

A description of the Feroe Islands, containing an account of their situation, climate and productions; together with the manners, and customs, of the inhabitants, their trade, &c; / By G. Landt. Translated from the Danish.

Contributors

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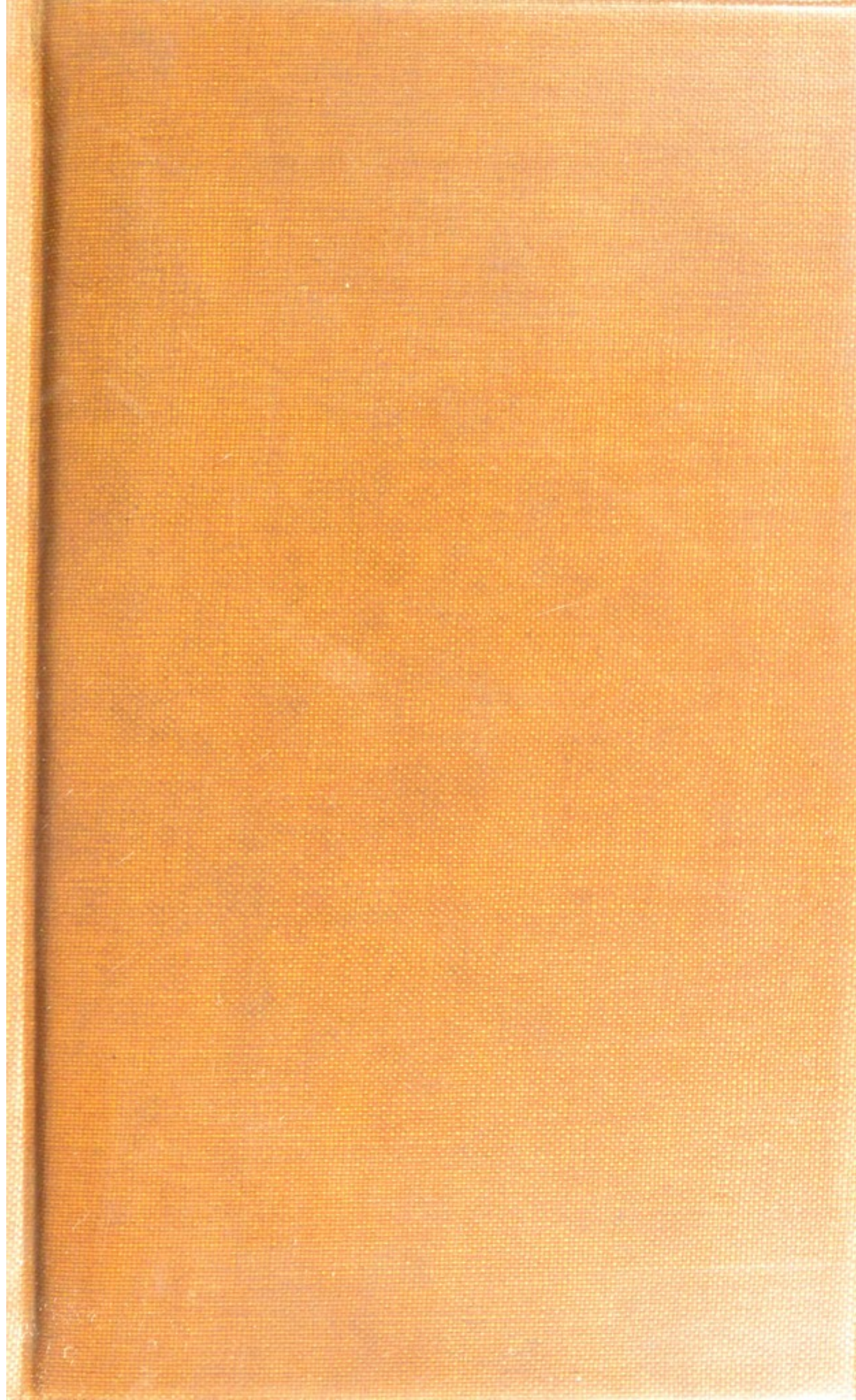
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DESCRIPTION

FROST ISLANDS

B. 2
p. 7.

A
DESCRIPTION
OF THE
FEROE ISLANDS,

CONTAINING
AN ACCOUNT OF THEIR SITUATION, CLIMATE,
AND PRODUCTIONS;

TOGETHER WITH
THE MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS, OF THE
INHABITANTS, THEIR TRADE, &c.

BY THE REV. G. LANDT,

Illustrated with a Map, and other Engravings.

TRANSLATED FROM THE DANISH.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR LONGMAN, HURST, REES, AND ORME,
PATERNOSTER ROW.

1810.



1/2

DESCRIPTION

FEROE ISLANDS

BY

A. J. B. OF THE FEROE ISLANDS, CLIMATE,
AND PRODUCTIONS

BY

THE FEROE ISLANDS, AND CUSTOMS OF THE
FEROE ISLANDS, AND TRADE

BY THE FEROE ISLANDS, AND TRADE

BY THE FEROE ISLANDS, AND TRADE



Printed by C. Stewer, 32, Paternoster Row.

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

AS the works hitherto published in regard to the Feroe Islands do not afford that satisfaction which might be expected, I have little reason to doubt that the following Description of them will meet with a favourable reception from the public. The *Færoa Reserata* of Debes* was in its time read

* Lucas Debes was born in the island of Falster in 1623. He resided several years in Feroe as a clergyman, and died in 1670. His work, entitled *Færoa Reserata sive Insularum Færoensium Descriptio, cum mappa geograph. insularum et tabula vortice repræsentante*, was published in octavo at Copenhagen, in 1673. An English translation of it appeared at London in 1676; and a German at Copenhagen in 1757.

TRANS.

with approbation; but this work is now become scarce, and besides, being in many points erroneous, it every where displays traces of that prejudice and credulity which prevailed at the period when it was written.

During a residence of seven years in these islands, where I officiated as a clergyman, I employed such time as I could spare from my public duty in collecting every thing I found worthy of notice in the three kingdoms of nature, in order that I might discharge a promise made to the Society of Natural History, at Copenhagen. With the same view I occasionally visited the different islands, to make myself acquainted with their local situation, as well as with their physical and economical condition; and in the course of my excursions I seldom failed, at each place which I examined, to write down short notices of what I observed, and of every thing remarkable that occurred to me; though without any intention, at that time, of communicating the result of my labours to the public.

On my return to Copenhagen, in the year 1798, finding that several of my friends were anxious to obtain a more correct account of these remote islands, I resolved to

embrace the opportunity which my leisure then afforded me of gratifying their wishes ; and began the following attempt towards a description of them. But, though the memoranda I had made supplied me with valuable materials, I found that in many particulars they were far from being complete ; and I was, therefore, obliged to supply the deficiency from such printed works and manuscripts as I was able to procure. These I employed wherever I found them suited to my purpose ; but I can safely assert that I never copied any circumstance as authentic without having previously convinced myself of its truth by every means in my power.

Being no great admirer of old traditions, I have mentioned only in a very brief manner what I thought necessary to introduce in regard to the ancient state of the inhabitants of these islands ; and on this subject I made use of what has been quoted from old writers respecting the trade of Feroe, by H. Debes, and Lucas Debes ; and also what has been said by the more modern writers on statistics—Thaarup and Schlegel.

Besides these helps, I obtained the perusal of some manuscripts, containing materials towards a Natural History of Feroe, written

by Mr. Mohr; but, though I had reason to regret, while turning over his observations, which consisted mostly of loose sheets, that so little was completed of what this industrious naturalist had begun, I must acknowledge myself indebted to him for the account of some plants which I had not the good fortune myself to discover.

In regard to the harbours and anchoring-places in Feroe, some information has been given by Svaboe and Lamhauge; but that my work might be as complete as possible, I conceived it necessary not to omit an account of them, especially as I had access, by means of Captain Lowenorn, to the Repository of Sea-Charts; and, at the same time was favoured with the use of the elegant and accurate charts of Captain Born, which enabled me to give more authentic information respecting these harbours, or, at any rate to correct that which has been already published.

For the taxes and duties paid by the inhabitants of Feroe I consulted, by permission of government, the registers preserved in the exchequer: in regard to the public institutions, the necessary information was kindly

communicated to me from the places to which they belong.

I was exceedingly desirous to have it in my power to give some more recent information with respect to the Feroese trade; but as I had not the good fortune to obtain the necessary documents, the reader must be satisfied with the short account I have given of it, according to the state in which it was a few years ago,

I must here return thanks to Professor Schumacher for the aid he afforded me in describing the zeolites found in Feroe; and in doing so I close the list of those sources from which I derived any assistance.

The chart which accompanies this work was copied by Mr. Born, from the general chart of the Feroe islands* constructed by his father.

* The translator thinks it necessary to observe, that the scale in the map which accompanies this English edition is of Danish miles. According to Christiani, (*Delle Misure d'ogni genere antiche e moderne*, &c. Bresica, 1760.) The Danish mile is to the English as 5000 to 1090; or, as 4.58 to 1. A Danish mile, therefore, is somewhat more than four miles and a half English. Wherever miles occur in the work itself they are to be considered as English miles. TRANS.

ERRATA.

Page 14, bottom line, for *consists*, read *consist*. P. 17, l. 8 from the bottom, for *there*, read *these*. P. 23, l. 6 from the top, for *fermed*, read *foumd*. P. 28, l. 9, *dele be*. P. 23, l. 2, for *six* parishes, read *seven* parishes. P. 54, l. 12, for *was*, read *were*. Ibid. l. 5 from the bottom, for *Stromroe*, read *Stromoe*. P. 219, l. 6 from the bottom, for *posts*, read *laths*. P. 240, at the top, for *Coraces*, read *Pica*. P. 265, in the title to SECTION XVI, for *Snakes*, read *Vermes*.

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AN NEW MAP
of the
FEROE ISLANDS,
constructed
by CAPT. BORY
1723.



The Islands

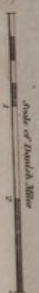






Fig. 1.

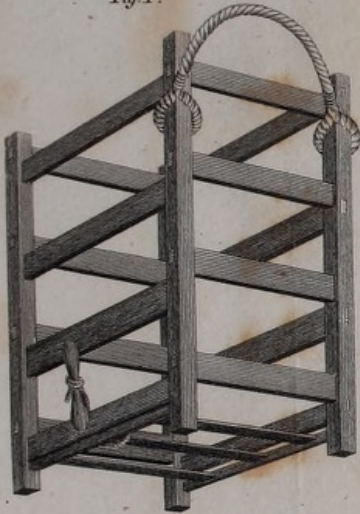


Fig. 6.



Fig. 4.



Fig. 3.



Fig. 2.

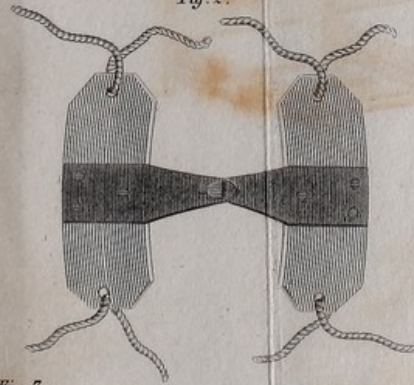


Fig. 7.



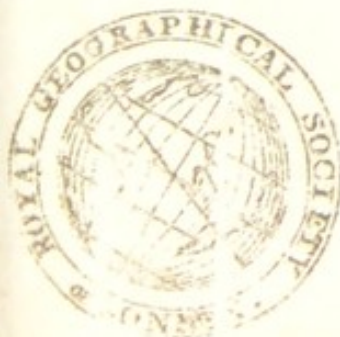
Fig. 5.







Lowry Sculp.





DESCRIPTION OF THE FEROE ISLANDS.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION.

SECTION I.

History and Name.

IT is conjectured, and with some degree of probability, that the freebooters who at one time infested most of the northern seas, first discovered the way to these islands, where they introduced sheep, in order that when obliged to put in there for shelter in the course of their frequent cruizes, they might always find a sufficient supply of provisions.

In the time of Harald Harfager, king of Norway, that is, in the ninth century, these islands were inhabited by some discontented Norwegians, who for a long time supported themselves by piracy and occasional incursions into their original country, Norway. There is some reason to believe that these people were first subjected

to the Norwegian dominion by king Hagen Adelsteen, but they soon shook off that yoke, and maintained themselves in a state of freedom, till they were again reduced to obedience by king Magnus the Good; after which period these islands always belonged to Norway, till they became a part of Denmark by the union of the two crowns.

It is generally believed that the Norwegians who first established themselves in these islands gave them the name of Faaroe, from the number of sheep which they found in them;* and that this name by a little change in the pronunciation was altered to Feroe. I should readily subscribe to this opinion, were it certain that the Norwegians employed the word *faar* to express a sheep. But the term *Fero* is derived, perhaps, from *fier*, feathers; an article which, in consequence of the great number of sea fowl caught in these islands, is very abundant; or from *fiær* or *fiærn*, far distant: the last derivation is the more probable, as the people in the north of Scotland give the name of Feroe to an island not far distant from these: and to distinguish it from the Feroe islands belonging to Denmark, they call the latter North Feroe.† But these are merely con-

* *Faar*, in Danish, signifies a sheep, and *oe* an island. T.

† Called commonly Weir. Torseus gives it the name of Foeroe. *Barry's History of the Orkneys*.

jectures, which do not warrant us to affirm any thing certain on the subject.

SECTION II.

Situation and Extent.

THE Feroe islands are situated in the North Sea, between the latitude of $61^{\circ} 15'$ and $62^{\circ} 21'$: in regard to longitude, the town of Thorshavn lies $19^{\circ} 15' 15''$ west from Copenhagen, and $9^{\circ} 47' 45''$ east from Teneriffe. They are about 380 English miles distant from the coast of Norway on the eastern side, and 200 miles from the Shetland isles towards the south-west.

These islands are in number twenty-two, seventeen of which are inhabited. They occupy, in a direction from north to south, 67 miles; and extend in breadth, from east to west, 45 miles.

They consist of a group of steep rocks or hills, rising from the sea, chiefly of a conical form, and placed for the most part close to each other, some of which proceed with an even declivity to the shore; but the greater part of these declivities have two, three, or more sloping terraces, formed by projecting rocks, and covered with a thin stratum of earth, which produces grass. Close to the sea, however, the land in general

consists of perpendicular rocks, from two to three hundred fathoms in height.

The highest of all the hills in these islands, and that first seen by navigators, particularly from the west, is Skælling, which lies in the southern part of Nordstromoe. Its perpendicular height is 400 Danish fathoms, or 2240 English feet; and though it is the steepest of all these hills, it is possible to ascend to the top of it. When viewed from the bottom, it appears to terminate in a long sharp point; but when you have clambered up to its summit, you find a pretty level plain covered with moss, about 600 feet in length, and 200 in breadth. When the weather is clear, the whole of the Feroe islands may be seen from it.

The hills lie so close to each other, that the termination of the bottom of one is the commencement of the bottom of another, being separated merely by a brook or rivulet. There are no vallies of any extent between them: in the higher ground between their summits a few dales, covered with wretched grass, are sometimes seen; but these are not level, being interrupted sometimes by hillocks, sometimes by small rocky eminences, and sometimes by collections of large loose stones, which have the appearance of being thrown together by a volcanic eruption. On some heights there are found considerable tracts covered with rubbish, which

seems to be effloresced matter thrown down from the rocks; and these tracts produce no grass, for the finer mould, fit for the purposes of vegetation, which might be collected in them, is swept away by the violence of the winds, or washed down by the rain and snow water. Some moist places, less exposed to the impetuosity of the winds, afford a scanty nourishment to the *Kænigia islandica*, and the drier spots produce the *Saxifraga oppositifolia* and the *Statice Armeria*. But such is the smoothness and steepness of many parts of these hills, that no earth can remain on them; and, in general, the stratum of earth by which the rocks of the Feroe islands are covered is so thin, that it is sometimes no more than eight inches in depth; and in the vallies, where the land is arable, it never exceeds four feet.

SECTION III.

Of the Hills.

It would form a curious object of research to inquire in what manner the Feroe hills have been formed, and how they attained to their present elevation; whether above or under the water? Whether they owe their height to volcanic explosions which threw one stratum above another, or whether these strata were deposited upon each

other under the water, and were afterwards raised to their present situation by a volcanic eruption, or some elastic force produced by subterranean inflammation; or whether these hills have been formerly covered by the sea, which has since retired back in consequence of some convulsion of nature? To determine to which of these causes they are indebted for their origin, or whether to more than one of them united, would be interesting; but it would require much more knowledge than I can pretend to possess; and I am inclined to think, that if some of those celebrated naturalists who have carefully explored the hills of other countries, and examined their interior parts; the different strata of which they consist, as well as the component parts of these strata, and from the result of this examination have given us their opinions, or conjectures, in regard to the manner in which these hills have been formed, should take a survey of the Feroe islands, they would in one place adopt one system, and in another a different one; or perhaps, be at length obliged to confess that they found themselves at a loss to account for the phenomena which they saw around them.

The form of the hills is different, according to their situation, whether more to the north or the south. Those in Suderoe exhibit, in general, an evener surface; but those in Stromoe and Osteroe have on their sides several sloping terraces and

hillocks, lying close to each other. These hillocks present nearly the same appearance; so that when viewed at some distance, particularly from another hill or eminence, they resemble a camp consisting of pitched tents: and when these hillocks are covered with snow, which is often the case when there is no snow in the lower regions, this resemblance is still more striking; but the case with Norderoe is entirely different: the hills are steeper, and of a more conical form; and they have rough ridges on their summits, beset with projecting paps and asperities.

The terraces and indentations on these hillocks correspond, in general, to each other; nay, where two large hills are separated by a dale, which is terminated by a creek or small inlet from the sea, it may be readily perceived that the projections and indentations on these hills correspond in most places to each other.

The rocks in general consist of trap, almost every where intermixed with feld-spar, some glimmer and small grains of zeolite. The ridges of the hills sometimes exhibit clefts or fissures, which the inhabitants call *skaare*; and very often these fissures may be traced, in a straight line, through other islands, notwithstanding the interposition of the sea.

No certain traces of any crater or signs of volcanic eruptions are here to be found; nor did I ever observe any pumice-stone or lava in these

islands, unless basaltes can be considered as belonging to that kind of production.

Besides the large collections of stones already mentioned, which are occasionally found in the hills, there are seen sometimes in the vallies single stones, six, eight, or ten feet in diameter, but in places where it is impossible they could have fallen down from the hills. Such stones are found also here and there at a considerable height in the hills, where there is no other eminence in the neighbourhood from which they might have rolled down. On the sides of many of the hills, and particularly on the lower projecting declivities, there are often found great heaps of stones, among which there are some large ones; but it may be plainly perceived that these have been thrown down from the higher projections, in the fissures of which the rain-water lodges, and when it freezes in winter it splits the rock by its expansion, and on a thaw taking place these fragments tumble down, and by their fall destroy the grass plats below. But the stones thrown down in this manner are different from those before mentioned; for the latter have two sides, which stand at a right angle, or, at least they have one or more flat surfaces, whereas the former are in general round. *

In some of the hills there are strata of basaltic columns, standing in a perpendicular position; in other places they have an oblique direction.

This roundness, caused by attrition, shews

At Frodeboe, in Suderoe, is a series of these columns, the bottoms of which are concealed, but their summits are all visible. It extends to a considerable height in the side of the hill proceeding north or north-west, but sinks down towards the shore in a south or south-east direction; and at the bottom of the hill these columns stretch out several fathoms into the sea, always sinking lower, till they at length disappear beneath the water.

In exploring the Feroe hills one often meets with deep fissures between them, partly filled with basaltic matter, which extends the length of sixty, a hundred, or two hundred feet, and sometimes more; and which seems to have been violently torn asunder in the middle, or to have been split, so that there is now seen on each side a thin incrustation, or wall, about eight inches in thickness, as smooth and regular as if it had been formed by art. The matter behind this incrustation I found, in some places where it was visible, to be a red kind of stone, or hardened ochreous clay; and very often the cavity between these walls of basaltic matter serves as a bed or channel for a rivulet or stream: but these fissures are not found so frequently high up in the hills as towards the sea-coast, where the cavity between the walls is in general larger, and the walls higher.

Such is the external appearance of the hills in

Feroe. It might now be worth while to take a view of their interior structure, and to examine the component parts of their different strata. Were one to attempt this with boring instruments it would be a work of immense labour to penetrate the hard stone masses of which they are composed; but fortunately we can attain the same end in another manner, and with very great ease, as nature has laboured for us by splitting the high rocks, and tearing the one half from the other, so that in many places one sees on one side majestic cliffs rising perpendicularly to the height of five or six hundred feet, without being able to discover what has become of the other half.

Thus, for example, when one comes to the mouth of a creek, or inlet of the sea, for all the habitations of the peasants almost are situated on creeks, it is seen that the hamlet is enclosed by hills on each side, but from the fore part of these hills there are several flat projections rising above each other; and if one looks down from any of these to the bottom of the hill, at the edge of the water it is observed that in many places it has a resemblance to the higher projections; so that if the water were to sink a few fathoms more, a new projection would appear where the water washes the bottom of the hill. From this circumstance, I am much inclined to think that the water once stood at some of the

higher projections, as it now stands at the lower. These hills, therefore, must have once been depressed to a greater depth in the water, from which they may have been afterwards raised up at different periods ; or the water has formerly stood at the height of the most elevated projections, and at different times may have sunk down gradually to its present level.

But in examining the bottoms of the hills along the sea-coast one will often discover indubitable marks of volcanic eruptions, or of some other convulsion of nature which has acted a distinguished part in the formation of the singular phenomena which here present themselves to the eye of the curious observer. It is seen in many places close to the waters' edge, that the matter of which the rock is formed has been in a state of fusion, and has become hard in its course. Sometimes this hardened matter is smooth on the surface, but has the appearance of the ice on a stream or rivulet, where the water rises above the first crust, and forms several strata one above the other ; but sometimes this hardened matter is rough, and full of holes and knobs, such as we may suppose would be seen in metal first fused, and then cooled in water.

Here also are seen the before-mentioned fissures, lined with basaltes, lying on each side in a horizontal position ; but where there is no fissure there is a cavity at the bottom of the rock,

where it appears that the matter has been prevented from acquiring its usual position, and to have been twisted and bent by the force of the heat.

In several parts of these islands may be seen lofty columns, bearing large arches, which support huge masses of rock; and under these arches there are wide apertures or cavities from twelve to twenty feet in length or breadth, the bottoms of which are covered by the sea.

There are also in some places narrower cavities, but these extend to a greater distance within the hills, and produce a very loud echo when a person calls out before the mouth of them. Some of these cavities, which serve as places of retreat for the seals, are of such length, that one can proceed forwards in them with a boat from thirty to a hundred fathoms. Others extend quite through the hill, so as to be open at both ends; and some of them stretch across a whole island.

In some small creeks at the bottom of the steep hills, or which form indentations in them, there are frequently seen tall rugged rocks, of a pyramidal form, some of them like towers, and at such a distance from the parent rock, that a boat can row between them. These rocks, to which the inhabitants give the name of *Drenge*, are of various heights, for some of them rise scarcely to the fourth part or half the height of

the parent rock, while others rise to the same height. But these rocks are not confined merely to the creeks; some of them are found at the projecting extremities of the islands; others stand close to the sides of the hills, at the distance of a few fathoms from the land; and some so close, that the water can scarcely find a passage between them; but it is evidently seen that they have once formed a part of the coast from which they have by some means or other been torn.

At the bottom of the rocks there are sometimes seen immense columns, between some of which and the rock there is a vacant space towards the foot of them, while the tops, bent towards the rock, are united with it, as if they had been raised on purpose to support it and prevent it from falling into the sea. Others of them are connected with the hill at the bottom, and have their tops entirely free and disengaged from it.

Such phenomena are not uncommon at the projecting extremities of the Feroe islands; in particular all the appearances which I have here mentioned may be seen at the western and northern extremities of Stromoe and Vaagoe; and I have no doubt that the extremities of the other islands exhibit other phenomena which may be partly similar to, and partly different from those here described. But I must observe that what

I have said is far beneath the truth, and that no words of mine could convey an adequate idea of these wonderful works of nature.

It has been already said that some of the hills which hang over the sea are cleft from top to bottom, and that one half seems to have been removed to what place no one can tell; while the other stands exposed to open view, and exhibits to the observer the different strata of which it is composed. But the component parts of the strata are not equally visible in all the hills which have been cleft in this manner, for some appear so dusky and worn by the hand of time that though it can be seen that they are composed of strata, it is impossible to discover of what these strata consist. Others, on the contrary are as clean and fresh on the surface as if the convulsion had recently taken place.

Captain Born who resided several years as commandant in these islands, and who constructed an accurate chart of them, has given, in the *Transactions of the Society of Natural History at Copenhagen*, a description of the strata observed in the hills of Feroe, part of which I shall here take the liberty of transcribing, especially as he had a much better opportunity than I had of examining them; and I think it my duty to remark that his observations correspond in general with those made by myself in various parts of Feroe.

“ The strata in the hills of these islands consists,

in many places, as far as they rise above the level of the sea,

1st. "Of a compact sort of stone, in which rents, not however very wide, frequently occur. On the fracture this species of stone exhibits a very coarse grain; has a shining appearance, and is of a dark blue colour; as far as has yet been seen it is not mixed with any other sort of stone.

2nd. "A bluish grey and finer grained sort of stone, which contains grains of quartz and calcedony.

3d. "A darker black kind of stone, which at a considerable distance appears to be rough and full of cavities."

The author does not give any name to this kind of stone which forms a considerable part of the rocks in Feroe, but he remarks that it is not so hard as that mentioned in the 1st. article. It exhibits no cracks or fissures; and though it is inferior in hardness its small particles adhere so strongly that it is easier to reduce it to powder than to break a fragment from it. This species of stone appears to be porous, and is intermixed with particles which seem to be real zeolite.

3d. "Here and there between other strata is a dark coarse grained porous kind of stone; partly of a brownish black, and partly a grey colour. It often lies in horizontal strata, and is full of round holes formed by air bubbles. It is in this kind of stone that zeolites are oftenest found.

4th. “In some places also there are strata of a fine grained stone like sand-stone: it is of a grey colour, but so hard and compact that it cannot be used for grindstones.

5th, and lastly, “Basaltes, and another kind of stone less basaltic in its nature, of which, according to the Captain's account, the Feroe islands for the most part consist.”

If the stone mentioned in the second article be not granite, the Captain is of opinion that he saw in these islands no granite; and the case is the same in regard to lime-stone.

In order to illustrate this subject better, Captain Born examined with great attention the island of Myggenæs, and the small islands which lie around it.

The length of Myggenæs is considered to be about four English miles and a half, and its perpendicular height above the surface of the water from twelve to fifteen hundred feet. Here nature has formed a rock which exhibits to the eye the different strata of which the island consists. But from the oblique strata which sink down towards the east, and rise up towards the west, the Captain concludes, that if this steep rock was thrown up from the sea at a very early period by some revolution in the earth, the shock under the island may have been stronger in the west than the east; or that this rock may have formerly been higher above the surface of

the sea, and afterwards sinking down, may have fallen to a greater depth on the east side than the west.

In describing the different strata of which the rock consists, the Captain says, "The small island which lies to the west of this rock, and which has been torn from Myggenæs, consists of small crystallised basaltes, which extend below the island of Myggenæs and the western end of the rock, and which decline towards the east under the water. Upon this is deposited a stratum of the stone, described in the third article; which, like the greater part of the following strata, sink beneath the water. The next is a thin stratum of red petrified clay, above which is a stratum of the stone described in the second article; and then one of the stone mentioned in the first article. Above this is a second stratum of the petrified clay, then the stone described in the third article; then another stratum of the clay, and above it a stratum of the stone described in the fourth article. Above all there is a stratum of basaltic stone; then a stratum of basaltic pillars completely crystalized, and standing in a perpendicular position; then a stratum of a grey hard kind of rock stone, and above this sometimes a thin stratum of coal; then black clay, then basaltes, then another of porous stone; and in this manner are seen twenty or

thirty strata of different kinds mixed with each other in alternate order."

The acute and ingenious observer remarks, that the succession of strata, here described, is applicable to the Feroe islands in general, though he does not pretend that it is altogether correct: as the difficulty of access by sea, and other obstacles, prevented him from examining, with sufficient accuracy, how the strata succeed each other, and of what component parts each stratum consists.

Such is the interior construction and nature of the hills of Feroe in general; but it is to be remarked, that the oblique direction of the strata, or their rising and sinking, is not so apparent in any other place as at Myggenæs. In the hill of Nygvæn, on the west side of Stromoe, the strata, if we except the upper basaltic stratum, which proceeds in an oblique direction to the top of the hill, are exactly perpendicular; the case is the same with the lowest strata of the hill of Dalsnypen, which is at the distance of nearly two miles from Nygvæn. In other places they are sometimes perpendicular and sometimes oblique, rising and sinking.

Basaltes acts here a very singular part. Sometimes it is seen in perpendicular, sometimes in oblique, and sometimes in spiral strata; sometimes it lies horizontally, and exhibits the appear-

ance of a wall; sometimes it stands up like columns, which often are only a few yards in height; but sometimes from a hundred to a hundred and twenty feet. Sometimes these columns are perpendicular, at others they have an oblique direction, sometimes to one side, and sometimes to another; sometimes they form regular hexagonal prisms, at others they are irregular; sometimes they are found proceeding from a nucleus or centre, bending behind each other in curved radii; sometimes these radii are found to proceed from a nucleus of some other matter, and very often they have no nucleus at all. Sometimes whole hills consist of basaltes, and sometimes it forms only particular parts; sometimes it is found at the bottom of the hills; frequently in the middle, and sometimes it is placed at the summit. Sometimes it forms cavities under the hills, the mouths of which are near the surface of the water; sometimes it penetrates through other strata, all of which from the lowest to the uppermost are apparent; sometimes these basaltic fissures proceed in straight lines through a whole hill, even for some miles; sometimes through a whole island, and then continue their straight lined direction under the friths and sounds, and intersect some hill, on another island from top to bottom.

SECTION IV.

Brooks, fresh Water, and Springs.

THE Feroe islands contain a great many streams and rivulets, but none of considerable size. At most seasons of the year they are all fordable, and may be crossed with safety, except at the time of heavy rains, when they receive such an addition of water that they become impassable. Some of them produce trout, which are caught after rain by angling for them with a rod and line. Sometimes the inhabitants kill them by striking them with a stick, or take them by groping with their hands in the holes under the banks. This kind of fishing, however, is of very little importance.

There are some fresh water lakes also between the hills, where trout are caught; but seldom in any considerable quantity. The largest lake, and that most abundant in fish, as far as I could learn, is in Vaagoe, to the north of Midvaag; it is about two ^{Swedish} miles in circumference. Leinum, and some smaller pieces of water in Nordstromoe, contain a few fish; and in the latter is found a species of trout which are red on the belly: on that account they are called red bellies. Some rivulets and small lakes afford likewise a few eels,

but they seldom attain to a large size. These are the only kinds of fresh water fish in these islands, with which I am acquainted.

As the hills are for the most part steep, the streams pour down their sides with great impetuosity, and some of them form small waterfalls, which are very convenient to the inhabitants, particularly when they are in the neighbourhood of villages, as they afford them the means of erecting water-mills.

Some of these falls appear only after a heavy rain, and precipitate themselves from the bare rocks, in places where, at other times, there is no appearance of them. If a strong wind happens at the same period to blow towards the rock, the water is dispersed and falls down in the form of small rain; but if the wind increases to a hurricane, none of the water falls down: the whole being forced up into the atmosphere, it assumes the appearance of a thick mist or smoke, in which a rainbow of the most vivid colours is sometimes observed.

The most remarkable water-fall which I ever had an opportunity of seeing in these islands is Fosaa, between Qualvig and Haldersvig, in Nordstromoe. It consists properly of two falls, one above the other; each of which judging by the eye, for I did not measure them, is from seventy to a hundred feet in height; and the higher one projects so far from the rock, that a person can

walk between it and the rock without being wet. An inhabitant of Qualvig assured me, that he has stood and seen trouts work themselves up this impetuous fall; a circumstance which, if true, appears to be very remarkable.

The water of the rivulets here is in general pure, wholesome, and well tasted, or rather has no taste at all. But there are two exceptions: that is, when the water becomes turbid after a few hours rain, or when a small stream runs through ground that is muddy or abundant in cupreous particles; for in these cases the water becomes noxious and ill tasted. Sometimes these small streams run into the larger rivulets, which supply the inhabitants with water; but the quantity of corrupted water they contain is too small, when mixed with that of the larger rivulet, to produce any bad effect.

These islands abound also in springs, some of which rise from deep cavities in the hills, or burst out at the bottoms of them, and making their way through the fissures in the rocks, flow incessantly, even during the driest weather.

That these springs, and even those at a considerable elevation, may be fed by water proceeding immediately from the sea; and that this water in rising through the hills may become fresh by filtration, as Debes in his *Fieroa Reserata* endeavours to prove, appears to me not altogether improbable; but though this may be

possible, I do not know why Nature should adopt such a tedious process, when the same end might be attained in a much easier manner. In my opinion all the springs in Feroe, which seem to rise from deep abysses, proceed from places still higher than those where they are formed; at any rate, I never saw any spring in these islands, at whatever height it might be, which might not derive its source from parts of the hills still more elevated. To this it may be objected, that such springs, even during a continued drought of several weeks in summer, never become dry. But this difficulty may be solved, by supposing that there are reservoirs higher up in the hills, which supply the springs below them with water. In the hills, indeed, there are many springs, in the neighbourhood of which no reservoirs can be observed. But how many things are there in nature which are hid from the penetrating eye of man? How many cisterns and reservoirs may be concealed in the cavities or fissures of the rocks, the water from which being more impeded in its course by the narrowness of the channel through which it passes, must continue longer to feed the spring which it supplies? As on the surface of the earth a great many brooks contribute to form a river, there may be various sources in the hills, the water of which proceeding with a slow course, or dropping through many chinks,

or oozing through different strata of burnt or hardened clay, may afterwards unite, and at length finding an easier passage burst out as a spring.

