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REVIEWS

Baer on the Climate of the Russian Possessions in America—[*Ueber des Klima von Sitka, &c.*]—*Bulletin Scientifique de St. Petersburg.*

THERE is no philosopher of the present day, to whom Physical Geography (a branch of knowledge fast rising into vogue) is more indebted than M. Baer. His Memoir on Novaia Zemlia, an analysis of which appeared in No. 560 of this journal, threw much interesting and valuable light on the climatology of the northern portion of the Old World, and pointed out those accidents of structure which screen us, and the inhabitants of Northern Europe in general, from the inclemency characteristic of the ice-bound shores of Siberia. The Memoir on the Climate of Sitka is a counterpart to the preceding, and appears to us to be so important a contribution to the science which explains the local phases of nature's laws, that we consider ourselves in duty bound to lay an account of it before our readers.

It is well known that the climates of the eastern and western coasts of North America differ in a remarkable degree, the milder climate being towards the setting sun, or, to avail ourselves of the felicitously ambiguous language of the Greek poets, the western being in every sense the Hesperian shore. Yet these two climates have not hitherto been represented with such numerical details as to admit of exact comparison; and to the vagueness of our knowledge in this respect may be ascribed the common theoretical opinion that the western sides of all continents are warmer than the eastern. We shall confine ourselves, in what follows, to general meteorological results, omitting our author's tabular statements; and, to the details of the climate of Sitka, shall be added, for the sake of contrast, some account of that of Nain, a missionary settlement in the same latitude, on the coast of Labrador.

In 1830, the Baron F. von Wrangell, well known for his scientific exploration of the northern coast of Siberia, was appointed governor of the Russian possessions in America. Towards the close of the following year he commenced at New Archangel, the seat of his government, a meteorological journal, which was continued till the beginning of 1835, with the interruption of only three months in 1832. His observations were registered four times a day, with some slight changes of system, which it is needless here to dwell upon, and which do not prevent the reduction of the whole to a form calculated to yield the results of a uniform method. In the course of last year, Baron von Wrangell placed at the disposal of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, all his papers relative to the north-west coast of America, containing, it is said, a complete history, natural and political, of the Russian possessions in that quarter; and from these papers, the learned academician, M. Baer, immediately selected the Meteorological Journal for the subject of his comments, bearing in mind the practical utility of studying accurately the climate of a country where it is very desirable, and yet not easy, to promote the cultivation of the soil.

New Archangel, on the southern Sitka Island (which is named, in some maps, Baranov Island), stands in lat. 57° north, or nearly in the same parallel as Leith, and as the settlement at York in Hudson's Bay. According to Baron von Wrangell's journal, the thermometer rarely descends there below 28° of Fahrenheit's scale, or four degrees below the freezing point, during January and February, which are the coldest months of the year. The mean temperature of

these months appears to be 34°. Here, however, it must be observed, that in a letter of the Baron von Wrangell, published in the *Dorpat Review*, he incidentally mentions six degrees of cold, which, according as he uses the Centigrade scale, or that of Reaumur, will bring down the thermometer to 21° 22', or to 19° Fah. However, we learn from the letters of his lady, that in December 1832, the air at Sitka was so mild, that no discomfort was felt from sitting in-doors with the windows all open. This is certainly a remarkable proof of the temperate climate of what is called the Fur Coast. But to return to M. Baer: he calculates the mean temperature of August, the hottest month of the year at Sitka, when the thermometer occasionally rises to 67°, to be 57° 7'. He then compares the variation of temperature throughout the year at Sitka, to that which takes place under the same parallel on the coast of Labrador, and also at a point in the middle of the continent, the temperature of which point is derived by calculation from Franklin's observations at Cumberland House (lat. 53° 57' N.), and at Fort Chippewyan (lat. 58° 43'). As this comparison exhibits in the broadest light that apparently anomalous contrast of climates which it is the business of the physical geographer to trace to the operation of constant laws, we shall here state the problem at once in the form of an abridged table:—

Mean Temperature.

