encreasing considerably, and being confined in this almost circular spot, acted with a rotatory motion, and formed a syphon (Pl. VII. fig. 1.) or water-spout. There being no passage but the well newly opened, it forced its way through with violence, and appeared like a beautiful wheatsheaf of water of so large a circumference as to fill up the whole mouth of the well; and rising perfectly entire to the height of sixty feet, formed a magnificent aigrette. Its projectile force was so great, that the wind could not act upon it till it had reached the above-mentioned height; when it suddenly separated, and the aqueous particles composing this immense body of water

were diffused over the country on all sides, to the extent of more than a mile. This violent rain of salt-water destroyed all vegetation, and the cultivated fields, which before had been amply productive, appeared as if they had suffered from fire.

Before the opening of the upper part of the rock such an effect could not have been produced. The resistance of the confined air, which then had no passage, would have prevented the waters from accumulating, and the wind from being shut up; consequently, the air and the waves would have preserved a just equilibrium: but the cavity in the rock letting out the air, destroyed this equilibrium, and the water collecting in the grotto caused the above fatal event.

The inhabitants of the neighbourhood brought an action against the clock-maker, and claimed damages to a great amount; but he died before the affair was decided. To prevent another misfortune of the same nature, they stopped up the mouth of the well with large stones. This operation occasioned another phenomenon, as extraordinary as the former. A great quantity of air was confined by the waves in the bottom of the grotto; which being rarefied, repulsed the water with such violence as to cause the most terrible explosions, which not only shook the rock, but the whole of the neighbourhood. The tremendous noise of these different explosions resounded through all the grottoes, and resembled a discharge of artillery of all sizes quickly succeeding each other. These sounds being constantly echoed, had the effect of the most violent peals of

thunder, particularly when different storms met together. The terror was general; and constant apprehensions were entertained that the rocks would be thrown down, under which this subterranean thunder never ceased to roar when the wind was high. This horrible noise still continues whenever the well is filled up; but when the impetuous waves confined in the cavern have in some degree removed the stones at the bottom of the well, the water acts with the greatest violence upon them, breaking them, reducing them to powder, and driving them back into the sea. The first stones being carried away, the others fall of course; and the well once cleared, the wheatsheaf of water forms again, and spreads desolation through the adjacent parts. In the space of twenty years, the well has been filled up three times; and the inhabitants are in constant dread of a fresh explosion.

*Mushroom Rock.* A tour round Goza is particularly interesting in calm weather. On quitting Port Miggjaro, at the distance of two miles to the right, and towards the southwest, is a small port, and keeping at a little distance from the island it is impossible not to be struck by the variety of rocks and mountains which surround it. Small gulfs, caverns, and grottoes, of different forms and sizes, present themselves every moment. The next object worthy attention is the *Mushroom-shelf*. The neighbouring rocks are perpendicular, the shelf itself is of a great height and about forty or fifty fathoms from the shore. In the language of the country, it is called *Ha-*

*gira tal Gernal.* (Pl. IX.) At a small distance is another rock, not quite so high: on the top are fastened very strong ropes, the other ends of which are fixed to the shelf. A large tub similar to those in which orange-trees are planted is hung to these ropes, which are placed in pulleys at the four upper angles of the tub. This tub is large enough to hold one or two men; who by pulling a lesser rope work the pulleys, and by these means push forward the tub, which conveys them with ease backwards and forwards from the shore to the rock. The principal occupation of these men is to fetch the mushrooms, which are of a very peculiar kind.

In 1744 the rock was made inaccessible, and the grand-masters had the sole privilege of gathering this plant, named *Fungus Melitensis*—*Maltese Mushroom*\*. The entrance by means of ropes was kept shut; and a confidential person appointed to gather the mushrooms, which were preserved with the greatest care. Their medicinal qualities cause them to be much sought for, and highly esteemed. The grand-masters distributed them to the hospitals in both islands, to the knights, and to all the inhabitants who required such a medicine: they likewise sent them into other countries, and to all sick persons who requested them of them.

This plant, and the virtues it possesses have only been known during the last two centuries. Bocconi is the first author

\* See, for the botanical definition, Chap. VII.



who has taken notice of this fungus, in his treatise on the scarce plants of Malta and Sicily; in which he calls it *fungus xyphoides, coccineus, tuberosus, Melitensis*. Micheli has published a small work on the nature of this plant, printed in 1731, in which he terms it *cynomorien* \*. Linnæus has also written a dissertation on the same plant, in which he enters into a variety of particulars. This may be seen in his *Amanitates Academica* (Vol. IV. *Dissert. LXV*); where he gives it the name of *cynomorium coccineum*, and has added a plate representing the plant, taken from Micheli (Pl. XI). This fungus is bisexual, of the class *monacia monandria*. It first appears in December and January, and continues growing till April, at which time it is in perfection. It is from six to seven inches high, scaly, white mixed with other colours, of a conical form and fleshy substance, though harder than the common mushroom. It is mucilaginous, of a bitter and styptic taste, and when dried becomes of a garnet colour. If left to remain, when ripe, on the spot where it is gathered, it produces a seed, which in the month of September brings forth a large quantity of fresh mushrooms; and in this manner it reproduces twice a year, without any culture.

According to many facts related by Linnæus, it is sufficiently proved, that this plant is a very efficacious remedy in the dysentery: it is likewise excellent for drying up ulcers,

\* *Cynomorium dicitur a canini genitalis similitudine.*

strengthening the gums, curing spitting of blood, hemorrhages of the womb, and all other disorders in which styptics are necessary. It is in great repute at Malta, where it is constantly employed with much success in all the above-mentioned maladies.

The same species of mushrooms likewise grows at Tunis in Africa, Trepani in Sicily, the islands of Lampedosa, Tavigliani, and Ronciglio, in the Mediterranean; as also on the coasts of Leghorn, on those of Tuscany, in the neighbourhood of Pisa, and even in Jamaica\*: but the same experiments on the medicinal virtues of this plant have never been made in any of these countries as in Malta.

On quitting the rock of mushrooms the traveller must continue to sail round Goza, and he will pass by a variety of capes and gulfs: the Clock-maker's salt-works, and the grotto which produces the curious phenomena, we have already described; where the waves, even in calm weather, make a most terrific noise. Those who wish to explore these grottoes must possess great firmness to support the first entrance, which is so awful, that it requires some time to accustom the ears and eyes to the dreadful sounds and tremendous objects by which they are assailed.

For two miles farther the coast is formed of caverns and vertical rocks, from a hundred and thirty to a hundred and sixty

\* See Brown's History of Jamaica, page 334. He calls it *cynomorium erectum breve cylindracum prima æstate squammatum*.

feet high above the water: the same rocks are buried in the sea to a very great depth, but they are of so white a colour, and the water so transparent, that they may be easily distinguished at a considerable depth under the waves.

Numbers of the lower order of people live in the midst of the gulfs and caves, and gain a livelihood by exposing themselves to the greatest dangers. Many among them were let down the perpendicular rock by ropes, in order to search in the clefts and fissures for wood-pigeons' nests, and other kinds of birds, the flesh and plumage of which were fit for sale. These men were sometimes obliged to balance themselves in the air whilst searching for their game, which is frequently hid in the deepest part of the rock. Accidents have so frequently happened, that this kind of sport was forbidden; some Maltese casuists being of opinion that it was contrary to religion to risk life on such pursuits.—This was not the only method employed by the inhabitants of Goza to gain a subsistence; some of them took advantage of calm weather to fish round these rocks, descending from the summit by some sharp points which formed a kind of stair, though so dangerous, that it was with the greatest difficulty they could find a place to rest their feet. They thus arrived within fifteen or twenty feet of the surface of the sea, where they sometimes remained whole days, or at least till they had caught a sufficient quantity of fish; when they ascended in the same manner, at the risk of falling into the sea at every step. So fearless were these men, that very few

among them even made use of ropes, except in places where it was impossible to pass without such assistance. No one can reflect without trembling on the situation of these poor men, who must infallibly have been drowned if their feet should have happened to slip; for so smooth and so polished is the rock, that it would not afford them the smallest hold, and there is no other access to the shore within the distance of a mile.

From this place to Port St. Paul the rocks are less high, and broken in several places: they likewise continue the same as far as Port Miggiano; and on that coast of the island may be easily destroyed, in consequence of their having been considerably wasted by the force of the waves. There is an evident proof of this in a rock called *Sasso di san Paolo*; a quarter of which, of about two thirds of a fathom in thickness, is now at some distance from Port Miggiano. It has been detached from the highest part of the coast, and in falling rested on some stones of the same nature, and there remains, at the height of only seven or eight feet above the surface of the sea. This fragment constantly distils water from the lower and most pointed part, and it is very evident that the drops from this porous stone are caused by the vapours it continually absorbs; the weight of which, in their condensed state, naturally forces a passage through the bottom of the rock.

## C H A P. V.

*Description of the Maltese; their Dress; ancient Customs; Ceremonies observed at Weddings and Funerals; Diversions called La Cocagna and La Cucciha; Maltese Language; Maltese Sonnets.*

THE Maltese, though continually subject to different nations, have always preserved their original character; which sufficiently proves their descent, and, at the same time, shews that they have mixed very little with any of the people who have by turns governed their country.

Their countenances announce an African origin. They are short, strong, plump, with curled hair, flat noses, turned up lips, and the colour of their skins is the same as that of the inhabitants of the states of Barbary: their language is also so nearly the same, that they perfectly understand each other.

It is, perhaps, as much owing to the situation of Malta, as to the different strangers who have visited and conquered the island, that the Maltese have become very industrious, active, faithful, economical, courageous, and the best sailors in the Mediterranean. But, notwithstanding these good qualities, they still retain some of the defects generally attributed to the Africans; and are mercenary, passionate, jealous, vindictive, and addicted to thieving. They have likewise sometimes recalled the idea of the *Punica Fides*. They are fantastical and

superstitious in the highest degree, but their ignorance does not unfit them for the cultivation of the arts\*.

The Maltese habit (excepting that of the ecclesiastics, lawyers, and tradespeople, who dress in the French style, and are few compared to the people at large), consists of a large cotton shirt, and a waistcoat likewise very large, with silver, and sometimes gold, buttons; to these are added a *caban* and cloak reaching rather below the small of the back, and a very long girdle twisted several times round the waist, in which they constantly carry a knife in a sheath: they also wear long and full trowsers, with a sort of shoe called *korch*; but they do not often make use of the latter, having almost always both legs and feet entirely naked. This *korch* is merely a leathern sole, with strings to fasten it round the leg. They never wear hats, but blue, red, white, or striped caps. People of easy fortune usually carry fans in their hands, and wear blue or green glass spectacles; for such is the excessive heat occasioned by the reverberation of the rays of the sun from the stones, and the white tufa, that, notwithstanding this precaution, there are many blind people; indeed the greatest number have very weak eyes.

The Maltese are remarkably sober; a clove of garlic, or an onion, anchovies dipped in oil, and salt-fish, being their

\* Houel says, "I have seen artists of great merit in Malta, but whose works are never sent out of the island." Page 106.

Malta particularly prides herself for giving birth to the composer Azzupardi, the author of *Il Musico Prattico*; which is translated into the French, and used as an elementary book in the Academy of Music in Paris. Angiolin Nano is indubitably one of the best performers on the violin in Europe. See Political and Historical Remarks on Malta.

usual diet. On great festivals, they eat pork. Hogs are very common in towns and villages; many of these animals belong to the church and to different convents, and walk about the streets both night and day, where they pick up sufficient nourishment. They are seldom molested, and never stolen.

There are no people in the world more attached to their country than the Maltese; and their constant hope is to end their days in what they dignify with the title of *Fiore del Mondo* (The Flower of the World).

The Maltese women (Pl. X.) are little, and have beautiful hands and feet. They have fine black eyes, though they sometimes appear to squint, owing to their always looking out of the same eye; half of the face being covered with a sort of veil made of black silk, called *faldetta*, which they twist about very gracefully, and arrange with much elegance. The women, even of the highest rank, unlike their husbands, constantly preserve their *costume*; and any one who should adopt the French fashion would make herself very ridiculous. They are extremely fond of gold and silver ornaments, and it is not uncommon to see even the peasants loaded with trinkets of those two metals. Their dress consists of a short shift, called *kmis*; of a linen or cotton under petticoat, termed *Ideil*; of a coloured upper one, which is generally blue, open on one side, called *gkesuira*; and of a corset with sleeves, termed *sidria*. The back part of their neck-kerchief is fastened up to the head; and their hair, which is smooth, well powdered and pomatumed,

is dressed in front in the form of a sugar-loaf, much in the style of the *toupées à la Gréque*, so long worn by the men. They ornament their necks with gold and silver chains; sometimes, indeed, with necklaces of precious stones: their arms are loaded with bracelets, and their ear-rings are in general more expensive than elegant. Their shoe-buckles are extremely large, and always either of solid gold or silver.

The Maltese baronesses live very retired, and in the most exemplary manner. The morals of the women in the country retain all their original purity; and if libertinism is to be remarked any where, it is among those women who inhabit cities, and who, having no other resource but obtaining some office for their relations, are sometimes obliged to dispose of their favours in order to procure it. To complete the portrait of the inhabitants of Malta, and to give a still better idea of their character, it will be necessary to enter into some particulars relative to their ancient and modern customs and ceremonies.

The Maltese, either from a wish to imitate the Oriental manners, the severity of which they had witnessed in the Arabs, or from the example of the jealous Spaniards, formerly kept their wives in the strictest retirement. The prudent inhabitants of the country constantly repeated to their children, "that women should never appear but twice in public; the day they were married, and when they were buried." They were therefore always employed within doors, and never went out, except at a very early hour to church, when they were entirely



covered by a long and large mantle. This *costume* came originally from Sicily, and reached from the head to the feet: the forehead and eyes alone were visible; but the upper part of the mantle was cut in a different manner for unmarried women, the former wearing it round and the latter in a pointed form.

Some time afterwards, when the fair sex was allowed a proper degree of liberty, and the desire of pleasing increased with the opportunity of inspiring admiration, the women threw off this heavy garment, which not only kept them concealed, but was extremely unpleasant: they however constantly wore veils; which, they conceived, decency required to be black, and the only colour they could with propriety wear when absent from their own homes.

Marriages in Malta were always entirely arranged by the parents; who consulted their own interest, and the suitability of the connection, without attending to the inclinations of their children. The articles of the contract settled, and the portion ascertained, the young man sent his intended bride a present consisting of certain fish ornamented with garlands of ribband, and in the mouth of the finest amongst them a ring. The first interview was then fixed to take place in presence of the parents and their particular friends, who were regaled with sweetmeats and other refreshments; but just before this meeting, the two mothers of the young people retired either into an arbour in the garden or some separate apartment, where they prepared a mixture of aniseed, aromatic plants, salt, and honey, with

which they rubbed the bride's lips, with the idea of rendering her affable and prudent. She was then conducted to the room where her future husband waited her arrival; who presented her a ring on which were engraved two hands united, the emblem of *mutual faith*, together with bracelets, necklaces, and a gold chain, she giving him in her turn a handkerchief trimmed with lace and bows of ribband.

On the day appointed for the celebration of the nuptials, the most respectable personages among the husband's relations threw a white and very fine veil over the bride's head; who was extremely ornamented, and wore a velvet *simarre*, in which the other relations made certain rents for the purpose of affixing small golden shells. They then proceeded to church for the *haddara* or ceremony, attended by performers on different instruments, and singers who sang stanzas in praise of the young couple. These musicians were preceded by three men: the first bearing on his head a basin of white earth, varnished and painted in arabisque, of a yellow colour; this was filled with fresh *brioche*s (a kind of cake), on the largest of which were placed two small figures: he also wore a scarf, with a round cake called *collora* hanging from it. The second carried a basket filled with sugar-plums and candied nuts, which one of the relations distributed among the acquaintances he happened to meet: in the middle of the basket was a handkerchief folded in the form of a pyramid, and ornamented with the images of the Virgin, Saint Joseph, and the Infant Jesus. The

third was constantly employed in burning perfumes. The bride and bridegroom followed, under a canopy of crimson velvet festooned, carried by four of the principal persons who attended the wedding; and the rest of the relations closed the procession. This custom of the canopy continued in use till 1668, when it was forbidden by the bishop.

The arrival of the procession at the church was announced by the ringing of bells; and the priest was presented with a basin containing a cake, a handkerchief, and two bottles of wine, the usual fee on such occasions. The blessing given, they returned from church in the same order as they went. The whole of the ceremony generally lasted four hours. On the entry of the new married couple into the house, a servant from one of the windows threw a few handfuls of grain and some small money on their heads. There was a reigning prejudice in those days among the Maltese, which made them believe that if the wife on her return from church put her foot first on the threshold of the door, she would undoubtedly govern her husband; now with such an idea, it is not very likely the bridegroom should be polite enough to give place to his bride on this occasion.

The nuptial feast took place immediately afterwards; but the bride either ate in a separate apartment, or in a corner of the hall, which was properly prepared and covered with linen cloth to conceal her from public view. The repast over, she was seated next her husband, and drank out of the same cup.

At a village wedding, the company danced during the feast; each dancer throwing a piece of money to the fiddlers, and each guest contributing a fowl to the repast.

Till the beginning of the eighteenth century, all balls given in town on wedding-days were in the Spanish style, and every one danced with castanets in their hands.

The bride always passed the first week in her father's house; after which she was received with much pomp by her husband, whose relations gave a great feast and a ball.

The Maltese never married during the month of May; indeed, they carried their prejudice so far, that they would not even cut out a coat, thinking it impossible that any thing begun at that time could ever succeed. This superstition calls to remembrance the manner in which the Romans divided the year into fortunate and unfortunate days; and it is impossible not to perceive a great resemblance between the old Maltese customs, and those of various ancient nations.

On the death of a Maltese, two women called *Neuicha*, hired for the occasion, and habited in long mourning cloaks, immediately entered the house of the deceased, singing, in a low and dismal voice, some moral sentences. These women cut away the branches of such vines as formed arbours in the courts, ranged through all the apartments, overturned the flower-pots in the windows, broke some of the ornamental furniture, and carrying the remains to a retired spot, threw them into a cauldron of boiling water, in which they mixed soot and

ashes. With this liquid they stained all the doors in the house, sighing most bitterly whilst performing the operation. The *neuicha* then proceeded to the chamber of the deceased, already in his coffin, and surrounded by his female relations wearing veils over their faces, and black silk cloaks; the room, otherwise entirely unfurnished, was hung with black cloth. The *neuicha*, throwing themselves on their knees at the foot of the coffin, began singing the praises of the dead; and at the end of each couplet the other women beat their breasts, wept bitterly, and cut off handfuls of their hair, which they strewed over the coffin. The same day, cakes and boiled wheat were distributed among all the relations, and the hair was cut off the tails of every horse in the stables belonging to the house of the deceased.