It is here seen, that the long and narrow passage through which the water has to force its way before it reaches the spring, may be the cause of its continuing to flow even during several weeks of incessant drought. But besides this it is often observed, that it rains in the hills when dry weather prevails in the lower parts; and it cannot be denied, that the springs here may derive some nourishment also from the fogs. All these circumstances tend to confirm me in opinion, that the springs in Feroe are not indebted for their water to the sea, or to any abysses, but derive it from some spot placed at a greater elevation*.

* I am however far from denying what an ingenious author Mr. Fleischer says in his Natural History, part III. sect. 364. "That the mountains and hills contain in their interior parts abundance of water which rises from the sea; and which, as in the case of distillation, being converted into steam or vapour by the internal heat of the earth, is again condensed on the sides of cavities which it meets with, and falling down in drops serves to produce springs. I will admit also, that this may be the origin of some of the springs in Feroe; but I have no doubt that my hypothesis is more applicable to those which I had an opportunity of seeing; and if any proof were required, I should say that, even during a long continued drought, these springs appear to experience very little decrease.

The springs in Feroe are of two kinds, cold and warm, but the greater part of them belong to the former class; for it may be readily comprehended, that as the water which supplies these springs passes through chinks in the rocks and different strata, to which the heat of the sun's rays cannot penetrate, when it issues from the earth it must be much colder than the atmosphere, and the degrees of its cold are different, according as the streamlets have been more or less sheltered from the action of the sun and the external air. These springs in general produce excellent water; which, in some places, is said to be endowed with the property of strengthening the stomach and checking diarrhœa.

The most remarkable of the warm springs is Varmakielde, which lies to the north of Noragota in Osteroe, and spouts out from a bank of earth in the neighbourhood of the sea. It is said to be so warm in winter, that if a limpet (*patella testudinalis*) be put into it the animal will be separated from the shell. In the month of November, at which time I saw it, I found it to be almost milk warm: the bottom of it was covered with that species of moss called *Fontinalis antipyretica*. In former times people were accustomed to assemble here at Midsummer, partly to amuse themselves with singing, dancing, and various sports, and partly to use the water, as a remedy for different disorders. It is

still visited by a few. But though the confidence in its healing qualities is much lessened, journeys to it are no doubt attended with great benefit to the inhabitants; who, in consequence of their inactive life and sedentary labours within doors, are exposed to ill health and various scorbutic disorders. I will not, indeed, venture to assert, that the spring possesses any medicinal qualities, capable of giving relief in such cases; but the motion and exercise occasioned by travelling over the hills, and crossing the different friths or inlets of the sea, which occur in the way; and the cheerfulness excited by dancing, singing, and other amusements, which the patients find among the company at the spring, must necessarily have a salutary influence on the vital principles, and contribute to render them livelier and more healthful; so that they return to their homes much improved both in body and mind.

A few paces to the south of this spring is another, which issues from a chink in the hard rock; the water, however, is not so warm as that of the former.

In a hill directly above the hamlet of Westmanhavn, in Nordstromoe, there are also some small springs, the temperature of which I was assured is higher than that of springs in general; but as I had no thermometer to examine the degree of their warmth, and as I was somewhat

heated with climbing the hill when I visited them, I did not experience any perceptible warmth on immersing my hands in them.

In Vaagoe there are also two springs, which J. C. Svabo examined, with a thermometer, in 1782. The temperature of one of them, which lies on the north side of the island, at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, August 20th, was 16 degrees; the temperature of the atmosphere being at that time 10 deg. The other lies in the eastern part of the island, at a place called Futaklettur, where there is a passage over the inlet from Quivig or Westmanhavn. At two o'clock in the afternoon, August 23d the same year, its temperature was $11\frac{1}{4}$ deg. that of the atmosphere being $9\frac{1}{2}$ deg.

That the Feroe islands have been thrown up from the sea by some convulsion of the earth, and that the hills are indebted for their origin to a volcanic or other eruption, has been already mentioned; but I do not, however, think it probable that these hills contain in their interior parts any veins of burning matter, which could communicate heat to the springs; for if such veins of burning matter existed, traces of them must at one time or another have in some part been observed. But none of the inhabitants now living ever saw such a thing; nor is there any tradition, though there are several handed down from father to son through many

centuries, that makes the least mention of it. Neither do I believe that the oldest records, respecting the history of the northern countries, contain any grounds to induce us to believe, that the warmth of the springs in Feroe is produced by subterranean fire; though I am ready, at the same time, to admit, that the warm springs in Iceland and other countries, where there are burning volcanoes in the neighbourhood, may be owing to this cause.

In endeavouring to account for the warmth of these springs, I shall, for the sake of brevity, pass by a variety of conjectures commonly formed, and adopt that explanation which is derived from chemical principles, and which appears to me to be the most probable. It is well known that filings of iron if mixed with sulphuric acid and water, or with sulphur and water, immediately begin to effervesce and to produce a considerable degree of heat. But the above substances are formed in great abundance in the rocks and strata of which the Feroe hills are composed. That these hills contain iron is proved by the basaltes, and the feruginous springs found in them, and by the different directions assumed by the magnetic needle. Vitriolic earth which is used for painting, is found in various parts; and in many places the earth is mixed with sulphur, as is readily perceived from the nature of the turf. Wherever these minerals are found,

there is always water passing through them : hence it is natural to suppose that it must be heated by them, and give birth to warm springs.

I must not here omit to mention a piece of fresh water called Kyrkyu, which lies in a hollow near Famoyen in Suderoe, at the height of two hundred and forty feet above the level of the sea. It is nearly square, and about half a mile in length. Debes, in his *Færoa Reserata**, speaking of this water, says that it regularly ebbs and flows at the same time as the sea. The same thing has been repeated by Mr. Hammer†, and the learned Pontoppidan‡, as a proof that such ponds have a communication with the sea ; nay our industrious naturalist Mr. Fleischer§ seems to pass by other proofs, and to produce this in support of the same opinion ; trusting, however, to the assertion of one evidence, namely Debes. But the account given by Debes is far from being correct ; and I cannot here help making one objection, which has been started by others, which is, that at that distance, and with that interval between ebb and flood, the water of the sea would not have time to filter and deposit its salt, and therefore the addition which this pond must receive at the time of high water would

* Page 89: † In his book called Vandrige.

‡ Norges Natur. Hist. book I. p. 121.

§ Almindel. Natur. Hist. part III. p. 744.

render it brackish, whereas it is perfectly fresh. But that the sea by rushing through a cavity in the rocks, might by its pressure on some fresh water contained in it, force it up into the pond, is not at all improbable. This pond, however, has no regular flux and reflux along with the sea, as Debes informs us, for his assertion is contradicted by all the inhabitants in the neighbourhood; and Mr. Shrodder, the clergyman of the place, who during his visitation tour, passed here in the summer of the year 1797, told me the same thing. It may therefore be asked, what could induce Debes to give an account so inaccurate. This question, in my opinion, may be answered in two ways: the first is, that near the village of Famoyen there is a small fresh water pond, which is so close to the sea that at flood tide the sea water can rise into it, and in this manner produce a kind of ebbing and flowing; now whether Debes, in describing the pond of Kyrkyu, may not have confounded the two, I shall leave to the reader to determine.

The other way is, that the before-mentioned pond of Kyrkyu is indeed in summer sometimes higher; but this change is very rare and irregular, and by no means corresponds with the ebbing and flowing of the sea.

This circumstance however, similar to that observed in the water of the pond near Famoyen, may have induced Debes to make the above-

mentioned incorrect assertion respecting it. The cause of the rising and falling of the water here, I however take to be as follows: during a rain, or rainy weather, the water of Kyrkyu is increased by that which falls down from the higher grounds so as to rise to the brim; but the rocky bed of the pond may, in one of its sides, have a small chink or fissure, not sufficient to suffer the influx of water to run off, but through which it may escape by filtration in the course of time; and, in this manner, it is probable, that the water may at one period be higher and at another lower, without having the smallest connexion with the ebbing or flowing of the tide. Thus in former times there was, in the northern part of Vaagøe, a pretty large pond, which has now disappeared, and left in its place a cavity covered with grass. As no person remembers to have heard of any convulsion in the earth, which could have produced this conversion of water into dry ground; there is reason to suppose that there may have been formerly in this cavity a chink or fissure, through which the water may have been conveyed to the sea: this fissure might have been closed up with plants or mud, which may have been removed by some strong agitation of the sea, and thus given the water an opportunity to escape.

I shall close this section with an account of a circumstance which happened to me in the year 1792, and which seems not inapplicable to the

present subject. Having walked one day about a hundred paces to the south-west of the church of Kirketai on the bank of an eminence hanging over the sea called Kliverne; and being then about a hundred and twenty feet higher than the level of the water, but in such a position that I could not see the bottom of the rock, where it was washed by the waves, I was clambering about in search of different kinds of moss, when I observed a small hole beneath the surface of the earth. Its diameter was about eight inches; but internally it became somewhat enlarged. Lying down to examine the mosses growing in the inside of this hole, I heard a hollow murmuring noise proceed from it, and observed a vapour arising from the mouth of it. While I sat lost in conjecture respecting this phenomenon, a repetition of the murmuring noise, and the ascent of the vapour or steam, excited my curiosity to learn the cause of it; but observing that the vapour was of a saline quality, my attention was naturally directed to the restless ocean, which was then dashing its waves against the bottom of the rock. I then observed, that when a very heavy wave was thrown against the rock, I heard the before-mentioned noise, and perceived the vapour to arise from the cavity. I have related this circumstance, as it may serve to confirm the truth of my conjecture in regard to the disappearance of the pond in Vaagoe.

SECTION V.

Topographical Description.

THE Feroe islands which are inhabited are in number seventeen, and form six parishes. Their names are,

- | | |
|-------------|------------------------|
| 1. Fugloe*, | 10. Hestoe, |
| 2. Svinoe, | 11. Nolsoe, |
| 3. Videroe, | 12. Vaagoe, |
| 4. Bordoe, | 13. Myggenæs, |
| 5. Konoe, | 14. Sandoe, |
| 6. Kalsoe, | 15. Skuoe, |
| 7. Osteroe, | 16. The greater Dimon. |
| 8. Stromoe, | 17. Suderoe. |
| 9. Kolter, | |

1. FUGLOE is the remotest island towards the north-east; it is more than two miles and a quarter† in length, and nearly the same in breadth.

It is somewhat flat on the summit, but the coast is almost every where steep, and the rocks abound with sea fowl. It contains two villages;

* The termination *oe* signifies an island; so that *Fugloe* may be translated Bird Island: *svinoe*, Swine Island, &c.

† The miles are given according to the English standard.

and has some spots of ground which produce corn.

Aa Kirkiu is at the south end of the island ; where the church also is situated. This is the usual landing place for boats ; and it is wonderful to see from what height, and by what winding ways, the inhabitants are obliged to drag down their boats when they intend to go to sea, and afterwards to draw them up when they return.

The other village called Hattervig lies on the same side of the island ; but it consists of two divisions : *Uppi uy husi*, and *Nirri uy husi*. It stands in a dale, on a small inlet of the same name.

To the east of this island is a high rock called *Bispen*, where abundance of sea fowl are caught.

2. SVINOE, lying to the south-south-west of Fugloe, and separated from it by a channel about a mile and a quarter broad, is about four miles and a half in length, and three miles in breadth. It consists properly of two hills, and is almost intersected by two creeks proceeding east and west ; the land between them being scarcely a mile in extent. Such indentations into the land are exceedingly convenient to the inhabitants, for they can have boats on both sides ; and when prevented by the violence of the breakers on one side from putting to sea, in order to

fish, they can launch their boats on the other side.

The village of Svinoe where the church stands, is situated between the before-mentioned hills. Some land is cultivated in the neighbourhood; and the quantity might be increased, were the sea weed which is cast on shore here in great abundance employed as manure.

3. VIDEROE lies to the north-north-west of Svinoe, and is separated from it by a channel about half a mile in breadth. It extends north and south, and is nine miles long, and in the widest part about three miles broad. On the eastern side of this island is a cavity or perforation, through which a boat can be rowed from the one end to the other. It is arched at the top, and may be about three hundred feet in length. When I examined this natural tunnel, which I passed through in a boat, a friend who accompanied me had the courage to discharge his fowling piece in it: no bad consequence, indeed, ensued; but the noise of the report was tremendous.

The coast is exceedingly steep and bold, especially towards the north and west, where there are excellent rocks for catching sea fowl. There are here also a great number of high hills, the highest of which is *Mealingsfiold*. This island contains two villages.

Videroe lies on the west side, where the third

church and the parsonage house are situated. Landing here is difficult. Above the landing place is a fissure which contains abundance of very fine clay; but it is so hard that it is not susceptible of being formed by the lathe, and therefore unfit for making earthen ware: in my opinion, however, it might be used with advantage for polishing.

About four miles and a half south from the above village, and on the same side of the island, stands the other, called Quannasund, lying on a sound of the same name.

4. BORDOE, which has the narrow channel Quannasund between it and Videroe, is little more than twelve miles long, and, where widest, nearly nine miles broad. *(no where is it six miles Broad)*

On the south side it is intersected by two large creeks or inlets; Bordoeviig to the west, and Arnefyord to the east. By means of these inlets the island, towards the south, forms three branches or headlands, which are seen from the sea, and give it the appearance of three islands. If we except these inlets, the coast, all round the island, is bold and steep; and, as is the case in the northern islands in general, the tops of the hills are exceedingly sharp and bare. This is particularly observable on the west side of the island, at Haralsund. The highest hills here are Klak, Haddin, Halgafeld, Haafeld, and Muli. On the east side there is a range of eleven dif-

ferent hills, interspersed with openings and dales. This island contains seven villages or farms.

The farm of Gierum, which formerly stood at a more elevated situation among the hills, was about forty or fifty years ago, overwhelmed by a fall of snow; and, by this misfortune, eighteen persons were killed. Twenty years before a similar accident is said to have taken place on the same day, namely March the 12th; when five persons were destroyed: and there is a tradition that it experienced a like fate on the very same day, about a hundred and twenty years before, at which time the whole of the inhabitants perished. The village was afterwards removed a considerable way farther, towards the bottom of the hill; where it is now secure from any catastrophe of the same kind.

5. KUNOE or Konoe, separated from the preceding by Haralsund, is a long narrow island, extending north and south, about eight miles in length, and two miles in breadth.

It consists merely of one steep hill, forming a bold shore every where around; but it is steepest on the north side, and towards the southern end assumes a pyramidal form. This island contains three villages: Haralsund on the narrow sound of the same name; and Skaroe, where there is a bad landing place, lie on the east side. The other village called Kunoe, where the church stands, lies on the west side.

6. KALSOE is also a long narrow island, separated from Kunoe by a channel little more than a mile wide. It extends north and south, or rather south-south-east and north-north-west, and is nine miles long, but little more than a mile in breadth. Landing here is exceedingly difficult, except at a place called Husum. It contains four villages.

7. OSTEROE lies to the west of Kalsoe and Bordoe, and is separated from the former by a small channel about a mile in width. Its length from south to north, or south-south-east and north-north-west, is about twenty miles; but its breadth varies according to the nature of the headlands which project from it: where broadest it is about ten miles.

This island, on the east side, is intersected by five inlets or arms of the sea; namely, Fundingsfiord, Andefiord, Fuglefiord, Gyoteviig, and Lambaviig. It has also one on the west side called Skaalefiord.

The most remarkable hills in this island, which are among the highest in Feroe, are Halgafyaldstindur, Rodefyaldstindur, Slettaratindur, and Sandsfield. Near Andefiord there is a neat pyramidal hill called Onfarafeld.

There are here two small fresh water lakes or ponds; one at Tofte, called Toftevatn, contains two small islands where the eider ducks are fond of building their nests; the other two are at

Eyde. On the north side the shore is steep, but on the east and south this is the case only at the headlands. This island has seven churches, and contains twenty villages or farms.

To the north of the village of Zellatræ there is a basaltic hill, which extends more than a mile northwards: properly speaking it forms the bottom of two hills, which lie behind it, namely Halgafeldstinden and Rodefildstinden, which are of considerable height, and about two miles distant from each other. The basaltic hill itself is about four hundred and twenty feet high, and consists of strata of pentagonal and octagonal basaltic columns, placed close to each other in a perpendicular direction; and in such a manner that the tops only of the farther columns are seen, while those in front exhibit their whole form, but appear to be different in length. These columns, which rest on a foundation of trap about three hundred feet in height, are the largest of the kind in the Feroe islands; for where the rock has been freed from mould these colossal pillars may be seen with their lower ends standing on another species of stone, and rising to the height of above a hundred feet, all equal in size, being about six feet in diameter. Many of these huge columns which have fallen down, are now lying at the bottom of the hill; one in particular, sixty feet in length, has been thrown across

a deep gulley, with its ends resting on each side, so as to form a bridge over it.

The village of Eyde in this island is one of the neatest in Feroe; the houses for the most part are roomy and well built. Some of them are constructed of neat square stones, and the lanes are paved with flags, which gives the village a handsomer and cleaner appearance. In the wall which surrounds the church, there are several stones so large that, unless they have been placed there by nature, one is astonished to think how they could be conveyed thither by the hands of men. The inhabitants are very industrious, and employ themselves much in fishing.

At the north-north-west extremity of this island there are two high rocks, projecting from the land, which are called *Risin* and *Kiedlingen*, that is the giant and his wife; they are each about two hundred and forty feet in height. Through the bottom of the latter the sea has worn a hole or aperture, which gives this natural statue two legs. Both these rocks, indeed, at a certain distance, and particularly on the sea side, have a great resemblance to colossal statues formed by the hands of men.

Near Andfiord, which lies on the east side of the island, on a small bay of the same name, is a remarkable stone or rock, called *Rinkesteen*.

This stone, which is situated in the water a few feet from the land, is twenty-four feet in length, eighteen in breadth, and rises above the water, according as it is ebb or flood, from six to twelve feet. It may be called a perpetual motion; for even when the sea is perfectly calm, if touched only with the point of a fishing rod, its motion may be distinctly perceived; and, when the breakers are strong, it vibrates backwards and forwards several inches, emitting at the same time a creaking noise, which is considered as a sign of bad weather. Near it is another stone of a very large size, which vibrates also, but its motion is not so perceptible. It is not improbable that these stones may have rested on a bed of clay, and the clay being washed away by the tide, they have remained suspended on the summits of two pointed rocks.

8. STROMOE, the largest of the Feroe islands, lies to the west of Osteroe, extending south-east and north-west. It is twenty-seven miles in length, and about seven in breadth.

Kollefiord, the first village towards the south on the east side, is the best place for corn in the island. Near it a rivulet precipitates itself from a steep eminence, and then divides into several small branches, which pursue a winding course, amidst large stones that have tumbled down from the hills; while some of them again unite forming in many places small islands, and in others

cascades; so that this spot presents an excellent situation for a water-mill; and, on account of its romantic beauties, would form an agreeable residence to any person who might be inclined to erect a house on it.

In this neighbourhood also is a church, which is one of the smallest and worst in the island. The clergyman's income is also very small, partly on account of the frequent reparations which are necessary, and which are often of little utility, as the church is built in a very bad situation, for it stands as it were in a morass, and at the same time so near the sea, that when the weather is tempestuous the path which leads to it, and which is paved with small stones, is entirely washed away by the violence of the waves, so that the inhabitants cannot go to hear divine service but by a long and circuitous way; nay the billows every year sweep away the stones that support the walls, and moisten the timber work in such a manner that it soon decays. When I left Feroe this church was ready to tumble down.

The village of Qualviig lies in a dale on a small inlet of the same name, which extends north-west to the distance of five or six miles. Formerly large shoals of whales were driven on shore here; and on this account the inlet may have acquired its name*. There is here a good

* *Qual* in the Feroese dialect signifies a whale.

new church, but it has one defect, which is, that the stone walls which surround it are too close to the timber work; it is also at too great a distance from the village, and stands in so wet a situation, that if one digs near it to the depth of only two feet, water immediately rushes in; and after a heavy fall of rain it is almost surrounded with water; so that people must wade through it when they go to church.

Near the village of Stromnæs, which lies to the north of Qualvig, the Sound between Stromoe and Osteroe, commonly called the Sound, though in general from about half a mile to a mile and a quarter in breadth, becomes so narrow that its width scarcely exceeds half a cable-length. In this narrow sound there are so many sunken rocks, that great skill and caution are necessary to pass through it even with a large boat; and though no current is observed either at the south or the north end of this channel, the sea flows with such rapidity for about the length of a cable, in the narrowest part, that no little exertion is necessary in the management of the helm to prevent the boat from being upset; but in going against the current eight or ten men are necessary to row the boat, and sometimes they are even obliged to get out and to drag the boat after them; or when it is loaded, to take out the load, and draw the boat over land till they get past this rapid stream.

A little farther north from Qualvig, near the sea-coast, is a small eminence almost always covered with verdure, called Olvahoi, which is said to have been the abode of hobgoblins, or subterranean spirits, at a period when a belief in such beings was much more prevalent than at present.

A mile north from Qualvig is that beautiful double water-fall called Fosaa, which has been already mentioned.

Tyorneviig,* the most northern village in Stromoe, is surrounded on all sides by high steep hills, except towards the sea, where there is a small open bay. When the wind blows in shore the waves here are exceedingly boisterous, and on this account landing is dangerous. To secure boats from the violence of the billows it is necessary to draw them up a high perpendicular bank, which requires great labour and trouble.

It is very remarkable that every bull, whether bred here, or brought hither from any other place, becomes exceedingly ferocious and dangerous. The cause of this singularity, perhaps, may be explained by the situation of the place; for being inclosed by two high hills which stand

* The way hither by land, and especially towards the north, is exceedingly dangerous, as it passes along the edge of a high rock that overhangs the sea; sometimes it is so slippery that it is difficult to prevent the feet from gliding, and to fall would be attended with certain destruction.

opposite to each other, and which produce a very loud echo, when a bull or a cow bellows, these animals may consider the reverberated sound as a challenge, or defiance, from some of their own species, and thence become irritated and furious.

To the north of Tyorneviig is the most northerly extremity of Stromoe, which projects into the sea. A few feet above the surface of the water it is perforated by a hole, which, as far as I could judge without measurement, may be above two hundred feet in length; and which proceeds in a direction from south-east to north-west. Being in a boat at the south-east aperture of this hole, about ten o'clock one summer's evening, I saw through it the sun sink into the ocean, which afforded me a very curious and singular spectacle.

Close to the extreme point, a little from the land, stands a high rock called Stakken; the southern side of which resembles the opposite rock, whence it appears to have been torn by some convulsion; but on the northern side it seems to be an assemblage of immense trunks of trees joined together, with their semicircular sides turned outwards, and their large branches interwoven in a singular and fantastic manner.

About a mile to the west of this rock is a promontory looking towards the north, called Mylingen, which consists of perpendicular rocks,

said by the people who reside in the neighbourhood, to be two thousand four hundred feet in height; and if this be really the case, Mylingen is the highest rock in the Feroe islands.

The village of Saxen lies on the north-west side of Stromoe, on a small bay of the same name. The neighbourhood affords good pasture for sheep, and the rocks abound with sea-fowl. This village belongs to the parish of Tyorneviig, the road to which is very long and difficult. The direct distance between these two places is little more than three miles; but the height of the hills which it is necessary to pass over, and the crookedness of the road, which winds round the summits of these hills, render the distance double; nay, the road in some places is so narrow, (and the case is the same in many other parts of the Feroe islands) that two people can scarcely walk alongside each other.

It may be therefore, readily conceived how tiresome it must be to carry a corpse along this road to the place of interment. Very often the body must be made fast to a board, and conveyed in that manner upon men's shoulders. At Saxen formerly there was an excellent harbour, inclosed by high hills; the entrance of it is narrow, being not wider than from seventy to a hundred feet, with a hill on each side; but the entrance, as well as the harbour itself, is now so choked up with sand, that at low water one can cross it with

dry feet, and only those acquainted with the ground can enter it, or come out from it, even with a boat. On one side of it, however, there is a narrow part said to be fifteen fathoms in depth.

Two ^{Danish} miles south of Saxen lies the village of Westmanhavn, on the west side of the island, where there is a good winter harbour of the same name.

There is good pasture here, and the sheep are said to be the largest and best in the island; but, during severe winters, many of them are lost in the snow. Sea-fowl are found here also in great abundance: the rocks principally frequented by them are situated towards the north, and exhibit in summer, at which time they swarm with them, a very singular appearance. The following short description will serve to convey a faint idea of it. Before the rock which forms the sea-coast stands a long rock, resembling a wall, which rises to the height of twelve hundred feet, so that it is almost equal in height to the coast itself. The bottom of this rocky wall, which throws out many projections, is almost entirely covered with fowl, which, as they are seldom scared by the presence of men, and still seldomer hear the report of a gun, are exceedingly tame. All the shelves and cavities of this rock are also filled with them. It has an opening in it like a lofty gateway, through which you can proceed

in a boat towards the coast, and when within it, you then perceive that this wall stands at a distance from the coast, so that a long channel is left between them; and this channel is so wide as to admit a large boat to turn in it. As the long rock consists of several strata, and as the thinnest of these in general is hardened clay, which is softer than the other strata, these layers of clay are in many places washed out and destroyed by the force of the waves, and leave cavities which serve the fowl as places of resort, where they build their nests and rear their young. On the upper edge of the harder strata the fowls, with their white breasts projecting, arrange themselves in rows one above the other, as regularly as if they were porcelain figures disposed on shelves; and if they have not been before frightened by firing at them, you may shoot several of them before they are aware of their danger, and without the rest being in the least disturbed. Those even which were placed close to the fowls that have been killed remain quiet in their places, and those which concealed themselves farther back in the cavity readily come forwards to occupy the places of those that have been shot; so that the row is again soon completed. To describe this spectacle properly is impossible; no pen can do justice to it: to form a proper conception of it one must have actually seen it.

The village of Skælling lies at the bottom of

Skællingsfield, which is the highest hill in the Feroe islands. Between this village and the farm of Leinum, but somewhat to the south of the former, there are several fissures, which beginning at the sea-coast, proceed to a considerable height in the hills. Two of them which I have often examined, as well as several more, are lined on each side with perpendicular walls composed of small basaltic columns, lying in a horizontal position.

On the south side of Skællingsfield the basaltes assumes the columnar appearance; but at a considerable elevation in the hill: at a short distance these columns disappear, but they soon shew themselves again; and the farther south one goes the horizontal stratum of the basaltes is the more perceptible, for the extent of about two miles. But about three miles south of Skælling the appearance of these basaltic pillars is more striking, as they stand here at a great height in the hill, close to each other in several tiers, exhibiting themselves in greater or less projections; and where the pillars are of unlike size, sometimes in flat rows, sometimes in semicircular rows with the cavity turned inwards, and sometimes in semicircular rows with the cavity turned outwards. A little farther on, or to the north of Dalsnypen, is a small inlet under a steep rock, and in this rock are seen several strata almost perpendicular, of different kinds of rock stone; but

in the middle of the inlet there is a columnar rock entirely detached from the land. Still nearer Dalsnypen is a rock called Steyren, which consists of a grey hard kind of stone. The columnar rock has in it several fissures, in which basalt is seen lying in various directions.

A branch of basaltic pillars, which in some places stand upright, proceeds from Dalsnypen towards the south; and where they pass over a gulley their upper ends incline a little downwards, after which they again become perpendicular till they approach the hill Nygvæn. On this hill the basaltic columns proceed upwards in an oblique position to the very summit, which they cover like a cap. Nygvæn itself is about fifteen hundred feet in height, and consists of many strata, perfectly horizontal, of various kinds of rock.*

At Kirkeboe there is a very neat church built of stone; it is the only one of the kind in these islands, and contains several wooden images, the remains of popish superstition, which are now almost mouldered into dust.

This was formerly the residence of the bishops of Feroe; and some ruins of a stone edifice still point out the place where his habitation was situated. But the most remarkable monument of

* See Born's *Brevværling i Naturh. Selsk. Skrifter*, Vol. IV. No. I. p. 31.

antiquity is the shell of an edifice still standing, which was destined for a church. It consists of four walls twenty-eight feet in height; the side walls are seventy-two feet in length, and the end walls twenty-two. The thickness of the walls is thirty-five inches. On the east side is a building joined to the side walls, which is called the Cloister, but whether it was destined for that purpose I will not pretend to say. It is about twenty feet long in the inside, and twelve and a half broad. Four stones are built into the side walls of the church, on one of which is carved out a face; on the others there are faces also, but they seem never to have been finished. On the outside of the south wall there is a stone, on which is cut out a representation of Christ on the cross between the two thieves. The walls are built of large cut stones, cemented with lime; and the arches of the windows are constructed of thin stones, or slate. The lime has probably been made in the island of calcined muscle shells. This church, or rather these walls, are said to have been built by a bishop Hilarius, in the beginning of the twelfth century, some say in the year 1111, but as the bishop died the same year, the work remained unfinished. But, however this may be, it is certain that these walls have stood several centuries without any roof, exposed to the influence of the atmosphere and weather, and yet have sustained no injury.

except what they may have suffered from the hand of man.

At a short distance from Kirkeboe is Kirkeboenæs, which is dangerous to those who pass from the north-western villages to Thorshavn, as the sea here is often very tempestuous. On the eastern side of this tongue of land lies Arge, a hospital founded more than two centuries ago for the reception of persons afflicted with leprosy, a disease prevalent formerly in these islands.

Thorshavn, the capital of Stromoe, is situated on a small tongue of land, on the south-east side of the island. It is the seat of government as well as the staple of trade, and the residence of the principal civil officers, such as the commandant, chief justice, surgeon, &c. There is here a Latin school, and a neat wooden church covered with slate. The town is defended from privateers by a fort, constructed on a projecting point on the east side of the bay, which was strengthened and repaired in the time of the American war. The town contains about a hundred houses, all built of wood; but some of the streets are so narrow that, in consequence of the situation of the ground, or of upright masses of rock, which rise in them to a considerable height, no more than one person can pass through them at a time. There are here two smiths, two carpenters, one joiner, and three or four coopers. The whole inhabitants, including a garrison of

thirty-six men, form about a hundred families, one-half of whom are fishermen, servants, and paupers. Frederiksvaag, on the west side of Thorshavn, was formerly a staple for Danish East and West Indian goods, and a considerable trade was carried on here with Scotland, particularly during the time of the American war, which was very profitable to the individuals engaged in it; but at present this pretty little town is entirely deserted.

9. NOLSOE, or Naalsole, lies to the east of Stromoe, and is separated from it by a channel about a mile and a half in width. This island, which extends north and south, is about five miles and a half in length, and about a mile in breadth. Towards the middle of the island stands a pretty high hill, and through the southern end of the hill is a perforation which, when the island is viewed at some distance, gives it the appearance of an inverted needle with its eye; and it is not improbable that from this circumstance the island takes its name.* At the same end of the island is a rock, which, when one sails by it, bears a striking resemblance to a Dutch ship with its masts standing. On the western side, a little above the level of the sea, is a deep cavity in the rock, capable of containing several hundreds of people, and as the rock projects over the mouth

* *Naalsole* signifies Needle Island.

of it, they would be completely concealed from the view of those sailing past it: from this cavity an aperture proceeds almost through the whole island; it is entirely dark, and in some places can be passed with difficulty; but people have penetrated so far into it, that they could hear distinctly the roaring of the waves at the other side of the island. In a hill on the east side is found a little native copper, which contains a small quantity of gold: the whole hill, to a certain extent, abounds with cupreous particles, and some tons of the ore was brought to Kongsberg to be examined; but it was found that it was not sufficiently rich to defray the expence of working it. The inhabitants of this island are distinguished by their industry, the care which they take of their sheep, and the neat manner in which they prepare their turf for fuel.

10. HESTOE is a small island to the west of Stromoe, and separated from it by a narrow channel a mile and a half in width. It extends south-east and north-west, and is little more than three miles in length; in breadth it is less than a mile.

11. KOLTER lies north-west from Hestoe and west from Stromroe, at the distance of nearly a mile from the former, and a mile and a half from the latter. It extends south-east and north-west, in length about two miles, and in breadth little more than half a mile. In the northern part of

the island is a green hard kind of clay, from which the inhabitants form with their hands alone, a clumsy sort of small pots, without glazing, which they burn in the fire and use for holding their milk.

12. VAAGØE lies to the west of Stromoe, and is separated from it by a channel half a mile in width; it is nearly thirteen miles long, and about five broad.

This island is intersected by two long inlets, Midvaag in the south-east part, and Sorvaag in the west. Its principal headland is Stakken, towards the south-east, where there is a high rock, and a hill with a sharp summit, called Troldkonefingeren, which in shape has a great resemblance to the claw of a lobster; its height is about twelve hundred feet. The other headlands are Præst-Tangen towards the south-south-east. Baren towards the north-north-west, and Slettenæes towards the north. Stakken is merely a rock detached from the land, but stands in a kind of cavity formed in the hill, so that one can row between this insulated rock and the cliff which forms the bottom of the hill. There are here also several large columnar rocks, through which one might pass in a boat were there a sufficient depth of water. These pillars stand with their lower ends at some distance from the bottom of the hill, and their summits touching it, as if placed there to prevent the cliff from tum-

bling down into the sea. From Præst-Tangēn to the small bay of Sorvaag, the shores of the island consist of steep rocks; and on this side there is another detached rock of considerable height, which stands in an aperture, or cavity of the rock that forms the coast. One can row between it and the coast in a boat, and when you have once got into the intermediate space you find yourself, as it were, inclosed in a deep pit formed by perpendicular cliffs, rising to the height of from six hundred to nine hundred feet, and which has no light but what enters by a round aperture at the summit.