	New Archangel. lat. 57° 3' N. long. 135° 13' W.	Middle of the Continent. lat. 57°. long. 108°.	Nain on Coast of Labrador. lat. 57°. long. 61° 20'.	Bergen in Norway. lat. 60° 24'.
Winter (Dec. to Feb.)	34°·7	— 4°	— 1°·2	36°
Spring	42·2	+ 27·2	+ 21·6	44·6
Summer	56·3	66·2	45·6	58·5
Autumn	47·8	30·7	36	47·7

Hence it appears that in the parallel of 57° N., the mean annual temperature on the western coast of the American continent is 18° higher than on the eastern. The winter at Sitka is no less than 36° warmer than that at Nain in Labrador; while the summer heat of the former exceeds that of the latter place by 10° 8'. In the interior of the continent, the climate, as might be expected, runs further into extremes than in the vicinity of the sea, and while the summer is 10° warmer than at Sitka, the winter is about 38° colder than at the latter place. But in the interior, the extremes of heat and cold, particularly of the latter, far exceed those experienced on the coasts, the thermometer sometimes indicating cold of 20° or 30° below zero. Nevertheless, as the calculated temperatures of the middle of the continent, in the table above, are derived from observations made at Fort Chippewyan, in the immediate neighbourhood of a considerable expanse of water (Lake Chippewyan), it is probable that they exhibit more equability than properly characterizes the climate at a distance from such modifying circumstances. The rapid increase of temperature during spring in the interior, is a clear proof of the great difference there between summer and winter: the difference between April and May, is, in New Archangel 7°·5, in Nain 7°·9, and in the interior 19°·6.

However favoured Sitka may appear to be, in comparison with the eastern coast of America, it has yet an austerer climate than the western coasts of the Old World under the same parallel of latitude. Bergen, on the coast of Norway, closely resembling New Archangel in local circumstances, and situated above three degrees farther north, is nevertheless warmer than the latter place, as the table shows, in almost every season of the year.

In order to judge correctly how far the quantity and distribution of the temperature of New Archangel, compared with the temperatures of

the interior and eastern coast of the American continent, in the same latitude, will warrant an inference respecting the general distribution of the warmth of North America in that latitude, or respecting the course and direction of the isothermic lines at the various seasons of the year, it will be necessary to consider attentively the local circumstances of that place. New Archangel is situated on the island of Sitka, which is separated from the continent by several narrow arms of the sea, of small extent compared with the mass of the continent which overhangs Sitka on the east. On the west is the open ocean. Consequently, New Archangel may be said to have, not so much an insular, as a littoral or coast climate. In equability of seasons it must be considered intermediate between an inland situation and an island in the open ocean. At the same time, its natural circumstances, and those of the adjoining coast, tend to lessen the influence which the vicinity of the continent exercises on its climate. On the island are high mountains, one of which reaches an elevation of 4,000 feet above the sea. On the mainland also, near the coast, is a range of mountains, which impede the equalization of temperature between the shore and the interior. New Archangel is, consequently, cooler in summer and warmer in winter than it would be if not thus closed in on the eastern side; and observations made there indicate less perfectly the course of isothermal lines across the continent, than those made at the Columbia River, in situations more open towards the land. The mountains on the coast near Sitka are covered with thick woods. This barrier of mountain and forest checks the progress of the vapours from the sea, which, before reaching the summit of the ridge, fall in rain or thick mists, so that the lower strata of air on the coast loses a good deal of their warmth by the constant evaporation of so much moisture. It is the prevailing humidity of the atmosphere which renders the residence in Sitka so disagreeable, although it does not appear to be so injurious to health as is generally supposed. In the year 1828 there were reckoned, in New Archangel, 120 days on which it rained uninterruptedly; 180 days of interrupted rain or snow, and only 66 days of what could be called fair weather. That was not, by any means, an unusually wet year: according to the Russian navigator Lutke, it sometimes happens that, in a whole year at Sitka, there are but forty fine days.