The funeral procession was always composed of the relations in mourning, preceded by hautboys, trumpets, and the *neuicha*. When the corpse was interred, a pillow filled with orange and laurel leaves (the latter tree was regarded by the Pagans as expiatory) was placed under the head; and a carpet spread over the tomb, which was suffered to remain some days, to shew that during that time it was forbidden to walk over it.

No fire was lighted for three days in the kitchen of the deceased, and either the most distant relation or most intimate friend sent a dinner to the inhabitants of the house; which they ate cross-legged on a mat on the floor. Women on these occasions remained forty days confined to the house, but men

went out on the seventh day.—The mourning lasted either one or two years, according to the degree of relationship.

The infectious distemper which destroyed such numbers in Malta in 1676, put a stop to the ceremonies we have just described, and they have never since been renewed.

When a nation no longer keeps up its ancient customs, the character of the people frequently undergoes alteration, and this is a sign that the society of foreigners has had a great influence over their natural disposition. If these foreigners obtain sovereign power over the natives, it is a proof likewise that the latter are satisfied with the government under which they live. The Maltese, when subjected to the Goths and Vandals, had not only lost the commerce which before enriched their island, but, at the same time, that social character which is generally attendant on the spirit of trade. Finding themselves a prey to the iniquity and avarice of their governors, they became more attached than ever to their ancient customs, the practice of which at least afforded the consolation of separating them in some degree from their oppressors.

The disinclination felt by the Maltese to associate with the different powers which successively reigned over their island, ceased on the introduction of the order of St. John of Jerusalem. Fortunately a most important event soon gave the sovereign and his subjects an opportunity of forming a judgment of each other. This was the absolute necessity of uniting their forces to repulse the common enemy. The valour and

generous example given by the knights, presently excited the admiration of the natives; who, in their turn, displayed such activity and fidelity, as gave them a just claim to the esteem of the former. The renewal of commerce which afterwards took place; together with the encouragement given to agriculture; the benefits properly dispensed; the riches of the order, which circulated throughout the island by the purchase of different articles of consumption; the pay of the troops, joined to salaries annexed to employments, which were multiplied beyond imagination; softened the Maltese by degrees. Their dispositions had been soured by misfortunes; but they at last became so satisfied with their situation, that they gave up their ancient customs, in order to connect themselves more closely with their governors, of whom they never had the smallest reason to complain.

The marriage ceremony is now performed in the same manner as in other parts of christendom; with this only difference; that the bride's first visit to her parents is celebrated by a festival called *Hargia*, which consists merely in a grand *conversazione* in the Italian style, at which refreshments of every kind are distributed to the company.

The ancient ceremonies practised at funerals, are likewise abolished: the *neuicha* no longer make part of the procession; being represented by two women in black cloaks, who carry chafing dishes on their heads, filled with perfumes.

The only custom peculiar to Malta still subsisting, and

which indeed is retained among none but people of fortune, is the *cucciha*, that is to say, an assembly given by parents on their children's first birth-day. The company being met in the great hall, which is always much more ornamented than any other part of the house, the child is brought in; and if it be a boy, he is presented with two baskets, the one containing corn and sweetmeats, and the other trinkets, coins, an ink-stand, a sword, &c. The choice he makes on this occasion, will, according to their notions, give a just idea of his future disposition, and the mode of life he will embrace. Should he chuse the corn, it is a sign of a liberal character; if he prefers the ink-stand, he is to be brought up either to trade or the bar; and if he takes the sword, the greatest hopes are entertained of his courage. Achilles thus, by a choice of the same nature, discovered to the court of Lycomedes, that his female habiliments served only to conceal a hero. If the child be a girl, needles, silks, and ribbands, supply the place of the sword and ink-stand.

An entertainment was formerly given on Shrove-Tuesday, by the grand-master to the people, in the great square of the city Valetta. Long beams were fixed against the guard-house opposite to the palace, and between each were fastened ropeladders, the whole covered over by branches of trees in leaf: to which were tied, from top to bottom, live animals, baskets of eggs, hams, sausages, wreaths of oranges; in short, all kinds of provisions. This edifice was called *Cocagna*, and was



crowned by a globe composed of linen cloth, on which stood the figure of Fame *in rilievo*, holding a flag with the grand-master's arms. The people were assembled in the great square, and were prevented by one man, with a wand in his hand, from attacking the *Cocagna*, till the grand-master gave the signal. The man with the wand is entitled the *Gran Visconti*, and the administration of the police is committed to his care. The Maltese people were so obedient, and stood in such complete awe of this officer of justice, that one day, on a false signal being given, they had already begun to attack the *Cocagna*, but on being called back, the crowd, though half way up the ladders, immediately descended in silence.

The Maltese never allowed either foreigners or soldiers to share the profits of this festival, but resented very seriously any attempt at participation. The provisions of the *Cocagna* became the property of those who, having seized them, were able to carry them off in safety through the crowd. This caused furious battles, the combatants assailing each other, attacking and defending with great violence. To the first who reached the figure of Fame was allotted some pecuniary remuneration, and on the standard's being taken to be returned to the grand-master, the cloth globe, composed of two parts, burst open, and out came a flight of pigeons.

Happily the repeated shouts of the populace prevented the cries of the miserable animals hung to the *Cocagna* being heard, though these victims were pulled to pieces from the

branches and eat up, whilst still alive. The people were particularly delighted with this entertainment, which had been suppressed for some time, but was re-established once more during the reign of the grand-master Rohan.

All young women residing in the country insisted, before they were married, on its being particularly stipulated in the contract, that their husbands should take them every year to the city La Valetta on St. John's day, to the Old City on St. Peter's, and to the casal Zeitun on St. Gregory's. This plainly shewed they had no great idea of the complaisance of their intended bridegrooms; and as they were very anxious to exhibit their persons, and at the same time possessed no inconsiderable share of curiosity, they had recourse to this method, to prevent the possibility of a refusal.

The grand festival on St. John's day brought a great concourse of people to the city Valetta. The church of the order was entirely filled: all the troops were under arms, and lined the streets during the general procession, at which the grand-master, the council, and the whole body of knights, constantly assisted. The cannon of the different forts, which had saluted with ball the evening before, discharged several volleys during the ceremony. Four races were run in the afternoon, and the prizes consisted of some *cannes* of gold and silver stuffs. The Castellany and Jurats were seated on this occasion in a gallery at the end of the course, which extended from fort St. Elmo to the Royal-gate, in order to witness who first attained the

goal; and it was customary for such jurats who went in carriages, to stop a moment as they passed under the grand-master's balcony.

The first race was performed by men on foot. The second by asses, of a very fine breed, called *janets* in Malta; the third by mares; and the fourth by horses: none of these animals had either saddles or bridles, and were mounted bare-backed by children of twelve or fifteen years of age, who kept lashing them on with thonged whips. At night a general illumination took place in the city.

St. Peter's day, or the *Mnaria*, was the festival of the metropolitan church of the island. The Old City was twice illuminated on the occasion, and the same races took place as on St. John's day. The crowd met on this holiday at the *Boschetto*, where indeed a great many people were assembled the evening before, and danced all night in a part of the garden where there was a very spacious grotto. This commencement of the feast was called *Sackaya*; and the women from the country always appeared at it in their richest attire. In whatever season they happened to be married, they always came in their wedding clothes, by which means the greatest variety was displayed: velvet dresses, slight silks, cloth jackets, and linen petticoats, were indiscriminately worn. Each family was seated under a tree, and partook of a meal, the principal dish of which was a pie. The lively sound of the fiddles invited every one to dance, so that the whole surrounding scene pre-

sented nothing but joy and pleasure: but to those whose ears were unaccustomed to the Maltese manner of expressing delight, it must have been extremely fatiguing; for these people continually shouted in the sharpest tones, and he who screamed the loudest, was esteemed the happiest of the party. This noise was termed *tikber*, from the word *kabbar*, signifying *shouts of joy*. On returning from this *fête champêtre*—which, from the excessive heat of the place between two burning rocks, no foreigner could possibly enjoy—the Maltese ornamented their calashes and horses with boughs of trees; and this they did in memory of a custom subsisting among the inhabitants of the island during their state of paganism, who, at the feast of Hercules, carried branches of poplars in their hands; this tree being particularly consecrated to that deity.

The feast of St. Gregory was celebrated by a procession composed of all the societies, the clergy belonging to the parishes of both towns and casals, the canons of the cathedral, and the bishop. This commenced at casal Nuovo, and proceeded to casal Zeitun. It owed its origin to a general vow made at some unknown period, the motive of which was most probably the averting of some great plague, for the word *miseri-corde* was thrice repeated by the whole people on going out of church. The procession took place in the morning, and the remainder of the day was passed in rejoicings.

These festivals, in which it appears devotion had some share, were not the only ones in Malta. The inhabitants like-

wise celebrated the Ascension (which they called *Lapsis*), and St. Laurence's day, by parties on the water. The port was entirely covered by boats, with flags and streamers flying; these were filled with musicians and singers, and afforded a most lively *spectacle*, which lasted till very late at night.

It was also customary on the first of May to deck the grand-master's balcony, and the doors of those who were dignified with the grand cross, with branches of trees; and it appears that this sign of a holiday, which was introduced in Malta by the families from the island of Rhodes, was a remnant of the worship of the sun, formerly adored by the Rhodians.

On the same day the mast of a ship, ninety-six feet high, was erected in the square before the palace, and different kinds of provisions hung to a hoop fixed on the top of it. This was rubbed with tallow from the bottom to about a third of its height; and on a signal from the grand-master, who was seated with the bailiffs in his balcony, the people flew with velocity to the mast, where they formed themselves into different parties, the nimblest amongst them climbing on their comrades' shoulders, who defended them from the others, and he who first reached the flag which waved on the pinnacle, received some money, and carried off the provisions. The art of mounting to the top, consisted in twisting successively linen or cotton girdles round the mast, and the whole of the slippery part; so that whilst the foot rested on the girdle first knotted

together, the hands were employed in fixing a second and a third, on which, being suspended by the hands, it was necessary to untie the first with the feet, in order to place it a second time on the fourth step of this kind of ladder. The greasy part of the mast being once surmounted, agility succeeded to art, and the adventurer, who had already overcome the greatest difficulty, was encouraged to proceed by repeated acclamations of joy; he therefore soon arrived at the flag with the grand-master's arms, from whence he saluted that prince three times, and then proceeded to the top of the mast, which he encircled with his arms and legs. Having once reached the pinnacle, he rested on a little seat made of ropes, and untying the provisions, threw some of them into the square among the people, whose eagerness to seize on them, always caused the most violent disputes. This operation performed, he slid easily down by a rope fastened to the top of the mast, from whence it hung to the ground.

The Carnival was a great source of amusement to the Maltese. The public masked balls began on Twelfth-day, but no one was permitted to appear with a mask in the streets (in the Italian style), except on the last three days of the Carnival; on the last Saturday of which it was the custom for a great number of peasants to go at an early hour under the grand-master's balcony, to wait till he granted them *il Carnavale*. A knight of the grand-cross made known their request, and the moment it was complied with, the companies of *Battilo* ranged

through the city. These were Maltese dressed in white, covered with ribbands, and armed with swords and small shields. These men, to the sound of a sort of strolling music, performed mock fights, which they finished by lifting up a child, who was placed on their arms twisted together, and who held a flag in his hand, which he furled and unfurled in a tolerably graceful manner.

During the last three days of the Carnival, a large stone was suspended to the beam at the corner of the Castellany, where the punishment of the strappado was usually inflicted: this was to shew, that on those days the sword of *Themis* rested quietly in its scabbard; in the same manner as the Romans never punished any criminals during the Saturnalia.

On the Sunday, Monday, and Tuesday, calashes filled with masks were continually driving through the squares of the palace and the conservatory, and the chains which at other times prevented the entrance of carriages, were let down at a very early hour. The masks finished the jollity of the evening at the ball given at the theatre, where the knights had the privilege of dancing unmasked.

Whenever the order celebrated any extraordinary event, the grand-master granted *il Carnavale* to the people, and this was called *Carnavala Babano*.

The tongue spoken in Malta and Goza is rather a kind of *patois*, or country dialect, than a real language. A slight resemblance between this *patois* and some Punic words, in-

duced the Abbé A\*\*\*\* to endeavour to persuade his readers, that the principles of the latter ancient tongue, the alphabet of which no longer exists, were to be found in the Maltese language, which has itself no alphabet; but his arguments were inconclusive, and founded upon too weak a basis to be supported merely by the force of imagination, when no proofs could possibly be brought forward in favour of his assertions. Other authors of the same nation, who were either better informed, or who ventured to speak their sentiments more boldly, have endeavoured to establish the same opinion, and that by giving reasons apparently much more plausible. One in particular has promised the public a work on this subject, which cannot fail being extremely interesting. But though I agree with him that the study of the Maltese language as it is spoken at present may be very useful to gain a more perfect knowledge of the Phœnician tongue, I cannot believe it would afford any essential aid in decyphering the Phœnician inscriptions on the different monuments and medals.

The original language spoken by the inhabitants of Malta, must necessarily have been lost, by the frequent revolutions which have taken place in that island, and by its subjection to so many different nations.

The Greeks having driven away the Phœnicians, abolished their language; and if the Carthaginians introduced it a second time, the Romans were too anxious to efface even the most distant remembrance of Carthage, ever to permit the



Phœnician idiom to be used in a country they had so lately conquered. The preference indeed they so decidedly gave to the Greek tongue, is a sufficient proof that this was the case. The Goths and Vandals next introduced a new language, and almost entirely eradicated every vestige of the ancient tongue; so that the Greeks of the lower empire, who succeeded them, were regarded by the Maltese as absolute foreigners. The Arabs at last took possession of the island, and the inhabitants adopted, and have ever since retained, the language of their conquerors, to whom they quietly submitted, and with whom they had every reason to be satisfied. They, however, still preserved some Greek expressions; and though afterwards subject to various powers, they only borrowed a few words from their different languages. This mixture vitiated in some degree the Arabic pronunciation; and the Maltese at that time having no commerce, nor any inducement to cultivate the sciences, soon lost the habit of writing, and likewise forgot the Arabic alphabet, which, there is great reason to believe, had before been in use.

Those who now write the Maltese *patois*, are obliged to make use of foreign characters; and every one, being at liberty to spell as he pleases, endeavours to express as nearly as possible the exact pronunciation of the word he employs. This inconvenience is but little felt, because the Maltese language is confined to the island, where the distances are too short to make it necessary to conduct business by the pen. It would,

however, be very useful to facilitate this, by composing a fixed alphabet.

During my residence in Malta, I employed myself in compiling a Maltese grammar; to which I added several dialogues, songs, and tales. I have been taught to believe, that it may probably be restored to me; but as that is uncertain, I think it necessary to say, I composed it merely for amusement, and if ever it should prove useful, it must be to those who making a long residence at Malta, would naturally be desirous of learning the language, in order to make themselves more intimately acquainted with the inhabitants. The Bailli de Neveu was become so conversant with this language, that if any Maltese spoke to him, he immediately knew the casal he inhabited; for though these villages were very near each other, there was a slight difference in the pronunciation between them all, and this was likewise the case in Goza.

Mr. Court de Gebelin, in his Treatise on the Mechanism of Languages, judges in the following manner of the Maltese tongue: "This language cannot be defined, because it is a composition of all, the Arabian, German, Greek, &c." It is, however, necessary to observe, that the greatest part of the words are either Arabic or Moorish, and in consequence the Maltese and the inhabitants of Barbary very easily understand each other.

Corrupted as is the Maltese *patois*, it is notwithstanding extremely pleasing, and, like all other Eastern languages, full of

metaphors, proverbs, and animated expressions. These render it peculiarly fit for poetry, the taste for which the Maltese first imbibed from the Greeks, and afterwards from the Arabs, whose style of Eastern poetry, together with the moral which formed its principal ornament, they more particularly adopted. They sang their own compositions, accompanying themselves on a kind of instrument, resembling a violin or lyre.

The following is a translation of three ancient Maltese sonnets: each consists of four lines, the second always rhyming with the last.

1.

He who too far indulges hope,  
Will find how soon hope fails;  
He 's like a seaman bottling wind,  
In hopes to fill his sails\*.

2.

THOU who by sad experience know'st  
How sure Love's arrows fly,  
Say, what 's the smart? for well I ween,  
What thou hast felt, feel I.

3.

AH! trouble not this fountain's source,  
Which late thy thirst appeased;—  
That thirst with which the passing hour  
Again may see thee seiz'd.

The Maltese had also a great number of adages and proverbs in verse, which they introduced into conversation; but the knowledge they have since acquired of Italian poetry

\* The same measure and kind of rhymes have been adopted in the translation as in the original.

from that language being almost in constant use, has made them entirely neglect and forget the taste which formerly reigned in their national poetry; and the Maltese compositions at present are only bad imitations of the Italian, without either originality of style, or liveliness of expression. These are regarded as the *chef d'œuvres* of some *improvisatrices*, who gain a scanty livelihood by their talents, which they employ on particular festivals in singing verses, for which they are paid, but which fortunately no one thinks it worth while to remember.

*Originals of the three Songs translated from the Maltese into English.*

*Tliet ξαγγελiet bil Malti*

I

Min ξitma fit-tama  
It-tama tšarraġ biez,  
Ja gmel in-riez fil bomblu  
Ja ħsep l'isiefer biez,

II

Sma it'jinti tarbit l'imzabba:  
Ξeidlt fl'imzabba u i zralek?  
Eja tħaddet gommok migei,  
Ξa u nazseb liena ħrali pħalek.

III

Ξadira li tiurop minnħa,  
Nitolbok lad-dardarħie u,  
Ξa u imur zmjen. u izi jeħor,  
Tfitli u ħa, mas-sibħie u.