In this island there are two large pieces of fresh water. One of them, Sorvaagsvatn, between Midvaag and Sorvaag, is the largest lake, or pond, in Feroe; it is above three miles in length, about half a mile in breadth, and from sixteen to twenty-three fathoms in depth. It abounds with trout. At the southern end of it is a rivulet which precipitates itself into the sea from the height of eighty or ninety feet, and forms a beautiful water-fall called Busdalefos. The other small lake lies on the north side of the island; it is about a mile in length, and a quarter of a mile broad. The trouts here are said to be so large that they often break the fishing-lines.

13. MYGGENÆS, on the west side of Vaagoe, and separated from it by a channel about three miles wide, extends east and west nearly a mile

in length; its breadth is inconsiderable. The coast is every where exceedingly steep, especially on the south side, where it consists of perpendicular rocks, twelve hundred and fifteen hundred fathoms in height, where the different strata of which the island is composed from top to bottom are seen. Landing here is exceedingly difficult, especially when the sea is in the least tempestuous.

The village, where there is a small church, lies on the south side, towards the west end of the island. The church, in consequence of its distance from the rest of the parish, is visited by the clergyman only twice a year.

On the south side of the island, almost close to the land, stands a detached rock, which is sixty feet in height, and has the appearance of sandstone. The most remarkable circumstance in regard to this rock is, that it is surrounded by a spiral band of small basaltes, which winds almost twice round it. This rock is said some years ago to have stood higher up on the coast; and it is not improbable that its foundation being undermined may have occasioned its sinking down.

About a gun-shot from the land, to the west of this rock, there are two cannons lying in the sea, at the depth of five fathoms, which, it is said, belonged to a Dutch East Indiaman, lost above a century ago near Quivig, in the island of Stro-

moe, the wreck of which was driven hither by the wind and the currents.

To the west of Myggenæs, at the distance of twenty fathoms, is a small island, which evidently appears to have been torn from the former by some violent convulsion of nature. It is almost a mile in length, sixteen hundred feet in breadth, and consists of small basaltic columns placed close to each other, which are best seen at the south corner. On the west or north-west side it is about ninety feet high, and is nearly surrounded by rocks, which project over the surface of the sea. This is the only place in the Feroe islands frequented by that large sea-fowl the gannet, or soland goose, *pelecanus basanus*. On the north-west the island proceeds with an even declivity towards the south, so that it has a resemblance here to the roof of a house. As a proof of the luxuriance of the grass on this small basaltic island, it will be sufficient to mention, that it can maintain both winter and summer twenty oxen and forty sheep, and that the oxen fed here are the fattest and give the best beef in all the islands. It has, indeed, been remarked in the Feroe islands, that the flesh of those sheep which feed on basaltic grass is fatter and better tasted than that of other places.

14. SANDOE lies to the south of Stromoe and Hestoe, from both of which it is separated by a channel about three miles wide. It extends

south-east and north-west, and is about thirteen miles long, and a mile and a half broad.

The largest inlets here are Sands-Bugt in the west, and Ruseviig's-Bugt in the east. The principal headlands are Trolldhoved in the north, Salthoved in the west, Dalsnypen in the south, and Skaalhoved in the east.

The largest lake is Sandsvatn, near Sands-Bugt, which is about a mile long, half a mile broad, and two fathoms in depth. It abounds with trout, which the inhabitants, however, do not think it worth their trouble to catch.

To the west of this piece of water there are two others, the larger of which is half a mile long, but not above six hundred feet in breadth. It contains trout also.

In this island there are five villages. Near that of Sands, on the south-west side, the land is exceedingly fertile, and produces excellent potatoes. Not far from this place there is a tongue of land where there is a deep hole, through which water spouts up with great violence when the sea is tempestuous. In the northern part of the island, at a place called Skaapen, there is a small inlet, where a boat is kept for conveying passengers over to Kirkeboe, in Stromoe. Here also there is a hole about ninety or a hundred feet higher than the level of the sea, through which water is thrown up during stormy weather.

The headland called Trolldhoved is properly a small island, detached from the land; so that one can row in a boat between them. It is steep on the north and west side, and can supply pasture for forty or fifty sheep.

15. SKUOE, to the south-west of Sandoe, is separated from it by a channel about two miles in width. It extends south-east and north-west, and is about three miles long, and a mile broad. It contains the grave of the celebrated hero of the Feroe islands, Sigismund Bristesen; and some remains of his tomb are still to be seen. If I remember right, they lie on the south-east coast of the island. This tomb, which I surveyed from a boat, consists, according to every appearance, of a very hard kind of stone; but it is full of holes, and much defaced by the hand of time. It is covered with figures in bas relief, which have a great resemblance to the bones, the vertebrae, and skull of an elephant.

16. The GREATER DIMON lies about two miles south-south-east from Skuoe, and three miles south-south-west from Sandoe. Its length from south-east to north-west is scarcely two miles and a half, and its breadth about half a mile. The coast is almost every where high and steep, and is accessible only in two places, where no more than one person can ascend at a time; so that no island can be better fortified by nature. It is, indeed, impregnable; for it is impossible to

starve the inhabitants, as it abounds with good fish and sea-fowls, and no ship could remain near it on account of the force of the currents. The rocks here are well stocked with fowls; and it is a curious spectacle, particularly for strangers, to see the incredible number of the winged tribe which in the summer time swarm between Great Dimon and Skuoe. It exceeds every thing that can be imagined. At certain periods they almost darken the air, and they stun the ears so much with their piercing cries, that two people in the same boat cannot hear each other. Its whole population consists of one family; and in summer, the only time the clergyman can visit the church, it is necessary to hoist him up into the island by means of a rope. On the summit, however, the island is pretty level; but, on account of the steepness of the coast, no boats can be kept here; so that the inhabitants live entirely secluded from other people, and can never quit their prison, except when some of the inhabitants of the other islands come to them with a boat.

17. SUDEROE, the last and southernmost of all the Feroe islands, lies south-west from the Greater and Less Dimon, at the distance of four miles and a half from the former, and about four miles from the latter. It extends from the south-east to the north-west seventeen miles in length; and, where widest, is about five miles and a half

broad. It contains ten villages and six churches. In some parts of it traces of coal have been found.

The village of Frodeboe where there is a church lies on the east side of the island, at the mouth of an inlet called Trangyisvaagsfiord. To those fond of surveying the works of nature the neighbourhood of this village is highly interesting. It consists almost entirely of basaltes, and there are some fields where, in walking, one treads on the summits of basaltic columns, all standing in an upright position; but to what depth they reach cannot be determined, except close to the shore below the houses, where they stand in a perpendicular direction with their upper ends all level, and stretch out into the sea, where they at length disappear. To the east of the houses these columns are seen in an oblique position. Here one can descend several fathoms from a steep bank to a place called Kulegyov; but at each step it is necessary to place the feet on the extremities of basaltic columns lying in a horizontal direction, which stick out in an irregular manner from the bank. At the bottom a very singular phenomenon presents itself to the eye of the spectator. It consists of an arch somewhat projecting, and from twenty-four to thirty feet in height; in which is suspended a large basaltic column having the lower part broken off, so that one would suppose that a pe-

destal must have once stood below it, to enable it to support the dome. Long crooked basaltic columns bent into the form of an S, and about two feet in thickness, descend along the sides of the dome, which all closely unite and bend behind each other from the top to the bottom. Several crooked columns of the same kind descend above the first, but they stop before they reach half down to the ground; and above these there are others which are shorter. An upright column which stands at the side interrupts the view; but on going to the other side of this column, a cupola is seen nearly similar to the former, but the basaltes in it has the form of an inverted S*.

In the neighbourhood of Frodeboe are seen the best stone fences in Feroe, for they are composed of blocks of basaltes from three to four feet in height. The fields here are all composed of basaltes; but it is so fast in the earth that it is

* Captain Born, in the Transactions of the Society of Natural History, vol. II. has given a drawing of Kulegyov; but he acknowledged to me, that when he made the drawing he had too little time to do it with that accuracy which he wished. He, indeed, says himself, that in this drawing "Nature is not improved:" and notwithstanding the respect I entertain for my friend, and for his other works, I must say, that "Nature in this place is much more beautiful than the copy."

The neighbourhood has a romantic appearance, and it is much to be wished that we had accurate drawings of it, as well as of many other remarkable places in Feroe, of which no proper idea can be conveyed by a description.

impossible to move it: and on this account a farmer named Jespersen is suspected by some of his countrymen, to have procured these fine stones by witchcraft. But this industrious man, who has distinguished himself in various other respects, found means to procure these stones in a very easy and natural manner. At a considerable height in the hill there are a great many loose blocks of basaltes; but as it would be exceedingly difficult, and even impossible for one person to remove them, he rolls them down into a rivulet which runs at the bottom, where they lie till the winter or spring, when the rivulet being swelled by the melting ice and snow, conveys them by the force of its stream to the place of their destination.

North-east from this village lies a steep hill called Frodboenypen, which seems to contain strata of coal, as large pieces of it are found among the stones, which fall down from the rocks; on the north side of it is a small inlet called Frodboe Botnur, and near it a hill with three small headlands. On the top of this hill are several large stones, which when seen from the sea have various appearances; such as that of a nun, and sometimes of a watchman; who, however, never moves from his post.

In a hill called Hesten-Hove, and which one ascends from the inlet of Lobro, in travelling over land to Sundboe, the road passes along the

brink of a steep cliff. To have a view from the top of this rock, I ventured out as far on the shelves as was prudent, without the assistance of a rope; but I was well rewarded for my trouble, as the rock here has a most wonderful and singular appearance, being filled with large pointed projections resembling the gavel of a house, spires, &c. which extend so far from the land, that one could row between them in a boat; and in some places large blocks lie across, from one side to the other, forming a kind of natural gates, through which the waves have a free passage.

On a small eminence in this island, called Krosgearahamra, I found, on the 15th of June, that beautiful little plant the *Schilla verna* in bloom; and in such abundance that it almost covered the whole of it.

About three miles from the southernmost extremity of the island stands the Monk, a large mass of rock about seventy feet in height; round which there runs a current exceedingly dangerous, on account of the many rocks, both concealed and visible, that lie on each side of it. This rock, when seen from the sea, has the appearance of a ship under full sail; but on the land side it pretty much resembles the statue of a monk: the neck is formed of hard red clay, and the head and body of a blackish grey kind of

stone, which is somewhat like irregular basaltes. On the top of this rock there are several loose stones, one of which is so large that it may be seen from the land.

The Lesser Dimon, which lies at the distance of four miles from the Greater Dimon, and about the same from Suderoe, is a small uninhabited island, nearly of a circular form, a little more than half a mile in diameter. The coast all round it is exceedingly steep, and is accessible only in three places. The whole island has the form of a haystack; and, when visible, might serve as a very certain mark to navigators. It abounds with sea-fowl, and contains a great number of wild sheep; but what Debes and others after him have asserted, that white sheep placed in this island change their colour and become spotted with black, and afterwards entirely black, a change ascribed to the fog or sea-vapour, is entirely false; for there are here a great many white sheep which retain their colour; but the black wild sheep of the island may be a peculiar species: they are of a small size, have short curled wool, and do not readily mix with the others introduced into the island; their flesh also has a peculiar dark appearance, and in taste approaches near to that of other wild animals. These wild sheep shelter themselves from the severity of the weather in some natural caverns found in the island;

and when the inhabitants of Suderoe come hither for a few days to catch sea-fowl, they take up their abode in caverns of the same kind.

SECTION VI.

Of the Parsonage Houses and Glebe Lands.

THE glebe lands in Feroe belong to the king, and are beneficed to the clergy. A clergyman therefore enters on his living without paying any thing to his predecessor or to his heirs: but every clergyman is obliged to keep in good repair the dwelling house and offices which belong to his living; for if he suffers them to fall to ruin, his successor can demand an indemnification from him or his representatives if they are able to pay it. The number of the buildings is accurately determined as well as their size, according to measurement; and as the dwelling houses have been built of the same extent for several centuries, it may be readily conceived that they are every where very small. A parsonage house contains in general a parlour, a kitchen, one or two small bed-chambers, and an apartment for the servants: the offices consist of a cow-house, capable of containing six or eight cows; a building for drying meat or fish; a penthouse for holding a boat, and a place for preserving turf.

Every clergyman, however, is at liberty to build as many offices as he may think necessary; but experience shews that he or his heirs can expect only a very trifling indemnification from his successor; and even that which a clergyman receives, for houses that have fallen to decay, is never sufficient to put them into a proper state of repair. The reason of this is, the low mode of valuation usual in this country. Certain domestic animals are transferred along with the houses and glebe, to the new incumbent: that is to say, a hundred sheep, two cows, and two horses*. If the clergyman wishes to have more he must purchase them himself; some, therefore, keep from a hundred to two hundred sheep; six or eight cows, and from two to four horses.

Besides the glebe there is also a piece of land called the annexed glebe, which belongs to the widow after the clergyman's decease; and as the clergy here, in consequence of the severe duty which they have to perform, seldom attain to a great age, it happens that in every parish there is always a widow, and sometimes two, who must be contented with the scanty subsistence afforded them by the annexed glebe.

* There are seldom more, and sometimes less. To the parsonage of Kirketai in Stromoe belong seventy sheep, but no cows or horses.

SECTION VII.

Of the Churches.

ALL the churches in Feroe, that of Kirkeboe excepted, are built of wood. The frame-work consists of fir planks, which in the inside are covered with planed boards. The greater part of them are only of such a height as to permit a full grown person to walk below the joists without stooping. There is no ceiling on these joists; and the roof consists of boards placed upon rafters, covered with from four to six strata of birch bark, fastened down with split hazel twigs or hoops; and over this grass turf is laid, so that in summer the roof is entirely green. On each side of the church stands a thick wall built of stone, at the distance of two or three feet from the wooden walls, and of such a height that pieces of wood laid across between them, form, as it were, a continuation of the roof, which is covered with boards, birch bark, and turf, in the same manner as the rest. These stone walls form no ornament to the church; but as they are at a considerable distance from the timber work, and as no rain can penetrate through the roof between them, they preserve the church from the dampness of the weather, which other-

wise would soon spoil the timber and cause it to rot. Some of the churches have a small tower or bellfry ; but others have nothing of the kind. A church here has room on each side for eight or ten benches, on each of which four or five persons can sit ; so that a Feroe church, if it has a small pulpit, is completely filled with a congregation of a hundred persons. The churches here are not painted in the inside ; and it is rare to see in them any kind of ornaments ; which, in my opinion, tend only to distract the attention of the hearers, and to interrupt their devotion. Some of them, however, have a communion table. In several churches I have seen a four-cornered stone vessel made of a kind of stone not found in these islands, and which therefore must have been brought hither from some other country. These vessels are about two feet square, and as much in depth ; and the sides are about an inch and a half in thickness : whether they were used in former times as baptismal fonts, or for holding holy water, I will not determine ; but they appear to be the only remains of antiquity found in the Feroe churches. The expense of building a church here will amount to about two hundred rix-dollars or more ; and when it is once built it will stand from sixty to eighty years ; but, in the course of that time, it will require frequent reparation, and particularly the roof.

SECTION VIII.

Of the Coal Mines.

It was first remarked, as far as I know, in the beginning of last century that there was coal in Feroe. A commandant named Juel, who travelled through these islands in 1709, and constructed a chart of them, found coals at Qualboe on the ^{North W.} southern coast of Suderoe. In 1723, a proposal was made to examine the coal mines in Feroe, and two persons acquainted with the nature of such works, were sent thither for that purpose; but as it was reported, about the same time, that coals were found also in Norway, the attempt in Feroe was given up. In 1733, however, a company was formed, in order to make new researches; and an Englishman sent to Feroe with that view, dug up coal at Ornefield near Ordevig; but the search was not carried any farther. The same design was again revived in 1756; but in consequence of some difficulties started in regard to the carriage of the coals, and doubts respecting the quality of them, government refused to have any concern in the business.

In the year 1777, the directory of the mines caused the veins of coal to be examined by Mr. Henckel. According to his report they extend

in length about twelve thousand feet, and, at a medium, are four thousand feet in breadth. The height of the pure coal is about five feet. They contain, therefore, two hundred and forty millions of cubic feet: a quantity sufficient to supply a thousand families with fuel for eight centuries; and which would be equivalent in value to twenty-six millions of rix-dollars. But even if the veins of coal should in some parts be less, for I do not pretend to assert that they are every where the same; as in several of the pits obstacles occurred, which it was not possible to overcome, and which prevented the veins from being explored; still these mines are of such importance as to merit more attention than has hitherto been bestowed upon them, and to excite a greater degree of exertion to render them productive.

It has, however, been asserted, that the Feroe coals are of a bad quality, and not fit to be employed in forges. In contradiction to this, I shall refer only to the testimony of professor Kratzenstein. The greatest fault coals can have when used for metallurgic operations is, in his opinion, to be mixed with sulphur, arsenical pyrites, or vitriolic acid, which converts the surface of iron or copper again to ore; and occasions a great decrease in the metal; but, according to chemists who have examined the Feroe coals, it is certain that they are free from sul-

phur, arsenic, or vitriolic acid; and may be used without any danger, for the finest works of metal. He very properly admits, that the Feroe coals do not kindle so readily as the best English coals; but he asserts, at the same time, that they produce a stronger and more durable heat; so that they might be used with great advantage by brewers and sugar-refiners. But even if they should not be found useful to brewers or smiths, they would be exceedingly serviceable in blast furnaces, and preferable for that purpose to the English. To the above testimony of professor Kratzenstein I might, if necessary, add that also of Mr. Floor, who caused the Feroe coals to be examined at Air in Scotland, without letting it be known that they came from these islands, and it was found by Mr. Heartly, coal-undertaker, that they were better than any produced in that neighbourhood. An experienced smith who subjected them to experiment, and forged with them a kind of iron which could not be forged with Scots coal, offered to give a double price for them, imagining that they were a new sort obtained from some of the mines of the country.

Coals are found both low down near the sea shore, and at a considerable height even in the cliffs, on the east and west side of Suderoe. The veins sink down towards the north-east,

where in some places they run under the sea, and rise up towards the south-east.

Coal mines were first opened, as far as I know, at Ornefield; but the veins which were from sixteen to twenty inches in thickness continually decreased, and at length it was found necessary to abandon the works, in consequence of some obstacles which occurred in working them. New pits were then sunk at Orneskar, where a large quantity of excellent coals were dug out; but after proceeding some way below the hill, the miners came to a stream of water which increased more and more, so that the labour became exceedingly difficult, and the large loose stones suspended over the heads of the workmen, made it dangerous for them to venture into the galleries. The works, therefore, were removed, to a place farther north. But as it would be tiresome to enumerate all the places where attempts of this kind were made, and which it was afterwards necessary to abandon, in consequence of some obstacle or other, I shall only remark, that the last and best pits were opened to the east of Præstfield, on the south side of Qualboefjord. The breadth of the apertures at the mouth, is from four to five feet; but they increase to ten and even fourteen; the last breadth is considered as too great, as there is reason to apprehend, that the roof might tumble in if cross pits should be cut: the height is from four feet and a half to

five feet. The nature of the strata is as follows:—

1. The lowest stratum of coal is from eighteen to twenty-two inches in thickness.

2. Above this is a stratum of blackish grey clay, interspersed with small stripes of coal, six inches in thickness.

3. The uppermost stratum of coal is seven inches in thickness; but it is more laminated on the fracture, and intermixed with masses of bituminous coal (*lithanthrax*).

4. Over this there is a second stratum of the blackish grey clay, with small stripes of coal, seventeen inches in thickness.

5. The remaining part of the vein consists of a sort of clay, interspersed with a great many large masses of coal.

But the most important question is, how the coals dug out here could be conveyed to Copenhagen. To carry them first to Thorshavn, in order that they might there be taken on board ships would be impossible; for the first carriage would be too expensive, and the coals would be injured by being so often removed. The most convenient method would be, that the vessels trading to Feroe, some of which return in ballast to Copenhagen, should now and then take in a cargo of coals; but the masters of these vessels are unwilling to do this, as they pretend that the consumption of time would make them

lose a whole voyage; and, indeed, as a ship is destined to make three voyages to Feroe in the course of a summer, I will not deny that much time would be wasted, and therefore this objection is not altogether groundless.

In the year 1792 government announced in the public papers, that a large quantity of coals were lying ready in Suderoe, and would be disposed of at a very moderate price; but no purchasers appeared.

SECTION IX.

Harbours, Anchorage, and Pilots.

THE bays and creeks among these islands afford a great many harbours, but not all equally good: in some the entrance is rendered dangerous, and the anchorage ground insecure by sunken rocks: others being open towards the sea are exposed to the violence of the waves, during storms; and sometimes the nature of the neighbouring hills is such, that they suffer certain winds to have free access to them, and even give rise to destructive whirlwinds and hurricanes. Most of the Feroe harbours have, indeed, one or more of these inconveniencies, so that they can afford safe anchorage to ships only in the summer time; but there are some also which may be called excel-

lent winter harbours, where not only the anchorage is good, but where ships can remain in perfect safety both from the winds and the waves.

One of the best winter harbours in Feroe is WESTMANHAVN, which lies on the western side of Stromoe, stretching towards the south-west. Ships can enter it from the west or south-west, between Kolter and Vaagoe; between Vaagoe and Stromoe, or between the northern end of Vaagoe and Stromoe. Both entrances are secure. There are, indeed, some shoals near the northern end of these islands; but they lie so close to the land that they can be no impediment, provided one keeps mid-water. Opposite to the mouth of the harbour lies Vaagoe, which shelters it on the sea side from the violence of the winds and the waves; and it is inclosed on all the other sides by high hills, so that ships anchored here can never be incommoded, except the wind comes from the south-west, north-west, or north-east; but even then the gusts, though pretty strong, do very little injury.

At the mouth there are two headlands, one on the south-east side, which is called Eilsnees; and the other to the north-west, which is called Stuyggiur. The length of the harbour from the entrance to the farthest extremity, is more than a mile; but its greatest breadth is little more than half a mile. The bottom affords excellent

anchorage; it consists of pure sand towards the mouth; and in the interior part of mud and clay. Two small tongues of land extend into the bay; and both of them are furnished with mooring-rings, to which cables can be made fast: the northern tongue is called Heyanees, and the southern Nees. About eight fathoms from the land, at this point, is the only place in this harbour where there is a visible rock, which is always seen at low water. At the mouth of the harbour there is also a mooring staple; it is fixed on the south-east side, at the point of Eilsnees; but, in my opinion, it is too far out to be of any service to ships for anchoring, as the current runs very strong at this place; but it is not entirely useless, as it might serve to assist vessels in warping out or in when the wind is not favourable.

The depth of the water at the mouth is thirteen fathoms; but the general depth is from seven to twelve fathoms, though there are some places where it is not more than three or four.

This harbour possesses one advantage, which it has in common with all the others in Feroe: it never freezes in winter, so that ships can at all times enter it, and go out from it without any interruption.

KONGSHAVN OR SKAALEFIORD, which lies on the south-west side of Osteroe, is considered also as a good winter harbour. It is about six miles and

a half in length ; and, where widest, nearly a mile broad. In the middle the depth of the water is from thirteen to thirty-two fathoms ; on the east side from seven to eighteen, and on the west side from five to thirteen. The bottom consists every where of mud and sand.

The interior part of the bay is called Skaalbotnur : it is not safe for ships to anchor here, on account of the violent gusts of wind which proceed from the west. The safest and most convenient place in the whole harbour, for anchorage, is between Lyeusaae and Kyirkyutengi ; for though it is exposed sometimes to strong gales from the north-west, they are always equal and steady. The harbour is sheltered from the violence of the billows by two headlands ; which embrace as it were the mouth of it, namely Garsendi on the east side, and Tengi on the west.

At Syon and Selvinde, on the western side of this harbour, there are two mooring rings, for the use of those ships which frequent it. In entering it care must be taken to avoid some rocks which lie before the mouth of it, between Osteroe and Stromoe. Two of these are visible, and surrounded with deep water ; but towards the north and north-west, there are about fifty sunken rocks ; which may, however, be avoided by sailing on either side of them.

TRANGYISVAAG, on the east side of Suderoë, is also a good winter harbour. It is full three miles and a half long, and every where about a mile broad, except at the innermost part, where it contracts to about half a mile. Its depth in the middle, is from eight and a half to thirteen and a half fathoms; but in some places it is little more than two and a half.

On the shore there are four mooring rings, to which ships can make fast their cables. The first is on the south side between Kyaldavigholm and Ordaviig, where there is from six and a half to seven fathoms water. In the small sound, betwen the holm and the land, the depth is scarcely three fathoms and a half; but without the holm, at the distance of a cable's length from the shore, and half that distance from the holm, there is a sunken rock, six feet below the water, over which the sea breaks even in moderate weather; and from the above-mentioned holm a shoal extends towards Froba-Hodda where at the distance of twenty fathoms from the land the depth is scarcely four fathoms.

The second mooring ring stands farther in towards the land, at a place called Drellenæs, where the depth of water is nine fathoms and a half.

The third ring is fixed in the holm, which lies in an inlet on the south side, where on the west

side of the holm there is from ten to twelve fathoms water, and on the east side five and a half. This is the best station for ships.

The fourth mooring ring is at Kultoften.

The bottom of the harbour consists generally of mud, but in some places of sand. Strong winds from the south-west and west-south-west prevail here sometimes; but if ships lie a good way in they are secure from any danger.

VAY, or VAAGSFIORD, which lies on the south-east side of Suderoe, is also a safe winter harbour, though not entirely sheltered from the sea. It is above three miles in length; at the mouth about one mile in breadth, but in the interior part much less. The headland on the north side is called Porkyerinæs; that on the south side Holskorar.

Its general depth is from twelve to twenty fathoms, and the bottom consists almost everywhere of sand. It is furnished with one mooring ring and an iron staple

KLAKSUND, at VAI, on the north-west side of Bordoe, is a safe winter harbour, above a mile in length, and somewhat less than half a mile in breadth. The depth at the mouth is about twelve fathoms; and in the middle of its length inwards, where there is an anchoring-ring and an iron staple, about five fathoms; but farther in the depth decreases to three fathoms. It is sheltered from the violence of the sea by the island of

Konoe, which lies opposite to its mouth. The most violent winds here are the east and north west.

The bottom consists chiefly of mud. This harbour is the one most usually frequented by the Dutch fishing-vessels.

Fuglefiord, on the east side of Osteroe, may also be called a good winter harbour, for it is nearly of a semicircular form, and above two miles in length. At the outer part it is somewhat more than a mile in breadth; but it gradually decreases inwards till it becomes little more than a quarter of a mile. The general depth is sixteen fathoms; but it becomes shallower towards the land, near which it is only eight fathoms. The bottom is chiefly mud.

On the north-east side there is an anchoring-ring, and on the south-west an iron staple.

The strongest gales here come from the north-west, but they occasion no damage to ships.

Having here enumerated the safest of the winter harbours, I shall now mention some of the summer harbours; in which, on account of one inconvenience or other, ships cannot lie in safety during the winter.

The first is LABRØ, an inlet from the southern side of Bayfiord, in Suderøe, which is secured from the sea by the northern side of the frith. It is about a mile long, and nearly half a mile broad. The depth of water at the entrance is

from eighteen to nine fathoms; but in the interior part there are two small visible rocks, before which ships have lain at anchor, and where the depth is only three fathoms.

In consequence of its situation and excellent anchoring-ground, the bottom being fine sand, this would be a very convenient winter harbour, were it not rendered insecure in that season by the violent gusts of wind which proceed from the south-south-west. It is, however, a very good summer harbour.

ORDAVIIG is a bay on the south side of Tran-gyisvay, about half a mile long, and a quarter in breadth. The depth is from thirteen to seven fathoms; and the bottom towards the mouth consists of fine sand, but farther in of mud. It has been found by ships which have anchored in this harbour, that it contains sharp stones, which cut the cables, though Mr. Svabo could not discover any of them when he sounded it. The strongest winds here are the south-west and south-south-west.

QUALBOE-FIORD lies on the north-east part of Suderoe: it is above two miles in length, but its breadth varies from a mile to nearly one half. Its headlands are Myavenæs on the north, and Lundenæs on the south. About the middle of the Fiord, or Sound, there is a rock, over which the sea always breaks, except in very fine weather. The depth without this rock is from

seventeen to thirteen fathoms, within it from eleven to eight, and close to the village, on the north side, from six to four. There is good anchorage here, and also at Kuldtoften, on the south side, where the depth is from two to four fathoms, and where there are two mooring rings. The bottom for the most part is sand, or sand mixed with mud. The harbour is open towards the sea, and therefore a strong surf always prevails here when the wind blows from the east and north-east; there are also violent gusts when the wind comes from the south-south-west, and the west-south-west.

MIDVAAG lies on the south side of Vaagoe, but turns out towards the south-east. Its two headlands are Præst-Tange, on the west; and Klovningen, on the east. The length of the bay is about a mile and a half, and its breadth from half a mile to three quarters. It divides itself into Midvaag, on the west side, and Sandevaag, on the east. Its depth from Sandevaag outwards is between ten and thirteen fathoms, but in Midvaag it is only from five to ten fathoms. The bottom is sand, and exceedingly clean.

This harbour is sheltered, in a great measure, by Stromoe and Kolter; but as the south and south-west winds may occasion here a very heavy surf, it can be used with safety only in summer. The best anchorage is before that tongue of land which separates the two inlets from each other;

but a little towards the land on the west side. On the same side, at Yensegyerde, there is a mooring-ring.

SANDEVAAG lies somewhat more open towards the sea, and therefore can be called nothing else but an anchoring-place: the depth of water is from three to thirteen fathoms.

SORVAAG, which lies on the western side of Vaagoe, is above two miles in length, and above three quarters of a mile broad; but farther in it is narrower. The depth from Tintholm, which is on the west side of the entrance, is from thirteen to twenty-four fathoms. In the interior part there is a large sand bank, which is covered at high water.

THORSHAVN, which lies in the south-east corner of Stromoe, consists of two small inlets, separated by a narrow tongue of land called Tinganæs. Its headlands are Skandsatangen, on the east side, and Glivursnæs, on the west side. The trading ships belonging to the Danish government generally lie in the eastern inlet to load and unload, though it is so small as to be capable of admitting no more than three or four vessels at a time. The western inlet, which is called Fridericksvaag, is twice as large, and not so open towards the sea. Both these inlets are well provided with mooring-rings, and the anchorage is good, as the bottom consists of sand; but the heavy sea which prevails here makes this a very insecure winter

harbour, and several ships lying in it during bad weather have been lost. The depth in the eastern division is from seven to ten fathoms; in the western from five to ten.

As this place lies in the centre of the Feroe islands, it has been made choice of as a staple for merchandize, though the harbour is but moderately good.

KALBAKSFJORD lies on the east side of Stromoe; it is about three miles long, but its breadth varies from one half to a quarter of a mile. The depth towards the entrance is thirty-three fathoms; but it decreases inwards to eleven fathoms, with a bottom rising towards both sides. It is not a bad harbour; but as Kongshavn, which lies opposite to it, is better, it is not much frequented.

KODLAFJORD, on the eastern side of Stromoe, is above two miles in length, and from three quarters to half a mile in breadth. Its headlands are Kielnæstængen, on the north side, and Kiedling, or Skudelsflode, on the west side. The depth from Kielnæs to Signaboe, a village on the south side, decreases from twenty-five to fourteen fathoms; but from Signaboe, and farther in to Næstet, on the west side, it decreases to six fathoms.

The bottom is every where muddy. Ships can anchor directly before Syougard, on the north

side, and before Signaboe; but dangerous gusts of wind prevail here from the north-west.

Farther towards the north, on the same side of Stromoe, lies QUALVIIG, which is somewhat more than half a mile in length, and nearly the same in breadth. The depth decreases from twelve to four fathoms, but it is deepest towards the northern shore. The bottom is chiefly mud. This is an excellent summer harbour, being defended from the sea on all sides. Strong winds, however, prevail here, sometimes from the south-east and north-west. At the boat-house* on the south side there is a mooring-ring.

The most northern harbour on the east side of Stromoe is HALDERSVIIG, which is merely a small bay, but it forms an excellent summer harbour; before the entrance the depth is twenty-four fathoms; but farther in ships can anchor in thirteen, and even in six and seven fathoms. At the boat-house on the south side there is an anchoring-ring.

FUNDINGS-FIORD, in the north-east part of Osteroe, is about five miles and a half in length; its breadth at the mouth is a mile and a half, but in the interior part it is scarcely one-third of a mile. Its headlands are Muulen, towards the north-west, and Andfaratang, towards the south-east.

* A house into which boats are drawn, especially during winter.

Its depth at the entrance is from twenty-five to forty fathoms, and within from eight to twenty.

The bottom, for the most part, is mud, mixed in some places with sand and clay. Were it not for the strong gusts of wind which come from the south-west it would form a good winter harbour. A long way in, on the west side, there is a mooring-ring.

Besides these harbours there are also a great many anchoring-places which might be used in cases of necessity; but where there is no security from storms, and from the violence of the sea. Of this kind are the following:

There are three small inlets in the mouth of VAY-FIORD on the north side, at a place called PORKYERI, where there is good anchorage, and where ships have lain at anchor.

QUALVIG, on the north-east side of the same island. Its headlands are Myavanæs, on the south, and Qualnæs on the north. This bay is more than a mile in length, and about three quarters of a mile in breadth. It has a sandy bottom, and the water is from six to fifteen fathoms in depth.

SANDS-BUGT, on the south-west side of Sand-oe, is about a mile in length, and the same in breadth. Ships may anchor here opposite the church, where there is a mooring-ring, in eight or nine fathoms water. The bottom is sand.

HUSEVIIGS-BUGT, on the east side of the same

island, is an open bay in which ships can anchor on a sandy bottom, towards the north side, in ten fathoms water. The south and east winds here are dangerous.

SKAALLVIIGS-BUGT is another open bay on the north-west side of the above island, in which ships can anchor for a short time in fourteen fathoms water. The bottom is sand.

BRANDERSVIG, on the south-west side of Stromoe, has a mooring-ring where ships may anchor between Kirkeboe in the north, and Boe in the south. The depth from eight to ten fathoms, with a bottom of sand.