The winter at New Archangel (34°·7 Fabr.) is warmer than the winter at Mannheim or Stuttgart, and is a medium between the winters of Turin (34°·4), and of Padua (35°). But at some of these places, on account of their distance from the sea, the winter cold is more concentrated, and, for a time, much more intense than in New Archangel, where frost and snow have less empire than in England. A frost of ten days' continuance is there a rarity, and the frosty days altogether hardly exceed twenty in the year: sixteen is perhaps the average. Consequently, as the ground is not deeply frozen, the snow never lies long: in general, it disappears as soon as it falls; and perpetual snow is found only in the recesses of the mountains. In the winter of 1836, at Sitka, there was hardly any snow at all. The port is open all the year; none but the small bays hemmed in by mountains and islands being frozen over in the winter.

The moderate temperature of the winter at Sitka offers no advantages to compensate for the deficiency of summer heat with which it is allied. Equability of seasons has everywhere a tendency to relax or to frustrate the efforts of the husbandman. In all the possessions of the Russian American Company, with the exception of the settlement of Ross, in lat. 38°, near Bodega, on

the coast of California, there is no corn grown, and those colonies must consequently be supplied with grain, either from the ports of European Russia, or from California, or from Ochotsk, whither corn is carried overland from western Siberia. It would be a great mistake to infer from the mean annual temperature of Sitka, which exceeds that of Bern, Stockholm, Moscow, and St. Petersburg, the capability of rearing grain. Moscow has a summer hot enough to ripen wheat; at Sitka, the warmth, instead of being thus advantageously concentrated in one season, is more equally distributed throughout the year, and is never sufficient to bring any grain to maturity.

The summer of Sitka (lat. $56^{\circ} 3'$) is considerably colder than that of Abo in Finland ($60^{\circ} 26'$), and even than that of Uleaborg, at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia, and hardly warmer than the summer in the heart of Lapland. In short, the summer temperature of Sitka is identical with that of those parts of Europe where rye either does not ripen at all, or else only in particular localities. And when it is considered that rye, on approaching to maturity, requires dry weather, and that the cessation of rain can never be reckoned on, with certainty, at Sitka, at any season of the year, it becomes manifest that its cultivation in that island is not likely to be attended with success. In Europe, the cultivation of rye goes further north than Uleaborg, but does not extend to Torneo: that of barley, on the other hand, extends beyond Torneo, through Lapland within the polar circle; and towards the ocean, it succeeds even at Alten, near North Cape, under the 70th parallel of latitude. It is not much repressed by humidity, or the equability and consequent moderate warmth of the insular climate, as is evident from the success with which it is carried on in the Shetland and Faroe Islands. Hence there is reason to conclude that the cultivation of barley might be tried with advantage at Sitka; and, in fact, we learn that the first settlers there did actually make the experiment, and succeeded in it, though their recorded success has hitherto, we believe, moved no imitators. In some favoured spots on the mainland, Baron von Wrangell sowed barley, which ripened well, although the ground had been ill prepared for its reception.

In the vicinity of New Archangel, the Russians cultivate only a few potatoes, brocoli, and some garden herbs. M. Baer suggests that probably at no great distance within the mountains on the main land, and on their eastern slopes, might be found a climate favourable to the cultivation of rye as well as barley; a dry and hot summer there succeeding to the severe cold of winter. But the absence of any considerable rivers on the coast preclude the idea of great valleys penetrating the mountainous ranges; and it seems therefore more likely that the mountains skirting the shore have on their eastern side a table-land, the elevation of which would prove adverse to M. Baer's expectation of a genial summer temperature.