## CHAP. VI.

*Fertility of the Soil in Malta; Manner and Time of cultivating it. Growth of Cotton; Orange-trees. Bees; remarkable Animals; Dogs—Asses—Sheep; surprising Fruitfulness of the latter. Manner of shooting different Birds of Passage and Falcons. Population; Wonderful Encrease of the Inhabitants; Commerce; Provision of Corn; Custom-houses; Speronares; adventurous Speculations of the Maltese Merchants.*

THE ground in Malta is never suffered to remain uncultivated, but constantly sown every year. Each season yields its peculiar crop, and the produce is very abundant. The corn in land of a middling quality yields from sixteen to twenty for one: whilst that on good land affords thirty-eight, and on rich spots sixty-four. The island of Sicily is by no means equally fertile.

The colour of the soil varies in the different districts of Malta, and it is seldom more than one foot deep above the surface of the rock: it is irrigated chiefly by the night dew; but the rock, being porous, retains the damp, and keeps the ground constantly fresh. The earth is always removed once in ten years, in order to clear the rock of a thick crust, which forms, and prevents the moisture from sufficiently penetrating.

When the ground is properly prepared, it produces, the first year, water-melons and garden plants; the next, an ex-

cellent fruit, which is preserved during the winter, and distinguished by the name of Maltese melons; and afterwards barley, the straw of which furnishes fodder for the cattle. The ground is ploughed the third year, and planted with cotton; and the fourth sown with corn. The land afterwards yields these different crops alternately; but care is always taken to prepare the ground, particularly the year the cotton-tree is to come into bearing, when it is necessary to reduce the earth into a kind of powder.

Three species of cotton are cultivated in Malta; one natural to the country, another from Siam, and the third of a cinnamon colour called Antilles cotton\*. These are all sown in the month of April, and the top of the plant is cut in the beginning of September, that the fruit may grow larger. It is gathered in October, when it begins to open, which is a sign that it is then sufficiently ripe. It is sown in the following manner: A hole some inches deep is made in the ground, which is afterwards filled with water, and when it is sufficiently soaked, the seed is put into it and covered over, without being watered again till it begins to shoot out of the ground. The plant presently grows to the height of ten to fifteen inches, and blooms in the month of August.

\* There are two other sorts of cotton cultivated in America, the one growing upon a kind of shrub, and the other on a large tree full of thorns. These species are mentioned by Bernadin de St. Pierre, but are not known in Malta. The cotton-tree in India is handsome, and grows to a great height: it shoots afresh during five years before there is a necessity of replanting it. That which grows in the Antilles must be planted every two years, and is not so tall as the former, but it produces very fine cotton of a beautiful yellow.

Wheat is sown in November, after the ground has been ploughed thrée times, and cut in the beginning of June: barley likewise is sown in the former month, and reaped in May. There is a kind of corn in Malta called *tommon*, which grows in poor land, and the bread made of the flour is particularly white. This grain is sown in February.

Each field is enclosed with walls to shelter the different plants from the effects of the wind, rain, and storms, during the spring and autumn.

Necessity, the parent of industry, has taught the Maltese to make a sort of artificial land in the barren parts of the island. They begin by levelling the rock, which, however, they allow to incline a little, that all superabundant water may run off. They then heap together some stones broken into small pieces of an irregular form, which they place about a foot high, and cover with a bed of the same stones nearly reduced to powder. On this, they first place a bed of earth, brought either from other parts of the island, or taken out of the cliffs of the rocks; then a bed of dung; and afterwards a second bed of earth: such, indeed, is the perseverance of the proprietors of this ground, that it becomes in time equally fertile with natural land.

Malta and Goza produce fruits of exquisite flavour, excellent roots, and very fine flowers; the roses in particular are much sweeter scented than in any other country. These islands likewise yield great quantities of *comino*, *aniseed*, *kalimagnum*,

*loricella*, *silla*, and *lichen*; this last plant grows on the rocks exposed to the north, and is used for dyeing the amaranthus colour. *Silla* is peculiar to Malta and Goza, and is of a better quality in the last-mentioned island. This plant grows to the height of five feet, and bears a red flower. Tournefort calls it *hedysarum clypeatum flore suaviter rubente*. It serves for fodder, is sown in June, and mowed in May. The same ground is afterwards sown with corn, and the following year the *silla* comes up again of itself: it likewise shoots out the third year, but has then lost all strength and quality.

The gardens in Malta are generally ornamented with groves of orange and lemon trees; but these are not permitted to grow to any great height on account of the wind, which would blow off the fruit, and break the branches. The greatest attention is paid to the orange-trees, which are commonly watered twice a-day. Their tops are trimmed into a round form resembling an umbrella; and they grow on one single straight stem, as do likewise the lemon-trees, the branches of which are sometimes suffered to extend till they form a kind of bower. These trees are almost all raised in tubs, and placed in the most sheltered spots. Kitchen gardens are greatly encreased in Malta, and employ numbers of people: they produce vegetables of the finest quality. Water is constantly kept for their use in cisterns hewn out of the rock, and trenches are dug round them to collect the rain.

A great many bees are kept in some parts of the island;



the hives are horizontal in the eastern style, and are much more easy of access than those of another form. The Maltese honey is very sweet, and has a most delicious flavour; it is reckoned an excellent digestive, and the ancients compared it to the honey of Hybla. Cicero likewise mentions it as being superior to that of any other country\*.

There was formerly a breed of dogs (Pl. X. fig. B) in Malta with long silky hair, which were in great request in the time of the Romans; but have for some years past greatly dwindled, and indeed are become almost extinct. Buffon calls these dogs *bichons*, and describes them as mongrels between the small Spanish dog and the little *barbet*. Linnæus gives them the name of *Canis familiaris Maelitacus*; and says, that to prevent their growing too large, their spinal bone must be rubbed with spirits of wine mixed with oil, giving them at the same time very little to eat. These dogs were greatly admired by both Greeks and Romans. Aristotle mentions them as being most perfectly proportioned, notwithstanding their very small size; and Timon describes the Sybarites as going to the bath attended by little Maltese dogs.

The asses in Malta are likewise famous for strength and beauty; they sell extremely dear, and are called *janets*.

The ewes are incredibly fruitful, sometimes yeaving four at a time; indeed, this animal generally drops lambs three times a-year†.

\* In Verrem.

† See Houel.

Flights of birds of passage come to Malta and afford much amusement to sportsmen, who shoot them with great perseverance. The Maltese are remarkable for imitating the notes of different birds, and catch them with surprising skill. They have also a very long sight, and perceive falcons and others of the feathered race at a wonderful height in the air. They are excellent shots, and seldom miss those birds which they do not take in nets.

Beccaficos, quails, and plovers, are most delicate juicy food. These birds of passage are in much greater quantities some years than others; and the quails almost constantly arrive during the September equinox.

Fish is very abundant on the Maltese coast, and being both common and cheap, is a great resource to the inhabitants. The markets are filled with the finest fish from the Mediterranean; the oysters indeed are not good, their place is however plentifully supplied by a variety of other excellent shellfish. But notwithstanding all that has been said, and the extreme fertility of some parts of the island, Malta is still very far from being able to furnish its inhabitants with the necessaries of life without foreign assistance. This is principally owing to the increase of population, which is augmented to a degree scarcely ever before known in history, and which is a stronger proof of the goodness of the government than any arguments ever advanced to the contrary.

The Maltese were not men who inhabited a fruitful

land, promising a plentiful harvest for the support of their numerous families, together with a superabundance of provisions enabling them to live with ease and comfort; but a people living on a naturally barren soil, which scarcely afforded them bread for three months in the year; and yet this people, as has been already observed, encreased and multiplied in a proportion unknown in all other countries. Malta in 1530 did not contain quite fifteen thousand inhabitants, and these were reduced to ten thousand at the raising of the siege in the grand-mastership of La Valette; during that of Omedes, Goza was entirely depopulated; and the plague in 1592 made terrible ravages on the island; notwithstanding which, by the census taken in 1632 the population of the two islands amounted to fifty-one thousand seven hundred and fifty. Since that time, the Maltese have been almost constantly at war; and great numbers were again destroyed by an infectious distemper in 1676; yet such was the encrease of population, that in 1798 Malta contained ninety thousand, and Goza twenty-four thousand, inhabitants\*.

\* The population of Europe is in the following proportion. On an equal space of ground on which there exists only one man in Iceland, there are

in Norway . . . . .	3
in Sweden . . . . .	14
in Turkey . . . . .	36
in Poland . . . . .	52
in Spain . . . . .	63
in Ireland . . . . .	99
in Switzerland . . . . .	114
in Great Britain . . . . .	119

Where is the country, may I venture to ask, which can boast of such an encrease, and such a continual state of prosperity? But the Maltese, who are naturally sober, require but little nourishment; besides, they were so perfectly contented with the mildness of a government which never taxed either the labour of their hands, or any other effort of industry, that they became too much attached to their country ever to leave it, well knowing that, in almost every other, both farmer and artificer were equally subject to burthensome taxes.

A sovereign who expends his revenue in his dominions, must necessarily greatly encrease the circulation of money, of which all his subjects must in some degree partake. This advantage, joined to the numerous institutions ever open to reward talents and industry, and at the same time to relieve the poor and unfortunate, so that idleness and poverty might be said to be unknown in Malta, rendered the inhabitants of that island but too happy under the government of the order; the opulence of which, alas! one moment served to destroy, together with the prosperity of the unfortunate Maltese!

When the productions of a country are insufficient for the

in Germany . . . . .	127
in England alone . . . . .	152
in France . . . . .	153
in Italy . . . . .	172
in the kingdom of Naples . . . . .	192
in the Republic of Venice . . . . .	196
in Holland . . . . .	224
in Malta . . . . .	1103

support of its inhabitants, trade must naturally present itself to view, as the means of procuring the necessaries of life ; but it may very easily be proved that Malta was become too populous to be supported by its commerce, unassisted by the riches and generosity of the order.

The principal trade of the island consisted in cotton, the growth of the country, and which was of a much superior quality to that brought from the Levant. It was exported either in bales, worked up into cloths and coarse stuffs, or in its spun state. The greatest part was sent into Spain for the manufactures in Catalonia.

The payments were made in piastres (pieces of eight), which the merchants sent to France, and there doubled their gains, by means of the profit they made in Malta on the different merchandises they brought from Marseilles.

By a very accurate extract from the books of the custom-house of the grand-master, exhibiting the exact quantity of cotton spun in Malta from the year 1788 to 1798, it appears that there was usually exported every year to the value of 2,750,000 French livres. This, with the export of their manufactured goods, joined to their home consumption, made the produce of the cotton in Malta and Goza amount to more than 3,000,000 French livres. (125,000*l.* sterling).

The other articles of commerce were but trifling, and consisted principally in ashes of *kalimagnum*, which the Maltese sent to Venice ; *lichen*, which they sold in Sicily ; oranges, sent

to all parts of the world ; orange-flower-water, put into copper bottles tinned, and called *stagnone* ; lemons ; preserved apricots, distinguished by the name of *Alexandrini* ; excellent pomegranates ; honey, which always remains in a liquid state : seeds of different kinds ; such as cabbage, brocoli, melon, cumin, and aniseed : kali of an excellent quality ; and Maltese stone, which was a great article of commerce in Sicily, the Levant, and particularly at Smyrna. They likewise exported some pieces of fillagree, a sort of work in which the Maltese greatly excelled ; also clocks, and boilers, which were as good and as lightly made as those from the Levant.

If the profit arising from the sale of so many different articles appears very great, it must be considered, on the other hand, that the Maltese were under the necessity of importing corn, cloth, wood, wine, oil, brandy, &c. The natural productions of the island were, indeed, but very trifling in comparison with what they were forced to buy from other countries ; and their profit from the above-mentioned articles would have been even insufficient to purchase grain for home consumption.

It is a certain fact, that the corn grown in Malta would not furnish more than one third of the inhabitants with bread ; we will therefore suppose that the islands of Malta and Goza contained a hundred thousand persons, and in that case it plainly appears that sixty-six thousand would have been absolutely destitute of food, had it not been for the corn imported from Sicily and other places.

The university in Malta was exclusively charged with the purchase of both wheat and barley for home consumption; and it appears, from an exact calculation of the grain imported during the last ten years, viz. from 1788 to 1798, that the said consumption amounted annually to 43,239 salmes of wheat, and 13,026 of barley\*. But as two salmes of barley furnish not quite equal sustenance to one of wheat, and the barley was in part for the use of different animals, one portion of wheat was estimated equal to three of barley; that is to say, 4342 salmes of wheat were calculated to afford more bread than the whole 13,026 salmes of barley imported every year; consequently, supposing the whole importation to have been in wheat, the quantity which the university was obliged to furnish annually, would amount to 47,381 salmes. There must likewise be added to the above quantity, about 9000 salmes of grain purchased from abroad with money taken out of the treasury, which served for the subsistence of the members of the order, for all its dependants, and for the considerable alms bestowed on the poor; so that the annual importation by the university and the treasury for food for the inhabitants, may be estimated at 56,581 salmes of wheat. A salme of wheat was sold in 1798 for 70 French livres 8 sols; consequently 56,581 salmes (the quantity wanted) would cost

\* A salme is equal to 430 French pounds, avoir-du-pois weight. It has been already proved, that this quantity of grain will support a man in the prime of life, or a woman and a young child, for a whole twelvemonth.

3,983,302 French livres 8 sols ; which infinitely exceeded not only the annual product of the cotton in Malta and Goza, but all the other articles which composed the whole trade of the two islands.

To prevent the possibility of a scarcity of wheat, the order had large storehouses, not only in Malta, but at Augusta, Palermo, Girgenti, and particularly at Marseilles : added to which, was a building of not less importance at Risposta in Sicily, for preserving ice, or rather snow ; and which cost 40,000 Maltese crowns.

The different articles exported from Malta being then insufficient, even for the purchase of grain, what could possibly make up this deficiency, and occasion such great abundance throughout the island ? Nothing but the great sums expended annually by the order, which might be estimated at four millions of French livres. The expences of the treasury likewise amounted to three millions, to which might be fairly added one million spent by the knights of different languages residing in the convent. It therefore results, even from the confession of the person placed by the French at the head of the provisional government of Malta, “ that if the island of Malta ceased to be in the possession of the order, a great part of the inhabitants would be reduced to absolute beggary ; for it is a certain fact, that, into whatsoever hands the island might happen to fall, it would be impossible for any power to circulate money in the same manner as the knights ; consequently



the greater number of the Maltese would be in extreme distress."

Among the different objects which augmented the revenue of Malta, the prizes taken by privateers may very well be reckoned, and the booty they brought in procured them a variety of articles of trade: advantages they could not possibly have enjoyed under any other government.

The great number of foreign ships almost constantly in the Maltese ports, gave the inhabitants an opportunity of selling their provisions; but the exchange was seldom in their favour. If, therefore, the export of the productions of the island was profitable in one point of view, it became disadvantageous in another, since they lost in the value of money, what they could not dispose of in provisions.

The sovereign, in order to favour commerce as much as possible, took off all duties upon eatables; and the Maltese only paid three and a half per cent, export and import duties, whilst foreigners paid six and a third. The duty on a simple transit was only one per cent.

Many private individuals loaded vessels with snow for their own use, and the only duty received was by the hospital, which, in case of a scarcity of that article, had a right to keep it, even in preference to the proprietor himself.

The customs brought in about ninety or ninety-five thousand Maltese crowns to the grand-master; and the duty on wine, which he divided with the university, amounted one

year with another to fifty-three thousand. Nor was Malta without its offices of insurance: companies of speculators insured at reasonable rates, not only the property, but the lives, nay even the liberty, of the subject; and of course the cargoes of vessels, both inward and outward bound. The profits, whether in specie or commodities, were divided with the most scrupulous exactness; and men who could not write, and were entirely unacquainted with the rules of arithmetic, made the calculations of their respective shares as accurately as the ablest accountants.

The laws fixed the interest of money at a half per cent per month, which amounted to six per cent per year; notwithstanding which, the university generally obtained their loan at three per cent.

The Maltese ships, feluccas, boats, and *speronaras*, always hoisted either the colours of the order, or those of the grand-master; and the greatest part were employed for the transport of corn and other provisions from Sicily. The boldness of these islanders was beyond all description; and in their *speronaras*, a kind of shallop without deck, from twenty-four to thirty feet long, the crew consisting of only a *patron* and six rowers, they were to be seen in every part of the Mediterranean, venturing even through the Straits of Gibraltar, and landing at Cadiz. Smuggling being their principal occupation, they were obliged to sheer off the coast the moment they had taken in their lading: this frequently consisted of large live cattle, which the rowers lashed fast to the

benches, to prevent their being washed overboard ; and though constantly exposed to the dangers of a storm, they seldom experienced any serious misfortune.

The Maltese were equally able as speculators : many left the island possessed of considerable sums, and went to Genoa, where people of great fortune entrusted them with double the money they brought from Malta. With this they proceeded to Italy, where they bought quantities of merchandise, particularly silk for clothes, which they carried to Spain, Malaga, Alicante, Carthagena, and Cadiz ; and there sold, and purchased merchandise of another kind ; which they took to the Canaries, the Havannah, and even sometimes to Mexico and Peru. It is but lately that some Maltese merchants extended their voyage so far as Philadelphia, where they sold their European goods, and brought back the productions of America, which they disposed of to good account, and returned with considerable fortunes.

All causes relative to commerce were brought before the consular tribunal, instituted in 1697, in the city Valetta. The grand-master Perellos examined with the greatest accuracy all the rules and laws in use in the most celebrated commercial countries, and all affairs of that nature were determined from the result of his enquiries. The grand-master Rohan employed himself particularly in the jurisdiction of the consuls for trade, and by that means simplified and shortened the business.

The Maltese ships of war not only protected the commerce of their island, but that of all other christian states. The moment it was discovered from Malta, that one or more barbarian ships were cruising, the order immediately dispatched a force in pursuit. The infidels usually took the alarm, and after one or two attempts at resistance, retreated with precipitation.

So great was the terror inspired throughout the Levant by the forces of the order, that the French merchant ships reaped advantages beyond all calculation. The fear of being taken either by the Maltese privateers, or the ships of war belonging to the order, induced the Turkish merchants to entrust their goods to any nation at peace with Malta, and especially to France, as the power which had the greatest influence over the order; the ambassadors from that country having always been employed to arrange the different disputes between the Porte and the knights of Malta.