On the west side of Naalsole, opposite, but not very near to the village, ships can anchor in from fifteen to twenty fathoms water. The bottom is sand; but in some places there are sharp rocks which might cut the cables. It is to be observed also, that the currents here will turn a ship twice round in the course of twenty-four hours.

Before Arge hospital, which lies about half a mile south from Thorshavn, ships, in case of necessity, can come to anchor in twelve or thirteen fathoms water.

In the northern part of the sound between Osteroe and Stromoe, from Eide to Nord-skaale there is very good anchorage in about seven fathoms water. At the latter place there is even a pretty good harbour.

ANDAFIORD, on the north-east side of Osteroe, has good anchorage in from eighteen to thirty fathoms water. Its headlands are Stongyin, on the north, and Næstangen, on the south.

GYOTHEVIIG, a bay on the east side of the same island, which has two small inlets, Nordergotha and Sydergyotha. Its headlands are Gyothanæs, on the north, and Myavanæs on the south. Its length on the north side is about three miles, and on the south side above five. Its breadth is about a mile and a half. The depth at Sydergyotha is five fathoms; but in the middle, where ships lie at anchor, it is from fourteen to twenty fathoms. The bottom in some places, is mud, and in others, sand.

BORDOEVIIG, in the south end of Bordoe, is about three miles in length, and above a mile in breadth where widest; but in the interior part its breadth is not more than half a mile. The depth a considerable way in is five fathoms; but towards the mouth it is from eighteen to thirty. The bottom near the entrance is mud, but farther in it is sand. The strongest gusts of wind here come from the south-south-west, and the south-south-east.

ARNEFIORD, in Feroese Aadnafiord, is a bay on the south-east side of Bordoe, above two miles long, and about a mile broad towards the mouth, but little more than a quarter of a mile in the interior part. Its northern headland is called

Bergsmunna; the southern Lissahoddi. The depth near the entrance is twenty-nine fathoms, but farther in ships can anchor in from eighteen to twenty-five. The bottom is muddy sand. A good way in, on the north side, there is a mooring-ring.

VIIG, on the east side of Svinoe, is about a mile long, and three quarters of a mile broad. Ships can anchor here in thirteen fathoms, on a bottom of sand.

VEDEVIIG, on the north-east side of Videroe, is about a mile and a half long, and nearly half a mile broad. The depth is ten fathoms, with a bottom of sand.

The four bays last mentioned are open towards the sea, and therefore exposed to the violence of the waves when the wind blows towards the land. On this account they can be used only when the wind comes from the shore; or in a case of necessity, such as that when a ship in hazy weather approaches so close to the coast that it is impossible to clear the land. But QUANNASUND, between Videroe and Bordoe, affords a pretty safe anchoring-place. At the narrowest part of the sound, a little to the north of Deble, there is a very strong current; and here the depth is scarcely three and a half fathoms. Vessels can enter this sound either from the north, and anchor to the south of the narrow current, in from five to eight fathoms water, where on the

side next Videroe there is a mooring-ring; or from the south and south-east, between Svinoe, Bordoe, and Videroe, where ships may anchor before the houses on Quannasund, in from six to ten fathoms. On the west side, opposite to Tofte, there is a mooring-ring. This anchoring-place is considered to be better than that to the north of the current; but in sailing in from this side it is necessary to pay attention to some rocks, or the so called Malstrom, which lies before the southern entrance of the sound; by keeping somewhat nearer to Bordoe than Svinoe all danger may be avoided.

HARALSUND lies between Konoe and Bordoe. Here also, where the sound is narrowest, there is a pretty strong current; but it has good anchorage particularly to the south of the village on Konoe, where the depth of water is about ten fathoms.

It thus appears, that there is no want of good harbours and anchoring-places between these islands, and at almost all their headlands, which may be used by navigators bound to Feroe, or by those who, in the course of their voyages to some other destination, may be obliged to seek shelter here during stormy weather.

It cannot, however, be denied that a good establishment for pilotage in these islands, would be of great benefit to navigation. Some attempts have been made for this purpose; but they will

always be attended with considerable difficulties, which it will not, perhaps, be easy to surmount. In the first place, the captains of foreign ships may not always be disposed to pay the money required from them, and to submit to the regulations to which it may be necessary to subject them. As an instance in point, I shall here relate a circumstance, which took place a few years ago. The master of a Dutch fishing-vessel entered one of these harbours, the name of which I do not rightly recollect; and being asked for the usual anchorage-money, as he had no articles on board, perhaps, to smuggle on shore, he only laughed at the demand; and heaving up his anchor put to sea again. Another difficulty, in regard to foreign ships, is, that even when they make signals for a pilot, few will go off to them. Not that I here wish to accuse the Feroese of any backwardness to assist those who are in distress, or to hasten to their relief: but this difficulty arises from the nature of the country, and from certain prejudices prevalent among these people. Most of the villages in Feroe are so situated, that, when the wind blows towards the land, it is impossible for a boat, on account of the violence of the surf, to go off from the shore. It has indeed, sometimes happened, that signals have been made by vessels for a pilot, in places where the people could and ought to have gone to their assistance; but this unwillingness

is to be ascribed merely to the dread which the inhabitants entertain of infectious disorders: for the small pox and measles have not yet become endemial in Feroë; and experience has taught the natives, that when introduced among them by incautious mariners, they occasion the same ravage as the most destructive plague. These people fear, likewise, and not without some reason, that they may meet with bad treatment, from the masters of vessels who employ them, of which there have been several instances. It has even happened, that the master of a foreign vessel after getting on board, as pilots, two of the natives, has carried them away with him to a distant country; where they were not only in danger of losing their lives, or of catching variolus infection, but experienced ill treatment; and, after many hardships, were with difficulty able to return to their native country. But it is not necessary to recur to past times for examples of this kind. A few years ago, the captain of an English vessel, which had sailed through Scaapenfiord to Naalsoefiord past Thorshavn, got on board from the latter place a pilot accompanied by another of the inhabitants, both of whom could speak good English; but as the sea ran so very high, that the pilot's boat was in great danger of being dashed to pieces against the side of the ship, it was found necessary to send the boat back to the shore, and the pilot remained in or-

der that he might, if possible, bring the vessel to a safe anchorage, Soon after the captain perceiving that there was an opening between Naal-soe and Osteroe, he determined not to anchor, but to pursue his voyage. The pilot's boat, however, was gone, and the captain, as the weather was very bad, would not hoist out his yaul. The unfortunate pilot, therefore, was reduced to the utmost distress; as he now saw himself on the point of being carried to a distance from his own home, without the least hope of a speedy return. After some altercation, the captain at length relented, and hoisting out his yaul landed the pilot and his companion, on the south-east extremity of Naalsoe; but at the bottom of a steep rock, which it was impossible to clamber up, and where they were exposed to the danger of dying of hunger, or of being swallowed up by the waves. Luckily, however, they were observed by some of the inhabitants, who repairing to the spot with ropes hoisted one of them up; but the other, in consequence of a swimming in his head, not being able to take advantage of this means of preservation, the people were obliged to bring a boat* from the village, a mile distant, in which he was conveyed to a place of safety; and the pilot and his companion, even then, were under the necessity of procuring a passage, at their own expense, to Thorshavn. After such treatment can it be expected that the Feroese

should have much inclination to act as pilots? And what security can they obtain, that what has happened formerly may not happen again? However desirable, and however useful, an establishment for pilotage in Feroe might be, it must be attended with many and almost insuperable difficulties. But to speak the truth, I do not see that a regular establishment for pilotage in Feroe, is so necessary as some might suppose. These islands are seldom frequented by foreign seamen, entirely ignorant of the nature of these seas; and besides, the navigation round and between them, is not nearly so dangerous as has been hitherto imagined. It is a true observation, a few particulars excepted, which has been made by Captain Floor, in his chart of the Feroe islands, and which was pointed out to me by Captain Born, “that the whole shore is bold, and nothing to be feared but what is visible.” These islands, indeed, are not destitute of good harbours and anchoring-places, of which, as well as of the shoals and sunken rocks, every seaman may acquire a sufficient knowledge from descriptions and charts, similar to those of the Icelandic harbours, constructed by Captain Lowenorn, from whom we have reason to expect similar ones of the Feroe harbours, which, in my opinion, will render a general establishment for pilotage in these islands, if not entirely superfluous at least less necessary.

Thorshavn in Stromoe, and Qualboe in Sude-
roe, are places which ought not to be unpro-
vided with expert pilots, as the former is fre-
quented by trading vessels, and the latter it is
hoped will be visited by them, if the coal
mines in the neighbourhood should ever come to
be worked.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE FEROE ISLANDS.

SECTION I.*Currents and Whirlpools. Sunken Rocks, Tides, Surf, &c.*

THE currents around and between these islands are rapid and strong; especially three days before and three days after new and full moon.

The inhabitants of Feroe call the new moon the sun kindling, or merely the kindling; and full moon they call full sun: for the moon to them is the night-sun; and according to this kindling and full sun, they can calculate pretty accurately the course of these currents. This knowledge is indispensably necessary, to enable them to regulate the time for going out in their boats to fish, and for undertaking long and often dangerous voyages to and from Thorshavn, which is the capital and the principal place of trade.

There are two principal currents, one of which runs from east to west; and, in some of these islands, is called the east-fall, but in common the west-fall, because it runs towards the west. The other runs from west to east, and in most places is called the east-fall, but in some the west.

In general the period of each current is six hours twelve minutes, and according to this period the beginning and end of the current is calculated either from the day of new or full moon, or from the first day after; but in consequence of the different situations of the islands, and the many turns and windings which the currents must make between the islands and in the friths, it may readily be comprehended that these currents cannot every where have the same direction east and west; neither can the same current take place at the same time, throughout all these islands, but in some places the current runs south or north; and when the east-fall happens in one place, there may be a west-fall at the same time in another. To explain the cause of this it must be observed, that every current whether it be an east-fall, that is a current which runs east, or a west-fall, that is a current which runs west, begins first and ends first at the eastern part of the land; and every current, whether an east-fall or a west-fall, begins last and ends last on the western part of the

land. To render this plainer to those unacquainted with the nature of these currents (but it will be necessary that they should cast their eye on the map) I shall here take for the east Nolsoe-sound, as the commencement of the current; and for the west Westmanhavn's-sound as the termination. In Nolsoe-sound the west-fall begins to run west, at ten o'clock at night, on the day before new or full moon; but as this current, which proceeds west, runs a full mile in every hour, and as the distance between Nolsoe-sound and Westmanhavn is about five miles, it does not reach the latter place till the expiration of four hours, consequently it begins there four hours later than at Nolsoe-sound. Hence it happens that the west-fall begins before Westmanhavn on the day of new or full moon, at two o'clock in the morning.

Let us now return to Nolsoe-sound. Here the west-fall begins the night before new or full moon, at about ten o'clock; and as the period of each current is, in general, six hours twelve minutes, the west-fall must end here on the day of new or full moon, at four o'clock in the morning. But four hours are still required before it can reach Westmanhavn; consequently this west-fall ends there the same day, at eight in the morning. But let us again return to Nolsoe-sound. Here the west-fall ends, as already said, on the days of new and full moon, at four in the morning;

and, after a short pause, the east-fall begins to proceed east ; here, therefore, there is an east-fall, while, for some hours, there is still a west-fall in Westmanhavn's-sound.

Those, therefore, who wish to go by sea from Westmanhavn, Vaagoe, or Myggenæs, to Thorshavn, and to take advantage of the current must not sail with the east-fall, which at the beginning is favourable ; but the farther they advance towards the east, the sooner they will meet with the west-fall, which is then constantly against them. It is better, therefore, to set out when the west-fall slackens, which at its commencement is contrary ; but the farther they proceed to the eastward the sooner they will meet with the east-fall, which is favourable till they approach Thorshavn. On the other hand, those who wish to sail west from Thorshavn, to any of the before-mentioned places, may set out at the end of the west-fall, and have this current favourable during their whole course west. Nay, with this current, one may sail north-west, proceeding round the whole land, and still have it favourable : for when you have got to the north of the land, by means of the west-fall, the same current which now runs from west to east, and, on this account, acquires here the name of the east-fall, will now convey you northwards, and to the east of the land. And when you have got to the east of the land you will meet with

the west-fall, which will carry you west. But the case is different when people wish to sail round the land, in a direction contrary to the sun's course: for in this navigation they will find an alternation of contrary currents. It is also worthy of remark, that the west-fall is always stronger, and more adverse, than the east-fall, and that the one favours navigation much more than the other.

To obtain certain information in regard to the various courses of the currents, around and between the Feroe islands, the captain of a ship, named Floor, examined all the channels a few years ago. From his remarks, compared with the information of P. S. Lamhauge on the same subject, and what I myself observed in the course of my voyages, I have drawn up the following account, which will serve to give the reader a general idea of the principal currents.

But I shall first state the course and termination of the west fall; as that of the east-fall can then be easily calculated.

The east-fall terminates, or it is highest water, as follows:

In NOLSOE-SOUND, at four in the morning, on the days of new and full moon; and during the west-fall the current runs south through the sound. But it is worthy of remark, though it be a natural consequence of the situation of the land, that to the north of Nolsoe-Sound between

Osteroe and Stromoe, the current proceeds north during the west-fall, but it is only weak.

In SCHOPENE-SOUND the current runs also west, and therefore is properly called the west-fall. This west-fall, on the days of new and full moon, is over at five in the afternoon. At the same time the west-fall terminates in Skuoe-Sound, between Skuoe and Sandoe.

In HESTOE-SOUND, between Hestoe and Sandoe, the west-fall ends, at half after five in the morning.

In VAAGOE-SOUND, between Kolter and Vaagoe, the west-fall is over, on the days of new and full moon, at six in the morning. The case is the same in Suderoe-Sound, between Suderoe and Skuoe; as well as between Vaagoe and Suderoe; that is to the west of Sandoe.

In VAAGOE-SOUND, between Vaagoe and Stromoe, opposite to Westmanhavn, the west-fall ends at eight in the morning.

In MYGGENÆS-SOUND the west-fall ceases at nine in the morning. It is to be remarked, that the west-fall begins here to run north and east.

North by west from Eides-fiord the east-fall, at new and full moon, is calculated to end at eleven o'clock in the forenoon; and the west-fall at five in the afternoon.

It is to be observed, that the current here runs about a mile an hour; but to the north, where

it runs against the northern headlands of the island, and by these means is thrown out to a considerable distance in the sea, from which it is again forced back towards the land, by the more powerful strength of the waves, it follows that the time and velocity of the current do not so exactly correspond here as in other places; so that the beginning and ending of each current, between Myggenæs and Fugleoe, may be subject to some variation.

In FUGLEOE-SOUND the current ends by running south and west after a quarter past eleven, at the time of new and full moon.

In SVINOE-SOUND the same current ends at eleven, and it does so also in Karlsoe-Sound.

In LERVIC'S-SOUND the current ends by running south and west at half past twelve, on the days of new and full moon.

At MYAAVANEES, half a mile to the south-east, the same current ends at twelve minutes past three in the afternoon, on the days of new and full moon.

From these data the periods of these currents may be easily calculated for the other days of the month, when it is remembered, that each current continues during six hours and twelve minutes.

Four successive currents then occupy twenty-four hours and forty-eight minutes; consequent-

ly each current ends three quarters of an hour later every succeeding day after new or full moon ; which in five days makes the current four hours later than on the days of new and full moon. Nay, on the days of the first and last quarter, the time is so much extended, that the east-fall then ends in all the sounds, at the same hour as the west-fall ends on the days of new and full moon.

The currents of the other places in the sounds which I have not here mentioned, might be calculated by a scale of miles adapted to a map. But as there is no rule without an exception, the rules here given for calculating the periods of the currents, between and around the Feroe islands, are subject to the same ; for it has been found by experience, that when the current is strong its period is shorter, and when weak it is longer.

In the last three days of the last quarter, the currents increase in strength ; the first day after new moon they are strongest ; and though after that time they begin gradually to decrease in strength, they are still perceptibly strong during the three first days of the first quarter. The case is the same with the strong currents during the three last days of the first quarter, and the three first days after full moon. These strong currents do not only run with great rapidity, but turn abruptly, so that the pause between the east-

fall and the west-fall is very short; and on this account, the period of the strong currents is a full half hour shorter.

During the three days before the change of the first quarter, the current continually decreases in strength, or becomes weaker. On the day of the change it is mildest, and, though after that day it begins gradually to increase in strength, it is still perceptibly gentle; or, as it is called, *good**. The case is the same with good currents during the three days before the change of the last quarter, and for three days after these good currents not only run slowly, but turn also slowly, so that the pause between the east-fall and the west-fall continues a full quarter of an hour; and, on this account, the period of good currents is fully half an hour longer than it ought to be. What a strong current, therefore, loses in time, in consequence of its velocity, is gained by a good current, in consequence of its slowness. Hence the difference between the periods, of the strongest and slowest currents, is fully an hour; and it is only when the current holds a medium between the strongest and weakest, that it observes the common period, which is six hours and twelve minutes.

In regard to the strength of these currents it

* Gentle currents, whether adverse or favourable, are in Feroe called good currents.

is farther to be remarked, that every new and full moon does not produce an equally strong current; for the spring months, and particularly April and May, produce the strongest in the whole year. Cold, windy, and clear weather increase also the velocity of the currents, and render those that are good less so, but, on the other hand, mild, calm, and damp weather moderate the currents.

In regard to the course of these currents it is to be remarked, that in the sounds and friths three or more are often observed, one of which is different from the rest; nay, sometimes one of them runs contrary to the others. This is occasioned either by the bendings or bays in the sounds, against which the principal currents precipitate themselves, and part of the water being thence reflected, a retrograde current is produced; or by projecting headlands on one side or the other, or even on both sides, against which the principal current runs, and thence occasions retrograde currents on one of the sides, or on both. And such a retrograde stream, when not impeded by other tongues of land, may proceed backwards a half, or even a whole mile; but if this retrograde current runs against a headland, another new current is produced; and thus there may exist at the same time, in the same sound, several different currents; so that two boats may meet each other, and yet both have the currents

favourable. It may readily be comprehended that the principal current, which is as it were the parent of the others, has a much greater velocity.

To be well acquainted with the periods and course of the principal currents around the Feroe islands, and also with their various windings and retrograde movements, is of the utmost importance, not only to the inhabitants themselves, who by these means can render their sailing much easier when the principal current is against them, but also to mariners in general, who either navigate the Feroe seas, or are obliged to put into any of the harbours in these islands. For sometimes ignorance in this respect is attended with very serious consequences. No longer ago than the year 1794, a Finnish captain, named Nyugaard, overtaken by bad weather, endeavoured to get into one of the Feroe harbours, but having no knowledge of the currents, and particularly the retrograde currents, between Vaagoe and Stromoe, his vessel was driven upon the island of Kolter, where both it and the cargo were lost. But if a seaman knows the course of the principal current, a headland projecting in an oblique direction, either within or without the sound, or a decrease in the breadth of the current confined to a smaller space between the shores, will enable him to form a pretty accurate conjecture in regard to the retrograde currents;

and thus put him on his guard. There are also in some parts shoals and sunken rocks, which, in like manner may alter the course of the currents; but these can be known only by experience, though sometimes they may be discovered in consequence of the currents breaking over them when they stand high in the water.

But before I close this subject I must say a few words respecting some of the whirlpools which are found in the neighbourhood of these islands; and of these I shall first mention the Monk, near Suderoe, which Debes has described* as forming a triple gyration round a high rock which stands in the centre of it; adding, that in consequence of this triple gyration it is exceedingly dangerous for navigators.

From the whole description of Debes an intelligent reader may easily perceive that this author, who, for the period in which he lived, was a man of considerable acuteness and penetration, never saw the above-mentioned place; but that he suffered himself to be deceived by inaccurate information, which he endeavoured to render feasible by adding observations of his own.

In the year 1795, at a time when the harbour was pretty rough, and, consequently, the whirlpool more dangerous, I resolved to row out to it in a boat. This attempt, the sea being so

* Færoa Reserata.

boisterous, was indeed sufficient to excite apprehension in the breast of a stranger; but a residence of four years in Feroe had reconciled me to the threatening appearance of the waves round these islands, and I was well acquainted with the intrepidity of the natives in all operations at sea connected with danger. I placed myself, therefore, in the boat with great confidence, and could not help admiring the courage with which the boatmen encountered the awful billows, the art and ingenuity which they employed to prevent them from entering the boat, and the spirited exertion which they made in concert to force their way through the opposing eddy. After considerable labour, we arrived safe at the rock, without being whirled round, as Debes asserts; and there we remained some time as in a dead calm, in order that the boatmen might recover their strength, and to wait for the turning of the current. I had no apparatus with me to examine the depth of the water, or the nature of the bottom; but I had an opportunity of observing that Debes's assertion in regard to the triple gyration round the central rock is entirely void of foundation.

The rock called the Monk is surrounded by a great many shoals and rocks, some of which rise above the surface of the water; but the greater part of them are concealed, and known only from the surf occasioned by the waves breaking over

them. In particular, there are three long shoals which extend from the Monk towards the land. Now it may be readily conceived that the currents, which here as well as at each point or headland are most violent, may meet with a considerable resistance from these rocks and shoals. But the impetuous current endeavouring to overcome the obstacles which impede its course, where the shoal is low it passes over it without discovering any sign of its existence, except what may arise from the noise it makes, and the foam it leaves behind it; where the shoal is too high to be passed over, the current experiences a violent shock, and then divides itself into two currents, one on each side. Where there is an opening between the rocks the current forces itself through with greater violence; and after clearing this passage, if it meets with a couple of rocks lying in an oblique position, it acquires another direction; and where two such oblique currents meet, a rotary motion is communicated to the water. Hence it may be readily conceived, by those even who have never seen this phenomenon, that among these higher or lower shoals, and between these rocks lying in various directions there may be whirlpools and eddies, and every where a violent confusion and irregularity in the usual course of the currents. That such a current may be dangerous cannot be denied, but not so dangerous as has

hitherto been represented; for in good weather one can row out to it in a boat; and in bad weather, or when the sea is tempestuous, one ought not to approach it. But to ships it is more dangerous, as these cannot be so easily managed as a boat. The Monk, however, which is placed as it were in the middle of rocks, serves as a mark to warn seamen of their danger; but those who in cloudy weather, or during the darkness of the night, approach within a mile of the Feroe rocks, and are not able to pursue the right course, are exposed to no less danger in many other places.

The second whirlpool, or *malstrom*, is near Dal, in Sandoe. It is occasioned by the violent currents which pass this place, and which are thrown with great force against the projecting points of land. As the principal currents here are exceedingly impetuous, the reflected currents, which acquire a rotary motion, are also impetuous; but as this whirlpool is close to the land it can be dangerous only to those who imprudently approach too near to the shore.

The third and last whirlpool is among the northern islands, and is occasioned by the collision of several currents between Svinoe Sound and Fugleoe Sound, which passing over several sunk rocks lying at the depth of three fathoms and a half before the south-east entrance of Quanna Sound, produce a strong gyration,

through which, however, in general, a boat may force its way without much danger.

Besides these whirlpools there are other places in the sea around the Feroe islands which are dangerous both to boats and vessels of a larger size; that is to say, where there are rocks concealed by the water. When these rocks lie at a considerable depth, are of a large extent, and have a pretty smooth surface, they are called *grinder*; but if they rise near to the surface, and have rugged points or summits, they are distinguished by the name of *bover*. Both, however, when the weather is still and the sea calm, may be distinguished by the water being almost always in a state of agitation above them; for however tranquil the sea may sometimes be at the surface, it is certainly in continual motion; which in all probability arises from the action of the sun and moon in conjunction with the motion of the earth round its axis; and a small movement in the sea is not observed as long as it meets with no opposition. When a mass of water indeed, is put in motion, and is pushed forwards either gently or with violence, whether by the winds or by currents, or by some commotion in the sea, the consequence of a storm the preceding day, it will roll itself over the low shoals and rocks; but when it meets with projecting rocks and shoals which rise to a greater height, it will be dashed upwards, and occasion a heavy swell,

exceedingly dangerous both to boats and ships when they approach near to it.

Thus, half a mile out from the southern point of Lamhauge-Viig, there is a rock which occasions a heavy swell even in good weather.

About a mile within the frith, to the east of the eastern extremity of the same inlet, and at the distance of a fourth part of the inlet's breadth from the land, lies a blind rock which occasions a strong swell even in moderate weather. But a ship destined to pass through Kalsoe Sound, or to enter the inlet called Gyotte, may avoid it by keeping more to the east, or in the middle of the sound.

But a ship bound to Thorshavn, in order to keep clear of the same rock, must steer more to the south; and when she approaches within four miles of the southern extremity of Lamhauge-Viig, must sail nearer and nearer to Nolsoe.

The water here is five or six fathoms deep. A mile out from the southern extremity of Lamhauge-Viig there are also some rocks; which, however, do not produce any swell, but a strong agitation.

In Fugleoe Sound there are several rocks which occasion breakers; but they are all near the land of Fugleoe and Svinoe, and may be avoided by keeping in the middle of the sound.

Before the northern extremity of Videroe

there is likewise a rock, at the distance of three or four cables length from the land.

There is another at the northern extremity of Kunoe, but it lies near the land.

At the north-west extremity of Stromoe, and the north, or north-west end of Vaagoe, there are a great many blind rocks, some of them nearer to, and some of them farther from the land; but none of them at a greater distance from it than two or three miles.

At the west end of the holm* belonging to Myggenæs there are several blind rocks; but all near the land.

Between Myggenæs and Gaasholm there is also a blind rock; but a ship may pass with safety between the rock and the holm, as one may approach pretty near to the holm without danger.

To the north of Skaaleviig, in Sandoe, two miles from the village, and opposite to a flat extremity or headland, there are several rocks; the most distant of which lies about three or four cables length from the shore.

To the south of Kirkeboe-holm there are likewise some rocks, but close to the land.

To the west of Sandoe, but to the south on the western side, opposite to Saltviig, and on the whole, almost, of the western side of Skuoe, there

* Holm is a small rocky island.

are blind rocks; but none of them are more than three cables length from the land.

In Skuoe Sound, about midway between Skarvenæs and Skuoe, there is a rock; but it occasions no breakers except in bad weather. Not having seen all these shoals and blind rocks myself, I have copied this information from Lamhauge for the benefit of navigators; but I have been obliged to be very brief that I might not fatigue the reader with needless prolixity.

The currents here I consider as the effect of the flux and reflux of the sea.

That storms and long-continued winds may in some parts of the earth occasion high and low water, and also cause the water to have a retrograde motion to one place or another, I will not deny; but the regular currents are to be ascribed, without doubt, to the effects of the tides; for the inhabitants of Feroe are able to calculate both high and low water pretty accurately by the new or full moon, or from the position of the sun and moon in regard to the earth; and also the east Fall and west Fall, which take place at the same time as the flux and reflux.*

The difference between the height of the water

* Even if the currents and tides be both considered as the effects of the same action, namely, that of the moon's conjunction with and opposition to the sun, still this coincides with my opinion.

at ebb and flood tide is to the west of these islands about nine or ten feet, in strong currents; and to the north and east six or seven feet, but in gentle currents the difference is less.

The height of the tide may also be considerably increased by bad weather; nay, according to Lamhauge, at a place to the east of the land there may be two tides, one flood of which, produced in all probability by bad weather, will rise three feet, and may continue from eight to fourteen days; but in such a manner that the flood and ebb which coincides at the same time with the current, increase or lessen the flood arising from bad weather by two feet: there may also be an ebb arising from bad weather, which may continue from eight to fourteen days, and during that time the ebb and flood of the current will shew a difference of two feet.

When stormy or bad weather prevails at sea, and the wind blows in shore, but particularly when there is at the same time a flood, or west fall, a violent surf is in general produced. This is one of the wonderful phenomena of nature, which in winter, and the early part of the spring, exhibits an awful and most astonishing spectacle. During bad weather the sea becomes much agitated, and billows of a tremendous size are dashed against the coast with prodigious force. Those parts of the coast which lie open towards the sea are the most exposed to this violence;

and in those bays which have a sandy bottom, the sand becomes accumulated and makes the waves rise to an astonishing height.

Where the waves meet with opposition from projecting rocks, the water thrown up into the air falls down with a rattling noise; and a person may stand safely at the bottom of the rock, or at a small distance from it, and be a quiet spectator of this singular phenomenon. On such occasions the water is projected, as I have been assured, to the height of from sixty to a hundred and eighty feet; and in some places to the height of three hundred and sixty. Sometimes the waves are dashed into the apertures and cavities between the projections of the rock, and produce a most frightful noise, which seems to make the rock tremble from its foundation. These effects are different according to the nature of the place; but near Quivig, in Stromoe, they are almost all united, so that during the tempestuous season of the year, and particularly in the night time, the noise occasioned by them is like continued thunder, or a long and heavy cannonade.

Sometimes this surf takes place in calm weather, or when the wind blows from the land; but I am firmly of opinion that it is occasioned by storms far out at sea. When the wind blows in-shore a part of the surf is carried up into the atmosphere in the form of vapour, and conveyed to a considerable distance; and sometimes even

to the tops of the hills. The clergyman's house at Kirketai, near Quivig, stands at the distance of two hundred paces from the sea, yet during tempestuous weather the surf is dashed against the windows in the form of rain; and the sea water often deposits crystals on the panes of glass as large as the half of a grain of pepper. Hence it is evident that the sea-vapour, or sea-fog, as it is generally called, may have a considerable influence on the climate of these islands.

When a calm takes place after stormy weather, the sea, in consequence of the agitation in which it has been thrown, may continue some days restless and covered with foaming surges, which the inhabitants of Feroe call *siauarilska*; and the sea when in that state, however fine the weather, is exceedingly dangerous. But the surface of the sea, even in a perfect calm, may sometimes be very smooth and have an undulating motion, to which the islanders give the name of *alda*. This motion is much like a perpendicular vibration, for the billows rise to a considerable height and then fall quietly back again, without the least violence or noise. It is exceedingly difficult for a boat to be rowed, or to sail through these swelling surges, for they communicate to the vessel a motion similar to that which one experiences in a swing. Sometimes the boat seems to be raised on its stem, and sometimes on its stern. At one time it is elevated on the ridge

of the billow, and at another precipitated into a watery gulph, where nothing is seen but a lofty mound of water, as it were, on each side. Sometimes the boat remains suspended in a state of vibration on the summit; but if the boat be rowed forwards, and the wave sinks beneath it, there remains a vacuity under a part of the boat, so that it falls down with a splash into the cavity, making the water fly out from it on both sides. Navigation in this state of the sea is attended with another inconvenience. When a boat is near the land, where there are holes or fissures in the rocks, the water is driven into them; and the air contained in these cavities being compressed, forces its way out with a loud report like that of a cannon, carrying with it the water in the form of smoke or vapour, in which the rays of the sun produce sometimes a beautiful rainbow.

Much less agreeable, and far more dangerous to navigators, is the sea when, according to the Feroese expression, it is said to *glæer*, or to be filled with *glæver*. This state is occasioned by the collision of the winds, which lash the surface of the water like a hurricane, and sweeping it, as it were, with great violence towards and along the sounds, forces it up into the atmosphere in the form of a mist. I know nothing to which this phenomenon can be so justly compared as the clouds of dust raised in the streets of Copen-

hagen, or on the high roads during windy weather, from which the traveller is exposed to a momentary inconvenience. But the inhabitants of Feroe, if at sea, must be very much on their guard when the *glæver* takes place; the sails must speedily be taken in, and those in the boat endeavour, if possible, to row beyond the space which this kind of mist seems to occupy; but if this be not possible, to keep the boat in the same direction as the *glæver*; for if the *glæver* comes across the boat it may soon be upset.

SECTION II.

Climate, Weather, and other Phenomena of Nature.

As the Feroe islands lie in the latitude of 62 deg. north, the sun during the three summer months is scarcely four hours beneath the horizon, and at that time it may be said that there is no night. At any rate, there is so much light in the night-time, that one can clearly see to read and write. But the days in winter are so much shorter, and would be exceedingly dark, were not this deficiency in some measure supplied by the morning and evening twilight. Considering the latitude, it might be imagined that a severer cold prevails here in winter than in the more

southern provinces of Denmark; but the contrary is proved by experience. The summers are cooler, and the heat is never so great as to be oppressive to people at labour; but as the heat is more temperate in summer, the cold is also less severe in winter. The sea round the coast never freezes; sometimes, indeed, a thin crust of ice is formed in some of the inland creeks or bays, where the water is calm; but it is never so strong that a boat cannot be rowed through it; and the fresh water streams and ponds seldom produce ice so thick that a person could walk on it with safety. The cause of this great mildness in winter is the vicinity of the sea, by which all these islands are surrounded, and which, in consequence of its continual agitation, fills the whole atmosphere with saline vapours; for we are taught by the modern chemistry that saline vapours contain caloric, and when the saline particles of these vapours crystallise, the latent heat is disengaged, and being left in the lower regions, renders the atmosphere less cold. But the weather in Feroe is never uniform, and the barometer is exceedingly variable: a continually fine and dry summer is almost as uncommon as a continually cold winter. A great deal of snow falls in winter, but it seldom lies more than eight days, particularly in the villages, where there may be a thaw or mild weather when it snows or freezes among the hills.

The labour of the inhabitants in procuring turf for fuel, and preparing their hay, is often impeded and rendered exceedingly troublesome by wet summers.

The Feroe islands labour under the imputation of being foggy, and consequently unhealthy. The first part of this charge may indeed be true; but it does not follow that the second is so also; for the fog here is never accompanied with a bad smell, as the fogs in Denmark are: it is only damp, and sometimes saltish; and I do not consider it as prejudicial to the health. The air in Feroe is often heavy and filled with misty vapours; but these vapours are neither so oppressive, nor so constant as is generally believed.

In Feroe three different names are given to the fog, according to the region which it occupies.

When it is like a white cloud on the tops of the hills, it is called *Skadda*: this fog generally produces wind.

When it extends so far down the sides of the hills that their summits are seen projecting above it, it is called *Podlamyorkie*.