From Sitka we shall pass over to the eastern side of the American continent, in order to contemplate more perfectly the remarkable contrast of climates exhibited by the opposite coasts of the New World in the same latitude. The missionary settlement of Okak is situated on the coast of Labrador, less than a degree further north than Nain and New Archangel, and will therefore admit, with a very slight allowance for its nearer approach to the pole, of being compared in respect of climate with the last-named places. The journal of the missionary at Okak gives us near its commencement the ominous information that the month of August (1837) passed without snow. Yet this exemption is not experienced every year, for we learn from other

authorities that snow often falls in Labrador towards the end of August. In September 1837 snow fell heavily, and ice was formed, which, with the snow, continued through the winter. Near the end of this month the potato crop was dug up, and proved, for the situation, good; the produce of the garden, the brocoli, turnips, &c. were gathered soon after. November was ushered in by violent storms. On the 1st of December the bay was frozen, and by the middle of the month the ice along the coast was so firm that the Esquimaux travelled on it to Nain, a distance of sixty miles. The thermometer during this month varied from five degrees above to sixteen below zero. In January the cold increased, the mercury remaining, day and night, at from eight to eighteen degrees below zero. In April the cold was somewhat abated, but snow fell in great quantities, and the missionaries laboured in vain to expedite the disappearance of the snow by strewing it over with ashes and dark-coloured substances. They missed the exact position of their garden, and plied their melting process fifteen feet from the spot which they wished to disencumber. At length, by digging and carrying out the snow, they reached, on the 23rd of April, what they called the early beds of their garden, which then stood surrounded by a wall of snow ten or twelve feet high.

In the beginning of May, the missionaries, aided by the Esquimaux, continued to excavate the snow, which they found to lie eighteen feet deep on the spot destined to receive their potato seed. They sowed various garden seeds in the close vicinity of the frozen mass. Snow fell frequently in this month, but did not accumulate, the temperature being rarely either below or much above the freezing point. In June, the labours of the garden made greater progress, and the snow visibly diminished, yet it froze hard every night. It was not till the 25th of June that the ice broke up along the shore. July began with warm weather, the thermometer rising to 72° Fahr., but it suddenly changed, and new ice was formed on the morning of the 4th. Nevertheless the augmentation of heat was such that by the end of the month the snow had quite disappeared from the hills in the neighbourhood; but the heat, which for a day or two felt oppressive, terminated on the 28th with the setting in of cold sea fogs. This cool moist weather continued till the 28th of August, when the thermometer sank nearly to the freezing point, and snow fell on all the elevated ground in the vicinity. Thus it appears that at Okak there are hardly above two months of the year perfectly free from ice and snow; the latter accumulates on the plains near the sea shore in Labrador, to a depth of twenty or twenty-four feet, while on the western shores of the continent, in the same latitude, it melts almost as soon as it falls.

It now remains for us to lay before our readers M. Baer's explanation of that temperateness of climate which distinguishes in so remarkable a manner the Russian fur coast from the rest of the North American continent in the same zone. That learned Academician pointed out in a former memoir how Northern Europe is protected from the extreme rigours of an icy climate by the fortunate circumstance of having Novaia Zemlia and the submarine elevations extending from that island towards Spitzbergen, interposed between it and the ice formed or brought down by the great rivers on the coast of Siberia. In like manner he now shows that the comparatively temperate climate of Sitka is to be attributed to the configuration of the continent, by which that place is completely screened from the influence of the circumpolar regions. At a little distance north-west from Sitka, the peninsula of Alyaska, varying from twenty to sixty miles across,

stretches south-westwards above 300 miles, and beyond it, the line of its direction is marked for a still greater distance by the Aleutian islands. Thus the peninsula and its insular continuation, dividing for 700 miles the waters of the equatorial ocean from those of Behring's sea and the circumpolar ocean, leaves Sitka open to the influence of the former, and effectually screens it from the latter. This single cause, operating unremittingly, is sufficient to produce the anomalous temperature on the north-western coast which has been already described. Behring's sea, on the northern side of the peninsula, receives considerable quantities of ice both from the Asiatic and American shores, as well as through Behring's Straits. Its superficial current seems to run northwards, but there can be no doubt that a current from the circumpolar ocean runs underneath. Beechey found the water colder at some depth than near the surface. South of Alyaska there are no rivers of any magnitude on the coast for a long way down, and consequently the ice formed along the shore is in very small quantity.