## C H A P. VII.

*The Climate of Malta; Degrees of Heat and Cold; principal Winds. Nature and Form of the Rocks in Malta and Goza; Influence of the Sea on these Rocks; their daily Diminution. Grottoes and subterraneous Places on the Sea-coast. Principal Fossils in Malta and Goza. Earth found in Malta of the same Quality as Kaolin. Plants of Malta. Culture of Fig-trees by Caprification. Description of a peculiar Species of Caterpillar.*

THE remarks on the climate of Malta which I here present to the reader will, perhaps, be more interesting from being the result of repeated experiments made by a very learned man, who, I am sorry to say, is much more remarkable for his great knowledge, than for his attachment to the order.

“ Reaumur’s thermometer in Malta during the summer is generally below 25 degrees, and scarcely ever above 28. In winter, it is very seldom lower than 8 degrees below the freezing point.

“ Heat and cold are not most felt when the thermometer is at either of the two extreme points of our temperature; for there is an almost constant contrast between our sensations and the instruments which measure the true temperature of the air, between sensible and real heat.

“ The different directions of the wind produce an instantaneous change from cold to heat, and from heat to cold. North or north-west winds always occasion cold; and a south

wind constantly brings heat. The violence with which they blow modifies the sensations they cause, and those produced by these winds become still stronger, because the atmosphere they put in motion is analogous to what we feel from real heat and extreme cold.

“ A north-west wind purifies the air in the greatest degree; a north-east wind is not quite so pure, and it becomes infinitely less so, when it changes to the south-east, or the south, but it grows rather better when it veers to the south-west, particularly if the sea be much agitated.

“ The north-west wind is purified by the vast expanse of sea which it passes over; but the north wind would suffer some degree of alteration from Italy and Sicily, if the great vegetation in those fine countries did not tend to purify the atmosphere. When the wind changes to the south it becomes dangerous, owing to its having passed over the barren burning continent of Africa, where there is scarcely any vegetation, and where the heat is so intense, that every thing susceptible of rarefaction in the earth produces exhalations which enter into the atmosphere. It is not purified by passing over the sea, because the channel is narrow, and being sheltered by the land, the water is not sufficiently agitated to absorb by its motion the mephitic miasmata with which the air is impregnated.

“ The extreme cold during winter is produced by the pure air which blows from the north. The winds act upon us

by their great violence, which continually renews the volume of air that surrounds us. The cold thus produced is easily avoided, by not exposing ourselves to the constant currents of air and violence of the wind.

“ In summer, when the wind blows from the south-east, the usual purity of the air is so greatly altered, that were it to change a few degrees more, it would be impossible to breathe, and the insensible perspiration of the body would form so thick an atmosphere, that suffocation must infallibly ensue.

“ The south winds never blow long at a time, seldom lasting more than three or four days. They are frequently succeeded by a calm, during which the heat is also very great, but much less oppressive and suffocating, though the thermometer frequently shews a much higher degree of real heat. The air is then infinitely more pure; and the sea breezes during the night, and, indeed, some part of the day, greatly refresh the atmosphere. This air is purified by passing over the water, which it gently agitates. There is also a morning land breeze, which, though less pure, cools the air in some degree. When the wind changes suddenly from the south to the north, we feel an astonishing lightness, our sensations are inexpressibly pleasant, and we breathe with the greatest freedom. It is a certain fact, that on these occasions the air becomes twenty or twenty-five degrees more pure, though there is no variation in the thermometer.

“ Nothing is more salutary during the sirocco than iced

beverages; they revive the spirits, strengthen the body, and assist digestion. Snow is therefore considered at Malta as one of the first necessaries of life. It is brought from Sicily, and administered to the sick. Whenever there is a scarcity of this article, all that remains in the ice-houses is entirely reserved for the use of the hospitals.

“ There is another method much in vogue among the young Maltese, who, in order to guard against the ill effects of the sirocco, plunge into water, and come out by degrees without drying themselves, that the humidity on the skin may evaporate, by which means the vapour carries off not only some part of the heat of the body (it being an excellent conductor), but at the same time the miasmata of our insensible perspiration.”

To these observations on the climate of Malta, we think it necessary to add some equally important, on the physical formation, not only of that island, but of those of Cumin and Goza.

These three islands are calcareous rocks, which furnish very few objects worthy the attention of a naturalist. Indeed, some petrifications and calcareous concretions are the only fossil productions which deserve a place in a cabinet of natural history. But as there is no single spot on the whole surface of the globe which does not afford some curious observations in cosmogony, nor even a heap of stones which has not some reference to the ancient history of our world, and which



may not serve to give an idea of the theory of its original formation ; the island of Malta considered in that light, offers some interesting subjects deserving our attention.

Malta, Cumin, and Goza, are evidently only the remains of a large tract of land which extended towards the south-south-west, and which (owing in all probability to the solidity of the soil) have resisted the violence that caused the destruction of the country of which they originally made a part. Innumerable observations, made on the spot, confirm this opinion ; but at present it will be sufficient to prove the fact by some account of the physical formation of these islands.

Malta becomes much narrower, at the same time that it lengthens, from east-south-east to west-north-west ; the islands of Cumin and Goza are placed successively in the same direction, and are separated by narrow straits.

To have a just idea of Malta, we must figure to ourselves an inclined plane running from south-south-west to north-north-east, in such a manner that the calcareous strata (nearly parallel), of which it is almost entirely composed, rise towards the south and south-east nearly two hundred fathoms above the sea, which dashes against the bottom of these declivities. At the same time on the opposite side they are of a considerable length, and decline insensibly, till they become level with the sea. The direction of these strata, together with their exact correspondence with the opposite parts, consisting of

defiles and valleys, evidently shew what was the real shape of the island when the strata deposited by the sea ceased to accumulate: even since that time it has undergone great vicissitudes. The regularity of this work has been changed, a great part of the upper stratum destroyed, and that vast body of regularly parallel strata so worn, hollowed out, and ploughed by the violence of the currents, that it is scarcely possible to trace—such is the disorder which reigns throughout the mountains, defiles, hills, and vales—the system which joins them together, and points out the origin of their formation.

The broadest part of the island, the least wasted, and the flattest (though sufficiently elevated), is that to the east of the city Valetta; it is consequently more peopled, and easier cultivated; though here, as in all other places, the rock is entirely naked, except where the industry of the inhabitants has placed a layer of earth to encourage vegetation.

The principal defiles and valleys run constantly from south-south-west to north-east; which is their natural direction, for they have all been formed out of the rock by the violent currents of water rushing from the heights. These valleys extend to that part of the sea where the coast is almost level, and there form those fine ports which make this island so very important for trade and navigation. Smaller valleys have in process of time been formed, taking a contrary direction to the principal ones, and the united waters of these form the differ-

ent ports which communicate with that of the city, which with a gentle curve extends into the valley of Marsa, of which it is a continuation.

This valley, now the broadest, the most extensive and fertile in the whole island, was formerly almost entirely sea: indeed, it is not very long since the tide came up as far as Casal Fornaro; but the accretion of vegetable earth from the higher lands, the fragments of the surrounding rocks, the hand of the labourer, and above all the influx of sand, &c. occasioned by the force of the sea when the wind is at north-east, have by degrees entirely filled it up. In a short time the bottom of the port will be equally filled, and might be so still sooner, by making basins, into which the sea could be conveyed by dykes, and where from its calm state it would deposit that matter which is kept back when the water is greatly agitated. The basin in the midst of a small plain, called Little Marsa, is already nearly choaked up, and that without any means having been employed for the purpose.

The valleys are longer and deeper in proportion as they extend from east to west. One very wide extends itself under the casals\* of Mosta, Nasciar, and Gharghul, and terminates at the port of the salt-works. It is bounded to the right by a chain of craggy rocks which run across the whole breadth of the island, and divide it into two parts. This boundary, formed by the

\* Villages.

hand of nature, has been made the means of defence to Malta, by intrenchments formed in the rocks, and seems to be regarded as such by the inhabitants; for beyond it, towards the west, there are no villages, and scarcely any cultivated land. The port or creek of Melleha penetrates so far into the inland country, that it almost divides the island, which is very narrow in that part; and there is every reason to believe, that the straits which occasion Cumin to be insular are only the extension of two valleys, the upper part of which has been destroyed; and such would be the state of the ports which flank the city Valetta, if any circumstance should destroy the part of the island beyond Pieta and Casal Nuovo.

Goza stands much higher than Malta, and is entirely surrounded by perpendicular rocks: the highest are to the west and south, where they are tremendously steep. The opposite cliffs of Malta and Goza are correspondent; but though there are some valleys in the same direction as those of Malta, they do not afford any ports, on account of the height of the land, and its breadth.

The country is not so uneven as at Malta, consequently more easily cultivated; and it appears that the surface was originally nearly horizontal. The rock, however, is decidedly of the same nature in both islands, where are equally mountains, some single, some forming chains, the summits of which are for the most part flat. It is very evident that these summits made part of the original surface, when the whole was

incrusted by a stratum of a harder heavier kind of stone of a closer grain, which is now never met with but in that elevated land, which corresponds with the inclination of the strata. The lower stratum is more or less consistent and hard, or more or less dissoluble when exposed to the air. Some strata are also formed of a black, ferruginous, calcareous sand, slightly stuck together by a kind of calcareous lime.

At the back of these rocks in Malta, and in the clefts of the mountains in Goza, are heaps composed of grey clay, evidently no native of the soil, and which must have accumulated since the excavation of those mountains. It is found in hollows, which no doubt were formerly entirely empty. The above-mentioned heaps but feebly resisting the force of water rushing impetuously down their sides, the constant cataracts have made deep furrows in them, and modelled them into their present form.

On summing up the preceding facts, the question may be fairly asked, from whence came the clay of Malta and Goza? How could it possibly have got over the craggy rocks of the latter island, unless they had both been formerly joined to a higher land, from whence this clay descended, or unless by an imperceptible declivity it had been driven by the sea into its present situation? Whence likewise came the red clay, a kind of virgin earth, which fills up the vertical clefts in the rocks? The water which formed these valleys must have been in great abundance, since it had sufficient force to wear away a rock,

which, though not very hard, must still have offered some degree of resistance.

This island, such as it is at present, could never have produced such considerable torrents, for after the heaviest rains in winter there are scarcely more than some small temporary rivulets, and those in the lowest part of the valleys. The perpendicular rocks could not naturally have existed in a mass formed by the successive accumulation of sand from the sea. The same strata which we perceive in these rocks must have extended till they had met with a declivity, or a curve, to reconduct them to a level with the bottom of the sea. There cannot be a doubt but that the island of Malta made formerly part of a mountain, which had the same declivities and valleys on the other side. The rocks, its boundaries to the south, east, and west, could have been formed only by the falling-in and destruction of what made their sides, particularly as the sea is extremely deep at the basis of them. In the whole circumference of the three islands, evident marks of corrosion may be perceived. The rocks at some distance from the coast are the mere remains of that part which has been destroyed. In fine, the shape of these islands, all the local circumstances, and a variety of phenomena, decidedly prove that there must have been a great extent of land towards the south and west, and that it must have been destroyed by some very violent cause out of the common course of nature. It appears that this destructive shock came from the west, and that it acted with the greatest

force against every thing adjoining to the island of Goza. According to our knowledge of natural history, and the causes which produce such extraordinary effects, we can only attribute the present state of things to an immense body of water, which, being agitated by an earthquake, carried away the first land which it met with it in its passage; by which means Goza is become of a circular form, and clefts are excavated at the foot of the rocks which offered most resistance; such as those which form cape San Demetri. It also destroyed that part of the mountain which united the three islands, and this inundation has stripped them of all vegetable earth, of which only some small patches remain in the clefts of rocks, where it was sheltered from the fury of the waves. The island of Goza was so situated as to defend Malta, and by that means the northern coast has not undergone such changes as the southern. A variety of observations made in Sicily and Italy prove that an extraordinary motion in that mass of water had taken place, and the most terrible effects were produced; but to enter into more minute particulars would interfere with the plan of this work.

The facts we have now pointed out may be known and verified by all who will attend to the circumstances; but what must still remain matter of conjecture, is the original extent of this land, its relation with the continent of Africa, and the time when this convulsion took place.

I believe that since Malta was first inhabited, the island

has in some degree diminished. This seems proved by the marks of wheels, which may be traced close to the above-mentioned cliffs. Rocks likewise frequently fall in, owing either to the sea working its way under them, or to the incidental destruction of the lower strata.

The soft kind of stone in Malta and Goza is always more or less inclined to waste and dissolve when exposed to the air; it also undergoes a kind of saline efflorescence which reduces it to powder, and this effect is hastened by different accidents, and particular situations. The stones exposed to the air towards the south, are much sooner dissolved than in any other aspect; but nothing wastes them in so short a time as the sea-water, one single drop of which suffices to rot them presently; and though only one stone should be touched, it frequently communicates itself to the next, and by this means speedily destroys, not only a whole rock, but a whole building, if a stone thus affected should happen to be employed in its construction. A sort of saline crust composed of nitre with alkaline at bottom and sea-salt is formed over the stone, part of which is no sooner crumbled to powder, than the crust drops off, and others continue forming till the whole of the stone is entirely destroyed. This effect, I believe, is principally produced by the humidity which the sea-salt with earthy particles at the bottom contained in sea-water always attracts; and this humidity is the principal vehicle for the production of nitre, if at the same time other circumstances concur for



that purpose. I have already observed, that the stones most liable to this spontaneous destruction are those which contain the most magnesia, from which this soft kind is never entirely free.

In the craggy rocks round Malta and Goza are many spacious caves or grottoes; some of which being on a level with the sea, the waves dash in, when in an agitated state, and resound tremendously. The mouths of others are at different heights, and the access is more or less difficult and dangerous according to their situation; there are some, indeed, in order to enter which it is necessary to be suspended by ropes. One of the most considerable of those usually visited is situate towards the point of land called *Benkisa*, near the Marsa Sirocco creek. This, from its length and breadth, is distinguished by the name of the *Great*, and it extends more than two hundred paces under ground.

All these grottoes are full of *stalactites* and *stalagmites*, produced by the water filtering through the calcareous rock. The falling-in of one of these caverns must have caused the singular excavation called *Makluba*, near Casal Zorick, which certainly deserves to be seen. At the distance of a hundred paces to the south of the shore, and not far from the rocks on the coast, there is a circular, or rather an oval, cavity more than a hundred feet in depth, and formed like an imperfect cone. The larger diameter of the lower plain is about ninety-five paces, and that of the smaller one, eighty; but the opening is less

than twenty paces. This excavation is in those shelving cliffs which incline a little from south to north, and have hitherto suffered no change, but have remained exactly as if this, in part, circular space had been the work of art.

On examining the state of the lower ranges of rock, I remarked that they were corroded in the same manner as the others exposed to the fury of the waves. The surface of them is unequal and hollow; but they have, notwithstanding, a sort of polish, and a harder coat than the rest of the stone; whereas the upper ledges have suffered the same degree of corrosion which affects all the Maltese rocks when exposed to the air, and which is very different from the basis. There is a great depth of vegetable earth in the lower plain; but though they have frequently dug very low they have never been able to find a bottom. All these circumstances infallibly prove, that the great hollow was occasioned by the falling-in of a vast cavern, which communicated to the sea; and the time when this happened cannot have been very remote. Above the space which has sunk in, there appears to have been some habitation, for there is a well fifty feet deep in the part of the rock into which stairs have been made to descend. It was formerly deeper, but has been since filled up by earth from the neighbouring hills; the mouth of this excavation being situated in a kind of small valley. The word *Makluba* signifies *overturned*.

There are blocks and detached pieces of a blackish and

reddish calcareous stone to be found in different places in Malta, particularly in the part of Benkisa near Marsa Sirocco. These have a false appearance of *lava*, or of burnt stone with small pores, and when rubbed, exhale a very strong and disagreeable smell. On being dissolved by means of acids, there remains swimming on the top a black oily scum which occasions the disagreeable smell. This *lapis suillus* has certainly been impregnated with the oil of some cetaceous fish: I am ignorant whether there are any particular strata composed of it.

As I wish to comprise every thing relative to the natural history of Malta and Goza in this chapter, I will first enumerate the principal fossils found in these two islands, and afterwards describe the nature and quality of the earth called Maltese earth, an accurate knowledge of which may be of great utility. At the end of the chapter the reader will find a catalogue of those plants which have been cultivated in Malta with the greatest success.

The principal fossils of Malta and Goza are the following:

1. *Pyrites martiales* and *conchæ pyritosæ martiales*, found in different clayey hills, particularly in one near the town of Goza. When these fossils were first discovered, it was imagined they made part of a gold mine; and some speculators threw away their money in making experiments, but the hopes they had cherished of great riches, presently vanished into air.

2. *Gypsum*, in those forms which are commonly called

*cuneiform* and *specular gypsum*; this is formed in separate spots in the same clay: the pieces are sometimes very large, but seldom regularly crystallised.

3. *Calcareous alabasters*. Those of Goza are yellow, slightly veined, and sometimes semi-transparent like the antique alabaster. They are also hard and compact, and there are lumps and blocks sufficiently large to make pillars and urns of a great size if they were worked for that purpose, but hitherto nothing has been made but tables. Alabaster is found in Goza on the top of mountains; and it is observable, that it forms itself by accretion in those cavities which accident has wrought in the common calcareous mass. The Maltese alabaster exists in large blocks, separated from each other, on the sea coast; the top and middle of the calcareous stone are brown with circular veins. This is not so hard and compact as the yellow kind, and is liable to a variety of incidental imperfections, such as being full of cavities and earthy stony parts, which prevent its being employed for works of any magnitude, &c. It derives its dusky colour from a thick and oily sort of matter.

4. A variety of *calcareous stalactites* formed in grottoes. These are real alabaster in concentric beds.

5. Remains of the back and jaw bones of various cetaceous animals. These have been found in the calcareous mass in many parts of the two islands, and in a bed of calcareous ferruginous and black sand, which has given them a tinge of

the same colour. These, however, are scarce: they are partly petrified, that is to say, a calcareous lapidifical moisture has penetrated into the bony texture.

6. *Glossopetra*, or more properly *odontopetra*, or fish-teeth of different shapes and sizes, the greatest part of which belonged to the *phoca* or sea-cow, the *lamia* or shark, different sorts of sea-dogs, and to some particular species of scate. Part of these teeth are indented at the edge, and part entirely smooth; the largest are seven inches long, of a flat triangular form, with a bifurcated or two-fanged root: there are others only one inch in length, pointed, almost conical, with roots also bifurcated, and shaped like birds' and serpents' tongues. Most of these teeth have preserved their grey and shining enamel in such a manner that the filtration could not penetrate through them; they are therefore not petrified in the inside, and have not lost their bony texture. Those roots which have not been guarded from the filtration are become stony.