These two kinds of fog never reach the habitations of the natives, and therefore they are not incommoded by them; sometimes, but rarely, when they wish to go to the hills in quest of their sheep, they are prevented by the *Pôdlamyorkie*, for it is so thick that a person cannot see to the

distance of a few yards, and therefore when it takes place they are obliged to defer this labour till another day.

Morkye is the name given to the fog when it approaches the valleys, covers the sea, and fills the whole atmosphere. This fog is the most incommodious to the people of these islands: it is not, indeed, prejudicial to the health, but it renders the roads unsafe for travellers, prevents the inhabitants from looking after their sheep, impedes their fishing, and conceals the tops of the hills which serve them as landmarks; but, fortunately, it never continues longer than a few days, and, I may venture to assert, that it is not more frequent in *Feroe* than in Denmark.

But I have heard, even in Copenhagen, an erroneous opinion respecting the Feroese climate, which it may not be improper to rectify. The inhabitants of *Feroe*, it is said, are so accustomed to fogs, that when the weather is clear and serene they become indisposed, and acquire coughs and colds. If this assertion be correct, it plainly shows that fogs are common in *Feroe*, a circumstance which I am ready to admit; but I must utterly deny that the villages are always enveloped in fogs, which convert these islands into an abode of darkness, as is generally believed. This assertion proves also, that the Feroese fogs are not prejudicial to the health, since the natives become sick when it is clear

Weather. But let us examine whether the latter part of the assertion be agreeable to truth. If it be asked at what time of the year the people of these islands are subject to coughs and colds, which are here called *Kriim*, or *Kruym*, the answer is, in the autumn and spring; but particularly the latter. It is not, therefore, in the fine days of summer that these disorders prevail, but during the cold, raw weather in the latter part of the year; and in spring, when the weather in Feroe is as changeable and unsettled as in any other part of the world. Early in the spring, nay, even in the month of February, there are some days as warm as any in the middle of summer; but these warm days are few in number, and are succeeded by frost, snow, sleet, and cold piercing winds; and these are followed by fine days, which take place alternately with storms and bad weather. Such is the spring here in general, till the month of May. This month, sooner or later, produces snow and frost; and the latter is sometimes as strong as ever it was in the course of the winter. But while the weather is so various and changeable, who can pretend to say, which of the kinds it is that gives rise to the colds in Feroe? I am, however, ready to allow, that the question, in regard to the people of Feroe being subject to sickness during fine weather, is not altogether void of foundation. That the

fogs, impregnated with marine vapours, do not produce colds, I have already shewn; but when the fogs disperse, and the atmosphere becomes pure and serene, which is generally the case when the wind is northerly, the air then, and particularly in the afternoon, becomes cold, and the winds sharp and penetrating: that this weather, which otherwise may be called bright and clear, may, in consequence of the cold with which it is accompanied, produce catarrhal disorders is not at all improbable.

The winds act a distinguished part among the mountains of Feroe, and form a striking contrast with the whispering gales and cooling zephyrs which are so much celebrated by the poets. They descend from the hills to the sea shore; raise clouds of sand into the air, and convey it to a distance along the bays and creeks. Sometimes they sweep away large stones lying on the hills, and roll them before them like a ball*, or tear out huge masses of the projecting rocks, which then fall down, emitting flames and smoke†. On these occasions they shave off the

* This was the case with an uncommonly large stone lying on one of the hills in Stromoe, over which the road passes from Segnaboe to Thorshavn.

† The author says, that this frequently happens on the west side of the hill called *Skelling*. It is, indeed, possible, that sparks elicited by the collision of the falling mass against the rocks may set fire to some sulphureous or other inflamma-

turf from the sides of the hills, roll it together like a sheet of lead, and precipitate it into the valleys. The hurricanes in Feroe inspire travellers with the utmost terror; when their approach is announced by their bellowing noise among the hills, if on horseback, they must immediately dismount, and if on foot, they must fall flat on the earth, to avoid being thrown down or dashed to pieces. These winds often make the houses of the natives shake; and it is very remarkable that before a hurricane, the pressure of the air causes a cracking and crashing in the house, as if it would tumble down; but when the wind really takes place, it has already exhausted its strength, so that the building remains firm and secure. Sometimes, however, the wind rises with increased violence, and in that case it often forces the house from its position, tears off the roof, shatters the window-frames, and entering below the bottom of it, forces up the flooring, and agitates in a violent manner the stool on which one sits, or the bed in which one is lying. Such are the hurricanes which prevail in Feroe in the autumn and spring.

The storms which come from the open sea are violent, but in general steady, and therefore not

ble matter, which it meets with in its course, and thus produce fire and smoke. T.

so terrible ; but when they fall obliquely on the sides of the hills, they acquire double force by being reflected, and especially those which come from the hills or the defiles between them, when by the accession of other winds they are increased and forced down into the valleys. They then endeavour to escape from their confined situation with the most dreadful impetuosity, and produce sudden gusts which occasion the greatest devastation: it is very remarkable that both before and after such gusts so dead a calm often prevails, that a person may carry a lighted candle in the open air without its being extinguished.

It cannot be determined which wind in general is the most violent and dangerous in Feroe, unless it be the north wind ; but this depends on the situation of the place, and on the hills by which it is surrounded. A wind may, therefore, be violent and dangerous for one village, and not for another which is sheltered from it: nay, according to the direction which the wind takes between and along the sides of the hills, one part of the village may be more exposed to its violence than another. In such places, the inhabitants, when they observe a storm approaching from a dangerous quarter, endeavour to be prepared for it. They place boards on the roofs of their houses, throw a few ropes over them, and to the ends of the ropes fasten large stones,

as heavy as the ropes can bear. By these means the roof is rendered more secure, and fitted to withstand the violence of the storm.

The duration of the summer is very short in Feroe; but the mild though variable spring weather takes place the sooner, and makes up for the precipitate retreat of the summer. In October violent stormy winds prevail; but the real winter, accompanied with frost and snow, seldom begins before November; yet the weather in this month is often so mild, that the cattle can remain in the open fields till within a week or two of Christmas.

Thunder is much less frequent here than in Denmark. When it bursts near or over a village, its noise, increased by the echo from the hills, is awful and majestic; but the same hills which increase its noise keep it, as it were, confined, so that in other places it is scarcely heard. No injury is ever done by the lightning in these islands.

The ignis-fatuus is not unknown in Feroe, but I consider this phenomenon here as a kind of lightning without thunder.

The northern lights (*aurora borealis*) are often seen, and particularly in the winter, but it is not uncommon to observe them also in the month of August. Sometimes they are accompanied with a snapping noise, but I do not think that they are brighter than in Den-

mark. They extend either from the west and north west towards the east, or from the east and north-east towards the west: their colour is bluish-yellow, yellow or red, but seldom blue and green.

Shooting stars are common; but fire-balls are seldom seen; and the case is the same in respect to Will-o'-the-wisp, which burns like a candle in marshy places, but soon disappears.

One circumstance which many of the inhabitants say they have remarked by frequent observation, must not here be omitted. It is, that the sun and moon rise to a greater altitude at present than formerly. There are some villages where the sun, in consequence of hills which stand before them, is never seen during some of the winter months, and the inhabitants know exactly the day on which the sun begins to be visible: but in the spring of the year 1798 this luminary was seen at Qualvig in Stromoe, two days earlier than it ought to have been according to observation. Very old people have assured me, that the sides of some of the hills, which, in their youth, received only a small portion of the sun's rays, are now much more illuminated by them. The truth of this phenomenon, and the causes of it, if founded in reality, I shall leave to the determination of geologues and astronomers.

SECTION III.

Prognostications of the Weather.

THE surest marks by which the natives of these islands foretel the weather, are the winds; for southerly and westerly winds generally produce wet weather, and in like manner, northerly winds in summer give fine dry weather, and in winter frost and snow. If good weather has prevailed for some time with a northerly wind, which is called *Hoi At*, and the wind begins afterwards to fall, that is to become weak or southerly, rainy weather may with certainty be expected; but if the wind has been some time *Lav at*, that is southerly or westerly, accompanied with rain, and the wind afterwards becomes stronger or northerly, one may with safety prognosticate fine dry weather if it be summer; and, if it be winter, frost and clear weather or snow. But if rain has prevailed for some time with a southerly wind, and if the rain ceases while the wind continues southerly, there is reason to hope that the good weather will be more steady.

A halo or ring round the moon, is a sign of stormy weather; if the halo contracts itself closer to the moon, the bad weather will soon

follow; but the larger the ring, and the farther it extends from the moon, the longer will the bad weather be in coming.

The northern lights, especially when very bright, are also a sign of stormy weather, rain, and wind.

If the sky be red at sun-set, the following day will be fine; but if the sun rises from red clouds in the morning, rain will take place in the afternoon.

A rainbow foretels showers of rain; and shooting stars point out the quarter from which the wind will blow.

After an unusually high flood, much bad weather is expected.

When a small grey goldfinch (*fringilla*) sings in the morning, there will be showers in the course of the day.

The red-throated diver (*colymbus septentrionalis*) foretels also, by its different cries at sea, the approaching weather. If it mews like a cat, or cries *varra-vi-varra-vi*, it is a sign of rainy weather; but if its cry be *gaa-gaa-gaa*, or *turkatræ-turkatræ*, the weather will be fine.

From the weather prevalent also, on certain days and at certain periods of the year, the inhabitants of Feroe prognosticate the weather which will follow. But as I have not been able to obtain certain information on this subject, I shall say nothing farther respecting it.

SECTION IV.

Different Kinds of Earth.

It has been already said that the Feroe rocks are covered with a thin stratum of earth, from eight to twelve inches in depth and seldom more. This stratum consists, in general, of mould, which, however, is very different in quality ; for in some parts it is of a vegetable nature, or a mass composed of the roots of grass grown together, of a grey colour, tough and adhesive, but when dry, after being dug up, it becomes exceedingly hard. This earth which is not very fertile, may, however, be made exceedingly productive, if it be dug up so early in the spring as to be exposed to the frost before seed-time ; by which means it is rendered friable, and may be employed with great advantage for potatoes. When dug up, if it be well drained, and at the same time manured with a mixture of cow-dung and sea-ware, brought to a proper state of putrefaction, it will next year produce a crop of excellent grass.

The marshy earth is of an inferior quality ; it is wet and sour, and in some places lies on a damp ochrey bottom. Its dampness arises from

the water which settles in the hollows or small dales between the rocky eminences, from which it has no way to run off. Such places not only produce a poor crop of corn, but very bad grass. There are no other means of improving these places, than to dig up the mould in the hollows, to fill the cavity with small stones and gravel, and then to throw the mould over them. I have found, by experience, that this method is attended with great benefit.

Gravelly earth is often found beneath a thin stratum of mould. It consists merely of small stones and coarse sand, which lie sometimes closely packed together in a bed of clay. If this gravel be very compact, and exhibit signs of ochre, it is not worth while to dig it up to increase the depth of the mould; but if the small stones packed together are not too small and too difficult to be taken up, and if the gravelly earth be uniformly mixed with clay it will repay the trouble of picking out the small stones, and the mould will not only be increased in depth, but it will be much improved in quality by the mixture of clay. The best mould is that which has no mixture of sand; and when it has a favourable exposure to the sun, it will in good summers return from fifteen to twenty-fold.

Black earth is a ferruginous coarse kind, used, instead of vitriol, for dying black. It is found

in morasses, and particularly in parts where a thick substance like tar is observed on the surface of the water collected in hollow places.

Turf or peat earth, called *megv*, is here very common; and it is to be considered as a great blessing, that a country which is destitute of wood, and of almost every other kind of fuel, should be so abundantly furnished with this kind of earth. Almost every inhabited island, and every village has peat earth in abundance, and the few places where there is none, may be supplied with it by their richer neighbours. But the case in regard to peat here is the same as with the Danish and Norwegian woods, that is, it becomes every year less and less in consequence of bad management. In some places a great deal of it is needlessly wasted, and in others it is not allowed sufficient time to grow up again and to come up to maturity.

The goodness of peat depends partly on its maturity, and partly on its being impregnated more or less with rock oil, and having a greater or less quantity of vegetable matters, sand, or clay mixed with it.

In some places there is a kind of peat earth called *kolamægur*, and another known by the name of *blaaramægur*. Both kinds contain a great quantity of vegetable matters; and are both strongly impregnated with rock oil, which makes them burn well, and give a strong and

continued heat, so that they are generally used by blacksmiths in their forges. The peat is black and almost as hard as coal. *Tæings-mildungur* is blackish brown, and has a mixture of fine clay. *Muiromosa* peat is reddish brown; both these kinds consist of rotten vegetable matters and afford good fuel, though inferior in quality to the two first-mentioned. The worst kind of peat is the sandy, which is mixed with a large portion of sand and clay, and the *soppa*, which is merely a kind of grassy turf which the people in some places, and particularly in Kolteroe, are obliged to use, in order to save the better kinds of turf or peat, which must be brought from some other part. The strata of good peat are seldom above eighteen inches in depth, and of this length the peat are cut. It is very rare to find a stratum of such thickness as to admit two peats to be cut from it lengthwise.

SECTION V.

Different Kinds of Clay.

AMONG the earths may be mentioned porcelain earth, which Mr. Svabo found at Midvaag, on the eastern side of the bay; but none of it is now to be seen. A little of it has been found

also at Solmundafiord, but here likewise it has disappeared.

A kind of marl, useful for polishing steel, has been found at Steegaard.

Blue clay is scarce in Feroe, and when found it is always in small quantity. A greyish yellow kind of clay is found beneath the mould, along with common clay, at the parsonage in Suderoe; but it does not appear to have much cohesion.

A hard grey species of clay is the kind most common in these islands; but it is never found in great abundance. It is so hard that it may be cut into large pieces with a hatchet. The inhabitants form it, by means of a knife, into small chaffing dishes. It is used also for constructing fire-places and ovens; but, for this purpose, it must be well moistened and kneaded with water. It has no cohesion unless mixed with lime; and as it cannot be softened in water, it is on that account incapable of being formed by the lathe. A finer kind of hard clay is found close to the landing place in Videroe.

A green ferruginous sort of clay is found in Kolter. Although it is manufactured into a kind of earthenware, it has the same properties, and is as hard as the former.

Red clay is seen in various parts, particularly in the hills where it lies for the most part in thin cakes. It is, probably, of the same nature, as

those thin layers observed between the different strata in the hills, where it resembles the Dutch bricks. In general it may be cut with a knife, but sometimes it is as hard as a stone. In one place only, that is to the east of Quivig near Sulteled, I found it so soft that it could be dug out with a spade. It may be pounded very fine and used as a pigment; in which case it gives a pretty good violet red colour.

SECTION VI.

Sand.

It is very seldom that any other kind of sand is found in the interior parts, or in the hills, but a coarse sort, consisting merely of trap from the rocks which has become effloresced. It is only in some of the bays, the shores of which are flat, that the common sea-sand is found; but in general it is of a greyish colour. In some particular places, when the wind is in certain quarters, the sea throws up a perfectly white, though pretty coarse sand, which is used for strewing over floors; but it consists merely of shells which have been pulverized by the continual beating and rolling of the waves against the hard edges of the coast.

SECTION VII.

Stones.

THAT the Feroese hills consist in general of trap, here and there intermixed with basaltes, which extends a long way; and that where the hills have been split by some revolution of nature, both sides of the fissures appear lined with basaltes, lying in a horizontal position, has been already mentioned. I have also given an account of the different strata of which the rocks consist, from top to bottom, as far as they can be seen by the eye; and therefore, nothing remains to be added but that the loose stones, whether large or small, which are found high up in the hills, or low down on the sea-shore, all belong, as far as I know, to one of the before-mentioned kinds.

BLAAGRYTE is a sort of basaltes which is much heavier than the common; smoother on the surface, and of a more compact texture. It is very remarkable, that though basaltes is ferruginous, this kind, even where it lies in salt water, does not become covered with rust at the surface. I have, however, observed, that when this basaltes has in it an old fissure, the inside of it is lined with rust.

HELLE-GROUT is a pretty smooth flat kind of stone, from two to four feet in length, three feet in breadth, and about one or two inches in thickness. It is dug up, in general, on the sea-shore, and is employed by the inhabitants for paving their fire-places, for making steps before the doors of their houses; or for placing on newly thatched roofs, to prevent them from being carried away by the wind before they have acquired sufficient firmness.

SANDSTONE is not common; but I have found in the dales in Nordstromoe, some pieces pretty large, and of so fine a quality, that they might have been used as grindstones.

ZEOLITES are found on the low sides of the hills, or on the sea-shore, where they are seen either in small narrow veins, or placed as glandulæ in cavities.

The Feroese zeolites, many beautiful specimens of which may be seen in mineralogical collections, comprehend the following kinds:

I. MEEL ZEOLITE, of a white colour, compact, and for the most part dull; but internally somewhat bright, and in the middle a little radiant on the fracture. This kind is found in Nolsoe.

II. COMPACT ZEOLITE, of which there are two varieties:

1st. Of a pale red rose colour.

2d. Of a light Spanish green, and somewhat greyish colour.

Both are solid and kidney shaped, dull and earthy on the fracture.

III. FIBROUS THREADY ZEOLITE, of which there are four kinds.

1st. Globular, of a white, or light brown colour, with a smooth surface, imbedded in compact thready zeolite.

2d. Compact, which is also globular; but these are joined together in greater or less clusters, and fresh pieces have always on the surface projecting hair-formed crystals. Found at Westmanhavn.

3d. Hair zeolite is so called when a number of fine hair-formed crystals project from the surface of compact thready zeolite, or from the cavities of compact, thready, or radiant zeolite. Sometimes these crystals are of considerable length, and have at their points, or in the middle of them, either small balls of zeolite, or four-sided prismatic crystals with four-sided ends, which are truncated.

4th. Woolly zeolite is that kind where the crystals are very numerous, and stand on the surface, or in the cavities, interwoven with each other. These crystals are smooth, and have a woolly appearance. Found on the sea-shore near Quivig.

IV. RADIANT ZEOLITE, of which there are the following kinds:

1st. Globular, generally elongated; it is of the

size of a nut, but frequently less; it is sometimes compact, and sometimes porous; covered with a crust of green earth, and imbedded in greyish red trap, forming a nucleus. It is seldom found detached, and is very common in all stones of the trap species.

2d. Compact is found also in greater or less masses, which sometimes exhibit a radiant foliaceous fracture with a shining surface like mother of pearl, and is terminated sometimes by projecting crystals.

3d. The real radiant zeolite, the crystals of which are four-sided rectangular prisms. The corners, or edges of the two opposite sides, are cut off; and according to the greater or less breadth of these, they are more or less evidently flat six-sided prisms. The ends terminate in four-sided points, not very sharp; and these four sides correspond with the principal sides of the prism, but encroach also a little on the sides formed by the flattening of the corners. Sometimes these crystals are found projecting, but at others they lie interwoven through each other, either on the surface of a zeolite, or in cavities, or in a rhomboidal transparent calcareous spar. It is found at Thorsvig.

4th. Phrenite-formed zeolite, where the radii are placed very closely together, forming four-sided bundles, the small ends of which adhere to the surface of a compact zeolite. The free and

broader ends are raised up and smooth. Found also near Thorsvig. This species is quite insulated in flat but thick bundles, which in the middle are strongly compressed, and are broad at both ends; but the surfaces of both the ends are sometimes so convex, that the edges of the ends nearly touch each other. Of this kind I brought several beautiful specimens to Copenhagen, some of which may be seen in the museum belonging to the Society of Natural History, and in other collections. They were all found loose in the earth near Midvaag, in Vaagoe.

As this zeolite is entirely new, I have given a representation of it in plate I.

Some of these zeolites are found double, or several of them united; but the ends of the mass are then more uneven, though the ends of each separate one is flat. This kind belongs also to the radiant and foliaceous.

V. FOLIACEOUS ZEOLITE has several varieties.

1st. Cubic zeolite has a six-sided form with square, sharp, and obtuse angles, so that it seems to partake both of the rhombus and cube.

2d. Rhomboidal zeolite, with rhomboidal sides modified various ways, as follows:

No. 1. Perfectly rhomboidal.

No. 2. Where all the blunt points are truncated.

No. 3. Where the sharp edges of the ends are truncated.

No. 4. And where the sharp points are truncated.

The crystals are seldom single; but for the most part formed into groups. The crystals of No. 3 are sometimes so much truncated, that they have the appearance of a thick six-sided plate. Some of them also are found very often with the flat sides of their ends so regularly joined, that they have a perfect resemblance to a six-sided prism, the horns of which sometimes are truncated.

3d. Prismatic zeolite, consisting of four-sided rectangular shorter or longer, thicker or thinner prisms, the ends of which are pointed with four sides, corresponding to the edges of the prism. The points are more or less truncated, and the surface of the truncated part is sometimes cubical and sometimes octagonal, that is when it approaches the sides of the prism. These crystals in general are small; but I have seen two which were an inch and a half in thickness, and nearly an inch in breadth. Both kinds came from Nolsoe.

4th. Tabular zeolite is found under the following varieties. 1. Linear, elongated, six-sided thin plates. 2. Broad plates. Found in Nolsoe. 3. The sharp edges truncated, and sometimes so deep that they resemble (4.) four-sided oblong plates. These are found at Westmanhavn. In general they are intermixed with each other, so

that they form small cells; sometimes they are found with the flat surfaces of their principal sides lying on each other, and then they form thick plates of Nos. 1 and 2, which have their four-sided summits, and the flat sides of their summits, placed on the edges.

VI. LEUCITE-FORMED ZEOLITE is found in double eight-sided pyramids; and each pyramid pointed with four sides which are alternate on the edges below. This kind is found in Nolsoe.

OPAL is not uncommon in Feroe; it is found for the most part between zeolite and chalcodony; and is, without doubt, a transition from the former to the latter. Its colour, in general, is milk white; but sometimes also green, dark brown, yellow, and red. I obtained a few specimens of the last two colours from a hill close to Quivig on the east. They had a considerable degree of hardness, were susceptible of a fine polish, and were not destitute of splendour.

CHALCEDONIES are pretty common in Feroe, but fine specimens are rare. They are found, in general, higher up in the hills than the zeolites; either in fissures of the earth, arising from the frost in winter, or in places from which masses of rock have fallen down.

BAND CHALCEDONY, and STALACTITE CHALCEDONY are found here, the last in particular, in so many and such a variety of forms, that it would be tedious to enumerate them. Both, undoubtedly,

have the same origin, being produced by a fluid dropping matter, which has become hard. In the formation of the band-chalcedony the matter has deposited itself on the bottom in thin horizontal strata, the one above the other; but the matter which formed these strata must have been thin and more abundant. Above perfectly flat and smooth plates of band-chalcedony, one may often see an icicle of stalactite chalcedony hanging down from a small arch. Some of these icicles reach down to the plates of chalcedony, on which they stand like pillars; but others stop short before they reach to the flat chalcedony, and some reach only half way down. I have had in my possession some pieces of stalactite chalcedony, by which it appeared that the flowing matter had dropped down from one projection to another, and then to a third, and had left hanging at each projection longer or shorter icicles. It is very singular, that some of these icicles are found rising up, and others hanging down. How the former can be produced by stillation might not be easy to explain without having recourse to crystallisation, had I not observed in some pieces of rising stalactites evident marks of moss and straw, on which the dropping matter had fallen, and thus formed rising stalactites. No less curious are the reticulated pieces of chalcedony, where the icicles, no thicker than rope-yarn, are interwoven with each

other in various turns and windings. It is not improbable, that the flowing matter may have been conducted in such a manner by moss and straw, as to make it assume this singular form. The prettiest phenomenon I ever observed in such pieces of chalcedony was, where some few of the descending icicles had bent out their lowest extremities in the form of a knee, and then turned them upwards, while several small icicles had bent their dropping ends towards these knees, and thus appeared in a direction exactly opposite to that of the first descending ones.

That such a grotto of chalcedony may by some convulsion in the rock, or other natural cause, have changed its situation while some of the dependent icicles were in a soft state, and while the matter was still dropping, appears to me to be subject to no doubt whatever. If I have here explained my opinion in regard to the formation of chalcedony by stillation, and not by crystallisation, mineralogists who may be of another opinion, will, I hope, readily forgive me.

The best chalcedonies which I had an opportunity of procuring, came from Westmanhavn, Thorsvig, and Snysen, in Stromoe; from Kalsoe, among the northern islands, and particularly from Lamhave, in Osteroe.

Single pieces of calcareous spar are seen in Nolsoe, and at Tiornevig.

SECTION VIII.

Plants.

GENUS MONANDRIA.

CALLITRICHE VERNA, vernal starwort; and CALLITRICHE AUTUMNALIS, autumnal starwort; in Ferroese, *spogva greas*; are very common. They grow in stagnant water, and particularly in cavities near the sea-shore.

DIANDRIA.

VERONICA OFFICINALIS. Male speedwell. Grows in some places on the declivities and high hills. It flowers late in June.

VERONICA SERPYLLIFOLIA. Smooth speedwell, or Paul's betony, is not uncommon either in the cultivated or uncultivated fields; and flowers towards the end of May.

VERONICA BECCABUNGA. Brook-lime. Grows in great abundance in marshy places, and particularly where there is little running water.

VERONICA ALPINA. Alpine speedwell, is a scarce plant. It grows to the height of two or three inches, and is found on the sides of the

hills; it does not divide itself, but produces about ten dark blue flowers on a short spike, with small leaves between. The leaves are somewhat hairy, egg-shaped, and thick at the edges.

PINGUICULA VULGARIS. Butterwort; in Feroese *undolova greas*, which signifies to curdle milk; though as far as I know it is not used for that purpose. It is fond of growing in marshy places. The leaves are light green, egg-formed, lie close to the earth, and between them rises a naked stem, bearing at its summit a dark blue flower. It begins to bloom in the month of June.

ANTHOXANTHUM ODORATUM. Sweet-scented spring-grass; in Feroese *roygreas*, is very common, particularly in the fields which have remained a long time uncultivated. It is easily known from the other kinds of grass by its two long stamina, and two white pistils.

TRIANDRIA.

IRIS PSEUDACORUS. Yellow iris, or water-sedge; in Feroese *megya*. The leaves are used instead of straw for thatching houses. The flowers are yellow, and the leaves shaped like a sword; the latter sit close to each other on its hollow stem. This plant I found only in one place in Feroe,

namely, at Vaai, in Suderoe. It flowers after Midsummer.

SCIRPUS PALUSTRIS. Marsh club-rush. In Feroese *Skuagreas*. Grows every where in marshy places.

SCIRPUS ACICULARIS. Needle upright club rush; and CÆSPETOSUS, are readily eaten by the sheep, especially when they grow in dry places.

SCIRPUS MARITIMUS. Round-rooted sea club-rush. Grows on the sea-coast.

ERIOPHORUM POLYSTACHION. Common cotton-grass. In Feroese *muyrufuipa*. Grows in all marshy grounds and in turf-moors. Its down may be used as wicks for candles.

ERIOPHORUM VAGINATUM. Mountain cotton-grass. Has the same Feroese name, and grows in the same places as the former.

NARDUS STRICTA. Mat-grass. A hard useless kind of grass, which grows in many parts in the uncultivated fields; it is known by its small spica on which all the flowers incline to one side.

PHALARIS ARUNDINACEA. Reed canary-grass; is used for thatching houses.

PHLEUM PRATENSE. Meadow cat's-tail grass; in Feroese *sifto-sogo-greas*, is very common.

ALOPECURUS PRATENSIS. Meadow fox-tail grass; has the same Feroese name as the preceding.

ALOPECURUS GENICULATUS. Flote fox-tail grass.

AGROSTIS STOLONIFERA. Creeping and conchy

bent-grass; grows in the cultivated fields near Quivig.

AIRA CÆSPITOSA. Turfy hair-grass, commonly called *Hassoc*; in Feroese *puntale-straa*.

AIRA FLEXUOSA.

POA TRIVIALIS. Common meadow-grass; in Feroese *huusa-greas*.

POA PRATENSIS. Great meadow-grass; smooth stalked meadow-grass.

POA ALPINA. Alpine meadow-grass.

POA ANNUA. Annual meadow-grass.

MELICA CÆRULEA.

FESTUCA OVINA. Sheeps' fescue-grass; is very common in high arid places.

FESTUCA FLUITANS. Flote fescue-grass, grows in wet places; but the inhabitants make no use of its seed. It is, however, not very abundant.

ELYMUS ARENARIUS. Sea lime-grass grows in sandy soil in the island of Sandoe, and at Qualboe in Suderoe. The leaves which are rolled together are strong, and have sharp prickly points.

DACTYLIS GLOMERATA. In Feroese *roggi*. Is seen here and there, and forms excellent thatch, for it rises to the height of four feet.

TRITICUM REPENS. Common wheat-grass; dog's-grass. I found this plant only at Tiornevig.

BROMUS ARVENSIS. Corn brome-grass. In Feroese *sina*. Grows in the cliffs on the sea coast, where it thrives well, in consequence of the manure afforded by the dung of the sea fowl which frequent them.

MONTIA FONTANA. Water chick-weed. This little plant I found as a weed in my garden, which was rather wet. Perhaps it might be used instead of purslane, which will not grow in Feroe.

KÆNIGIA ISLANDICA, is very common among the damp coarse sand or gravel in the hills.

TETRANDRIA.

SCABIOSA SUCCISA. Devil's-bit. In Feroese *blaakodla*. Is used with other plants for dying green. It grows in general on the banks of rivulets, and where there is a good bottom. It does not flower before August.

GALIUM BOREALE. Crosswort or northern madder. The Feroese, as well as the Norwegians, employ the root of this plant for dying red; but though it grows in such abundance in some places, that when in bloom, which is after Midsummer, whole fields seem entirely white with it, it is so small in size, that it would require great labour to collect a sufficient quantity for dying.

GALIUM ULIGINOSUM, is found mixed with the preceding.

GALIUM SAXATILE, grows among the stones in the rocks.

PLANTAGO MAJOR. Broad-leaved plantain. In Feroese *gotubraa*, or *lækoms blækkye*. Though this plant is found only in a few places, the inhabitants are not ignorant that it has the property of cleansing and healing old sores. It grows pretty well in the sands at Sorvaag.

PLANTAGO MEDIA. Hoary-plantain or lamb's-tongue. In Feroese *gotubraa*. This plant grows in the same places as the preceding, and mixed with it; but both kinds are so like, that it is difficult to distinguish the one from the other.

PLANTAGO LANCEOLATA. Rib-wort or rib-grass. In Feroese *youansogo-greas*. The leaves of this plant which are called *længskora*, are used as a mordant for woollen cloth intended to be dyed green. The flower-bud is employed by the inhabitants, on the evening of St. John's day in the following pastime. The stamina are plucked off, and the bud is placed in the night time, on the body or between the shirt and under waistcoat, either in the arm-pits or on the breast, and the inhabitants believe that, by these means, they can foretel not only whether the person to whom the plant is applied will live out the year, but also whether he will be fortunate in love, and many other events they are desirous of knowing. If the bud, in the course of the night, shoots out new stamina, what the person wishes will take place. Those, therefore, who make choice of a spike, the first flowers of which only have

blown, are always certain of a favourable answer; for the next flowers in succession will, in consequence of the heat, throw out their stamina in the course of the night. But as this plant in Feroe does not begin, in general, to blossom, till about the above period, it has deceived so often with its favourable answers, that few place any more confidence in it. Young men, however, still employ it by way of pastime, in order to know whether they will prove successful with their sweethearts. The *ALOPECURUS PRATENSIS*, meadow fox-tail grass, already mentioned, called in Feroese *lifto-sogo-greas*; was employed formerly, by the inhabitants of these islands, for the same purpose on the evening of the Visitation.

PLANTAGO MARITIMA. Sea-plantain. The leaves are long, narrow, and semi-circular, with a small groove in the middle. The antheræ are of a bright yellow colour. It grows in great abundance on the sea-coast, and on the ridges of the hills where there are sand and gravel. In some places the inhabitants boil the roots in milk, and drink it as a remedy for the dysentery; but boiled in water, it is used for the jaundice. As this plant, on the coast, is exposed to the sea-vapour it has a salt astringent taste, and therefore not so fit to be used for the table as in other countries, but it is readily eaten by the cows.

CORNUS SVECICA, Dwarf-honeysuckle. In Feroese *royubeer*. Grows on the high hills, and

in general in almost all the islands. The berries which are of a fine red colour when ripe, are eaten by children and young persons, though they have very little juice. This delicate plant is, in common, three inches in height. The leaves, which stand opposite to each other, are egg-shaped, smooth, without any stalk, and five ribbed. The involucrum consists of four snow-white leaves, which have a greater resemblance to petals; and in the middle of these there are ten or more small black flowers (a rarity in the vegetable kingdom), each on its own stem, and consisting of four petals: these are followed by berries of a bright red colour, which have a sweet but watery taste. Some authors assert, that the berries occasion vomiting, but this is unknown in Feroe. The leaves in case of necessity may be smoked instead of tobacco.

ALCHEMILLA VULGARIS. Common lady's-mantle. In Feroese *syeyskora*. The leaves are dentated, and, in stormy and wet weather, become folded together like a fan. The flowers, which are small and green hang together in clusters on the upper branches. The inhabitants apply the leaves of this plant to old sores, which in many cases they cleanse and heal. In Norway they are used internally by the women, in some female complaints. It grows on the steep banks of the rivulets where the bottom is good, and flowers about Midsummer.

ALCHEMILLA ALPINA. Alpine lady's-mantle. In Feroese *mikelskora*. Grows every where on the sea-coast and in the hills, but rather in dry places. It appears early in the spring. The leaves are generally divided into seven lobes, which when young lie folded together, and have a beautiful white glance. The flowers are like those of the preceding plant. The leaves when pounded are employed, in Iceland, by the women to dissipate swellings and tumours in the breast, and obstructions in the glands of the throat.

POTAMOGETON NATANS. Broad-leaved pond-weed. In Feroese *iglagreas*. A name given to it by the inhabitants, because they imagine that it is the cause of a disease in sheep, which they call *yglasot* ; and which has its seat in the liver. It is found in all watery places, and in small ditches, where its thick, smooth, egg-shaped leaves float on the water about the end of June.