The peninsula of Alyaska and the Aleutian islands form in general a range of very high land, which impedes the equalization of temperature between the atmospheric as well as oceanic regions, which it divides. On approaching those islands from the south, a sudden decrease of temperature is felt, and they are generally found wrapt in fogs, which mark plainly the line of separation between a warm and a cold sea. Perhaps there is no other region of the earth in which such striking change of climate is exhibited within such narrow limits as at Alyaska. In the first place, that peninsula divides the naked shores from those richly clothed with woods. The shores of Behring's sea are all bare of wood, nor can this be altogether ascribed to the violence of the sea winds, since, on the south side of the peninsula, trees are found growing in the most exposed situations.

Alyaska forms as remarkable a line of demarcation for the animal as for the vegetable kingdom. On the one side of that peninsula is found the walrus, an inhabitant of the polar circle; on the other flutters the humming-bird, the bright herald of the south. In the Aleutian islands, facing Behring's sea, the walrus is found in $56^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, while on the south-eastern side of the peninsula of Alyaska, the humming-bird ascends in summer as far as Cook's Inlet, in lat. 60° north. The ice-fox is another animal the range of which southwards is limited by Alyaska. The Aleutian islands are not unfrequently visited by polar bears, carried thither on icebergs, which accumulate on their shores, and often remain unmelted till May. The humid atmosphere of those islands is favourable to the growth of grasses, and, according to Lutke, the island of Unalashka can vie in the luxuriance of its meadows with Brazil itself.

Having thus gone over M. Baer's luminous remarks on the climate of Sitka, we shall merely add the observation, that the equable climate of that region is as unfavourable to the increase of the fur animal as to the growth of corn. The British claim the sovereignty of the interior of the continent, as far as the mountains which run parallel to the coast at a distance from it not much exceeding fifty miles. In 1834 Mr. M'Leod, a gentleman in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, crossed the Rocky Mountains about two degrees north of the latitude of New Archangel, and traced for some distance a fine river, named by him Frances River, which turned northwards, and probably has its outlet north of Mount St. Elias. Mr. M'Leod approached on that occasion within fifty miles of the boundary, or about a hundred miles from the nearest sea-coast. The right of hunting

within the Russian American possessions has now, we believe, become vested, by purchase, in the Hudson's Bay Company. Such a transfer of right, not in itself perhaps a very valuable acquisition, is yet calculated, owing to the relative situation of the parties, to prevent much jealousy and dispute.

The Book of the Thousand and One Nights: from the Arabic of the Egyptian MS. As edited by William Hay Macnaghten, Esq. B.C.S. Done into English by Henry Torrens, B.C.S., B.A. Calcutta, W. Thacker; London, Allen & Co.

WE little expected, when, in October last, we were called on to review Mr. Lane's translation of the Arabian Nights, that a like duty would again devolve on us within so short a period, by the publication of another version, which, if not ushered into the world like the former with every attraction of typographical refinement and illustration, is, nevertheless, well worthy of attention, as being made from the original Arabic, and from a MS. said to contain many tales entirely new to European readers. The publication, too, in this instance, of the original text, afforded us much satisfaction; for, although no less than three different versions—including the Calcutta edition of the first two hundred Nights—have already been made public, we were curious to see how much the present would differ from the preceding, and how far the opinions which we formerly expressed as to the authorship, and the probable age of the collection called "the Arabian Nights," would be confirmed by the present volume.