*Odontopetra* are common in Malta, and particularly in Goza, where they are found enclosed and scattered about in the soft stone of these islands. I never heard whether a jaw-bone was ever discovered with this kind of teeth.

7. *Crapaudinæ*, *Bufo nitæ*, or serpents' eyes: these are likewise *odontopetra*, or fish-teeth of a hemispherical, conical, or oval form. They belonged to the gilt-head, and other fish of the same kind; they are whitish, grey, yellow, black, or with concentric circles of different colours, having a central

point which gives them the appearance of an eye, and from that circumstance they take their name. These teeth are of different sizes, from one line to four in diameter; they are concave within, and are in a state of half petrification. There are great numbers in Malta, but those only with concentric zones are in any estimation, and the large ones of that kind are very scarce.

8. *Odontopetra* which belonged to the *hippopotamus*, or river horse. These were the grinders of these animals, and are almost all square with obtuse conical pre-eminences; there are some eight inches on the surface, but they are seldom found entire. The part which has no enamel is petrified. This kind of *odontopetra* is far from common.

9. *Asteriæ*, *entochitæ*, and other detached parts of the vertebrae of the encrinus.

10. *Echinites* of different shapes and sizes: the most remarkable are the hemispherical, some of which are seven inches in diameter; others, equally large, are pentagonal, pyramidal, or shaped like an imperfect pyramid. Some are almost round, others are compressed and almost flat, and all are distinguished by names analogous to their shape; such as, *echinites*, *galcati*, *pyramidales*, *scutati*, *discoïdes*, *rotulati*, &c.—These large *echiniti* are changed into calcareous spar of a yellow or white colour; the inside is either empty, or filled with a white or yellow earth, according to the colour of the outside of the spar. The *echinities* are found in pretty large quantities in the

craggy parts of Malta; in the soft stone, or in those beds of black sand which are but weakly agglutinated.

There is a great variety of *echinites* of a smaller size, such as the *gobulares*, the *spatagoidæi*, or shaped like a heart, the *clunicunares*, *natifformes*, &c. The exterior part is changed into white spar, and the inside filled with the same calcareous white and tender stone in which they are found in such great quantities. Some among them are much squeezed, but the greatest number have preserved the same shape and position as in the sea.

Fragments of *echinites* are also found in Malta; these are shaped like shields, and are called *assulæ*, *quinguangulares*, *hexangulares*, *mamillares*, *orbiculares*, &c.: likewise pieces of small bones of the same fish, but no Judea stones.

11. Number of fossil shells of different families, some of which have the upper part half petrified, whilst the impression of others only remains. The only remarkable ones among the former are the *dentalites*, or sea-tubes, two inches thick, and frequently many feet in length. When they are in a circular form, they resemble petrified serpents.

*Ostracites*, shaped like cocks' combs, and rakes; and some very large *pectinites*, with and without ears.

The impressions of shells are either black or white according to the colour of the earth. The most remarkable are the *dactilites*, and *pholadites*. The impression of the inside of a small *terebratula*, which is exactly of the shape, size,

and colour of hemp-seed : there are great quantities in the rocks near casal Ghargul. Some *cardites* of a great size, &c.

Many of these fossils are found in the hills and mountains near the old city, where there are banks almost entirely composed of them. All the rocks in the island likewise contain some of the same kind.

12. And lastly, quantities of *lithophytæ* and *madreporites* of different sorts and sizes, among which there is nothing very remarkable. These are found in the steep part of the rocks towards the south, and particularly near a place called *Bahria*. Some large rocks are entirely composed of them; and near them other rocks full of *ostracites*.

Having thus endeavoured to give some idea of the fossils in Malta and Goza, I shall next briefly describe the nature and quality of the Maltese earth called *terra Melitensis*, of which there are two sorts: The one is an earth very compact and heavy; it is extremely white on being first dug up, but becomes yellowish as it dries; the surface is smooth and polished, and on being put into the mouth, it adheres to the tongue, but soon melts like butter. It is never in an effervescent state on being mixed with acid, and the fire has no effect on its colour; this earth is reckoned cordial and sudorific, and resembles the *Lemnos earth*, which was always greatly esteemed in medicine. *Valmont de Bomare* distinguishes it by the name of *terra sigillata Melitua*.

The second kind is calcareous, very light, and falls into



powder on being exposed to the air; when dry, it becomes of a greyish colour, is friable, and rough to the touch. It effervesces when mixed with acid, and may be regarded as a species of chalk or marl. The vulgar esteem it as a great antidote against the bite of venomous animals.

Father d'Entrecolles\* is of opinion, that this second kind of earth, also termed *St. Paul's earth*, has in its matrix something of the *kaolin*, which gives firmness and consistence to the porcelain made in China. Frequent experiments † made on the Maltese earth, prove it to be very much of the same quality as the kaolin, though without the silver particles scattered throughout the latter. Valerius calls this earth *marga porcellana*; and the repeated experiments which have been made, give hopes that this article will form a new and advantageous branch of commerce for Malta.

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I HAVE already given some account of several of the vegetable productions of Malta, which are important on account of their value in commerce, or their uses in medicine;

\* See description of the materials which compose porcelain, in the collection of *Lettres Edifiantes copiées dans l'Histoire de la Chine du Père du Halde*, Vol. II. page 179.

† Particularly at Rome in 1790. Prince Lambertini having received from the author of *Les Recherches Historiques et Politiques*, a box filled with these two sorts of earth, made a variety of experiments, and found them of the same quality as the kaolin.

This description of the Maltese earth is taken from the said *Recherches Historiques*, which I have found a very useful work on different occasions.

such as the cotton-plant, and the *fungus Melitensis*; and have annexed to this chapter a botanical catalogue of the principal plants of Malta. I shall here add some particulars relative to one of the most valuable trees with which nature has enriched the warmer climates, and the propagation of which cannot be too much encouraged\*: I mean the fig-tree, which produces one of the mildest, most salutary, and agreeable fruits. Figs when dried in the oven, furnish, with a little barley-bread, the principal sustenance of the numerous and finely-formed inhabitants of the islands of the Archipelago.

Though it is usual to distinguish different species of fig-trees, the greater part of them can, in fact, only be considered as varieties. I shall here confine myself to treat only of the domestic fig-tree, and the wild fig-tree.

The former of these (*ficus sativa*) † is a tree of a middling height, branching and bushy, but never very large, because it throws out from the root a great number of shoots. The wood of it is of a whitish colour, soft and pithy. It is seldom used except by locksmiths and armourers, because, being spongy, it easily imbibes a great quantity of oil and powder of emery, which they use to polish their work. The leaves of this tree are larger than those of any other fruit-tree; they are rough

\* Messrs. La Quintaine, Bradley, and Miller, have assiduously laboured to bring to perfection the culture of fig-trees.

† See Valmont de Bomare, *Dict. Rais. Univers. d'Histoire Nat. art. Figes.*

and of a deep green colour. It is essential to prune the tree before the sap is in motion ; for when the branches are cut, a milky juice, with which they abound, exudes, and the loss of this nutritious liquor necessarily enfeebles the tree. This milky juice is bitter, acrid, and so corrosive, that it will coagulate milk like rennet, dissolve its curd like vinegar, and when applied to the skin, penetrate it, and make indelible marks. By this quality, it frequently cures warts and other disagreeable excrescences.

The fig-tree, differing in this from other fruit-trees, bears its fruit on the large branches. The figs grow at the origin of the leaves, without having been preceded by any apparent flower, which has occasioned doubts whether the tree produces any. But the flowers are concealed within the fruit, on opening which, at a proper time, we may perceive in the inside, round the crown of the fruit, the male flowers, which are stamina supported by small stylets ; and the female, which are situate near the pedicle. These flowers are succeeded by small hard seeds.

The fruit of the fig-tree is larger or smaller, more or less round, and varies in its colour, according to the different species of the tree on which it is produced ; but it always approaches to the figure of a pear. When perfectly ripe, it is extremely soft and succulent. Naturalists have enumerated thirty varieties of the fig-tree ; of which the two that succeed best in cultivation, are those that bear the figs universally

known by the names of the *round-fig*, and the *long-fig*. The latter bears most fruit; the former is the earliest; and both are excellent.

The fig-tree thrives best, in general, in light soils; but it also succeeds extremely well in stony grounds; and a good aspect renders its fruit more sweet and delicious. This tree is of a very delicate temperament, and cannot withstand the frost, except when covered with straw, or sheltered in a greenhouse.

The wild fig-tree (*caprificus*) resembles, in all its parts, the domestic fig-tree, of which it appears to be, in some measure, only a variety; but it bears fruits that serve for *caprification*, of which the ancients have said so much, but which many learned men have treated as a fabulous, at least useless, operation\*.

This operation consists in suspending in different parts of a domestic fig-tree, several wild figs strung on a thread. The flies or gnats which issue from these, introduce themselves into

\* M. de Tournefort had opportunities during his travels in the Levant, to observe the process used by the natives of the Archipelago in the caprification of fig-trees. The various objects to which he had to attend, not having permitted him to enter into all the particulars necessary thoroughly to understand the nature of this operation, he contented himself with merely relating the facts he had witnessed, in a memoir on the diseases of plants, which he read to the Academy of Sciences in 1705. M. Godcheu de Riville, knight of Malta, undertook to examine this subject, and, after a variety of researches and experiments, communicated the result of his enquiries to M. de Reaumur, in a letter which was printed in the mathematical and physical part of the *Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences; Paris, 4to. tom. I. p. 170—190.* I have principally taken him as my guide on this subject, consulting also M. Valmont de Bomare.

the umbilicus of the domestic figs, and by their punctures cause in them a fermentation which contributes to their ripening. A careful examination of the history of the wild fig has divested this operation of what is apparently wonderful in it, and demonstrated its utility.

The wild fig-tree, or *caprificus*, known at Malta by the name of *tokar*, is the *ornos* of the isles of the Archipelago. The three kinds of fruit which it bears in the course of the year, have names in the Maltese language corresponding to those given them by the Greeks. Thus the *tokarleonel* in Maltese answer to the *fornites* of the Greeks, the *tokarlanos* to the *cratirites*, and the *tokartayept* to the *orni*. *Tokarleonel*, or *fornites*, are the figs of autumn, which appear in the month of August, and continue till November without ripening. In them are engendered small worms, produced from eggs deposited by a kind of gnats, which are only found in the neighbourhood of the wild fig-trees. These worms are a species of very small ichneumons, of a shining black colour. In the months of October and November, having become gnats, they puncture the second fruits or *tokarlanos*, the *cratirites* of the Greeks, which do not appear till the end of September, and which may be called winter figs. The autumnal figs fall soon after the gnats have been produced, but the winter figs remain on the tree till the month of May following, and contain the eggs which have been deposited by the gnats of the autumnal figs. In the month of May, the *tokartayept*, or *orni*, which may be called

the spring figs, begin to appear. When they have attained a certain size, and their eye begins to open, they are pierced in that part by the gnats produced in the winter figs; though this is sometimes not necessary for the gnats to introduce themselves into the fig, as they are able to make a passage through the leaves that close the umbilicus. This opening, made by the two teeth with which the heads of these little ichneumons are armed, afterwards closes, and the eye of the fig does not again open till three or four days before the gnats issue from the fruit. The skin of the wild figs is sleek, smooth, and of a deep green: no puncture of the insects is discernible on the external surface. When near maturity they grow soft, and become yellowish. On opening them, we find their interior construction similar to that of the domestic fig\*, that is to say, the leaves are in the upper part, nearest to the umbilicus, the stamina next, and then follow the seeds, which are a kind of kernels filled with small grains, and which occupy the greatest space.

The wild figs, whatever may be their degree of maturity, have no sweet and luscious liquor; their inside is always dry and farinaceous. When they are become nearly as large as nuts, the gnats make their entrance by the umbilicus, and deposit in them their eggs; roving at first about the inside. All those which these insects neglect to enter in

\* See La Hire,—*Mémoires de l'Académie*, 1712.

this manner languish, their kernels will not grow, and at length they become dry and shrivelled, and fall off without ripening. Those on the contrary that are fecundated by the puncture of the gnats, visibly increase in size, and the seeds, which are larger than in the domestic fig, soon fill the whole inside of the fruit.

Every kernel of the fig is the habitation of a gnat; and if the integument of the seed in which these insects are inclosed be opened at a proper time, they will come out, and after having dried their wings in the sun for a few minutes fly away. On examining these kernels before the fig is perfectly ripe, we discover on their surface, with the aid of a strong magnifier, some small brown spots, imperceptible to the naked eye; and after having detached the upper part with very fine scissars, we perceive some *living particles*, that is to say, well-formed *nymphs*. As soon as the small worms are disclosed, they pierce the yet tender membrane of the seed, feed on the kernel it contains, and remain there as in a habitation very convenient for their metamorphosis. These worms are never found roving in the inside of the figs, but after having thus lived a certain time under this form, they are metamorphosed into gnats, having a long auger in the hinder part of their bodies.

These insects, from their retired situation, and their extreme minuteness, it would seem must be exempt from enemies; they have, however, two which are very formidable to

them. One is a small ichneumon, of a cinnamon colour, with a very long auger; and the other an insect with a scaly head and corslet: its hinder part is formed like a tail annexed to the corslet; and its head, which only adheres to the body by a very small ligature, is armed with two teeth. These likewise have their lodgment in the kernels of the fig, like the other gnats. The latter species does not appear to be intended to fly: it leaves the eye of the fig, without becoming a winged insect.

This account of the wild fig-tree and the gnats which take up their abode in it, appears to be sufficient. I shall now proceed to point out the species of domestic fig-trees, to the fructification of which the wild fig-tree is advantageous by caprification.

There are seven or eight different species of fig-trees at Malta, but caprification is only used for two of them.

The first gives two gatherings in the year, one in June, when the figs which do not ripen till the latter end of the month are succulent and larger than in France; the other in August, when the figs gathered during the whole course of the month are less delicate and smaller. The earlier ones do not require, like the latter, to be caprificated.

The second species, the same with that which is so fruitful in the Isles of the Archipelago, bears only once a-year: the figs are small, of a whitish colour, and sweet, without much taste.



But whence arises the necessity of caprificating these two species of fig-trees more particularly than the others? It is certain that the tree of the first species which has produced a great quantity of large and succulent figs, is, so to speak, exhausted, and has not strength to furnish sufficient nourishment to the second figs, which begin to appear at the time when the first are ripe; consequently these second figs, not receiving the nutritious juice necessary to them, will fall before they are ripe; and this inconvenience can only be remedied by caprification. The introduction of the gnats causes a fermentation in them which accelerates their ripening, in the same manner as worm-eaten fruits always ripen before those that are sound. Hence the figs which would be two months before they would be ripe, will be fit to eat three weeks earlier; and when the time of their fall is arrived, the quantity will be much greater. Many individuals do not caprificate their second figs, to avoid fatiguing their trees; for experience has shewn, that the crop of first figs is usually bad in the year following caprification, because the fig-tree has been forced to nourish too great a quantity of fruit in the same year.

Let us now examine what are the reasons for the caprification of the second species of figs. They are the same as in the former case, though the object of the operation is different. I have already mentioned the quantity of fruit which this tree bears: it is such that frequently the branches cannot be seen on account of the figs with which they are loaded. When the

caprification of this kind of fig-tree is neglected, a great quantity of the fruit falls before it ripens, because the tree is overloaded with it. The difference of the produce of a caprificated tree from that of another which has not undergone this operation, is immense; since a fig-tree which would scarcely yield twenty-five pounds of figs that should be ripe and proper for drying, will in consequence of this mode of treatment, produce more than two hundred and eighty pounds.

It is to be observed that the figs which are not caprificated artificially, but only by the accidental removal of the gnats from one fig-tree to another, are much preferable to the others; whence it is that the figs of Provence, where the practice of caprification is unknown, notwithstanding the same species of fig-tree is cultivated there as at Malta and in the Levant, are much superior to the dried figs of the Archipelago. It is also to be remarked that the heat of the sun which is sufficient to dry the figs that have not been caprificated, is not so for those that have undergone this operation. They must be dried in the oven; which gives them a disagreeable taste, but is necessary to destroy the eggs of the insects which they contain.

Caprification by the suspension of wild figs, though most in use, is not, however, the only method employed to hasten the maturity of figs. If, by chance, the peasants of the Levant, who know with wonderful exactness the precious moment for caprification, suffer it to elapse, they have recourse to an expedient which frequently succeeds. It consists in spreading

over the domestic figs the flowers of a plant which they call *ascolimbo* or *skolimo*, and in which are sometimes found gnats that will pierce the figs; or perhaps the gnats of the wild figs seek their food in these flowers. This caprification, when it succeeds, completely supplies the place, in the effect it produces, of that which had been neglected.

Some persons have also employed with success another method for hastening the maturity of figs without depriving them of any part of their good qualities, by putting with a pencil a little olive oil on the eye of the fig, or pricking it with an oiled feather or straw\*.

This fruit, so salutary and useful, because it makes a part of the food of the people among whom it is produced in abundance, becomes dangerous when it has not acquired a perfect maturity; which is known by its still containing a milky liquor in its pedicle and skin. It then causes dysenteries and fevers. Water is the liquor most proper to dilute the pulp of figs in the stomach, and to remedy a certain inconvenient viscosity of the saliva. As to dried figs, they are esteemed pectoral and emollient.

It now only remains for me to refute an error too commonly received, *viz.* that the wild fig-tree is the male of the domestic fig-tree. Pontedera, who conceived this idea, supposes that the former furnishes the farina, or dust of the sta-

\* See Du Hamel. He thinks that in this case the oil produces nearly the same effect as the insects in caprification.

mina, necessary to fecundate the fruits of the latter; and that the gnats are the bearers of this dust, which they deposit in the figs into which they introduce themselves. But had he attentively considered the gnats when they first come out of the wild-fig, he would have seen that they are, indeed, then covered with a white dust, derived in part from the stamina through which they have made their way, and from the inside of the fig, which is farinaceous; by continuing his observations, he would also have perceived, that immediately on their leaving the fig they employ six or seven minutes in drying their wings in the sun, and in disengaging them from the dust with which they are incumbered; and that when they take their flight not the slightest vestige of this dust remains, but that they are of a shining black colour when they make their way into the domestic figs. This fact entirely subverts the principle on which this observer and his partisans appear to have founded their system of fecundation.