POTAMOGETON LUCENS. Shining pond-weed. In Feroese *marlog*. It is readily eaten by geese.

SAGINA PROCUMBENS. Pearl-wort. This small plant is pretty common in bare naked places. Its small white petals are seldom seen.

PENTANDRIA.

MYSORIS SCORPIOIDES. In Feroese *hoyluus*. It is so called by the inhabitants, because, where it grows in abundance, its flower-cups in harvest adhere to the clothes of those who are employed in hay-making. It is found in greatest plenty at Sands in Sandoe, and at Kirkeboe in Stroomoe.

PULMONARIA MARITIMA. Sea-Bugloss. This plant which is one of the prettiest in Feroe, grows among the sand and gravel in the neighbourhood of the bays, extending its branches along the ground, and forming a beautiful appearance with its smooth blue leaves, and its blue and red flowers; for the oldest flowers are blue, and the newest red.

PRIMULA ACAULIS, has only one stem which shoots up from the root. This pretty plant grows wild but in one place only, namely, high up on the side of a hill above the farm of Trovum, in Sandoe. I planted it in my garden, where it produced a neat flower and at an early period. An engraving of it may be seen in the *Flora Danica*, T. 194.

MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA. Marsh-trefoil. In Feroese *bukka blea*. Is found in several places in the small lakes or ponds, and in the neighbour-

hood of them. Its medicinal qualities in scorbutic cases, and several internal disorders, are well known, though it is not much used. Formerly, when tobacco was less common, some employed the dried leaves of this plant both for chewing and smoking. I was never able to find it in bloom.

ANAGALLIS TENELLA. Creeping pimpernel, purple money-wort. This scarce flower has pinnated leaves, with round heart-shaped blunt-pointed foliolæ, and a creeping stem. The filaments are hairy, and the pericarpium splits perpendicularly into two hemispheres. It grows in Vaagoe close to the south end of Soryaags-yatn, or Bosdala-fos*.

AZALEA PROCUMBENS. Procumbent azalea. This small evergreen and beautiful plant is not very common in Feroe. It is found high up on the steep sides of some of the hills, and blooms in July. An engraving of it is given in the *Flora Danica*, T. 9.

CAMPANULA ROTUNDIFOLIA. Round leaved bell-flower. The only place in Feroe where this plant grows, is close to the houses near the bottom of an eminence at Nordskaale.

GENTIANA CAMPESTRIS. Field-gentian. In Fe-

* *Anagallis tenella*, foliis pinnatis, foliolis cordato-orbiculatis acutiusculis, caule repente, was found by Mr. Mohr.—*Iraskia Alpina*. Smith.

roese loppogreas. The whole plant has a dark green colour, with dark blue quadrifide flowers, and quadrifide calices, the two lobes of which opposite to each other, are twice as broad as the other two. The fauces are bearded. Sometimes these flowers are found white, with five lobes. This plant has a bitter taste, and, on that account, it is recommended as a good medicine for strengthening the stomach. It grows on the sides of the hills at Quivig and other places.

LIGUSTICUM SCOTICUM. Scotch Lovage. In Feroese *maisterurt*. This plant is pretty common in Feroe, particularly near the friths and bays where there is a sandy bottom. It flowers and produces seed annually; but in its wild state never rises to above the height of six inches. I found it both in Myggenæs and at Tiornevig. From the latter place I transplanted it to a garden at Kirketai, where it grew to double its usual size. On account of its early growth in spring, and its aromatic taste, it may be used instead of parsley in cookery, and also as greens. In Suderoe it is called *svovmurt*, that is the sleepy plant; because the root, if put into a stocking and placed below the head of a sick person, promotes sleep.

ANGELICA ARCHANGELICA. Garden-angelica. In Feroese *quonn*. Grows wild in the cliffs on the sea-shore, where it is known by the name of *biargaquon*. The stem which produces flowers

and seed, and which is often thicker than the wrist, is called *quanyoulin*: it is readily eaten by the inhabitants, as well as the stalks of the leaves; but the stem must be used before it flowers; for after that period it becomes woody. Before it is used the rind, which has an exceedingly astringent and bitter taste, is peeled off, and a great many fibres which lie below it are removed; it is then eaten without any other preparation, both as a dainty and by labourers to allay their thirst. In the afternoon in summer it is placed before travellers and visitors by way of refreshment, but in this case it is served up in milk or cream sweetened with sugar. The place of this healthful and refreshing collation, however has, in latter times, especially among the more opulent, been supplied by coffee. Some families preserve the stems in sugar. Angelica is cultivated in many parts close to the houses, in small enclosures made for the purpose; but it is not so well tasted as that which grows wild in the hills. In general no use is made of the root.

ANGELICA SYLVESTRIS. Wild angelica. In Feroese *skokya*. Grows as a weed in low damp parts of the cultivated fields. This plant and the preceding flower about Midsummer.

ALSINE MEDIA. Common chickweed. In Feroese *arvi*. Is a well known weed which grows in great abundance in rich manured land, and often

impedes the growth of other plants which have been sown. It is excellent food for chickens. It is used for dying woollen cloth green.

STATICE ARMERIA. Sea gilly-flower. In Feroese *siougreas*. Is very common in Feroe. It grows in great abundance, in the small fissures between the stones on the sea-coast; but it is found almost every where in the hills, where the soil abounds with gravel and sand. It flowers the whole summer.

LINUM CATHARTICUM. Purging-flax, mill-mountain. This little plant is not uncommon on the sides of the hills; it bears a small white flower, and has leaves placed *opposite* to each other. The stem is always *bipartite*. It is a good laxative either dried and pulverised, and mixed with a small quantity of cream of tartar, or used as tea; when given in wine its effects are much stronger. It is said to be good for the stone, ague, and dropsy.

SIBBALDIA PROCUMBENS. This small creeping mountain-plant is found on many of the high hills; it is of small growth, has green flowers, and is easily known by its leaves, which are broader at the ends and have three indentations. It flowers in August.

HEXANDRIA.

SCILLA VERNA. This pretty small hyacinth-like flower grows, as far as I know, in the southern part of Suderoe only. I found it at Lobro, but in great abundance on a small eminence called Krosgearabrække at Sundboe. It has a bulbous root, like an onion, three red leaves, and a naked stem three inches in height. The flowers are blue, upright, and from two to six, and even eight in number. It blooms before midsummer.

ANTHERICUM OSSIFRAGUM. Lancashire-anthericum. In Feroese *katte-klegv*. The vulgar opinion that this plant has the power to mollify the bones of such animals as eat of it, is not, as far as I could learn, prevalent in Feroe. This is certainly an idle notion and entirely without foundation, for it is every where eaten, especially when young, both by sheep and by cattle; nay, in many places where the soil is wet, it forms a large portion of the hay which is used as winter fodder, and yet no bad consequences have been observed to arise from it. The inhabitants employ it for dying yellow. The flower is yellow, and is known by its six woolly filaments. It does not blow before March.

JUNCUS squarrosus. Goose-rush. In Feroese *borsteblad*et *siv*. Grows every where in the common fields, where its thick hard leaves continue green during the whole winter.

JUNCUS effusus. Soft rush; and *CONGLOMERATUS*, round headed rush: in Feroese *sif*, or *voikur*. The pith of this plant is used in these islands, as well as in other places, as wicks in lamps.

JUNCUS trifidus. Is very common in moist places.

JUNCUS articulatus. The jointed rush. Grows often in low wet places. This plant is easily known by its leaves, the joints of which are readily perceived when one presses them between the fingers.

JUNCUS bufonius. The toad rush. Is also fond of damp places. Of this and the preceding plant there are a great many varieties, some of which are viviparous.

JUNCUS biglumis, and *triglumis*. Is not uncommon in the fields, where its tender young leaves are readily eaten by the sheep.

JUNCUS pilosus. Hairy wood-rush. Is the most common plant of this genus; and is easily known by the long white hair on its leaves.

JUNCUS sylvaticus. In Feroese *riski*. Has flat leaves which are hairy, particularly on the edges; its umbella is composed of several

folds, and the flowers have scarcely any footstalks*. It is not uncommon in Feroe, being found almost every where in the shade, between large stones, and also near the rivulets, which run down the large fissures in the hills. It often rises to the height of two feet and more. I found the same plant in the island of Lewis, one of the Hebrides.

JUNCUS CAMPESTRIS. Hairy field-rush; is common in the uncultivated fields.

RUMEX ACUTUS. Sharp-pointed dock. In Feroese *homilia*. Is found every where near the houses and villages where the soil is rich. If this plant be not carefully cut or rooted up, it scatters its seed in the dunghills, which, being thus spread along with the manure, produces a pernicious weed in the fields. Its leaves are employed to cleanse and to heal old sores, and the root is sometimes used, along with the root of tormentilla, for tanning skins. With the root as well as the leaves, and a little alum, the inhabitants dye yellow. Woollen cloth which has been dyed blue, if boiled in a decoction of the root, acquires a beautiful green colour.

RUMEX DIGYNUS. Mountain-dock. In Feroese *ayrissuira*. Is very common, especially in gul-

* *Juncus sylvaticus*, foliis planis, margine præsertim pilosis, umbella supra decomposita, floribus subsessilibus.

leys in the hills, and on the high banks of rivulets between the gravel and stones. It flowers in June.

RUMEX ACETOSA. Common sorrel. In Feroese *suirq*. Grows in great abundance in land newly manured, and near the farms. In some of the cliffs near the shore its leaves are a foot in length, and six inches in breadth. Some of the better sort of people boil this plant, and eat it with roast meat; but the peasants make it an ingredient in their bird-soup, to which it gives a pleasant and luscious taste. It is recommended by many as an antiscorbutic, and its root is employed to dye red.

RUMEX ACETOSELLA. Sheep's-sorrel. Is not so common as the preceding.

TRIGLOCHIN PALUSTRE. Marsh arrow-headed-grass; and MARITIMUM, sea arrow-headed-grass. The former is common in the turf-moors, and the latter is frequently found on the sea-coast; but neither of these plants is known by the inhabitants under any other name than that of *greas*.

OCTANDRIA.

EPILOBIUM MONTANUM. Mountain-epilobium, grows near springs, and in other damp places on the sides of the hills. Its petals are very small.

EPILOBIUM PALUSTRE. Marsh-epilobium. **Ep. ROSEUM**, and **Ep. ANGUSTIFOLIUM**, grow here and there in wet marshy places; but no names are given to them by the inhabitants.

VACCINIUM MYRTILLUS. Common blea-berry, or whortle-berry. In Feroese *blaabeer*; is very common on the high banks of rivulets, or the flat projections of the hills. The berries are collected by young persons, as being the best produced in the country. In Scotland they are used, with success, as a remedy for the bloody-flux and dysentery. The leaves, the taste of which is not disagreeable, are used as tea, and considered as good for purifying the blood.

VACCINIUM ULIGINOSUM. Marsh-bilberry. In Feroese *dunnubeer*; is not so common as the preceding; it is fonder also of a wetter soil. It flowers commonly in May, and has often ten stamina. This plant, as well as the preceding, bears no fruit some years, in consequence of the severity and changeableness of the weather at the period when it blows.

ERICA VULGARIS. Common heath. In Feroese *lingur*. In some places covers large tracts of land. This plant is employed for smoking dried meat. It is a common saying in Feroe, that where it grows in abundance, there is no total devastation among the sheep, even during severe winters; for when the other kinds of pasture are covered with frost and snow, the sheep which

remain out all winter, can easily get at the tops of the heath, which supplies them with food sufficient to preserve their lives.

ERICA CINEREA, is found in many places, but not in such abundance as the preceding. It has beautiful red flowers. In Scotland it is used for dying woollen cloth yellow.

POLYGONUM VIVIPARUM. Viviparous polygonum, or small bistort, is a small neat plant, which grows on the level projections on the sides of the hills.

POLYGONUM HIDROPIPER. Biting persicaria, is found in most places, though not in abundance. It is distinguished by its bitter taste. When prepared in the same manner as tea, it is drunk as a remedy for the stone.

POLYGONUM PERSICARIA. Spotted persicaria. The leaves of this plant are like those of the willow, but are marked with black spots in the middle; it has a sourish taste. The inhabitants sometimes use this plant, as well as the preceding, for dying yellow.

POLYGONUM AVICULARE. Knot-grass. Grows in rich soil, and sometimes near foot-paths, where it creeps along the ground. The expressed juice of this plant is said to stop bleeding at the nose.

DECANDRIA.

PYROLA ROTUNDIFOLIA. This plant has a few round hard leaves towards the root, which is small and fibrous; the shaft (*scapus*) which is single and smooth, bears at the summit a few white, sweet smelling flowers, with upright filaments and pendent stamina. This plant is very rare in Feroe*.

SAXIFRAGA STELLARIS. Starry-saxifrage, or kidney-wort. This beautiful plant grows almost always on the sides of the hills, and particularly near small streams and springs. The leaves are oval, have on the edges some indentations, are somewhat hard, grow up from the root, and spread along the ground. The stem is bare, and divides itself at the summit. The leaves of the calyx bend entirely downwards. The petals are lance-formed and of a white colour, with two yellow spots on the inside. The antheræ are red, and the ovarium of a flesh colour.

SAXIFRAGA NIVALIS. Snowy saxifrage, or sen-green; grows in gravelly earth high up on the sides of the hills, and is not common. The leaves which are placed close to the root are red on the lower side, and on the upper edges. The stem

* Mr. Mohr found it below Hnusa Fedle, near Sandevaag.

is also red and hard. The flowers are white and pale red, and are collected close together at the summit of the stem. The filaments are red, and the root consists of fine fibres.

SAXIFRAGA OPPOSITIFOLIA, is not so rare as the preceding. It grows on the sides of the hills in loose earth and gravel, often divides itself, and creeps along the ground. The leaves are egg-shaped, stiff, and hairy on the edges; grow opposite and close to each other, without foot-stalks, and each branch terminates in a stalkless flower; which, at first, is of a purplish red colour, but becomes blue before it fades. It is found at Qualboe, and in the neighbourhood of Quivig and Tiorneviig. It does not bloom till May.

SAXIFRAGA RIVULARIS, is very rare. I found it only in the clergyman's garden at Quivig.

SAXIFRAGA CESPITOSA grows in many places in the uncultivated fields.

SAXIFRAGA HYPNOIDES, is the commonest of this species, as it is found on the sides of most of the hills; but it is subject to great variety, for it is found sometimes with even and broad stem-leaves; whole and trifide stem-leaves, extended suckers (*stolones*) and a somewhat upright stem; sometimes with stalkless, red short-haired leaves crowded together. It flowers in June, and has a yellow spot in each petal.

SILENE ACAULIS. Dwarf catch-fly, or moss-campion, is found almost every where, especially on the sides of the hills. The flowers grow in clusters, on one stock close to the root, and almost without any stem. Some of them are male flowers, and others female; and some also are hermaphrodite. Some of them are red, and others white; the red are thick and strong. It flowers towards the end of May.

STELLARIA GRAMINEA. Grass-leaved stitchwort, and **STELLARIA CERASTOIDES**; are not uncommon, but the *stellaria uliginosa* is rare.

ARENARIA PEPLOIDES. In Feroese *arvi*; is found in sandy ground near most of the bays; it bears a white flower, has a large pericarpium and thick leaves, which are readily eaten by cattle.

SEDUM VILLOSUM, grows in moist places at the bottom of the naked rocks. The stem is erect, lanuginous, and branched at the top. The leaves are alternate, oblong, thick, and convex on the lower side. The calyx is also lanuginous; the petals are egg-shaped, and pointed at the summits, with a hard red ridge. It flowers about the end of June.

LYCHNIS FLOS CUCULI. Meadow lychnis. In Feroese *ageleye*. Is very common in rich damp soil, and particularly in the cultivated fields. The petals are red, with four lobes at the summit.

LYCHNIS DIOICA. White lychnis. Grows at

Kirkeboe, and many other places; but particularly in the cliffs on the sea-coast. The flowers are sometimes red, and sometimes white; and most of them are dioecous, and others hermaphrodite. The season of flowering is the middle of June.

CERASTIUM VULGATUM. Common cerastium, or mouse-eared chickweed; is very common, particularly in rich soil.

CERASTIUM VISCOSUM, grows here and there along with the preceding.

CERASTIUM ALPINUM, grows on the flat projections of the hills.

SPERGULA ARVENSIS. Corn spurrey. Grows in great abundance on the sandy ground near Sandevaag church; also at Sands, in Sandoe. This plant is eaten by sheep, and by several kinds of birds.

SPERGULA NODOSA, grows intermixed with the preceding, near Sandevaag church.

SPERGULA SACINOIDES. This plant is rare.

ICOSANDRIA.

SPIRÆA ULMARIA. Meadow-sweet. In Feroese *myear urt*. The leaves have only two or three pinnæ, between which there are a few small ones; the extreme ones are the largest, and divid-

ed into three lobes. The calyx is reddish, and the flowers are white; the pericarpia, which are in number ten, are shaped like a top. This plant, as well as the *geranium sylvaticum*, is used for dying black. It grows in the cultivated fields, and in the neighbourhood of the farms, where it diffuses an agreeable smell. The flowering season is the end of June.

ROSA. The common rose, is found only in two places in Feroe; namely, a little above the hamlet of Haldersvig in Stromoe, near a rivulet which runs through the hamlet, and in a dale or hollow, opposite to Haldersvig, in Osteroe. Some years it produces flowers in the latter place, but never in the former; the reason, perhaps, is because in the former it is deprived of the sun. I planted a bush of it in the garden at Kirketai; but though it throve well it had produced no flowers the fourth year after, and therefore I cannot determine to what species it belonged.

RUBUS SAXATILIS. The stone-bramble. In Feroese *rossabeer*; grows on the flat projections and low edges of the hills. It is found both at Næs, in Osteroe, and Kirketai, in Stromoe, where it blows early; but the berries seldom thrive, as they are destroyed by the storms and strong winds which prevail, before the time when they ought to come to perfection.

POTENTILLA ANSERINA. Silver-weed, or wild tansey. In Feroese *mura*. This plant is cele-

brated on account of its medicinal qualities ; for it is said to heal inward wounds and bruises, to stop spitting of blood, hæmorrhage at the nose, to remove the tooth-ache, and to check dysentery, &c. The method of using it is to dip a piece of cloth in a decoction of it, and apply it to the part affected. The root is nutritive, and may be eaten both boiled and roasted. It grows in various places, but chiefly where the soil is damp and clayey. The flowers are yellow ; the stalks creeping with small shoots ; the leaves are pinnated, and almost of a silver colour. If the juice of this plant be expressed and strained through a piece of cloth, and then boiled with alum, it will communicate a green colour to linen.

TORMENTILLA ERECTA. Septfoil. In Feroese *borkuvuisa*. Grows in all the islands, but chiefly on the sides of the eminences and hills. The root, which is called *borka*, is every where employed in tanning those hides and skins used for shoes. The process will be described hereafter.

GEUM RIVALE. Water avens. DRYAS OCTOPETALA, and COMARUM PALUSTRE, were found in these islands by Mr. Mohr. The first near a rivulet at Westmanhavn ; the second at Mallingsfield in Videroe, and the third at Gaasedal in Vaagoe.

POLYANDRIA.

PAPAVER NUDICAULE, is found in Stromoe, where it grows in places destitute of grass, among the gravel and stones. It flowers soon after Midsummer.

THALICTRUM ALPINUM, is a neat little plant, about six inches in height. The leaves all grow up from the root; the stem is single and without branches. The flowers are pendent, have four petals, and the stamina vary from eight to twelve. It grows every where in the dry places, on the sides of the hills.

RANUNCULUS FLAMULA. Lesser spear-wort; is found frequently in small ditches, the sides of which have grown together. It may be used in vesicatories instead of Spanish flies.

RANUNCULUS GLACIALIS, grows in the high hills; but it is not common. I found it at Thorviigs Skara in Stromoe.

RANUNCULUS HIRTUS. I found this plant in the uncultivated fields to the east of Quivig.

RANUNCULUS ACRIS. Upright crow-foot. In Feroese *scuina-quannur*. Is one of the worst weeds in the gardens, where it rapidly spreads and cannot be extirpated without difficulty. It is found sometimes also in the fields, and on the

sides of the hills. Cows are fond of it. The season of its flowering is the month of July.

RANUNCULUS REPENS. Creeping crow-foot; has the same name in Feroe as the preceding. It grows also along with it, in the rich land, in the neighbourhood of the houses.

RANUNCULUS FICARIA. Pile-wort. Grows at Kirkeboe.

CALTHA PALUSTRIS. Marsh marygold. In Feroese *solia* or *sovl-eia*. Grows in all the cultivated fields where the soil is rich and damp. It is not readily eaten by cows unless they are hungry. The small green buds from which the flowers proceed, may be pickled and used as capers. It flowers about the beginning of May, and through a great part of the summer.

DIDYNAMIA.

MENTHA ARVENSIS. Corn-mint. In Feroese *hestamynta*, is scarce in Feroe, yet I found it at Sorvaag in Vaagoe, and at Qualvig in Stromoe.

LAMIUM PURPUREUM. Purple archangel, or dead-nettle. GALEOPSIS LADANUM. Red dead-nettle. Both these in Feroe are called *daair*. They are among the worst weeds found in the corn-fields, and the farmers are obliged to pull them up, to prevent them from entirely destroying their crop.

The seed will remain several years fresh in the earth.

THYMUS SERPYLLUM. Mother of thyme. In Feroese *brobber*. Grows every where in dry meagre places, where it diffuses an agreeable scent. Some use this plant both for chewing and smoking when tobacco is scarce. Drunk as tea it is said to strengthen the nerves. It flowers during the greater part of the summer.

PRUNELLA VULGARIS. Self-heal. Grows in dry places like the preceding. A decoction of this plant has been used with advantage, as a gargle in cases of swelled throat.

BARTSIA ALPINA. I found this plant in Stromoe; but I do not remember in what place.

RHINANTHUS CRISTA GALLI. Yellow-rattle; cock's-comb. In Feroese *snyadlu-byadla**; grows generally in the cultivated fields among the grass. The inhabitants stuff it into the nostrils to stop bleeding at the nose. When its pericarpium rattles it is time to cut the grass.

EUPHRASIA OFFICINALIS. Common eye-bright. Grows every where, both in the cultivated and uncultivated fields. It was formerly used as a remedy for weakness of the eyes; but of late it has been considered to be rather hurtful than beneficial in such cases. It flowers in the middle of June:

* This name expresses the noise which the plant, when come to maturity, makes on being agitated.

PEDICULARIS PALUSTRIS. Marsh louse-wort. In Feroese *ovrokkyá**. Grows readily in sour meagre land.

LIMOSELLA AQUATICA. Bastard plantain, or mud-wort. Is very uncommon.

TETRADYNAMIA.

DRABA VERNA; grows here and there in the hills.

DRABA HIRTA, is found in the cultivated fields, and around the villages.

THLASPI BURSA PASTORIS. Shepherd's-purse. Grows in the cultivated fields, and close to the walls of the houses.

COCHLEARIA OFFICINALIS. Common scurvy-grass. In Feroese *ayris greas*. This juicy plant has a much stronger taste than the Danish; it attains also to a considerable size, especially in places which lie in the shade or are turned towards the north: such as the cliffs on the sea-coast. It is an excellent preventive of the scurvy, and as such much used. Some put it into brandy, by which means it may be preserved a long time fresh.

COCHLEARIA DANICA. Danish scurvy-grass. Grows in the fissures of the stones on the sea-coast.

* *Ovrokkyá*, signifies neglected; and this name implies, that the field on which the plant grows is not treated as it ought to be.

CARDAMINE PRATENSIS. Common lady's-smock. Grows in the cultivated fields, and in spring may be used for making soup.

CARDAMINE HIRSUTA. Hairy lady's-smock; and CARDAMINE PETREA. Alpine lady's-smock, or rock-cresses. Grow both on the sides of the hills; the latter, in particular, is found on the flat projections of the steep hills.

SISYMBRIUM NASTURTIUM. Common water-cresses. In Feroese *karse*. Grows in great abundance in the cultivated fields, and particularly the corn land which the year before has been tilled. It appears early in the spring, and may then be used both as sallad and in soup instead of greens. It is an excellent preventive of the scurvy, and may be employed with advantage in cases of internal obstructions.

BUNIAS CAKILE. Sea-bunias, or sea-rocket. Grows in the neighbourhood of the sandy bays. I have seen it at Midvaag, Qualboe, and other places. The stem which in general is six inches and more in length, throws out branches almost all the way up from the root. The leaves are smooth, juicy, semi-pinnated, and have a saltish taste. The flowers which grow in a short spike, are for the most part white; but sometimes reddish. The pod (*siliqua*) is articulated, short, and has two cells, with one or two seeds in each. The style is long and flat.

MONADELPHIA.

GERANIUM SYLVATICUM. In Feroese *sorto-greas*. With this plant the inhabitants dye black, by the following process. A thick layer of the plant is placed in the bottom of the boiler, and then a layer of yarn, and so on alternately; but great care is taken that the yarn does not touch the sides of the boiler, otherwise it might be burnt; and if the upper stratum consists of the plant, water is poured over it in such quantity that the yarn may be well covered. It is then boiled for about an hour and a half: after which it is taken from the fire, and suffered to cool. The yarn and plant are then both wrung and dried. Copperas (*ochra martis vitriolata*) is then mixed with the liquor; and being well stirred round, the yarn is again put into it, with the plant around it so as to prevent it from touching the boiler, and it is boiled for two or three hours more. When the yarn is taken out it is placed somewhere to dry, and is then washed. Some repeat the last part of the process, especially if the yarn has been perfectly white, and by this means it becomes blacker, and the colour more fixed.

DIADELPHIA.

POLYGALA VULGARIS. Common milk-wort. Grows every where in dry elevated places. The colour of the flowers is exceedingly various; being sometimes blue, sometimes purple, and sometimes white.

LATHYRUS PRATENSIS. Meadow lathyrus. In Feroese *frantsagreass*. Grows near Sandevaag church. I saw another kind of lathyrus in Kolter; but as I could not find its pod, I cannot determine its species.

VICIA CRACCA. Tufted-vetch. In Feroese *kroggyo-greas**. Grows only in some particular spots. I saw it at Vaai and Porkyeri, in Suderoe, and at Kielnæs in Stromoe.

TRIFOLIUM REPENS. Dutch-clover. In Feroese *seya-smeara*. Grows in the cultivated fields, where there is rich dry earth which has not been lately tilled. The flowers, as well as those of the Lycopodium are used for dying yellow.

LOTUS CORNICULATUS. Common bird's-foot trefoil. Grows chiefly in the uncultivated fields, and on small eminences where the soil is sandy :

* *Kroya* signifies to adhere to. The above name, therefore, has been given to this plant, from the threads (*cirrhi*) with which it fastens itself to other kinds of grass.

it is excellent food for cattle, and deserves to be cultivated. It flowers a little time before Midsummer.

POLYADELPHIA.

HYPERICUM DUBIUM. In Feroese *hipirikum*. The only place in Feroe where I saw this plant was Sorvaag. I found it on a sandy bank, where it rose to the height of eighteen inches. It is used for colouring brandy, to which, however, it does not communicate so good a tint as the perforated St. John's-wort (*hypericum perforatum*).

HYPERICUM PULCHRUM. In Feroese *vuiriks-greas*. Grows every where in dry places in the uncultivated fields. The flowers are for the most part red. Some put this plant into oil, and use it for healing burns, and for cleansing old sores.

SYNGENESIA.

LEONTODON TARAXACUM. Dandelion, or Lion's-tooth. In Feroese *heaasovlia*, is very common in the uncultivated fields. Some use the flowers for dying yellow. The tender leaves which appear first in the spring, form wholesome sallad.

LEONTODON AUTUMNALE. Yellow devil's-bit. Has

the same Feroese name as the former, and grows in the same places.

HIERACIUM MURORUM. Golden lung-wort. In Feroese *heasovlia*. Grows close to the borders of the rivulets.

HIERACIUM PILOSELLA. Mouse-ear hawk-weed. Has the same Feroese name, and grows in the same places.

HIERACIUM ALPINUM, is found here and there in the high hills.

CARDUUS LANCEOLATUS. The spear-thistle, and *CARDUUS CRISPUS*, the curled-thistle, are neither of them abundant, and least so in the corn-fields.

TANACETUM VULGARE. Common tansy. Grows in many places; but never, as far as I know, in the neighbourhood of the houses; whence it may be readily concluded, that it must have been transported to this country, though it now grows in a wild state, and propagates itself. Few of the inhabitants, however, know, that a decoction of the flowers of this plant is a good remedy for worms in the stomach. The leaves have a pleasant and agreeable smell.

TUSSILAGO FARFARA. Colt's-foot. In Feroese *lodnaskora*. Grows on the borders of the rivulets in the dales, where they overflow their banks in winter, and leave behind them abundance of sand and mud. It flowers in April and May. The flowers appear before the leaves; a

decoction of them is used in weaknesses of the breast.

SENECIO VULGARIS. Common groundsel, is a bad weed in the gardens. A decoction of it is said to be good for bringing boils to maturity. It flowers throughout almost the whole of the summer.

BELLIS PERENNIS. Common daisy. In Feroese *summardaii*. Grows every where in hard dry earth, on eminences in the dales, and on the borders of the rivulets. In mild winters it may be found in some places always in bloom.

MATRICARIA MARITIMA. In Feroese *bal-durs-braa*. Grows on the sea-shore, and for the most part in the bare sand. The expressed juice of this plant is said to be good for driving away ring-worms, if it be smeared over them. It flowers during the greater part of the summer.

ACHILLEA MILLEFOLIUM. Common milfoil, or yarrow. In Feroese *rollik*. Grows chiefly on earthen dykes. Its leaves drunk as tea, are said to purify the blood. The flowers chopped small and boiled in tallow or fresh butter, are used as a balsam for open sores. Cows readily eat this plant, and give abundance of milk afterwards.

ACHILLEA PTARMICA. Common sneeze-wort, or goose-tongue, is not so common as the preceding. It grows on the borders of the rivulets, in the uncultivated fields near Thorshavn.

VIOLA CANINA. Dog's-violet. In Feroese *blaakodle*. Grows on every eminence in the uncultivated fields.

VIOLA PALUSTRIS. Marsh-violet. Grows in the shade, between large heaps of stones.

VIOLA TRICOLOR. Three-coloured violet, or heart's-ease, I found only at Kirkeboe, and in Sandoe, where it grows in abundance. It does not flower before the month of May.

GYNANDRIA.

ORCHIS MACULATA. Spotted-orchis. In Feroese *borko-bonda*. Is very common in Feroe, both in the cultivated and uncultivated fields, but not in the hills. The flowers are sometimes dark red; sometimes light red with white spots, and sometimes white. The leaves are marked with large black spots. Many virtues are ascribed to this plant, both here and in other places; such as that ascribed by Linnæus and Strom to another plant of the same kind, namely, that it can excite bulls to copulation; but neither of them tell us in what manner it is to be used. In Feroe it is boiled in water, and given to the bulls to drink.

ORCHIS LATIFOLIA. Male-handed orchis. Grows at Næs in Osteroe.

ORCHIS USTULATA. Dwarf-orchis. This plant I found in the same place as the preceding.

SATYRIUM VIRIDE. Frog-satyrium, is found a little above Næs in Osteroe, and at Steegaard in Vaagoe.

ZOSTERA MARINA. Grass-wrack. Grows only on the friths where the water is still: for example, at Vaai in Suderoe.

MONOECIA.

ALMNA POLYRHIZA, grows every where near the villages, where there is stagnant and putrid water.

SPARGANIUM NATANS. Lesser burr-reed. Is found in a small lake or pond called Kiod, at Laugstolen in Vaagoe.

CAREX DISOICA, the small carex, and

CAREX PULICARIS, the carex, are found here and there in moist places.

CAREX ARENARIA. The sea-carex. Grows at Sands in Sandoe.

CARENARIA VESICARIA. In Feroese *stor*. Grows in the uncultivated fields where the ground is low and wet. The inhabitants employ this plant for a variety of economical purposes. Some

make it into ropes, which are used instead of hempen or hair ropes; others weave mats of it, which are put upon the horses' backs to prevent them being chafed or galled by their burdens, and some manufacture it into neat round baskets (*teavur*), with which they measure the quantity of corn, &c. necessary for the consumption of a day, or for one meal. The inhabitants of Sandoe in particular, employ this kind of grass for the above purposes.

URTICA DIVICA. Common nettle. There are many villages in Feroe where this plant is not to be found. For the sake of experiment I planted it in the parsonage garden at Kirketai, where it was never before seen; but it did not thrive, and died in the course of two years. There are some places, however, where it grows in great abundance; such as the west side of Nolsoe, Næs in Osteroe, Kirkeboe and Westmanhavn in Strömoe, and various other parts. I have no doubt that this plant would form excellent fodder for cows; and, therefore, it might be worth while to try, whether it would not grow in places where it is not found at present.

CERATOPHYLLUM DEMERSUM, is not uncommon in slow running water.

MYRIOPHYLLUM SPICATUM, is found often in stagnant water. The leaves grow under the water, four or five in each verticillus; but each leaf is pinnated with small hair-like pinnæ. The

flowers are placed on the bare stem above the water, and there are four in each verticillus. The male flowers uppermost, and the female below them. The antheræ are green, and the stigma is red.

DIOECIA.

SALIX CAPREA. Common or black-willow. In Feroese *polmi*. Was brought from Norway, in the remembrance of persons still living; but it does not thrive in the open air, and never comes to perfection.

Near Qualvig, close to the parsonage-garden, at Kirketai, and some other places, there is found a small kind of willow, which never rises to the height of more than a foot, and which is always stunted. It appears to be the *salix arbuscula*.

SALIX HERBACEA. Herbaceous willow. Is found in various places, on the tops and sides of the hills. It always creeps along the ground or over the stones, and is very small. The leaves are smooth and serrated. When the seed is ripe, it covers the earth around it with fine down. It flowers late in July at Klivarne near Quivig.