Since October last, Mr. Lane's translation has made considerable progress, and the second volume is nearly completed, the whole being executed in a manner which confirms and strengthens the opinion which we then passed on its general merits. His version continues to be faithful, and his style both vigorous and simple, admirably well suited to the subject, and to the shifting and variable demands of the original. The notes, too, make us daily more and better acquainted with the manners and customs of the East, and entitle the author to great praise for his criticism and erudition. There is, however, one point on which we must still differ from him, and on this subject we shall say a few words, before we proceed to consider the merit of the work before us. This is the much disputed one as to the authorship and age of these celebrated tales. Mr. Lane, in his preface, published with Part 10, for February, has adduced new arguments in favour of his opinion; we, on the other hand, have become possessed of undeniable facts, which, if they do not altogether settle the question in our favour, must be allowed to have great weight.

We formerly expressed our conviction that a Persian work, bearing the title of 'Hezár Afsáneh,' (the Thousand and One Nights,) translated into Arabic as early as the second century of the Flight, had, in all probability, furnished the type,—nay, the groundwork, of all the collections of Arabian tales bearing a similar title. This we maintained on the authority of a passage of El-Mes'oodé's history, entitled 'The Golden Meadows.' Mr. Lane himself has since examined the passage, and not only admits it to be authentic, but thinks it probable that "the general plan of the Arabian 'Thousand and One Nights' is borrowed from the Persian work," (see preface, p. ix). Thus far, then, we agree. But we further stated, that although we saw nothing in the version of the Arabian Nights, published by Mr. Lane, which was not strictly reconcilable with the manners and customs of Egypt, the same admission could

not be made with reference to similar collections current in other Eastern countries; we, therefore, directed attention to a distinction of some consequence in reference to this subject,—the difference between collections formed at Baghdád, Damascus, or Aleppo, and those made at Cairo, Fez, or Constantinople. Mr. Lane here differs from us; he is of opinion "that there are no works thus entitled, essentially and mainly different, and belonging to different ages as well as countries"; and that no differences in the copies now known to exist, are palpable enough to justify the conclusion, that the old 'Hezár Afsáneh' of the Persians, translated first into Arabic, was gradually altered and augmented until it formed the present collection of Arabian tales; and lastly, that such discrepancies as occur in the various manuscripts "can easily be accounted for, in the same manner as those existing in the copies of the romances of Aboo Zeyd, or that of Ez-zahir, and other similar works, which are committed to memory by the public reciters, and then transcribed from their dictation."

That such differences exist cannot be denied, for scarcely any of the known copies contain the same number of tales; the edition published at Breslau in 1825, is fuller than that translated by Galland; that of Cairo has still further additions; while that which is now in course of publication contains more matter than either of the former. Some, like that in the possession of Baron von Hammer-Purgstall, have been considerably augmented by short anecdotes taken from other works, such as the description of Solomon's table, found at Toledo, by Tárik Ibn Zeyád, at the time of the invasion of Spain by the Arabs; the journey undertaken by Moosa across the deserts of Africa in search of a city, the walls of which were said to be made of brass; the adventure of the poet, Ibn Shohayd, with Aboo Amir El Mansoor, Wizeer of Hishám II., Khalif of Cordova, all of which are borrowed from well-known historical sources, and have been added to the general collection.

But nothing tends so much to strengthen our opinion, as the fact, that the two copies of this work, at present in the library of the British Museum, differ, one considerably, the other almost entirely, from any of the printed editions; it being further worthy of remark, that both form part of the collection made at Baghdád by the late Mr. Rich, British resident at that city. One of these, numbered 7,404, is contained in three volumes; the first volume in quarto, the other two in small octavo. They are written in the sort of loose hand generally used by illiterate transcribers of popular tales, and seem to be a portion only of a larger work. There is nothing particular in the first volume. The introduction is the same, and the tales similar to those of other editions; but out of thirty-two tales contained in the second and third volumes, only one—viz. that of 'The Sleeper Awakened,' is to be found in the common editions of the Arabian Nights, and even that differs in some respects. The tales, in general, are either translations from, or imitations of the Persian. We read these tales with great pleasure, and some of them are hardly inferior to the stories already known in Europe.