The island of Malta is not prolific in insects; the small quantity of earth with which the rock is covered, and the great drought which prevails there during six or seven months in the year, deprive it of the trees and plants which those who wish to study this part of natural history ought to have continually before their eyes.

Among the different species of caterpillars found here, there is one of a very singular conformation, having no feet. The chevalier Godheu de Riville, who calls it *chenille mineuse*

*des feuilles de vigne* (the caterpillar which *mines* or cuts the leaves of the vine), has given its history with the greatest care. He has described with the most accurate minuteness the structure of its body, the manner in which it forms its pod or cone, the means it employs for progressive motion and the removal of its habitation, and the different metamorphoses it undergoes \*. The skin of this caterpillar is perforated by an infinity of small holes almost invisible. Several extremely fine hairs grow irregularly on different parts of the body. The head, which is scaly, as well as the upper and under part of the first ring (the rest being membranous), has more of these hairs than the other parts. The head is sometimes concealed under the first ring, which, like all the rest, is not perfectly cylindrical. It is formed, like that of other caterpillars, of two scaly parts; except, however, that these two parts are more sloped behind than before. The vacant spaces are filled by two membranes, which are more transparent than the scaly parts. The head has in front two small teeth with which these caterpillars work, or dissect the leaves by gradually detaching from them the parenchyma. They work first lengthwise, and afterwards breadthwise. It is to be remarked, that every place eaten away has, near the part where the insect has last been, an oval perforation of a middling size. The two membranes between which this

\* See *Mémoires de Mathématiques et de Physiques, présentés à l'Académie Royale de Sciences: Paris 4to. 1750, tom. I. page 177—190. Histoire d'une Chenille mineuse des Feuilles de Vigne: extraite d'une lettre de Malthe à M. de Reaumur, par M. Godheu de Riville, Chev. de Malthe.*

aperture is formed are separated, and appear as if a piece had been taken out by a pair of nippers; which piece serves to form the pod or cone of the caterpillar. These pods are ovals; they adhere to the leaf by one of their extremities, and are always perpendicular to the plane on which they are fixed. The following is the manner in which they are constructed.

When a caterpillar of this kind has attained its full size, a stripe of a very beautiful green appears through the whole length of its body, which is occasioned by the quantity of nourishment it then takes, like all other caterpillars. Soon afterwards it prepares to make a lodgment in which it may undergo its transformation. This it usually forms in the place where it has last worked, the other extremity being filled with excrements. When it works only for food, it forms no kind of ridge in the epidermes between which it is lodged: it is, however, sufficiently closed in; since, wherever it is, a small elevation formed by the thickness of its body may be distinguished, which varies as it changes its place; apparently because, this caterpillar being destitute of feet, the friction of the rings against the membranes is advantageous to it for its removal from place to place, and its progress in proportion as it consumes the parenchyma. It is, however, able to form itself a more commodious lodgment in which to pass the time that it remains in the chrysalis state. This it constructs by forming on the two epidermes two ridges, precisely opposite to each other, and which extend the whole length of the oval. By

this means the two membranes assume a concavity which renders the habitation more spacious.

The caterpillar proceeds in this operation in the following manner. It begins by tracing on the membrane which is on the side of its implement or apparatus for spinning, the circuit of its new habitation, with several threads which determine the size of the oval. This first work being finished, it applies itself to form the ridge of the same membrane; which, however, it only sketches in the rough. It afterwards proceeds to the other membrane, and changes its position; because, having its spinning apparatus in the same place where it is in all other caterpillars, it cannot, consequently, spin on the membrane opposite to that on which it began, without turning itself entirely round. This it easily does when it is able, by turning its head, to seize with its teeth the membrane behind it; for it thus has a point of support by the aid of which it can turn its rings one after the other, till it has entirely changed its position. It thus performs the same operation as on the first ridge. After having three or four times changed its work from one to the other membrane, the ridges are completely finished. By their formation these membranes become more and more opaque; and the oval which is to form the contour of the pod or cone is easily distinguishable. The convexity which the two membranes assume in this place occasions a very sensible contraction in the neighbouring parts. To separate the pod from the rest of the leaf, the caterpillar begins by extending

itself along the two ridges, in such a manner that its body, to use the expression, may measure the length of the oval. It afterwards labours to make its cup, which it executes at different times; for as soon as a quarter of the pod is separated from the rest of the leaf, it immediately joins the two membranes with its silk, but without giving them their full degree of solidity, which they do not receive till the habitation is completely fixed.

As soon as the pod is separated by incision from the remainder of the leaf, it remains suspended by two threads, of which one of the ends is fastened to the leaf and the other to the edges of the pod. In this position, the caterpillar prepares to quit a place where it has no longer any thing to do; for which purpose, as it has no feet, it has recourse to a singular expedient by the aid of which it can make a progressive motion in all positions, and even over the smoothest and most polished bodies. It advances its body out of its pod, forms a kind of hillock of silk, and, by means of a thread which it attaches to it, draws its pod to the hillock. It continually repeats the same operation, and in this manner advances progressively. The traces of its progress are marked by hillocks of silk at the distance of half a line from each other. If it finds itself suspended by a thread and wishes to ascend it, it thrusts its head out of its pod, and seizes with its teeth the thread which supports it. It lengthens itself till the first three rings are discernible, and then forces the edge of the pod to



approach the place where it has fixed its teeth, by the contraction of its body. As it has no feet, its pod is absolutely necessary to enable it to ascend the thread; therefore, when it is deprived of it, and is thus suspended, it continually spins till it reaches a substance capable of supporting it. When it is taken out of its habitation, it never attempts to make a new one. It writhes about very much, but can make no progressive motion; and after having overspread the place in which it is with threads of silk, in an irregular manner, it dies at the end of twenty-four hours.

It has for its enemy a kind of small worm of a reddish colour, which is almost imperceptible to the naked eye: it is transformed into a nymph of a colour approaching to yellow, and at length changes into a handsome ichneumon, the body of which is of a very fine red, spotted with yellow.

The mining caterpillar, in its chrysalis state, is at first of an amber colour. Afterwards, six legs are distinguishable, and the cases of the wings, which do not project forward, as in other *aureliæ*. They are as long as the rest of the body, and are applied to it nearly like the wings of a bird; so that the two extremities of the body, and the cases of the wings, form, in the posterior part of the chrysalis, an angle easily perceivable. The *aureliæ* lose their amber colour, and become black and white, and at length disclose papilios of the third class of *phalænæ* and of the genus of those whose wings embrace the body in the manner of birds, but whose fringed ends

form, by rising up, the resemblance of the tail of a cock. These papilios are very handsome; the legs, head, and body, are silvery; the wings are of a beautiful black, but ornamented with four triangular silver spots, two of which are on the inner, and two on the outer, side. They are extremely lively and brisk from four o'clock in the afternoon till sun-set, and they usually live three days.

No. I.

## CATALOGUE

OF

THE PRINCIPAL PLANTS,

THE NATURAL GROWTH OF

*MALTA.*

Latin names.

**T**HYMUS  
 Thymus serpyllum  
 Origanum majorana  
 Salvia  
 Mentha  
 Valeriana  
 Galium  
 Staphylea pinnata  
 Cochlearia  
 Sempervivum  
 Acanthus  
 Medicago sativa  
 Trifolium  
 Amaranthus Globosus  
 Geranium  
 Viola  
 Tris Silvestris  
 Narcissus  
 Pencedanum officinale  
 Mus latifolium luteum  
 Canna Sacchari

Latin names.

Asparagus  
 Fabæ  
 Brassica  
 Brassica Botrytis cymosa  
 Rumex  
 Brassica rapa  
 Pastinaca  
 Triticum frumentum  
 Hordeum  
 Avena  
 Smilax salsa parilla  
 Lichen Ruccella  
 Ceratonia Siliqua  
 Xilum aut Gossipium  
 Helleborus  
 Marrubium  
 Triticum repens, gramen  
 Lepas Balanoides  
 Anchusa  
 Saxifraga  
 Ficus sativa aut communis

No. II.

## L I S T

OF SOME OF

THE SCARCEST AND MOST CURIOUS PLANTS

OF

MALTA.

Names.	Definition.	Authors who have described them.
Conyza Melitensis.	<p>Retusis foliis surculis pullulat pluribus pedibus rectis ramosis a duriore pilo subasperis, <i>foliis</i> pariter hirsutis, inordinate <i>caulem</i> ambientibus, oblongis, indivisis hyssopi aut oleæ foliis non dissimilibus, atque per extremum retusis. <i>Flores</i> huic radiati, in cacumine caulium auri luteo colore splendentes quibus flaccellentibus succedunt semina quæ conyzarum more in <i>pappos</i> solvuntur. Gignitur inter difficultates et autives ascensus saxorum et cautium Melitæ insulæ sub patrum Capucinatorum cœnobio.</p>	<p>See Boccone, page 26 and 27; and for the fig., table 13.</p>
Jacea Melitensis capitalis conglobatis.	<p><i>Pedales</i> sunt alati, ramosi, geniculati; <i>folia</i> angusta, jaccæ vulgaris foliis molliora, leviter sinnata et incana; <i>flores</i> ad genicula ab imo ad summum caulium plures, sublutei e capitulis nonnihil spinosis, atque cum rotundi globuli forma simul commissis exeuntes. Inveni Melitæ in via quæ casalnovum ducit. Lutetiæ etiam nascitur, sed capitulis minus compactis.</p>	<p>Boccone, page 65; fig. the same page.</p>

Names.	Definition.	Authors who have described them.
Limonium.	Reticulatum supinum.	Boccone; fig. page 83.

Cynomorium aut  
Fungus Melitensis.

Est plantæ secundariæ aut parasitiæ genus, quod aliarum stirpium radicibus A; in nascitur et aliter ut anblatum, clandestina hypopitys, orobranche, et similia, initio squamis densissimis B; tectum, postea dum incrementum acquirit, et ad magnitudinem suam pervenit, squammarum agmina inter se paulatim dilatantur C; foliolis D; infra squammarum spatium creberrime vestitum; inter quas emergunt flores monopetali, anomali, vomeris aut cunei turbinati forma ex una parte cavi, E; altera vero convexi F; stamine crassiori G; apice biventri, H; instructi, sed steriles et calyce carentes. Embryo vero ab eisdem floribus vix sejunctus I; tuba K; donatus et foliis planta tanquam calyci obvolutus, L; abitque deinde in subrotundum semen, M.

See MICHELIO  
(PETRO ANTONIO),  
Nova Plantarum Genera juxta Tournefortii Methodum disposita. Florence, 1728, folio.  
See Pl. IX.

## No. III.

## CATALOGUE

OF

## PLANTS

WHICH, ACCORDING TO *CAVALLINI*\*, GROW IN*MALTA AND GOZA.*

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
1 <b>ABSINTHIUM</b>	. Santonicum. Dod. Gal.
2 <i>Acuta</i>	. Spina quorundam. Spina alba vulgo Ang. <i>Oxyacantha</i> Matth. Mespilus sylv. Castor. Sorbus aculeata Cord. hist.
3 <i>Adiantum</i>	. Album Plin. Cæs. Capillus Veneris verus Ger.
4 <i>Ægilops</i>	. 1. Et Avena fatua Tab. festugago Gaz.
5 <i>Allium</i>	. Sylv. tenuifolium Lob. Adv. et Ico. Allium in arvis Plinio.
6 <i>Alsine</i>	. Matth. minor Lob. Adv. et Ico. Hippiia minor Cord. Histor.
7 <i>Alsine</i>	. Mas. Gesn. hort. Hederulæ folio C. B. P. Elatine Dod. Gal.
8 <i>Amaranthus</i>	. Sylv.
9 <i>Anagallis</i>	. Terrestris mas. Thal. phœnic. Tab. punicea Ces.
10 <i>Anagallis</i>	. Cerulea fem. Clus. hist.
11 <i>Anagallis</i>	. Sive Becabungia Ger.
12 <i>Anagallis</i>	. Aquatica minor flore pallido, Gersium Ang. Cepea Tur.
13 <i>Anchusa</i>	. Puniceis floribus B. Pin. Buglossa rubra Lon.
14 <i>Anchusa</i>	. Echii foliis et floribus C. B. Pin.
15 <i>Androsaces</i>	. Matth. Musei marini genus Gril.
16 <i>Anemone</i>	. Nemorum alba purpurea coccinea Ger. Ranunculus phragmites Gerhort.

\* A Maltese physician, very celebrated for his knowledge in botany. His work, entitled *Pugillus Meliteus, &c.* was become extremely scarce. M. Brückman thought it so interesting a performance, that he published it at large (see *Epistolæ Itinerariæ Centuria Secunda*), and dedicated it to Linnæus. He does not explain the abbreviations, which frequently require it.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
17 Anethum .	. Sylv. grandius sativo, foliis fœniculi Cæs.
18 Antirrhinum .	. 1. Matth. Arveux majus B. Pin. Orontium Dod. Gal.
19 Antirrhinum .	. 3. Matth. arvense minus C. B. P.
20 Antirrhinum .	. Alterum Trag. Pesedec facie.
21 Anthyllis .	. Valentina Clus. hist. Chamæsyce Dalect. Lugd. Peplion sive Peplis Cord.
22 Anthriscus .	. Plin. Clus. hist. Scandix Cretica minus B. Phyt. et prodr.
23 Aparine .	. Matth. Philanthropos Plin. B. Pin. descript.
24 Aphaca .	. Matth. Orobus Sylv. seu Sylv. seu Viscia sylv. major et 2. Trag.
25 Apium .	. Palustre et Offic. B. Pin. Oleosolinum Tur.
26 Arisarum .	. Minimum supinum, folio serpentariæ flore albo lucido.
27 Aristolochia .	. Ionga. Dod.
28 Artemisia .	. Cineria, seu Eruca cinerea Dalecorum Matth. maculatum Tab.
29 Arundo .	. Matth. Ama Ger.
30 Asparagus .	. Sylv. Matth. Palatium leporis Cæs.
31 Asparagus .	. Foliis acutis C. B. Pin. Corneda Dod. Gal.
32 Asphodelus .	. Matth. Hastula Regia Trag.
33 Aster .	. Atticus Matth. Tinctorius flos. 1. Trag.
34 Aster .	. Atticus alter Matth. Lugd.
35 Atriplex .	. Sylv. 3. Matth. Lugd. Blitum IV. et Solanum IV. Trag.
36 Atriplex .	. Sylv. 3. Camer. in Matth.
37 Atriplex .	. Halimoides Lob. Icon.
38 Atriplex .	. Fœtida B. Pin. Vulvaria Cast. Garosinum Cord. hist.
39 Atriplex .	. Marina Matth.
40 Avena .	. Sterilis Adval. Bromos. sterilis Lob. Icon.
41 Auricula .	. Muris minima.
42 Bellis .	. Media Matth.
43 Bellis .	. Minor Matth. Primula veris Bruns. Cæs.
44 Borrage .	. Sylvestris floribus albis Tab.
45 Branca .	. Ursina Dod. Gal. Sphondilyum Matth.
46 Buglossum .	. Vulgare Matth. Crisium Italicum fuchs.
47 Bursa .	. Pastoris fuchs.
48 Brionia .	. Alba radice minori, frisan Cretica Ponæ Ital.
49 Brionia .	. Nigra Ger. Malacocipum Damocrali.
50 Calamentum .	. Montanum album tenuifolium odoratum.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
51 Calamentum .	. Alterum tenuifolium album graviter olens. Nepeta aliquorum.
52 Calendula .	. Sylv. minor. Cæs. arvensis Tab. Ger.
53 Capparis .	. Non spinosa Bellon.
54 Carduus .	. Muricatus Clus. hist.
55 Carduus .	. Chrysanthemus Dod. Ger. Atractylis marina Lugd.
56 Carduus .	. Mariæ Trag. et multæ altæ species quarum notitia in meliori diligentia.
57 Carthamus .	. Syl. Lon. Horacantha Tab. Eyst.
58 Ceresolium .	. Matth. Gingidium fuchs.
59 Centaureum .	. Minus flore rubro Eyst.
60 Centaureum .	. Luteum alterum Lugd.
61 Chamædryes .	. Vulgaris mas. fuchs. Auricula muris 3. Cæs.
62 Chamædryes .	. Fœm. fuchs. Teucrium 3. minus Tab.
63 Chamæleon .	. Niger Cortusi Dod. Crocodilion Tab.
64 Chamæleon .	. Albus Dioxor. Guill. Spina Arabica Dod. Gall. cujus hic radix maxime venenata.
65 Chamæmelum .	. Fœtidum B. Pin. Cotula alba Dod. Chamomilla offic.
66 Chamæmelum .	. Non fœtidum Dod. Gal. an Melandrium Plin. Dod. Gal.
67 Chamæpytis .	. 3. Seu altera Matth. incana exiguo folio B. Plin.
68 Chamæpytis .	. Moschata, foliis serratis C. B. P. tua moschata. Mõnsp. Ad. Tab.
69 Chamæsyce .	. Matth. peplium minus repens.
70 Chelidonium .	. Majus Ger.
71 Chelidonium .	. Minus Gesn. hort. Favagello Cæs.
72 Chondrilla .	. Prior Matth.
73 Chondrilla .	. Altera Matth. purpurascens . . . Icon.
74 Chrysanthemum .	. Flore partim candido, partim luteo B. Pin.
75 Chrysanthemum .	. Majus folso profundius laciniato magno flore C. B. Pin. Creticum 1. Clus. hisp. et hyst. luteum Eyst.
76 Chrysanthemum .	. 3. Cæs. Bellis lutea foliis subrotundis C. B. Pin.
77 Cicorium .	. Pratense luteum levius B. Pin. Hedypnois Plinii Dod. Gal.
78 Cicorium .	. Sylv. fl. luteo, et aliud flore luteo cæruleo C. B. Pin. Descript.
79 Cichorium .	. Spinolum creticum Belli Pona, non alibi quam hic sponte nascens, tamen et in Creta visum, a Pona et Imperato inter Creticas plantas delineatum.



Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
80 Cicuta . . .	Major Camer. Cicutoria vulgaris Cluv. histor.
81 Cineraria . . .	Dod. seu Jacobæa maritima Ponæ Lugd.
82 Clematis . . .	Altera Matth. Pothos cæruleus Lugd.
83 Convolvulus . . .	Marinus noster imperato. Soldanella vel Brassica maritima major B. Plin.
84 Conyza . . .	Minor et Eupatorium. Mesues Col.
85 Conyza . . .	Minima, saxatilis, Camphoræ odore, a me nusquam quam hic observata, similis Conyzae montanæ Myconis, nisi quod hanc is hircum graviter acere asserat, nostra vero Camphoræ acutissimum, nec ingratum odorem spiret.
86 Conyza . . .	Marina Balech.
87 Corallina . . .	Alba Lob. Tab. Muscus marinus fruticos Cost. quia nil præstantius ad intestinorum lumbricos.
88 Coronopus . . .	Matth. Herba stella Dod.
89 Coronopus . . .	Sylvestris Cæs.
90 Cristagalli . . .	Lob. Mimulus Plinii quibusdam.
91 Crithinum . . .	1. Matth. Batis Gem. hort.
92 Crithinum . . .	Chrysanthemum Dod.
93 Cucumis . . .	Agrestis Brunf. e quo hic præstantissimum claterium parant.
94 Cupressus . . .	Sylv. humilis foliis et strobilis minoribus mihi nusquam visa, nec apud Author. observ.
95 Cuscula . . .	Matth. tum Lino tum Squillæ adnascens.
96 Cyanus . . .	Segetum C. B. P. Baptiscerula Trag.
97 Cyanus . . .	Spinus Creticus Ponæ Ital. Stabe peregrina Clus. histor.
98 Cimbalaria . . .	Lugd. Linaria hederæ folio Col.
99 Cynocrambe . . .	Matth. Mercurialis mascula Sylv. Cord. hist.
100 Damasonium . . .	Sive Alysma Lugd.
101 Damasonium . . .	Stellatum Lugd. Plantago aquatica minor altera Lob. Icon.
102 Dentellaria . . .	Rubra Dalech. Lugd.
103 Dipsacus . . .	Sylv. Dod. Carduus fullonius erraticus Trag.
104 Ebulus . . .	Aug.
105 Echium . . .	Lac. Anchusa Sylv. Tab.
106 Endiva . . .	Sylv. Casal. Aphace Dalech Lugd.
107 Equisetum . . .	1. Matth. Hippium majus Dod. Cauda equina officin.
108 Erica . . .	Juniperifolia dense fruticans Nab. Lab.
109 Eruca . . .	Sylv. Du.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
110 Eruca maritima .	Lugd.
111 Eryngium . . .	Marinum Ad. Lob.
112 Eryngium . . .	Montanum pumilum C. B. Pin.
113 Erythrodanum .	Marinum Lugd. Cancalis maritima Cæs.
114 Ferula . . .	Matth. femina Plinii C. B. Pin.
115 Filix . . .	Mas Dod. femina Cæs.
116 Flammula . . .	Matth. Clematitis altera Turn.
117 Fœniculum . . .	Sylvestre B. Pin.
118 Fumaria . . .	Purpurea et alba Ger. fumus terræ Thal.
119 Fungi . . .	Matth. et multa alia genera esui aptissima.
120 Garderotheryium	Creticum Hon. Belli ep. b. ad Clus. Pon. Ital. Stachys Spinosa Cretica B. Pin.
121 Genista . . .	Dod. Spartium Matth.
122 Genista . . .	Seu Spartium aliud Hispanicum Clus. Lugd.
123 Geranium . . .	Malvaceum sive Balsaminum Cam.
124 Geranium . . .	Cicutæ folio acu longissima B. Prodr.
125 Geranium . . .	1. Matth. Myrrhida Plinii et nostrum Ciconiæ Ad. Lob.
126 Geranium . . .	Robertianum Ad. Lob. Panox herculeum Aug. et multæ aliæ speciis opportuniore commoditate exarandæ.
127 Gladiolus . . .	Gesn. Xiphion Diosc.
128 Glastum . . .	Sive Isatis Syles. Adv.
129 Gnaphalium . . .	Marinum tomentosum Lugd.
130 Gnaphalium . . .	Hortense roseum. Banh. Prodr.
131 Gnaphalium . . .	Chrysanthemum capitulo singulari.
132 Gramen . . .	2. Plinii Aug. Centumgrana Cæs.
133 Gramen . . .	Cruciatum Ægyptium Alpini, nostro idiomate Negera et Salib. sive stellatum Vesling. eadem enim species est licet paniculatum radiis variegatum ludat, ut modo quatuor, modo pluribus stellam representat.
134 Gramen . . .	Alopecurodes, et multa alia genera variæque species, quarum major pars in meo catalogo plantarum medici sapientiæ Romanæ explicato.
135 Halimus . . .	Adv. Lob. Portulaca marina Dod. Icon.
136 Hedera . . .	Arborea Lugd.
137 Hedisarum . . .	Majus Lugd.
138 Hedisarum . . .	Alterum Dod.
139 Hedisarum . . .	Minus Tab. ferrum equinum capitatum, sive conosum Col.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
140 Heliotropium .	Tricoceum Lugd. minus Matth.
141 Heliotropium .	Majus Matth.
142 Heliotropium .	Supinum Clus. hisp. et hist. minus 1. Tab.
143 Heliotropium .	Erectum Ger.
144 Hemionitis .	Matth. vulgaris B. Pin.
145 Hæmorrhoidalis .	Cast. Chondrilla 2. Cæs.
146 Hepatica .	Brunf. Lichen Dod.
147 Herniaria .	Col. Millegrana. Cord. hist.
148 Herba .	Turca officin.
149 Hieracium .	Majus Matth. Taraxacon majus Lon.
150 Hieracium .	Minus Aug. Succisa 3. Trag.
151 Hipposelinum .	Lac. Olusatrum Cord. in Diosc.
152 Horminum .	Sylv. Matth.
153 Horminum .	Sylv. fuchs.
154 Hyacinthus .	Boryoides cæruleus Clus. pan.
155 Hyacinthus .	Boirgoides lacteus Clus. pan.
156 Hyosciamus .	Niger Dod. Apollinariii Cord. in Diosc.
157 Hyosciamus .	Candidus Trag.
158 Hyosciamus .	Oreticus luteus minor B. Pin.
159 Hypericum .	Syriacum et Alexandr. Lob.
160 Hypericum .	Supinum tomentosum majus vel Hispanicum B. Pin.
161 Hyssopus .	Sylv. tenuifoliis.
162 Jacea .	Lutea capitulo spinoso B. Pin; major lutea Adv. Lob.
163 Jacea .	Minor.
164 Jacea .	Humilis lutea hieracii folio capitulis elegantibus.
165 Iris .	Sylv. major Matth. Gladiolus tenellus major Trag.
166 Juncus .	Acutus Aug. rotundus alter Cæs.
167 Juniperus .	Minor sterilis.
168 Kali .	Matth. geniculatum majus B. Pin.
169 Kali .	Nodosum, quod coctum in acetariis nostri comedunt et apud nos <i>Armandia</i> .
170 Kali .	Alterum, seu minus Cam. Kali album Dod.
171 Kali .	Magnum album Alpini.
172 Kali .	Fruticosum folio Kali minoris.
173 Kali .	Spinoso affinis B. Pin. Tragum Matth.
174 Lactuea .	Sylv. fuchs. Scartiola et Serciola Erk. Cord.
175 Lampsana .	Matth. rapistrum Brunf.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
176 Lapathum .	. Acutum Lob. Hidrolapanthum magnum Ger. Icon.
177 Lapathum .	. Rotundum Aug.
178 Lens .	. Palustris Dod. Gal. Lenticula aquatica Thal.
179 Lentiscus .	. Matth.
180 Leucoium .	. Incanum majus B. Pin. album Matth.
181 Leucoium .	. Rubr. simplici Bry. Eyst.
182 Leucoium .	. Duplis floribus Adv.
183 Leucoium .	. Sive Cheyri purpureo violaceum pleno flore siwert.
184 Leucoium .	. Purpureum variegatum flore pleno Eyst.
185 Leucoium .	. Marinum minus Clus. hisp. et hist.
186 Limonium .	. Parcum Narbonense Lugd.
187 Limonium .	. Supinum reticulatum haud alibi visum (Vid. Boccone Del.)
188 Linaria .	. Dod. Osyris Matth.
189 Linum .	. Sylvestræ Matth.
190 Lolium .	. Album Ger.
191 Litopisos .	. Sive Hierazuni Candix Pona an Trifolium corniculatum aliorum.
192 Lotus .	. Sylvestris, forsan Sylv. Dioscoridis a Pona inter creticas plantas delineata.
193 Lunaria .	. Lutea Dalech. Lugd.
194 Lunaria .	. Minor Cast. Dur. ferrum equinum Matth.
195 Lychnis .	. Sylv. quæ Behen album vulgo C. B. Ra. Pin. Polemonium Dod.
196 Lychnis .	. Sylv. Dod.
197 Lychnis .	. Maritima minima fl. suaverubente et fol. holostr.
198 Malva .	. Agrestis minor Gesn. Hort.
199 Malva .	. Flore suaverubente Gesn.
200 Marcrubium .	. Nigrum Gesn. Hort.
201 Marcrubium .	. Matth. fem. Brunss. candidum Trag. Prassium Aug.
202 Medica .	. Cass. Icon. Trifolium cochleatum alterum Dod.
203 Medica .	. Pusilla Camer Trifolium echinatum arvense B. Pin.
204 Mentha .	. Rubra Brunss. Sisymbrium Sylv. Matth. Lugd.
205 Menthastrum .	. Lac. Mentha equina Brunss.
206 Mercurialis .	. Mascula Tur.
207 Mercurialis .	. Florens Cæs.
208 Moly .	. Dioscoridis pettatum Adv.
209 Muscus .	. Arboreus Matth. Quercus Lob.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
210 Muscus .	. Repens infectorius e rupibus Saxisque crustarum instar enascens colciis varii modo lutei modo crocei purpurei, viridis, nigricans, quo e rupibus abraso, atque in urina macerato ac cocto pannis ac tapetibus xerampelino colore tingendis utuntur.
211 Muscus .	. Terrestris vulgaris Dod.
212 Narcissus .	. XIII. medio luteus poëticus Tab.
213 Nasturtium .	. Sylv. Thal. Thlaspi minus Germ. Tab.
214 Nasturtium .	. Aquaticum supinum B. Pin. Sisymbrium aquat. Matth.
215 Nasturtium .	. Aquaticum erectum folio longiore P. Pin. Sium. vulgare Matth.
216 Nigella .	. Sylv. et 2. Trag.
217 Oleaster .	. Cæs. Olea Sylv. Matth.
218 Orchis .	. Mas angustifolia fuchs.
219 Orchis .	. Angustifolia fem. altera fuchs. Icon.
220 Origanum .	. Vulgare Lugd. flore rubente.
221 Ornithogalum .	. Majus Dod. Arabicum Clus. pan. et hist.
222 Ornithogalum .	. Neapolitanum Clus. flore interius candido et exterius cineraceo sivert.
223 Orobanche .	. Vera Gesn. Hort. Ama Aug.
224 Orobus .	. Sylv. angustifolius Asphodeli radice B. Pin.
225 Oxalis .	. Sylv. minor sive acetosella qualem Alpinus in Zacyntho insula se observ. memorat.
226 Panax .	. Siculum folio Pastinacæ sativæ Boccon.
227 Papaver .	. Corniculatum luteum fuchs.
228 Papaver .	. Erraticum minus Tab. Argemone Lac.
229 Papaver .	. Erraticum Lac. Papaver rhæas Lob.
230 Parietaria .	. Vulgaris et major Trag. Helxine Matth.
231 Parietaria .	. Minor ocynis folio B. Pin.
232 Paronychia .	. Altera Matth.
233 Pastinaca .	. Sylv. latifolia B. Pin.
234 Pesteri .	. Veneris Matth. Scandix Dod.
235 Peplis .	. Matth. maritima Thal. obtus. B. Pin.
236 Peplis .	. Matth. sive Esula rotunda B. Pin.
237 Perfoliata .	. Matth. Sæseli Æthiopicum Dioscoridis Cæs.
238 Persicaria .	. Altera Matth. maculis nigris Gesn. Hort.
239 Pimpinella .	. Sanguisorba major B. Pin. Sideritis 2 Diosc.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
240 Pimpinella	. Sanguisorba minor Matth.
241 Pimpinella	. Agrimonoides odorata Boccon.
242 Pimpinella	. Minor odorata.
243 Phyllitis .	. Matth. Lingua cervina officin. B. Pin.
244 Plantago .	. Et Centinervia Cæsal.
245 Plantago .	. Minor fuchs.
246 Plantago .	. Trinervia fol. angustissimo B. Prodr.
247 Plantago .	. Aquatica minor. Cæs.
248 Plantago .	. Marina Dod. Gal. Bibinella Cæs.
249 Polemonii .	. Altera species Dod. Gal. Valeriano rubra B. Pin.
250 Polygonum	. Mar. Matth. Centinodia Brunf.
251 Polygonum	. Marinum prius Dalach. Lugd.
252 Polipodium	. Quercinum Ger.
253 Psyllium .	. Matth. Cynops. Theophr. Gesn. Hort.
254 Pulegium .	. Matth. sem. fuch. Icon.
255 Pulegium .	. Cast. mas Plinii Col.
256 Quinquefolium	. Majus repens B. Pin. Pentaphyllon majus Thal. luteum majus Dod. Gal.
257 Quinquefolium	. Album minus Banh. Prodr.
258 Ranunculus	. Thalyctri folio Clus. Pan.
259 Ranunculus	. Arvensis echinatus B. Pin.
260 Ranunculus	. Balrachioides Ge.
261 Ranunculus	. Palustris apii folio levis B. Pin.
262 Ranunculus	. Sardonicus Aug.
263 Raphanus .	. Rusticanus B. Pin.
264 Rapistrum	. Flores albo Eruca folio Lob. Icon. Lampiana Cæs.
265 Rapunculus	. Matth. Rapum Sylv. Gesn. Hort.
266 Reseda .	. Lutea major aborescens.
267 Reseda .	. Candida major.
268 Rhamnus .	. Matth. spinis oblongis flores candicante B. Pin.
269 Rubia .	. Major Lob. Adv. Thapsia Asclopiada Aug.
270 Rubia .	. Sylv. minor Adv. Lob. Lappago Plinii Cæs.
271 Rubesta .	. Arvensis repens carulea B. Prodr.
272 Rubus .	. Matth. Morus sive Rubus aug.
273 Ruscus .	. Ger. sive Bruscus.
274 Ruta .	. Montana Tab. Sylv. Matth.
275 Saturveia .	. Lac. Hyssoꝝus agrestis Bruns.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
276 Scabiosa .	. Fuchs. altera campestris.
277 Sogetum .	. Lob. Icon.
278 Scariola .	. Arabum interpretibus.
279 Scilla .	. Major Cast. Squilla Matth. nihilo hispanica præstandior qua vix alia hic planta copiosius crescit.
280 Scolymus .	. Sylv. Adv. Lob.
281 Scordium .	. Alterum sive Salvia Sylv. B. Pin.
282 Scopidis .	. Matth.
283 Scopidis .	. Altera Dod.
284 Scornozera .	. Sylv. tenuifolia.
285 Sedum .	. Majus verum Gesn. hort. Sempervivum arborescens Matth.
286 Sedum .	. Minimum repens vermicularis, an insipida Eyst.
287 Senecio .	. Minus Matth. Erigeron Diosc.
288 Serpillum .	. Foliis cisti odore B. Pin.
289 Sideritis .	. Heraclea Dioscoridis Col.
290 Sinapi .	. Album Lugd. Brassica Sylv. foliis circa radicem Cicho- raccis B. Pin.
291 Sisyrinchium .	. Minus Clus. Hisp.
292 Smilax .	. Aspera Matth.
293 Solanum .	. Officinarum B. Pin. Hort. Matth.
294 Soldanella .	. Gesn. Hort. Brassica marina Matth.
295 Sonchus .	. Spinus Aug. Andriolia major Lugd.
296 Sonchus .	. Levis Matth.
297 Staphisagria .	. Dod.
298 Stœchas .	. Citrina Matth. Ageratum Amelia Dod. Gal.
299 Tamariscus .	. Lon. Myrica Gesn. Hort.
300 Teucrium .	. Boëticum Clus. Hisp.
301 Thlaspi .	. Latifolium fuchs.
302 Thlaspi .	. Candia Dod.
303 Thlaspi .	. Bisculatum Erysimi folio.
304 Thlaspi .	. Arinum Dalech.
305 Thymum .	. Creticum legitimum Clus. hisp. et hist. quo nil hic fre- quentius inde apes præstantissimum mel colligunt.
306 Tithymalorum .	. Varia genera, quorum seriem ponere est multum in lon- gum nos traheret, cum in catalogo nostro omnia legi possunt.

Latin names.	Synonymes and references.
307 Trifolia . . .	Pratensia varia quorum flores ludunt sæpe sæpius in coloribus.
308 Trifolium . . .	Acetosum Matth. Oxys. Tur.
309 Trifolium . . .	Bituminosum angustifolium. Idem rotundifolium.
310 Triticum . . .	Vaccinum Lugd. parietaria Sylv. 3. Clus. Pan.
311 Typha . . .	Palustris Cæs. Ulva Aug.
312 Typha . . .	Cerealis Dod. Gal. Frumentum Romanum Trag. Lugd. Triticum Matth.
313 Verbascum . . .	S. Matth. nigrum foliis Papaveris corniculati B. Pin.
314 Verbascum . . .	Salvifolium fruticosum luteo flore Lob.
315 Verbenaca . . .	Matth. Herba sacra Aug.
316 Verbena . . .	Supina Clus. hist. Teucree folia B. Pin.
317 Viola . . .	Marina repens Eyst. Icon.
318 Vitex . . .	Lac. Agnuscastus Gesn. Hort.
319 Umbilicus . . .	Veneris Matth. Cotyledon major B. Pin.
320 Umbilicus . . .	Veneris alter Matth.
321 Umbilicus . . .	Veneris Lob. Icon. Cotyledon minus Sedi folio. Adv. Lob.
322 Volubilis m. . .	Minor Thal Helxine cissanpelos Matth.
323 Volubilis . . .	Terrestris Dalech. Lugd. Convolvulus minimus spicæ foliis Ger.
324 Volubilis . . .	Seu convolvulus folio Altheæ Clus. hisp. et hist.
325 Urticarum . . .	Varie species quarum series in longum protracta in catalogo meo.
326 Uva . . .	Marina Dod. Polygonum marinum sive cocciferum Tab.