EMPETRUM NIGRUM. Crow-berry. In Feroese *kraagabeer*. Grows in all the islands, particularly where the earth is bare and sandy, and

very often by the sides of large flat stones, that rise a little above the surface of the ground, over which it spreads itself almost like an espalier. By the heat which the stones acquire from the sun, it grows quicker than when surrounded by grass. The juice of the berries is not disagreeable, and therefore they are gathered and eat by children, and young persons. This shrub is an evergreen. The flowers, which appear early in the spring, are placed close to the stem, and have no foot stalks. The stamina are long and red, but the antheræ and filaments are black. The berries are said to produce head-ache; but this is not found to be the case in Feroe.

RHODIOLA ROSEA. Rose-root or rose-wort. In Feroese *hiolparovd*. Is found every where in great abundance in all the islands, but particularly on the steep sides of the hills, and in the fissures open towards the sea, where it grows in the cracks of the large stones. On the first view this plant has a great resemblance to the Danish *sedum telephium*, orpine. The leaves are placed at the top, very close to each other, and from the centre of them arises a bunch of small yellow flowers, some of which are male and others female. From the root, Debes obtained, by expression, a sweet scented liquor. In Iceland a decoction of the root is applied to the head, as a lotion to cure the head-ache; and the root scraped very fine and mixed with fresh-butter,

makes a good salve for sores. Scrapings of the root put into a rag, and applied to diseased parts of the body, are said to cause an immediate cessation of pain. It flowers in June, and the root may be kept a whole year.

JUNIPERUS COMMUNIS. Common Juniper. In Feroese *baraldur*. Grew formerly in all these islands, and attained to a considerable size, as is proved by the trunks still dug up from the turf-moors. It, however, begins now to be scarce, even in places where it was once abundant: such, for example, as Kirkeboe, where it is now almost extirpated, as the inhabitants employ it for smoking dried meat, to which it gives a pleasant savour. Some small bushes are found also in the northern islands.

POLYGAMIA.

HOLCUS LANATUS. Meadow soft-grass. The straw, leaves, and flowers, are naked, and, as it were, downy. The flowers are generally reddish, and collected in a close panicle. It thrives well the first year after the land has been tilled, but it afterwards falls off, and its place is occupied by sweet-scented vernal grass, *anthoxanthum odoratum*.

ATRIPLEX LACINIATA. Jagged orach;

ATRIPLEX HASTATA. Spear-leaved orach,
and

ATRIPLEX PATULA. Spreading orach, are
found on the borders of the sea-coast.

CRYPTOGAMIA.

EQUISETUM SYLVATICUM. Wood horse-tail.
In Feroese *byolgagreas*. Is found sometimes in
fissures and holes, between large heaps of stones.
The leaves are larger, and more numerous; but
at the same time more flaccid than those of the
following.

EQUISETUM ARVENSE. Common horse-tail.
In Feroese *kannobiodla buisa*. Is very common,
particularly in the cultivated fields. The root
which is called *kannobiodla*, is often found when
the ground is dug up in the spring; in loose earth
it throws out its red filaments, to which are sus-
pended the *kannobiodla* properly so called; that
is *tuberi*, which are almost as large as cherries.
They are covered with a black skin, but in the
inside are white. They have a sweet taste, and,
therefore, they are eaten by the inhabitants,
wherever they are found. The roots are of great
service on the banks of rivulets, as they bind the
earth so fast that it cannot easily be washed away
by the water. The stem appears in the spring,

and bears a number of flowers collected at the top. Those which do not bear flowers have small leaves arranged in a verticillus, on stalks, in the same manner as the preceding.

EQUISETUM PALUSTRE. Marsh horse-tail. In Feroese *gulbayt*. Is equally common in all marshy places. This species is an evergreen, and almost destitute of leaves. Its use in polishing articles of metal, wood, or horn, is here unknown.

OSMUNDA LUNARIA. Moon-wort. Grows, but not in great abundance, in meagre soil, at the bottom of the hills.

OSMUNDA SPICANS. Rough spleen-wort. In Feroese *blovgreas*. The name *blood-grass* is given to this plant by the Feroese, because it is believed that it has the property of stopping hæmorrhage in women in labour, if it be applied to the naked body. Pounded and infused in boiling water, it is used for dissipating tumours. It grows, in general, in the chinks of large stones.

ASPLENIUM TRICHOMANES. Common maiden-hair. Is very scarce. The only place in which I found it, was on the side of a high steep hill in Osteroe, called Næs-reuk.

POLYPODIUM FILIX. Common male-fern. In Feroese *trodla-kampar*. Is not uncommon: it grows chiefly in the shade, between the large stones that have fallen down from the hills. The ashes of this plant when burnt, yield a good salt for soap-boiling. The young shoots rolled together

expand first in May ; but do not bloom till late in the month of June.

POLYPEDIUM FRAGILE, is less common.

LYCOPODIUM CLAVATUM. Common club-moss. Grows in the dales high up between the hills, where it creeps along among the grass, and other kinds of moss.

LYCOPODIUM COMPLANATUM. In Feroese *yauni*. Grows in the same places as the preceding. This plant is used for giving a yellow colour to woollen-cloth or yarn. The process is as follows: the *yauni*, after being rinsed, is placed between the cloth, and also around it in the boiler ; and water is poured on till it rise above the surface of the cloth, over which some stones are placed to keep it down. The whole is then boiled for three hours. The cloth is then washed in clean water, and the *yauni* being rinsed from it, the cloth is arranged in the same manner as before, with Dutch clover and its stems (*trifolium repens*) ; after which it is boiled for about an hour longer, but never more if a fine colour be required. When it has been boiled the requisite time, a little urine is poured over it, which renders the colour brighter. The cloth or yarn is then taken out, and after it has been rinsed, is dried in the sun. Some mix other yellow plants with the clover ; but they add nothing to the beauty of the colour. A figure of this plant may be seen in the *Flora Danica*. T. 78.

LYCOPodium ALPINUM. Cypress-moss. Has the same Feroese name as the former; it is found also among it, and used for the same purpose, as it is considered to be the same.

LYCOPodium SELAGO. Fir club-moss. In Feroese *hosta-greas*. Grows almost every where in the uncultivated fields. A decoction of this plant is an old and well known remedy for weakness of the breast and cough; though at present it is seldom employed for that purpose.

LYCOPodium SELAGINOIDES. Prickley or ciliated club-moss. Grows here and there in poor uncultivated ground.

SPHAGNUM PALUSTRE. Grey sphagnum or bog-moss. In Feroese *muyro-mosi*. Grows in great abundance in every part of these islands, where the soil is wet.

FONTINALIS ANTIPYRETICA. Water-moss. Is very common near springs and rivulets.

POLYTRICHUM COMMUNE. Common polytrichum or great golden maiden-hair. In Feroese *trealamosi*. Is found in old meagre corn-fields. Where this moss increases much it destroys every other kind of grass; but it is also an evident proof, that the land on which it grows is neglected.

MNIUM PURPUREUM, and **MNIUM POLYTRICHOIDES**, grow on old stone fences and walls around church yards.

MNIUM SERPYLLIFOLIUM. In Feroese *aar-mosi*; is used in some places for smoking, as a remedy in that disease called *olvar-eld*.

MNIUM HYGROMETRICUM.

BRYUM HYPNOIDES. Thread-moss. In Feroese *dyngimosi*. Is so abundant in the hills, that those who walk over it seem as if they were passing over a feather-bed.

BRYUM ACICULARE,

BRYUM HETEROMALLUM,

BRYUM STRIATUM, are all found in the ditches in the fields.

HYPNUM FILICINUM. Feather-moss. Wherever this plant grows there is generally a deep marshy hollow beneath it.

HYPNUM LUCENS, grows in cavities where there is shade.

HYPNUM SQUARROSUM, grows high up in the hills.

JUNGERMANNIA EPIPHYLLA. This plant I found only in old corn-fields, near Quivig.

JUNGERMANNIA VIOLACEA.

MARCHANTIA POLYMORPHA. Common marchantia, is found, though not commonly, in wet sour land.

LICHEN GEOGRAPHICUS. The map lichen. Is often seen with its roundish ring of different colours, on flat stones exposed to the sun.

LICHEN HECLÆ, is found high up in the hills, on the small loose stones.

LICHEN CALCAREUS, grows on the stones. The scutella of this lichen is black; but it is used for dying red.

LICHEN TARTAREUS. Large yellow-saucered dyer's lichen. In Feroese *korke*. This lichen is white, with yellow or reddish-yellow scutellæ. It is very common on the stones high up on the sides of the hills; where on account of its white colour it is seen at a great distance, and makes the stones appear as if they were covered with lime. But it is not equally abundant in all the islands. With this moss the inhabitants give a very beautiful red colour to their woollen-cloth. It is collected, or rather scraped, from the stones, after a fall of rain; as it is then free from the dust and dirt, with which it may have been covered by the winds. It is also much looser, and can be more easily scraped off; but that which is collected must have its yellow flowers or scutellæ, for it is these that produce the finest colour. It is separated from the stones by means of an old knife, a little crooked. The process of dying is as follows:—The moss is washed in water, if necessary, and about as much urine, as is sufficient to convert it into a kind of thin paste, is poured over it, and it is well worked and kneaded with the hands. It is then put into a pot or other vessel near the fire, where it is left to ferment, in a gentle heat from eight to fourteen days; care being taken to stir it daily. It is then ready

for dying. As much of it as may be necessary is mixed with the water, in which the cloth is to be dyed, and after boiling two hours, the cloth is taken out and rinsed.

Those who wish the colour to be darker, pour into the water, while boiling, a little urine; and after it is taken from the fire, the cloth is suffered to cool before it is rinsed. Though the quantity of lichen necessary for a piece of cloth is not determined; each taking as much as he may think necessary, and though no certain rules are observed in the process, and no mordant is used, a very pretty purple, or violet-red is produced. There can, therefore, be no doubt, that if proper experiments were made with this substance, a great many varieties of red might be produced by it, if combined in different ways. But the principal object is to discover a method of fixing the colour. The Feroese, indeed, have endeavoured to accomplish this, by dying the same cloth several times, but this only renders the colour darker; or by dying the cloth with *lichen saxatilis*, which makes it also darker.

When the inhabitants wish to prepare a quantity of this substance, to be kept and used as occasion may require, they proceed in the following manner. When the moss exposed to ferment, as already mentioned, has become thicker it is formed into small cakes or balls, which are wrapped up in pieces of cloth, and then depo-

sited in some place where they may dry slowly. These balls may be kept several years, and when about to be used they are put into clean cold water, in which they are suffered to remain a night, and next day the liquor may be used as before described. With a ball of this kind, which is sold in Feroe, according to its size, for three or four Danish skillings, one may dye, if the moss has been properly prepared, from two to three pounds of coarse woollen yarn.

LICHEN SAXATILIS. Grey blue-pitted lichen. In Feroese *staynamosi*. This is what is commonly called stone-moss; and has been long used in Norway for giving to woollen-cloth a brownish colour. It grows in the same places as the former; but the best is that which is thin, and of a black colour on the lower side, which adheres to the stone. It is scraped off, like the former, after rain. The process for dying with it is briefly as follows:—The lichen is placed among and around the yarn or cloth, which is not previously immersed in any mordant whatever. Water is then poured over it, and the whole is boiled for about three hours. While boiling some add to it a little urine, which makes the colour darker. This brown colour is always found to be durable.

LICHEN OMPHALOIDES. Dark purple dyer's-lichen, has some resemblance to the preceding; and grows in the same places. It is of a brown-

ish and blackish purple colour, and may be formed into cakes or balls, like the *lichen tartareus*, and used in that state for dying brown.

LICHEN PARIETINUS. Common yellow wall-lichen. Grows almost every where. It is finer than the *lichen omphaloides*, and adheres closely to stones and trees: it is of a yellow or orange colour; and, with the help of alum, it communicates that colour to articles of woollen.

LICHEN PHYSODES. A certain character of this lichen is, that the outermost leaves seem often as if puffed up; and, when cut with a sharp knife, it is evidently seen, that they are composed of two membranes, which adhere only at the edges.

LICHEN CILIARIS, grows in small leaves, covered with stiff hairs on the edges, and is found on old wooden buildings.

LICHEN ISLANDICUS. Icelandic moss. The good effects of this lichen in consumptions, and disorders of the breast, are well known.

LICHEN FURFURACEUS.

LICHEN FARINACEUS. The narrow-cut warty-lichen, and

LICHEN CALICARIS, both grow on stones, though they are not common.

LICHEN APHTHOSUS. Green-ground liver-wort. Grows in old corn-fields. It is said to be good for preventing rottenness of the teeth.

LICHEN CANINUS. Ash-coloured ground liver-wort. In Feroese *yearasipa*. Grows like the

preceding in old corn-fields; it lies on the ground in leaves; is grey on the upper surface, and white below, where it has hairs which fix themselves in the earth like roots. A decoction of this lichen is used by the inhabitants, for a kind of eruption called *eldkast*.

LICHEN PROBOSCIDEUS. Frizzled hair-button lichen. A very pretty kind of lichen resembling a cockade, and entirely black, which grows on stones high up in the hills. It is not very common, but I found a great deal of it on the road through the hills, between Leynum and Kollefjord, in Stromoe. According to Mr. Mohr, this lichen is boiled in milk by the Icelanders and preserved till winter, at which time it becomes so thick and hard, that it must be cut with a knife.

LICHEN COCCIFERUS. Scarlet-tipped cup-lichen, is conspicuous in old fields with its purple perianthium.

LICHEN RANGEFERINUS. The rein-deer lichen. Grows every where in the dales between the tops of the hills, and particularly in Vaagoe; but it is not so abundant that rein-deer could exist there in winter.

LICHEN UNCIALIS.

LICHEN SCOPULORUM, grows on large rock stones, and is very rare.

LICHEN PASCALIS, grows on stones that rise a little above the surface of the earth.

LICHEN FRAGILIS, grows in dry hollows, and has a great resemblance to the preceding.

LICHEN CALYBEIFORMIS, is found also in dry hollows, and grows interspersed with and above the preceding, like a bunch of stiff curled hair.

TREMELLA NOSTOC, is a filmy transparent gelatinous substance, without any apparent root, of a yellowish and dirty green colour. It is round, cornered, flat, and folded together, almost like a pocket handkerchief; is soft to the touch when wet, but thin and brittle when dry; it is found at all seasons of the year.

FUCUS SERRATUS. Serrated fucus. Grows every where at the bottoms of the rocks, which are washed by the sea at high water. It is generally a foot in length; and consists of flat leaves, which always divide into two, and are serrated on the edges, but the teeth and interstices are unequal. These leaves have ribs, which run along the middle of them, and which divide themselves in the same manner as the leaves.

FUCUS VESICULOSUS. Bladder-fucus. In Feroese *bloro-teara*. The leaves are ribbed and divide themselves into two parts; the edges are flat. In the middle of the upper part of the leaves there are bladders filled with air, which burst when hastily pressed, and which are often in pairs, except when placed in the corners. It is more probable that these bladders are destined to make the plant float above the water, than that they are means for trans-

planting it. On the extremities of the leaves there are other bladders, about half an inch in length, sometimes shaped like an egg and in pairs; sometimes single and divided into halves. These are filled with a clear thick slime, mixed with fine hair; the surface is covered as it were with small seeds. The whole plant appears as if wrapt up in a web of fine hair. This plant is of great use for making potash, and it forms excellent manure.

FUCUS DIVARICATUS, grows in the same places as the preceding, and has a great resemblance to it, but for the most part it is smaller.

FUCUS INFLATUS, has nearly the same appearance, but with this peculiarity, that the upper part of it seems as if inflated.

FUCUS SPIRALIS, has a resemblance to the *fucus vesiculosus*.

FUCUS CANALICULATUS.

FUCUS DISTICUS, is often found cast on shore on the sea-coast.

FUCUS NODOSUS. Sea-whistle. In Feroese *bloro-teara*. Grows on the edges of the sea-coast, which the sea reaches at low water. The inhabitants of Feroe employ this *fucus* for dying green. It is first placed upon stones, in order that it may dry in the sun; after which it is again dried at the fire, until it appears to contain no more moisture. It is then laid upon a flat stone under which a fire is kindled, and

when it flames it is quenched with salt-water ; it is then ground on a stone to fine powder, and put into a wooden vessel, where it must be suffered to remain for two days at least in its moisture. The leaves of devil's-bit (*scabiosa succisa*), or hoary-plantain (*plantago media*), or common lady's-mantle (*alchemilla vulgaris*), are placed with the cloth in a boiler, but in such a manner that the bottom and sides of the vessel are well covered with the leaves, in order that the cloth may not touch the boiler ; and water being poured over it, the whole is boiled till it is almost dry, which will be in about the course of three hours. The boiler is then taken from the fire, and the juice of the plants is expressed over the cloth, which is wrung above the boiler as dry as possible. The burnt and pounded fucus is put into this water ; the cloth is wrapped up with sea-sand wort (*arenaria peploides*), and common chick-weed (*alsine media*), and being tied fast with a woollen string is laid before the fire, but in such a manner as not to be exposed to too much or too little heat ; and in this state it is daily moistened with the above liquor, which must be lukewarm. The cloth is suffered to remain in this manner from four to eight days, according as it is disposed to receive the dye ; after which it is washed and dried.

FUCUS SILIQUOSUS, and

FUCUS LOREUS, Sea-thongs. In Feroese

raypa-teari. Grow both in the same places as the preceding.

FUCUS ACULEATUS. In Feroese *hoy* or *haar-teari*, is cast on shore with other kinds of sea-ware. It resembles a tuft of long hair, whence it has the name given to it in Feroe.

FUCUS LYCOPODIODES, grows often on the large muscle (*mytilus modiolus*). A figure of it may be seen in the *Flora Danica*, T. 357. under the name of *conferva squarrosa*.

FUCUS FILUM. Thread fucus. In Feroese *puyna*. Is found sometimes cast ashore among other marine plants. It is eight or ten feet long, smallest towards the root and top, and very smooth to the touch.

FUCUS FASTIGIATUS, grows on stones in small ponds, which the sea passes over at high water; it is short, often divided into two parts, and of a dark red colour; but when dried it becomes black: it has a gristly appearance.

FUCUS FURCELLATUS. The only difference between this and the preceding, is that it is larger; and the upper ends or forks are awl-formed, and longer.

FUCUS PALMATUS. Palmated or sweet-fucus; and

FUCUS OVINUS, are both called *sol* by the inhabitants, and are sometime eaten. Some roast them; and it is said, that they then have a better taste. Sheep are very fond of them.

FUCUS DIGITATUS. Sea-girdle. Called in gene-

ral by the inhabitants *teari* a name which is applied to many kinds of fucus. This species, at many periods of the year, is cast on shore in the bays, in such abundance that it supplies the people of Feroe, with a sufficiency of manure for their fields. In places where it is not cast on shore, the inhabitants go out in boats and cut it. The stem which is from six to ten feet in length, and two inches in diameter at the root, is not in general used, which is much to be regretted; for I have found by experience that when deposited in a pit where it may rot, it produces excellent manure.

FUCUS ESCULENTUS. In Feroese *teng*. The stem is called *tambiodla*; the leaves *kraaga*; and the rib, which runs along the middle of the leaf, *mirkyadlur*. Both the stem and the rib, or fibre, are eaten by all classes. The thin part of the leaf, on each side, is cut away, and the remaining part has an agreeable taste, especially if it has been gathered in a place where the tide runs strong. When fresh it is of a gristly nature, and has a brownish colour. Some pour boiling water over it, by which means it acquires a green colour, and becomes somewhat tougher and softer.

This kind of sea-ware might be used as fodder for cattle and sheep in winter, were it collected in those places where other kinds of fodder are scarce.

FUCUS SACCHARINUS. Sweet fucus or sea-belt. In Feroese *blea tari*. Has a long expanded and undivided leaf, without fibres. It is eaten and has a sweet taste.

FUCUS SANGUINEUS, has beautiful thin red leaves with fibres in the middle, which proceed to the extremities. It grows at the bottom of the rocks which project into the sea, as well as on shell-fish, and the stems of the large kinds of fucus, with which it is cast on shore by the waves.

FUCUS CILIATUS. Ciliated or ligulated fucus; grows in the same places as the preceding, but it has a darker red colour. The leaves are hard on the edges, and of no determined figure. It is eaten, and has an agreeable taste.

FUCUS PLUMOSUS, grows generally in deep water, and is found in great abundance, after high water, on the stems of the large kinds of fucus: it is of dark red colour, and often covered with madrepores.

FUCUS CARTILAGINEUS, and

FUCUS GIGARTINUS, are very abundant, and grow in the same places as the preceding. The following kinds were also formerly cast on shore.

FUCUS RUBENS.

FUCUS DENTATUS.

FUCUS ALATUS.

FUCUS POLYSCIDES. In Feroese *fusingur*.

FUCUS HYPERBOREUS.

FUCUS CERANOIDES.

FUCUS CAPRINUS.

FUCUS PINNATIFIDUS, and

FUCUS PECTINATUS GUNNERI.

ULVA UMBILICALIS, in Feroese *sluigyi*, grows on most parts of the sea-shore, where the bottoms of the rocks project into the sea. It is of a brown colour, as thin as a membrane, and adheres to the rocks by the middle. The part on each side is of unequal breadth; the edges also are split and unequally divided. This marine plant renders the places where it grows exceedingly slippery, so that it is often a great impediment in landing from a boat, when the sea is stormy. On the western coast of Scotland it is collected in the month of March; and after being parboiled in water, is eaten with pepper, vinegar, and butter. Others boil it with onions or leeks. It may also be pickled, and preserved in earthen jars, and when wanted for use, it is boiled and eaten with oil and lemon-juice.

ULVA LATISSIMA, in Feroese *sleavak*, was formerly eaten in times of scarcity.

CONFERRA RIVULARIS, grows on stones near rivulets, and in other moist places: it is of a green colour, and has the appearance of velvet or silk.

CONFERRA FONTINALIS, Spring-conferva. Is

of a darker colour, and much shorter than the preceding. *Flora Danica*. T. 651. fig. III.

CONFERVA CANALICULARIS. Velvet mill conferva. Grows very compact, so that it resembles a sponge; it is of a dark colour, and its threads are ramified. It is found chiefly on old timber that lies in the water.

CONFERVA CORALLINA. Gelatinous coralline conferva; is cast on shore sometimes with other seaweeds. This plant expands itself best when put into a tub of water, where it exhibits both its beautiful red colour, and its fine shape, which make a very agreeable appearance.

CONFERVA POLYMORPHA. Black-tufted conferva, often covers the *fucus nodosa*, on which it is seen hanging in many small dark brown tufts.

CONFERVA RUPESTRIS. Green rock-conferva or sea-beard. Grows at the bottom of the rocks, which are covered by the sea at high water.

BYSSUS BOTRYOIDES. Green byssus. Is a green dust which deposits itself on the walls of houses that are covered with boards, and on the side which is turned from the sun. *Flora Danica*. T. 899. fig. III.

BYSSUS CANDELARIS. Yellow powder-byssus. Grows also on wooden-walls; but it has the appearance of fine sulphur. *Flora Danica*. T. 899. fig. II.

AGARICUS CAMPESTRIS, Common mushroom. In

Feroese *hundaland*. Grows in the uncultivated fields, but not in great abundance. The stem is white and hard; the top when young is also white, and of a round form like a ball, pulpy, and covered with thin membranes like scales. The leaves, on the inferior surface of the top, are pale red, and mostly equal in length. When it has attained to its full size the hat or top becomes flat, and the leaves assume a darker colour. This kind is that generally pickled, in the other Danish provinces, and used in sauces.

Flora Danica. T. 714.

AGARICUS MUSCARIUS. Red agaric. In Feroese *hundel*. Is known by its red top or hat, which sometimes is covered with white excrescences.

AGARICUS FIMETARIUS. Egg agaric. Has the same Feroese name as the preceding. It grows on dunghills near the villages, and on land richly manured. Sometimes it stands single, at others many grow together like a bush. It is of a brownish grey colour on the upper part, and has black leaves below. It is soft and brittle, and soon rots.

SECTION IX.

Domestic Animals.

IN most places of Ferøe where horses can be used, one peasant sometimes has from two to four; but very often several peasants, who each possess a small portion of land, keep one in common. As the nature of the country will not admit of carriages being employed, the horses here are never used for the draught; they are employed sometimes for riding, but in general they are destined to bear burdens, such as turf, manure, corn, &c.

The cows here are somewhat smaller than the Danish, and one peasant sometimes keeps from six to twelve; this, however, is not common; but every peasant is at least owner of one.

The sheep* are of different sizes; they have coarse wool, but are exceedingly fat, particularly in dry summers. One peasant sometimes has from two to three hundred, and even more. But of cows and sheep, I shall speak more at large in the third chapter.

Swine are not kept, but by two persons at

* They are classed among the domestic animals. though in some places they are wild enough.

Thorshavn, who hold places under government. It appears, however, that great numbers were formerly bred here, as there are to be seen in various parts small places, which bear marks of having been once inclosed, and which are still called pig-sties.

Domestic cats are common, but it sometimes happens that a few of them become wild, and never return home. In this case the inhabitants must endeavour to have them soon killed, for they destroy in the cultivated fields all the small birds, which are exceedingly useful to the peasants by eating up the larvæ of the grass-worms, as they are called, which in some years are exceedingly numerous. These cats, when they get into the out-fields, make great havoc also among the lambs.

In the end of the year 1797, and the beginning of 1798, a kind of general plague prevailed among the cats in Feroe. Some of them died after a week's illness, but others died suddenly, and this was the case, in particular, with the young ones; a few of them recovered, after being attacked by the disorder, but very few escaped it entirely. Some of the inhabitants imagined that they could cure their cats, by tying a rope round their bodies and plunging them several times into the sea; some, indeed, recovered after undergoing that process: but, in general, experience did not shew that this

method was effectual. A woman at Thorshavn cured her two cats, by giving them emetics. It needs excite no surprise, that, in a country so much infested with rats as Feroe, the inhabitants should employ every means possible to preserve these useful animals.

Dogs are of great utility to the peasants in Feroe, for they lighten their labour in looking after their sheep. When it is necessary to collect the sheep and drive them together, these dogs are exceedingly serviceable: if one or more of them escape, the dogs pursue them and drive them back to the flock; or they lay hold of the fugitive, and detain it till the master comes to receive it. If it be necessary to take a sheep or a lamb from the flock, the dog is ordered to seize it; if he seizes a wrong one, his master calls out to him; he then renews his search, and never leaves off till he finds the right one. A proper sheep-dog must never bark when employed in the fields, lest the sheep should be rendered wilder than they are. A dog of this kind can even discover the sheep by his smell when they are buried under the snow, as already mentioned.

There are here several kinds of dogs: those which seem to be of the oldest breed have a somewhat long-pointed muzzle, and short erect ears; but most of them have their ears half or entirely hanging down, stand pretty high on

their legs, and are smooth-haired. A smaller kind of dogs are kept for driving the sheep from the inclosures, when they jump over the fences in summer; the principal property of these dogs is to bark.

SECTION X.

Wild Animals.

THERE are very few wild animals in Feroe, except the common rat, *mus rattus*, which must have been carried thither in some ship, and which of late years has spread over most of these islands *, and become a real scourge. Meat and fish cannot be safe in the drying houses, unless they are watched, and placed at such a height from the earth that the rats cannot get at them. A pretty large corn-field may be so much destroyed by rats in the course of two nights, that very little of it will remain to the proprietor. The crows, indeed, contribute sometimes to this devastation, but the injury done by each kind of animal, may be easily distinguished; for the crows pick out the grain, and leave the rest of the ear, but the rats

* All the northern islands, Kolter and Hestoe, Skuoe and Dimon, together with Myggenæs, are, as far as appears, free from rats.

pull down the straw and bite off the ear entirely, so that the straw which again rises up is left standing; nay, in some of the rocks frequented by sea-fowl, they occasion so great destruction among them, that it is almost useless for the natives to frequent them; but their number, and the injury they do are greater in some years than others; for sometimes there are so few that they are scarcely seen.

MUS AMPHIBIUS, the great or new rat, was brought to these islands in the year 1768, in a vessel from Norway lost on the island of Lewis, one of the Hebrides, the wreck of which was drifted to Suderoe. The inhabitants endeavour to destroy them by cats and traps, for they will not touch any thing that is poisoned.

MUS MUSCULUS, the mouse, has existed longer in Feroe than the rat, but the decrease of this animal has been in proportion to the increase of the latter, so that mice are now scarcely seen. The islands already mentioned where there are no rats are free from mice also, so that it has been supposed, that the soil of these islands has something in it, which these animals cannot endure. Earth, therefore, has at times, been brought from the northern islands, to some of the houses at Thorshavn, infested with rats and mice; and though the experiment succeeded in some cases, it failed in others.

SECTION XI.

Marine Animals.

TRICHECUS ROSMAREUS. The walrus. In Feroese *roisningur*. Is sometimes seen near these islands, but it is very uncommon. A few years ago two of them were caught on the sea-coast, where they were found hanging fast to a rock, by their long tusks.

PHOCA VITULINA, in Feroese *stayn-koupur*, and
PHOCA HISPIDA, in Feroese *latu-koupur*, are both pretty numerous on the coasts of these islands. An accurate description of both these seals has been given by O. Fabricius, in the Transactions of the Society of Natural History at Copenhagen*.

PHOCA GROENLANDICA, in Feroese *gronlands-koupur*, is larger than either of the two preceding; they are not seen every year, but they are easily shot, as they are not so shy as some of the other species.

PHOCA CHRISTATA, Fabricii. LEONINA, Lin. In Feroese *soe-loven*, *klapmydsen*, is seen sometimes,

* Nat. Hist. Selskabets Skrifter. B. I. H. H. p. 73—119.

but not often, in the channels between the Feroe islands. It has more than once made its appearance in Skaalefiord, and spoiled the whale and porpoise fisheries. Not long ago this animal was considered by the inhabitants of that neighbourhood, as a sort of hobgoblin or spirit. A good description of it, as well as of the preceding, has been given, by Fabricius, in the work already mentioned *.

WHALES.

BALEÆNA PHYSALIS.—Lin. The fin-fish. In Feroese *royur*, is never seen here alive; but dead ones, which perhaps have escaped from the whale-fishers, are sometimes driven on shore.

BALÆNA BOOPS. The pike-headed whale. In Feroese *silrekyi*. Is considered, by the natives, as a peaceable animal, and they never molest it, as they imagine that it drives the herrings into the small bays and creeks; but I much doubt whether they ever experienced so much benefit from it.

BALÆNA ROSTRATA†. The beaked whale. In Feroese *doglingur*. Whales of this kind frequent

* Vol. I. P. i. p. 87, and vol. I. P. ii. p. 120.

† Muller, Prodr. Zool. Dan.

the sea, in the neighbourhood of the Feroe islands, almost every year, though not in such numbers as formerly. They are from twenty-eight to thirty feet in length, and about eight feet in thickness. The manner in which they are caught will be described hereafter.

BALÆNA MYSTICETUS.—Lin. The common whale. In Feroese *slattuboka*. The Feroese fishermen entertain a great dread of these and other large whales, as they would easily overset their boats and dash them in pieces. In order to drive away these unwelcome guests, they fix a piece of castoreum to the fork on which they wind up their fishing lines, and it is very remarkable, that when this fork, with the castoreum adhering to it, is placed in the water before the boat, the whales plunge immediately to the bottom and are never more seen. Oil of juniper is employed for the same purpose.

PHYSETER MACROCEPHALUS.—Lin. The spermaceti whale. In Feroese *augustur*. Is known by its monstrous large head, which forms almost one-half of the animal. It is sometimes driven on shore dead, in consequence, perhaps, of having been wounded by the whale fishers.

DELPHINUS PHOCÆNA.—Lin. The porpoise. In Feroese *nuisa*. Is seen sometimes in or near the friths, but the inhabitants are not acquainted with the method of catching it.

DELPHINUS DELPHIS.—Lin. The dolphin. In Feroese *quessingur*. Is seen sometimes among the other porpoises. It is so active that it can spring over a boat.

Besides these there is another delphinus in Feroe, but I do not know to what class it ought to be referred. In Feroe it is called *grinda-quealur*. In Scotland, where it is caught, it is known by the name of the *bottle-fish*; and in Shetland by that of the *bottle-nose*. Its head is short and thick, with a small tapering but truncated snout; the head is almost round, the eyes are small, and the under jaw is somewhat shorter than the upper. A little beyond the head it has, on each side, a stiff projecting fin; on the middle of the back there is also a stiff fin, about four feet in height, and inclining somewhat backwards; and towards the tail there is a less one. In the neck it has a breathing hole, through which it can spout up water to the height of five or six feet. The tail, which is cleft, stands in a vertical direction. The back and sides are of a shining black colour, but the belly is white. The udder of the female, the greater part of which is concealed in the body, has, if I remember right, two nipples or teats, from which sometimes milk can be expressed. The largest of these animals are from eighteen to twenty feet in length. The blubber is four or five inches in thickness. They keep together in shoals of from

a hundred to a thousand, and never spring up unless there be one of a different species among them. In calm weather they lie sometimes on the surface of the water, and suffer themselves to float; they are not fierce, but may often be driven like tame sheep, and do no injury unless one approaches very near to them: they are so strong, that, when wounded, they can dash a boat to pieces, with a stroke of their tail.

SECTION XII.

Birds.

ACCIPITRES.

VULTUR ALBICILLA. The white-tailed eagle. Built its nest formerly on Tintholm, where some ruins of houses still shew that a family once resided. But the eagle one day darted down on a young child, which was lying at a little distance from its mother, and carried it to its nest. The mother hastened to the rock where the nest was constructed, and which is so steep towards the summit, that the most expert and boldest bird-catchers have never ventured to climb up it; but the poor woman arrived too late, for the child was already dead, and its eyes torn out. At present there is none of this spe-

cies in Feroe; and if at any time a solitary one comes hither from Iceland, or any other country, the inhabitants endeavour, if possible, to shoot it, that the country may not be oppressed with such troublesome guests. The eagle's claw is employed as a remedy for the jaundice.