The other MS. (No. 7,407),—a thick volume in quarto, of about 900 pages,—is still more remarkable, since not only are the contents almost entirely different from those of any known edition, but even the introduction varies considerably. Instead of the long account of the journey of Shahriár to visit his brother Shahzamán, and the subsequent adventures, which give rise to his strange and brutal determination, and lead to the stratagem devised by Shaharzád, the author says, in a few lines, that a king of Basrah, (or Bassorah), whose name was Shahriár, son of Kásim, son of El'ammád, had a wife of such

extraordinary beauty, that her like was never seen among the daughters of the kings; that, having convicted her of adultery, he ordered her to be put to death, and swore that he would never marry a woman without ordering her to be executed the next day. This he continued to do for a long time, until his country was almost depopulated, and no maiden could be found to share the royal couch. At last Shaharzád, the daughter of his Wizeer, resolved to marry him; she communicates her intention to her father, who, without the least opposition or admonishment, leads her to the royal presence. The stories put in the mouth of Shaharzád, are, with few exceptions, entirely new. The work is divided into three parts. Part I. is composed of thirteen tales, out of which three only have been translated,—namely, 'The Sleeper Awakened,' 'The Fisherman Khalif, and the Khalif Fisherman,' and the story of 'The Crafty Dalilah.'† Part II. contains seven tales, all new, among which there is a very interesting one, entitled 'The Story of Jehánghér, son of Jelálu-d-deen, king of Mezandarán, and what passed between him and Bedra-l-ghiyábil, (Full-moon of the darkness,) daughter of the king of China.' The third part is nothing more than a translation of the well-known Persian tale of the Indian king and his ten Wizeers, otherwise the Bakhtyar Nameh, of which an English version was published, in 1801, by Sir William Ouseley. But the Arabian translator has taken so many liberties with it,—changing the names of the characters, altering some tales, adding others, and interspersing his narrative with so many poetical quotations, that it is not easy at first to discover the analogy. There is another circumstance in the MS. we are describing, worthy of remark,—namely, that most of the stories in the first part, even those where the scene is laid in Persia, India, and other remote countries, begin with these words—"There was in the times of Hároon Ar-rasheed," &c., from which we infer that the author, or collector of the tales, was a native of Baghdád, the seat of that Khalif, and his descendants of the house of 'Abbás, and chose to show his predilection for his native city, by constantly alluding to it.

These two examples, out of many which have come under our observation, will be sufficient to prove that there exist in the East many collections of tales essentially different from those hitherto known in Europe by the title of 'One Thousand and One Nights.' We do not mean that the existence of these tales affects in any way the main point we are discussing, since it is evident that these and similar collections, wherever they exist, are mere imitations of the former; but still we must come to the conclusion, that, either from caprice, taste, or other causes, the tales therein contained have been at different periods, and in various countries, so changed, as to form separate collections, more or less dissimilar from their original; and this fact being once admitted, we may likewise infer that the like changes may have taken place in the common Arabian Nights, respecting an old translation of the Persian 'Hezár Afsáneh,' which translation must have existed, since so distinguished and accurate an historian as El-Mes'oodé mentions the time when it was executed. As to the Persian work itself, we see, by a late notice in the foreign papers, that Baron von Hammer, who has always taken great interest in this question, has lately discovered in the 'Fahrasat,' a Persian bibliographical dictionary, that the composition of the 'Hezár Afsáneh' is attributed to Queen Umaï, the mother of Darius, king of Persia; and although we believe the account to be fabu-

† The first is to be found in Scott, but the other two only in the French translation, from the MS. in the possession of Baron von Hammer-Purgstall, Paris.