Demum in domesticis Viridariis præter rosarum omne genus gestarum nihilo suaviorum gariophyllos variosque balbaceos flores undique exquisitos frequenter sunt Myrtus, Jasminum album, Rosmarinus, Lavendula, Mentha, Saracenicæ, Ocyri variae species aliæque plantæ odoratæ in Italiâ familiares.

Ad ornatum autem visumque grato virore recreandum seri frequenter solent Balsamina mas, sive Momordica, Colochyntis Liuaris, Scoparia Italis Belvedere Lithospermum arundinaceum, vulgo Lacryma Jobi, Nerium sive Oleander, Phyllirea, Campanula cærulea, Amaranthus purpureus, Vesicaria repens. Flos Africanus seu Caryophyllus Indicus, Solanum æthale seu somniferum Fuchs, vulgo Belladonna, aliudque Solanum exoticum, quod pomum amoris dicunt.

Sed et aliæ haud paucae Egyptiæ atque Americanæ plantæ hic pridem translatae pæne indignisunt nobis effectu hujusmodi sunt Jasminum Arabicum seu Ægyptium Alpini, nostratibus Hispanicum dictum: Alcaea Ægyptia, semine mos-



chum olente, aliis Bamia moschata, Hedera quinque folia Canadensis, Cyanus Turcicus odoratus, vulgo *Ambrete*, cum albo tam purpureo, Leucoium melancholicum Hesperidum, aliis Jasminum rubrum, Amaranthus ruber cristallis, seu Blitum majus Peruanum Clus. Hist. Amaranthus bacciferus Americanus. Mirabilis Peruana. Acacia vera Ægyptia Alpini et Veslingii. Triticum Indicum. Colocasia quam ut et Alven haud semel florentem vidimus, Canna Indica. Opuntia seu ficus Indica, Pier Indicum multiforme, Nasturtium Peruanum Monardi; hic male flos Granadillæ Passionalis reputatum: Sol Indicus seu herba maxima. Rosa Sinensis ac Malva Japonica, sebesten a translate nuper etiam musam optime jam propagari cernebatur. Viguit quoque haud ita pridem Datura Egyptia seu Nux vomica vera Arabum. Planta vero sensitiva longe melius adolevit, quam in aliis Europæ locis. Superest quoque adhuc et Ricinus Americanus, cujus nuclei sursum deorsumque vehementer expurgant. Atque hæc de plantis quæ in Melita, ejusque districtis observantur, sat dicta sumto.

## No IV.

EXPLICATIO  
NOMINUM AUTHORUM,

QUI IN PRÆSENTI

## CATALOGO

SUNT CITATI.

ACTUAR.	.	.	Actuarius.
Ad.	.	.	Adversaria Pena.
Ægin.	.	.	Ægineta.
Æt.	.	.	Ætius.
Ama.	.	.	Amatus.
Ambrosin.	.	.	Ambrosini.
Ang.	.	.	Anquillara.
Apul.	.	.	Apulejus.
Avic. Avicen.	.	.	Avicenna.
Bellon.	.	.	Bellonius.
Bell. obs.	.	.	Belloni observatione.
Bras. Brassav.	.	.	Brassavolus.
Brij du Brij.	.	.	Florilegium de Brij.
Bocc. Boccon.	.	.	Paulus Bocconius.
Brunf.	.	.	Brunfelsius.
Brunf. Ico.	.	.	Quoad Iconem.
Cæs.	.	.	Cæsalpinus.
Cam. Camer.	.	.	Camerarius in horto.
Cam. ep. & hor.	.	.	Camerarius in epitome Mathioli & suo horto.
Car.	.	.	Carolus Stephanus.
Cast.	.	.	Castor Durantes.
Cast. ap.	.	.	Id. in appendice.
Cast. Ico.	.	.	Id. secundum Iconem.
Cels.	.	.	Cornelius Celsus.
Cl. hist.	.	.	Clusius historia rariorum.

Clus. hist. des. Ico.	. . .	Historia rarior. descriptione vel Icone.
Clus. pan.	. . .	Id. Historia Pannonica.
Clus. hisp.	. . .	Id. Historia Hispanica.
Clus. ex. exot.	. . .	Id. Historia Exoticarum.
Clus. ap.	. . .	Id. in appendice.
Clus. cur. post.	. . .	Id. in curis posterioribus.
Clus. in Carol.	. . .	Id. in Corrollario.
Clus. in Jarz.	. . .	Id. in Jarziam.
Cod. Cæs.	. . .	Codex Cæsarius à Dod.
Col. & Colum.	. . .	Fabius Columna.
Cord. in Diosc.	. . .	Cord. in Dioscoridem.
Cord. hist.	. . .	Id. in sua historia plantarum.
Cord. obs.	. . .	Id. in Silva observationum.
Cord. Schol.	. . .	Cordi Scholiastes.
Cord. in disp.	. . .	Id. in dispensario.
Corn.	. . .	Janus Cornarus.
Cornut.	. . .	Cornutus.
Cost. in Mes.	. . .	Costeus in Mesuem.
Costin.	. . .	Nicolaus Costinus.
Dal. Dalech.	. . .	Dalechampius.
Dalech. Lugd.	. . .	Id. in historia universali Lugduni.
Dod.	. . .	Dodonæus.
Dod. Gal.	. . .	Dodonæus in editione Gallica.
Eyst. Eystet.	. . .	Hortus Eystensis.
Eric & Val. Cord.	. . .	Ericius & Valerius Cordus.
Fallop.	. . .	Gabriel Fallopius.
Frascast.	. . .	Frascastorius.
Fuch.	. . .	Fuchsius.
Fuch. Ico.	. . .	Id. in Iconibus.
Gal.	. . .	Galenus.
Ger.	. . .	Joannes Gerardus Anglus.
Ges. lib. hort.	. . .	Gesnerus in libro de hortis Germaniæ. hor. ap. in appendice.
Guil.	. . .	Guilandinus.
Hipp.	. . .	Hippocrates.
Hon.	. . .	Belli Honorius.
Imper.	. . .	Ferrantes Imperatus.
Jo. Bapt. Triumph.	. . .	Joannes Baptista Triumphetti.
Jo. Bapt. Ferrar.	. . .	Joannes Baptista Ferrarius.

Jo. Bauh.	.	.	Joannes Bauhinus.
Lac. Lacun.	.	.	Andreas Lacuna.
Leon.	.	.	Nicolaus Leoniceus.
Lel. Triumph. in	}	.	Lellius Triumphettus in observationibus fratris.
obs. fratr.		.	
Lob.	.	.	Lobelius in observationibus.
Lob. ad part. alt.	.	.	Id. in Adversariorum parte altera.
Lob. Ico.	.	.	Id. in Iconibus.
Lugd.	.	.	Historia generalis Lugduni cusa.
Matth. Matt.	.	.	Matthiolus.
Mycon.	.	.	Myconus.
Pena.	.	.	Petrus Pena.
Phytopin.	.	.	Phytopinax. C. Bauhini.
Plin. Pl.	.	.	Plinius.
Pon.	.	.	Joannes Pona.
Prod.	.	.	Prodromus. C. Bauhini.
B. Pin.	.	.	Bauhini pinax.
Rawolf.	.	.	Leonardus Rawolfius.
Ros.	.	.	Eucharius Roslin.
Rob.	.	.	Joan Robinus.
Rondel.	.	.	Rondeletius.
Ruel.	.	.	Joan Ruellius.
Scalig.	.	.	Scaligerius.
Serap.	.	.	Serapio.
Suv. Suve.	.	.	Suvert Suvertius.
Tab. Taber.	.	.	Taberna montanus.
Tab. Ico.	.	.	Id. in Iconibus.
Th. Thal.	.	.	Joannes Thalius.
Trag.	.	.	Hieronymus Tragus.
Tur.	.	.	Guilielmus Turnerus.
Vall.	.	.	Vallot.
Zanon.	.	.	Zanonus.

No. V.

## CATALOGUE

*Of several PLANTS which, according to FORSKÄL, grow in MALTA,  
particularly near the SALTWORKS, together with the  
distinguishing Characteristics of the said Plants;  
published by him under the Title of*

## FLORULA MELITENSIS\*.

Latin names.	Characteristics.
1 SALICORNIA . . .	. Europæa. ad Salinas.
2 Salvia . . .	. Verbenac.
3 Rosmarinus . . .	. Officinalis.
4 Phalaris . . .	. Canariens. ad Sal.
5 Poa . . .	. Filicina.
6 Panicum . . .	. Dactylon.
7 Panicum . . .	. Glaucum.
8 Polycarpon . . .	. Tetrach. in cultis.
9 Lagurus . . .	. Ovatus. ad Sal.
10 Avena . . .	. Fatua.
11 Hordeum . . .	. Murinum.
12 Agrostis . . .	. In horto.

\* This small work makes a part of a more considerable one, published by this learned Dane, entitled *Flora Ægyptiaco-Arabica, sive descriptiones plantarum quas per Ægyptum inferiorem et Arabiam felicem detexit, illustravit, &c.* printed at Copenhagen, in quarto, 1775, after the author's death, by Carsten Niebuhr. Some of the plants mentioned in this work have been already described by Cavallini, but in so different a manner, as sufficiently justifies their being repeated in this account.

Latin names.	Characteristics.
13 Cynosurus . . .	Paniceus.
14 Scabiosa . . .	Atropurp. hort.
15 Crucianella . . .	Marit.
16 Plantago . . .	Serraria, foliis lanceolato dentatis. ad Sal.
17 Plantago . . .	Coronopus.
18 Galium . . .	Aparine. An Valantia? fructu tuberculato. ad Sal.
19 Sherardia? . . .	In cultis*.
20 Samolus . . .	Valerandi. ad Sal. et in ruderalis.
21 Convolvulus . . .	Arvens.
22 Eryngium . . .	Albo villosum.
23 Chenopodium . . .	Fruticos, facie Sals. vormic. ad Sal.
24 Chrithmum . . .	Marit. ad Sal.
25 Solanum . . .	Lycopers. in hortis cult.
26 Hyosciamus . . .	Aureus. ad vias.
27 Cressa . . .	Cretica.
28 Daucus . . .	Carota.
29 Hedera . . .	Helix.
30 Beta . . .	Vulg. capsula multi ansata.
31 Frankenia . . .	Pulverul. in ruderal.
32 Allium . . .	Ad margines agrorum.
33 Arenaria . . .	Peploides.
34 Oxalis . . .	Cornic. in cultis.
35 Reseda . . .	Alba; tetragyna. in ruderal.
36 Reseda . . .	Undata; Calycis dente supremo non minore. Spontanea in horto D. Locano.
37 Punica . . .	Granat. hortens.
38 Mesembr. . .	Nodifl. ad Sal.
39 Chelidonium . . .	Glaucum.
40 Capsaris . . .	Spinosa.
41 Papaver . . .	Hybr. in arvis.
42 Papaver . . .	Capsulis globosis, hispidis.

\* Sicum specimen intuens, video Sherardiam hanc a caractere generico discrepantem; genus tamen determinare jam nequeo. Caulis dichotomus pilosus. Folia ad dichotomias bina, opposita tridentata. Flores sessiles, solitarii in dichotom. Calyx quinquefidus, ciliatus, magnus, persistens. Corolla tubulosa, elata, basi angusto filiformis.

Latin names.	Characteristics.
43 Delphinium .	. Elatum.
44 Thymus .	. Serpyllum.
45 Thymus .	. Zygis.
46 Mentha .	. Arvens.
47 Mentha .	. Exigua. ad Sal.
48 Mentha .	. Puleg. culta; incolis vocata. Poleg.
49 Satureia .	. Hortens. incolis. Sariette.
50 Antirrhinum .	. Majus.
51 Antirrhinum .	. Orontium; floribus ecalcaratis, foliis oppositis.
52 Lepidium .	. Sativ. in hortis.
53 Alyssum .	. Alyssoid. staminib. non dentatis, ad vias.
54 Malva .	. Sylvestr.
55 Alcea .	. Rosea; hortens.
56 Trifolium .	. Stellatum.
57 Hedisarum .	. Onobr.
58 Tragopogon .	. Picroid. foliis lanceolato hastatis, dentatis.
59 Scorzonera .	. Picroid.
60 Soncus .	. Olerac. ad Sal.
61 Hyoseris .	. Cretica.
62 Hypochæris .	. Urens; ad vias.
63 Cichorium .	. Spinos. ad Sal. Usus ad purganda et læviganda navigia et scaphas.
64 Carduus .	. Lancelat. ad Sal.
65 Carduus .	. Syriacus; foliis sessilibus amplex.
66 Carduus .	. Cyanoides; an Cynara? Incolis artichots sauvages, capitulo grandi cæruleo; cæterum similis Cnico dentato.
67 Senecio .	. Vulg. ad vias.
68 Senecio .	. Jacobæa ad Sal.
69 Senecio .	. Incan. ad muros et in rupibus.
70 Chrysanthemum .	. Segetum; ubique frequens.
71 Achyllea .	. Odorata. ad Sal.
72 Buphtalmum .	. Spinos.
73 Buphtalmum .	. Melitense.
74 Centaurea .	. Galact.
75 Centaurea .	. Calcitr.
76 Centaurea .	. Melitense.

Latin names.	Characteristics.
77 Centaurea . . .	Solstit. ad vias.
78 Centaurea . . .	Moschata. culta. fasciculatim (bouguettes) venditur.
79 Pieris . . .	Echioides. ad Sal.
80 Othonna . . .	Cineraria.
81 Arum . . .	Colocasia.
82 Urtica . . .	Pilulifera.
83 Zannichellia . . .	Flor. umbellatis. ad Sal.
84 Ceratonia . . .	Siliqua.
85 Valantia . . .	Fructu globoso lacunoso.
86 Adiantum . . .	Capill. ven. frequens ad aquæduct.
87 Obscura . . .	Articulata, aquisetiformis, foliis fasciculato verticillatis. Sicca fragilissima, intense viridis. ad Salinas in fonte aquædulcis.



## No. VI.

## CATALOGUE

OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF

## FISH

ON THE COAST OF

## MALTA,

ACCORDING TO A LEARNED PHYSICIAN OF THAT ISLAND.\*

Generical names.	Species.	Maltese names.
DELPHINUS	Orca	I Delfin.
	Delphis	
Raja	Altavela	Il Hamiema.
	Torpedo	
	Pastinaca	
	Aquila	Il Hamiema.
	Batis	Il Raja.
	Musmarinus (piscis novus)	
Squalus	Pristis	Il Sia.
	Catulus	Il Rusetta.
	Spinax	Il Chelp. il Bahar. est Arab. Kelh el bahr.
	Zygana	Il Martel.
	Squatina	
	Lamia	Il Gabdol.
	Centrina	
Acipenser	Sturio	
	Huso	
Petromyzon	Lampetra	
	Mustela	Il Mustilla.
Lophius	Piscatorius	

\* See *Descriptiones Animalium, &c. quæ in Itinere Orientali observavit Petrus Forskål*; page xviii. et xix.; one volume in quarto, printed at Copenhagen, with plates, 1775.

Generical names.	Species.	Maltese names.
Ostracion . . .	Gibbosus	
	Lagocephalus	
	Hystrix . . .	Il Rizza.
	Capite testudineo	
	Mola . . .	Il Kamar.
Gasterosteus . . .	Aculeatus	
	Pungitius	
	Spinachia . . .	L'Ispnotta.
Balistes . . .	Scolopax	
Chaetodon . . .	Paru	
	Vetula . . .	Il Hogiusa.
Zeus . . .	Aper	
	Gallus . . .	I Serduk.
	Faber . . .	L'Aurata.
Cottus . . .	Scorpius . . .	I Scorfua.
	Dracunculus	
Trigia . . .	Milvus . . .	Il Taira.
	Lucerna . . .	I Tigiega.
	Gurnardus	
	Lyra . . .	Il Triglia.
	Cuculus	
Mullus . . .	Surmuletus	
Scorpæna . . .	. . . . .	I Ceppulazza.
	Scorpius . . .	Il Mazzun.
Trachinus . . .	Draco . . .	Il Majuro ta rocca.
Perca . . .	Lucioperca	
	Asper	
	Cernua . . .	I Cerna.
	Lahrax	
Sciæna . . .	Umbrina	
	Umbrina	
Sparus . . .	Auratus . . .	L'Aurada.
	Cantharus	
	Crythinus . . .	Il Pagella.
	Pagrus . . .	Il Pagru.
	Dentex . . .	I Dentici.
	Boops	

Generical names.	Species.	Maltese names.
	Mænas . . .	Il Minnula.
	Smaris	
	Sparus . . .	I Spargu.
	Melanurus	
	Salpa . . .	I Scilpa.
Labrus . . .	Turdus, vulg.	
	Turdus virid. mi- nor	
	Pavo	
	Scarus cretic.	
	Julis . . .	Il Harusa ; Arab. Arusa.
	Sachettus	
	Scarius varius . . .	Il Bricchese.
Mugil . . .	Cephalus . . .	Il Caplar.
Scomber . . .	Thynnus . . .	Itton.
	Scombrus	
	Trachurus . . .	Savrella.
	Amia	
	Glaucus	
Xiphias . . .	Gladius . . .	Il Pesci spat.
Gobius . . .	Niger	
	Paganellus	
	Aphyia	
	Jozo	
Blennius . . .	Alauda	
	Galerita	
	Gunellus	
	Galea	
	Mustela	
	Pentadactylus	
Ophidion . . .	Gryllus	
Muræna . . .	Anguilla . . .	Il Sallura.
	Myrus	
	Serpens marinus	Il Serpt al bahar.
	Conger . . .	L'Insella.
	Serpens maculatus	Il Murina.
Gadus . . .	Asellus varius . . .	L'Asnelli.

Generical names.	Species.	Maltese names.
	Æglefinus	
	Barbatus	
	Merluccius	
	Asellus virescens	
	Asellus mollis	Il Munckaro.
Anarhichas	Lupus marinus	
Ammodytes	Tobianus	
Coryphæna	Hippurus	I Lampuca.
	Novacula	Il Janfru.
	Pompilus	I Stellara.
Pleuronectes	Limanda	
	Hippoglossus	
	Linguatula	Il Linguada.
	Rhombus	
	Psetta	
Echeneis	Remora	
Esox	Lucius	I Trigle.
	Bellone	
	Acus	
Osmerus	Eperlanus	
	Saurus	
Clupea	Alosa	
	Encrasicolus	Il Sardella.