FALCO LANARIUS. The lanner. In Feroese *smiril*. Builds its nest in steep places, and lays four reddish brown eggs, which are nearly round. This is the only one of the hawk species known here, and which resides constantly in the Feroe islands. It is almost as large as a pigeon; and is seen oftenest in autumn when it goes in pursuit of the starlings, which at that time frequent the fields and cultivated land in the neighbourhood of the houses. It is so violent in its pursuit, that it is often found jammed in between the posts of the wind-houses*, where the starlings have slipped through. The starlings pursued by the lanner, sometimes take shelter in the churches, or houses in the villages, regardless of the presence of the persons who may be in them.

* A wind-house is a building erected for drying meat and fish; the sides of which consist of laths, placed at a very small distance from each other.

CORACES.

CORVUS CORAX. The raven. In Feroese *ravnur*. is a bird of prey very common in Feroe. There is a speckled variety, known here under the name of the white raven, but it is not so common as the black, and is not to be considered as a different species; for pairs are found on these islands, one of which is black and the other speckled, and in one nest may be seen both black and speckled young ones: some assert that the speckled after a few years become black. The raven builds its nest in March, in the high steep hills, and lays four eggs. It is dangerous to the lambs, which it kills as soon as dropped, and sometimes the mother also, when they have become weak in consequence of a severe winter. It is also remarkably fond of the eggs of other birds; but when the puffin, *alca arctica*, catches the raven in its hole, it darts its claws into its breast, seizes it by the neck with its bill, and when they issue from the hole struggling with each other, the raven endeavours to ascend to the land, and the puffin to descend to the water; but the latter, for the most part, is the victor: for when the raven's feathers become wet, it can no longer

save itself, and must perish. The raven finds a formidable enemy at land in the sea-pie, *hæmatopus ostrilegus*, which follows it in its rapid flight, and, darting its long sharp bill into its back, makes it scream out. The sea-pie then, by a shrill cry, collects several more, which pursue their common enemy, and oblige it to seek shelter in some hole, where its back can be protected. In order that this destructive bird may be exterminated, every man who is in a condition to go out to fish, must deliver every year the bill of one raven, or the bills of two crows; or failing these, pay a certain sum to the provincial judge. But all the inhabitants are not equally ready to assist in extirpating the ravens; as there is a saying in Feroe, that this bird never does any hurt to the farm where it builds its nest. If a man, therefore, drives it into his neighbour's premises, it spares the lambs of the latter, but attacks, wherever it can, those belonging to the former. The ravens, however, are of some utility to those who have sheep, as they give notice, by their assembling, when one of these animals has fallen down a precipice, so that it can be recovered, and carried home to be used as food.

CORVUS CORNIX. The common crow. In Feroese *kraaka*. Crows are here very abundant; they build their nests in the clefts of the rocks or on the steep sides of the hills, where they lay

four or five eggs. They are thievish and mischievous animals; pick the seed from the fields, dig up the newly-planted potatoes, and at the same time, when they have young, carry off the goslings and young ducks, destroy the barley in autumn before it is ripe, and the fish hung up to dry. They are also very troublesome to those who have gardens, as they cut off the cabbage-shoots, and those of almost every other vegetable production. In winter, especially where they are not scared by shooting at them, they are so bold as to enter the houses where people are sitting, if the doors are open. They may be sometimes frightened by hanging up old clothes, but they soon are taught by instinct to distinguish a gun, and to keep without reach of shot. They are often seen at ebb tide collecting shell-fish, with which they fly up into the air, and then let them fall on the rocks, in order that they may be broken. In some parts of Feroe they assemble to the number of one or two hundred in one place and at one time, as if they had all been invited on purpose. A few of the flock sit with drooping heads, others seem as grave as if they were judges, and some are exceedingly active and noisy. At length, in the course of about an hour, the company disperse; and it is not uncommon, after they have flown away, to find one or two dead on the spot: whether these were criminals punished for their offences, or in-

valids which died in consequence of some disease, cannot easily be determined.

CORVUS CORONE. The carrion-crow. In Feroese *roukur*. Is somewhat larger than the common crow, but its whole body is entirely of a black colour with a dark violet purple tinge. It is seen during hard winters among the common crows; but, in my opinion, it seldom or never builds a nest, or brings forth young in Feroe.

CORVUS MONEDULA. The jack-daw, is sometimes seen; but it is more uncommon than the preceding.

LYNX TORQUILLA. The wryneck or emmet-hunter, which in Denmark is called *vendehals*, is very scarce in Feroe. It is about the size of a lark, and of a brown colour spotted with black. It is known by its uncommonly long tongue, which it can project to the length of three inches, and which terminates in a stiff sharp point.

ANSERES.

ANAS CYGNUS. The swan. In Feroese *sveanur*. Swans are seen in these islands in flocks early in the spring, and late in the autumn. They remain some time in the bays and fresh water ponds, where some of them are shot every year. It is believed that they stop here to rest, in their journey to and from Iceland; for it has been re-

marked, that in the spring they are calm and composed as long as the north and west winds blow, but take flight, and pursue their course northwards, as soon as the wind veers to the east or south.

ANAS ANSER FERUS. The wild goose: Wild geese make their appearance in the middle of April, and depart at Michaelmas. These fowls were very abundant here formerly; but, in consequence of the number killed by the natives, they have become scarce.

ANAS ANSER DOMESTICUS. The domestic goose. In Feroese *hayma-gaas*. Domestic geese are kept by some of the peasants, but they are not numerous; as an opinion prevails here that they destroy the meadows. They begin to lay in April; and small huts of earth are built for them, in which they hatch their young. When the goslings are half grown, they are sent with the old ones to the out-fields, where they remain till they are obliged, by the severity of the winter, to return home. In some places where there is good landing they reside chiefly on the sea, where they live on such food as they are able to procure; but such geese are not so well tasted as others.

ANAS BERNICLA. The tree-goose, in Feroese *helsingagaas*. Is seen here both in the spring and autumn; but it is not known whether it builds its nest in these islands. It may be

easily tamed, and its flesh is said to be superior to that of any other wild fowl. This goose has been often confounded, both by the old and latter naturalists, with the following.

ANAS ERYTHROPUS. In Feroese *braamgas*. Is seen annually in Feroe like the preceding ; but it does not appear that it builds its nest in any of these islands. The mistake of naturalists, in regard to these two species, has arisen, no doubt, from this circumstance, that one has described a male and another a female ; one an old bird, and the other a young. The real Feroese *anas erythropus*, has a white stripe on the middle of its neck ; which, however, does not go quite round it : but in some birds this ring appears only in the third or fourth year, and perhaps the case may be the same with the *anas bernicla*.

ANAS FUSCA, as far as I know, has been seen only once in Feroe ; from which perhaps it may, by some cause or other, have been driven.

ANAS MOLLISSIMA. The eider-duck. In Feroese *eava*. Resides constantly in these islands, and in considerable numbers ; but might be more abundant if the royal mandate for preserving them were strictly observed. A clergyman named Diurhuus, was at considerable expense to form an island, in a small inland lake named Toftevatn, for the purpose of affording shelter to the eider-ducks ; and in some years he had the satisfaction to have more than a hundred pairs, which built

their nests there, and produced him a considerable revenue ; but it is much to be regretted that this colony was not attended with the wished-for success*.

ANAS SPECTABILIS. The grey headed duck. In Feroese *sava-kongur*. Some solitary ones are found, now and then, among the eider-ducks, to which they have a pretty close resemblance, only that they are less. This bird is distinguished by its bill, at the root of which there is a high round cartilaginous bunch, which projects from the head, but is somewhat compressed ; it is naked, and of a bright red colour, so that it is almost

* The eider-duck is found in great abundance in Nova Zembla, and along the coasts of the Frozen Ocean. In the neighbourhood of Kola they make their nests, among the juniper bushes growing on the shore, and also among the grass. They line them with the down which they pluck from their breasts, and in such quantity as may be sufficient to cover their eggs, amounting to five or six. It is of a brown colour and exceedingly light. The nests are visited by the inhabitants, who carry away the eggs, but particularly the down, which is an article of great value. As the eider-duck, however, when she finds her nest robbed of the feathers, never returns to it again, it is to be apprehended that this article will become exceedingly scarce, because in this manner a whole brood is destroyed. Half a pound of down is commonly obtained from three nests. But in the nests it is mixed with a great deal of grass and other foreign matters, and therefore forty pounds of such feathers produce no more than fifteen that are perfectly clean. At Hamburgh a pound of clean down costs sometimes three dollars. T.

like a comb. Along the summit of it there is a small black stripe of very fine feathers, which divides it as it were into two flat portions. Towards the head this stripe splits into two, one of which proceeds on the one side, and the other on the other, so that they surround the excrescence in two round bows, which descend towards the edge of the upper mandible, and end a little before the extremity of the aperture of the bill. This bird has been accurately described by Fabricius, in the Transactions of the Society of Natural History *.

ANAS ACUTA. The pin-tail duck or cracker. Is very scarce in Feroe, and is, perhaps, nothing but a bird of passage, which sometimes rests itself in these islands; and therefore it is known here by no other name than that of the *wild-duck*. It is almost as large as the domestic duck. The bill is long and black; the head is of a light brown colour; a black stripe proceeds from the back part of the neck down to the back, and on each side of this there is a white stripe, both of which unite on the breast and the belly, which are also white. On the back and sides the colour is grey, with fine black undulated stripes. The principal feathers of the wings, and the quill-feathers, are of a mouse colour. On the wings there are cross stripes of green with a

* Vol. II. P. ii. p. 36.

reddish cast, which end with a streak of white. The tail feathers are white in the middle and on the sides, but the two middlemost are darker than the rest, and project two inches farther. The feet are black.

ANAS HYEMALIS. The snow-goose. In Feroese *egvedla*. Resides in Feroe only during the winter. It arrives about Michaelmas, when other birds of passage are gone, and leaves the country in May, at which time the other migratory birds have returned. They keep together in flocks, and frequent the bays and friths, where they feed, like the eider-duck, on marine insects and shell-fish. It is very singular that this bird, which resides constantly in Greenland and builds there its nest, should remain in Iceland only during the summer, and take up its winter quarters in Feroe, where there is no want of fresh water near which it might build its nest, as well as in Greenland or Iceland. A figure of it may be seen in *Olafsen's Voyage*. Tab. 36.

ANAS CRECCA. The teal. Is seen chiefly in the spring in small flocks, which search for their food on some parts of the sea-coast, as at Kirkeboe and Huusastoe, in Midvaag.

ANAS CIRCIA. The summer teal. A small delicate duck; one of which I had in my possession. It was the only one I ever saw in these islands, and was shot on Leynumvatn, in Stroomoe.

ANAS HISTRIONICA*, (male), and

ANAS MINUTA, (female). In Feroese *rotugaas*. Is seen only some years in the spring; sometimes singly, and sometimes in large flocks: a good representation of the male and female may be seen in *Mohr's Islandske Nat. Hist.*—Tab. 1. I am of opinion that the three last mentioned do not build their nests in Feroe.

ANAS BOSCHAS DOMESTICA. The tame duck. In Feroese *dunna*. Is kept only at Thorshavn, and by a few of the clergy and peasants.

ANAS BOSCHAS FERUS. The wild duck. Is the same as the preceding in a wild state. They are found every where, and in great abundance.

MERGUS MERGANSER. The goosander. Is not uncommon in Feroe. The male and female not only differ from each other, but there is even a great difference in the colour of the females, particularly at moulting time; and hence has arisen that confusion, observed in the writings of some naturalists. Of all the drawings or engravings I ever saw, none had a perfect resemblance to the pair which I sent stuffed to Copenhagen.

MERGUS SERRATOR. The red-breasted goosander. Is not uncommon in Feroe. The bill has the same form both in the male and the female, but with this difference, that the bill of the latter

* Harlequin duck, stone duck, dusky and spotted duck.

is perceptibly longer. But the upper and lower part of it are beset with sharp teeth turned inwards, of which those in the upper part are larger but fewer in number. The male has twenty-eight in the upper part, and forty-two in the under. The female on the other hand has thirty-four in the upper, and fifty in the under. In both the bill is of a reddish colour, and terminates in a white horny nail, which, from the upper part, bends down in the form of an ear-picker, over the end of the lower.

ALCA TORDA. The auk. In Feroese *aalka*. Is one of the rock-fowls which come first to Feroe. It arrives about the eighth or tenth of March, and migrates in August; but it is not so numerous as the other kinds of sea-fowl, which frequent the same cliffs. Some of these birds have a white stripe, which proceeds along each side of the body from the eye; some, however, are not marked in the same manner: but I do not, however, believe that they are two distinct species. I have shot in the friths some of the last hatched young; which, not having strength to follow the old ones in their flight, had been obliged to pass the winter in the sounds, but never found these white streaks in any of them; whence I conclude that they do not, perhaps, acquire this mark of distinction, till the third year of their age. The fowlers assert, that the females only have these white streaks; and this I cannot

venture to contradict. The female lays two eggs, of a bluish or greenish colour, interspersed with black spots and streaks.

ALCA IMPENNIS. The penguin. Is as large as a goose. The bill is of a black colour and flat, with cross furrows; but these furrows are more or less numerous, according, perhaps, as the bird is older or younger, so that in regard to these furrows, there seems to be a correspondence between the bill of this bird and the horns of certain animals, the rings of which increase annually in number. As the wings are uncommonly small, in proportion to the body, this bird cannot fly, but uses them merely for swimming with under the water, and for climbing up the low rocks on the sea-coast. It begins now to be scarce in these islands.

ALCA ARCTICA. The puffin. In Feroese *lunden*. Has a very neat flat bill with several furrows, and blue, red, and white stripes. It comes to Feroe about the fourth of April, and migrates about the end of August. It is a general remark, that this bird, when it departs, proceeds always to the east, and at the time when the currents run in that direction. It builds its nest for the most part in the high steep cliffs, and in deep holes or apertures between the different strata of the rocks, or in heaps of stones below these cliffs. It lays only one egg of a bluish colour, with dark spots; but this egg is of an uncommon

size, in proportion to that of the bird; for the bird is much less than a common duck, and the egg is nearly as large as that of a goose. It is very remarkable, that if one of these birds be taken from its eggs, another assumes its place to hatch them. Of all the sea-fowl which frequent the cliffs of the Feroe islands, this is the most numerous; and it often affords the proprietor an abundant capture, but the manner in which these birds are caught I shall reserve for another place.

ALCA ALLE. The small black and white diver. Is a small bird about the size of a starling. The belly and lower part of the throat are white, but the back and wings are black. It has a small white spot above the eyes, and the old ones are distinguished from the young, by a white streak across the wings. It does not reside properly in Feroe; it is seen sometimes in autumn, but chiefly in winter, and its appearance is considered by the natives as a sign of bad weather. When it wanders into the interior parts of any of the islands, it may be easily caught with the hands; for like the other birds of the same species, when it gets among the grass it can neither walk nor fly.

PROCELLARIA GLACIALIS. The fulmar. Is seen between the Shetland and Feroe islands, and is known only to those who fish a great way out at sea; where, like other species of the sea-gull,

it hovers near the boats in order to catch the garbage that may be thrown overboard. After a severe storm in winter, a few of these birds are sometimes cast on shore dead. The bird, whether alive or dead, and also the feathers, emit a fetid smell.

PROCELLARIA PUFFINUS. The shear-water. In Feroese *skraapur*. Comes hither about the twelfth of March, and departs in the month of September. It builds its nest on the sides of the hills, where it scrapes a hole with its claws in the ground between the stones, from eighteen inches to nearly two feet in depth, which proceeds inwards with a great many turnings and windings, like that of the mole. It produces but one young one, which it feeds no oftner than once a day, and yet it has an inch of fat on the breast; nay, it sometimes consists of scarcely any thing else but fat. The young are called by the natives *luira*, and about the eighth of September they search for them in the places where the old ones construct their nests, and either drag them out with a fish-hook, fastened to a crooked stick, or dig down to the nest; but in the latter case it is necessary that the hole should be closed up so exactly as to prevent the smallest drop of rain from entering it, otherwise the bird will desert it till the following year. The puffin is so timorous, that if a fowling-piece be fired at a flock of them at sea, they all fall upon their backs

into the water, where they lie as if they were dead; but when a boat approaches, and the people in it attempt to seize any one of them, they all fly away one after the other. Young puffins were caught here formerly, in much greater abundance than at present, as their number has been much lessened by the destructive rats.

PROCELLARIA PELAGICA. The petrel. Called in Feroe *drunquiti*. Is a small neat marine bird, about the size of a swallow. It is not uncommon in Feroe, but it is never seen in the day from the time that it lays its eggs till its young are full grown. It builds its nest on the sides of the hills, among heaps of stones which have fallen down from the precipices above, and which in the course of time have become mixed with earth, in which the bird digs its hole. Like the bat, it flies out in the evening, at which time the people employed in the cod-fishery see it skimming over the water, and sometimes when it is so dark that no part of it can be distinguished but the white spot on its rump, from which it takes its name, for *drunquiti* signifies white rump. It is not used as food, for its flesh has a more disagreeable smell than that of the raven. When this bird is caught and carried home, it becomes so tame that it will suffer itself without the least fear to be touched and handled. Its nest is like that of the rat.

PELECANUS CARBO. The cormorant. Remains constantly in Feroe, and builds its nest in holes of the cliffs, where several are generally collected and have their nests near to each other. The young ones the first year are white below the breast, and never acquire their proper colour till the third. When these birds have recently left their nests, their flesh is exceedingly delicate. Some of the natives believe that there are here two kinds of cormorants, as they appear so different both in colour and size; but I am of opinion that this difference is the effect only of age. A great many of them have a white spot on each thigh; and these undoubtedly are old ones.

PELECANUS CRISTATUS. This bird resides also constantly in Feroe, and is more abundant than the one above-mentioned. It lays three or four eggs which it deposits in holes in the rocks, or in the heaps of stones found at the bottom of them. When the young have quitted the nest, the old as well as the young assemble in large flocks in the sounds. The young especially, when taken from the nest, are among the best of the Feroe sea-fowl for the table. When properly prepared and roasted, they taste nearly as well as roast hare. The old ones are of a deep black colour, which, however has a greenish glance; but the young, particularly on the throat and

breast, are greyish brown; the bill and feet are both black, and the corners of the mouth are yellow. The old ones have scarcely any crest in summer, and the young exhibit no signs of any during the first year. This circumstance, therefore, may have induced some writers on natural history to make several species of these birds, though there is only one. Sometimes a perfectly white bird of this kind may be found among the black ones. An individual of this sort with a yellow bill and feet, I sent to the Cabinet of Natural History at Copenhagen; but I do not believe that this variety forms any new species: I consider it merely as a *lusus naturæ*; or rather its keeping company with black ones, may shew that it is one of the young.

PELECANUS BASSANUS. The gannet or Soland goose. Known to mariners under the name of John of Ghent; frequents none of the Feroe islands, but the rocks in the neighbourhood of Myggenæs. It repairs thither about the twenty-fifth of January, which is one of the festivals in that island, and departs at the end of autumn. In the middle of April it lays two eggs, which are hatched in the course of a month, but the young ones do not take flight till September. The old ones are white, and as large as a goose; but the young are grey, and do not acquire their proper colour till the third year. They are ex-

ceedingly fat but oily. The old ones are caught in the middle of April, when they have built their nests, but before they have laid their eggs. The peasants steal upon them in the night time, or when it is dark, in the places where they sit and sleep, and seize them by griping them in a peculiar manner, which prevents them from emitting any cry; for if they were suffered to make a noise, all the rest would awaken and betake themselves to flight. The young are knocked down at sea in autumn with a small stick, called *kadia*, by people stationed in a boat, and who pick up those that fall down. Those who are successful catch sometimes in one spring two hundred old ones, and the same number of young. It is astonishing to see the rapidity with which these birds can dart down from the sky to catch herrings or small cod in the sea: on these occasions they dive under water, leaving a large quantity of foam in the place where they entered it. They have such a wide gullet, that they can swallow a pretty large cod entire.

COLYMBUS GRYLLE, is a bird very common in Feroe. Both winter and summer it frequents the sounds, the friths, and other parts of the sea-coast; and as it is not timid, but often approaches so near to the boats that the people who row them can knock it down with their oars, I am the better enabled to give a more accurate

description of it, and to rectify some of those mistakes which Olafsen has fallen into, in his Voyage to Iceland, as well as some writers on Natural History. The old ones both male and female are in summer black, with a white streak across the wings, and have dark red feet; in the end of autumn their colour changes and becomes grey, but this greyness is formed by a mixture of perfectly black and perfectly white feathers. In this dress they can be easily distinguished from the young, for the latter have a uniform grey colour and black feet; in the spring the old ones resume their former colour. They build no nests, but lay their eggs under and between the large stones that have fallen down on the shore from the high cliffs. In pairing time during spring, they stretch out their neck, stick their bill against their breast, and swim round each other, making a continual piping noise. The old ones are seldom caught; but the young are much sought after in their holes, on account of their delicate taste.

COLYMBUS SEPTENTRIONALIS. The red-throated diver. Comes to Feroe in the middle of March, and leaves it at Michaelmas. Though a sea fowl, it lays two eggs near the small inland lakes, and at such a distance from them that it can jump into the water at one hop, for it cannot walk on land, as its feet stand too far back. Its flesh is

well tasted, and is fattest at the time it lays its eggs. At that period the natives, when they go to the lakes which they frequent and see them flying, can frighten them so much with a loud shout that they fall down; and if they drop on the grass, they may be easily caught with the hands, as they can neither walk nor take wing again. By the cry of this bird the inhabitants can foretel whether it will be dry or wet weather.

COLYMBUS IMMER. The imber or ember-goose, is one of the most beautiful birds in Feroe. It is as large as a common goose, and lives constantly on dry land; but although it has been often seen with grown young, no one has ever yet found its nest; and as this bird has a large cavity under each wing, many people imagine that it there hatches its young.

The variety observed in this bird in regard to the beautiful ring which it sometimes has around the neck, is in all probability the effect merely of a difference of age. An accurate representation of it may be seen in *Olafsen's Voyage*. Tab. 11.

COLYMBUS URIA LOMVIA.—Brun. The sea-hen. Is very common in the cliffs on the sea-coast. It comes to Feroe on the tenth or twelfth of March, and emigrates in August; but it does not retire altogether to the rocks till the end of

April. It lays only one egg, which it deposits on the bare heaps of stones in the rocks; but this egg, the fundamental colour of which is sometimes whitish, and sometimes bluish, but for the most part green, is variegated by nature in a wonderful manner, with a great many dark-brown and black spots, streaks and figures, which sometimes have a resemblance to the Chinese characters. A figure of this bird may be seen in *Olafsen's Voyage*.—Tab. 21.

COLYMBUS CRISTATUS.—Lin. The crested grebe. This singular bird, which the islanders call *sef-ond*, is exceedingly scarce in Feroe, where it has not yet got a name. I, however, had the good fortune to obtain one, which I sent to the Museum of Natural History at Copenhagen. A pretty good figure of it may be seen in Mohr's *Natural History of Iceland*.—Tab. II. p. 29.: but that in *Olafsen's Voyage*.—Tab. 38. does not correspond with my specimen; perhaps it may be a different sex.

LARUS TRIDACTYLUS.—Lin. RISSA.—Brun. The Tarrock. In Feroese *Rita*. Is found every where in Feroe; but in more abundance in some places than others. It arrives in January, and frequents the steep cliffs, where like the swallow it constructs its nest of straw, sea ware, earth, and clay. The nests are built close to each other, and are often visited by the brown

gull, or sea-eagle, *catharæta skua*, which, when hungry, endeavours to catch some of the young; on these occasions the whole flock betake themselves to flight, emitting loud screams, and wherever they go they make the whole neighbourhood resound with their incessant noise. Hence there is a proverb in Feroe alluding to a man given to continual talking; *Han tagnar ikkye heldir end ritan uy bergin*, he is as noisy as the rita in the rocks. They are caught with the fowling-pole and net in the same manner as other birds which frequent the cliffs. Their flesh is well tasted, and the feathers are excellent.

LARUS MARINUS. The great black and white gull. An engraving of the young, as well as the old, may be seen in *Olafsen's Voyage*, Tab. 13 and 14, where the delineation of the young is perfectly correct, but the old are not sufficiently large in proportion to the young; they are also grey on the back, whereas they ought to be entirely white. The young, which during the first year are of a grey colour, and have a red spot on the under part of the bill, do not acquire their real colour sooner than the third year. When they flock to the sea with other gulls it is a sign that herrings, and some other kinds of fish, are abundant.

LARUS FUSCUS. The herring-gull. Has a great resemblance to the former, but is not above half the size; it is also somewhat lighter on the back.

It is not improbable that the figure in *Olafsen's Voyage, Tab. 13*, was delineated after this bird.

LARUS PARASITICUS. Lin. CATHARACTA PARASITICA. Brun. In Feroese *tyovi*; that is, *the thief*; comes to Feroe in April, and leaves it about Michaelmas. Some of these birds are entirely of a dark brown colour; others are white on the throat, the breast, and the belly; but the difference of colour is no distinguishing mark either of species or sex, for sometimes two speckled form a pair; sometimes two brown, and sometimes two of both these colours. It lays two eggs, which it deposits in the fields where the soil is bad. In its flight it darts forward, turning with great velocity, and harasses both the tarrock and the sea-swallow, (*sterna hirundo*,) till they give up some of the provision they have killed, and which it catches in its flight.

LARUS GLAUCUS. Brun. Resides continually in Feroe, and lays three eggs on the high parts of the coast. It is almost white, except on the back, where it is light grey. The young in the third year are entirely grey.

LARUS HYPERBOREUS. Leem. Comes to Feroe some years in large flocks, and as is supposed from Iceland, when the winter there has been severe. But as far as I know, it is not mentioned in any description of Iceland, and therefore may come from some of the other northern countries.

LARUS RIDIBUNDUS. The black-headed gull. Is seen in Suderoe, and at Kalkab.

CATHARACTA SKUA. Brun. Comes to Feroe in the middle of April, and remains till towards Michaelmas. It builds its nest either on the sides of the high hills, or in the dales between their summits. The inhabitants in approaching its nest must be very cautious, else it will dart down upon their heads with great violence. Though it is a marine bird, and web-footed, it has crooked claws, which marks its natural disposition; and on that account it has been called the sea-eagle, for it is really a bird of prey, and an enemy to all other birds, and even to young lambs.

STERNA HIRUNDO. The greater tern, or sea-swallow. Comes to Feroe about the middle of May, and remains till Michaelmas. It is seen every where, but in some places in immense numbers. It lays two eggs in the uncultivated fields where the soil is bad; they are the best tasted of all those found in the country.

GRALLÆ.

ARDEA CINEREA. The common heron. In Feroese *hegri*. Single individuals are seen now and then in the summer, near the ponds and rivulets

which contain trout. This bird is seen sometimes also in winter, but more rarely. Some of the natives imagine that it has only one large gut, white as silver, which proceeds through its whole body. It is also related, that as soon as it catches and swallows a fish it places its rump against a hillock, or stone, to prevent the fish from getting out again; and that it stands in that position till the fish has been digested. They even believe that those who carry a heron's foot in their pocket will be fortunate in their fishing. As far as is known this bird does not produce young in Feroe.

NUMENIUS MINOR; SCOLOPAX GALLINAGO. The snipe. In Feroese *mirosnuyba*. Resides chiefly, and builds its nest in the fields near the villages: when it flies it seldom emits any cry, but either makes a humming kind of noise, which the inhabitants believe to be a sign of rain, or it cries in a piping kind of tone *kibi, kibi*, which is said to indicate dry weather. It is found in Feroe both summer and winter.

SCOLOPAX PHÆOPUS. The whimbrel, the curlew-knot. In Feroese *spogvi*. Arrives in the middle of April and departs before Michaelmas. It frequents the uncultivated fields, where it lays four eggs. Both the bird and the egg are well tasted.

SCOLOPAX TOTANUS. The barker, the spotted red-shank. In Feroese *stellkur*. Is of a size

How convenient a cork would

between that of the two last mentioned. One individual of this bird is sometimes seen about the middle of April; and it is believed that it migrates at the commencement of the warm weather in summer.

SCOLOPAX ARQUATA. The curlew. In Feroese *tand-spogvi*. Is a large species of the *scolopax phæopus*, which is seen in autumn, and particularly in winter.

RALLUS AQUATICUS. Brun. The water rail. In Feroese *yærakona*. Is very difficult to be obtained, but I had the good fortune to procure two, which I carried with me to Copenhagen. This bird is not much larger than a starling; it is of a greyish brown colour on the back and wings, but blue on the throat and breast; it has long legs, and scarcely any tail. No one has ever seen it fly, but it runs like a rat along the narrow furrows cut in the earth by streams of water, and conceals itself in holes in the earth, so that it is seldom seen.

TRINGA STRIATA. The striated sandpiper. In Feroese *graagrealing*, or *fyaldmurra*. The first Feroese name is given to this bird when it is seen during winter in flocks on the sea-shore, and particularly at the time of low water. They fly also in thick flocks across the friths, and in their flight make several turnings, which when the sun shines affords a very agreeable spectacle; for as they are grey on the upper part of the body,

and white on the belly and under the wings, the whole flock appears sometimes entirely grey, and sometimes entirely white. It builds in the hills, and when a man approaches its nest it follows him with a murmuring piping noise. A description of it may be seen in *Strom's Account of Sondmor*, and in *Olafsen's Voyage*, where mention is made of a purple spot on the back, which I never observed. A good representation of it may be seen in the *Transactions of the Society of Drontheim*, VOL. III. *Tab.* 8. The flesh of this bird is well tasted.

TRINGA ALPINA. The Dunlin. In Feroese *Kyaldars grealingur*. Is somewhat less than the preceding; but is not found in such abundance. It is without doubt the same bird as that of which a representation is given in *Olafsen's Voyage*, *Tab.* 41, under the name of *Loar-Træll*. The flesh is as well tasted as that of the preceding.

TRINGA LOBATA. The grey coot-footed tringa. In Feroese *helsareyi*. Is the same as that called by the Icelanders *odinshane*. This pretty bird, which is web-footed, is not seen in common. It builds its nest near inland pieces of water, but in spring it frequents the sea-coast, and for the most part is found on floating heaps of sea-ware; in this case it is considered by the fishermen as an indication of bad weather. A good figure of

it may be seen in *Mohr's Natural History of Iceland*, Tab. 3, p. 46.

TRINGA VANELLUS. The lapwing. In Feroese *vuypa*. Is seen sometimes, but very seldom.

ORTYGOMETRA ALIS RUFO-FERRUGINEIS. Land-rail. The cry of this bird has a great resemblance to a repetition of the words *krex krex*. I have never seen it in Feroe, for it is only in certain years that it is heard; but I am inclined to think that it may be the *agerriæn* mentioned by Strom in his *Description of Sondmor*, Part I. p. 218.

CHARADRIUS APRICARIUS. Lin. PLUVIALIS. Brun. The spotted plover. Comes to Feroe late in March, and retires in the middle of August; though it may sometimes happen that a single individual will remain and be seen in winter. It frequents chiefly the uncultivated fields, where it lays its eggs among the grass. In summer they appear only in pairs, but in the autumn, when about to take their flight, they assemble in flocks. The flesh is exceedingly delicate.

CHARADRIUS HIATICULA. The ringed plover; the sea-lark. In Feroese *Svarthølsa*. Is seen sometimes in flocks on the sea-shore in the spring and autumn, but it is thought that it does not lay its eggs in the country.

HÆMATOPUS OSTRILEGUS. In Feroese *kialdur*. Every thing that Olafsen relates of this bird in Iceland, is applicable to it in Feroe, and to his

account I shall add the following particulars. As the *lumbricus littoralis*, which is the chief food of this bird, is not here abundant, it is obliged to have recourse to other kinds of nourishment, such as shell-fish; and hence, perhaps, it has acquired the name of *ostrilegus*. The kinds it chiefly uses are the *lepas balinoides*, which is found every where along the coast, like moss on the stones, and a large muscle, *mytilus modeolus*, which after storms is cast on shore, adhering to large pieces of sea-ware. It sometimes happens that this bird, when it sees this large muscle lying in the sun with its shell open, darts its bill into the aperture to seize its prey; but on the first touch the animal closes its shell, and in this manner holds the bird fast till it is caught either by the natives, or some bird of prey. Most of the peasants, especially if they have tame sheep, are glad to see this bird in their pasture grounds, as with its long bill it drives away the destructive raven; but it is hated by those whose sheep are wild, because it gives notice to the sheep by its cry whenever a man comes in sight, and by these means renders the sheep wilder. Though it is seldom seen in the water, and though its toes are almost entirely separated, it can both swim and dive. It comes to Feroe about the middle of March, and leaves it at Michaelmas. Its piping noise in the afternoon, and especially at a distance, is not disagreeable: its eggs are

well tasted, and the bird itself is accounted by epicures delicious food.

GALLINÆ.

TETRAO COTURNIX. The quail. This bird I heard only once in the fields near Quivig, but never had an opportunity of seeing it.

GALLUS GALLINACEUS. Domestic fowls are found every where in the country, but turkeys are entirely unknown.

FULICA ATRA. The coote. In Feroese *syov hona*. Is seen very seldom. It is, however, easily known by its naked and white forehead, as well as its feet, which, instead of webs, have broad lobes at the sides of the toes.

PASSERES.

COLUMBA CENAS. The stock-dove, wood-pigeon. In Feroese *dua*. Builds its nest in the dark holes and cavities of the rocks, and frequents the sown fields in the spring. Tame pigeons are kept by a few of the principal inhabitants.

TURDUS ILIACUS. The red-wing. In Feroese *ovushane*. Is seen around the villages for a short

time in the spring, that is, in April, after which it disappears.

STURNUS VULGARIS. The common starling. In Feroese *steari*. Remains continually in the country. It builds its nest in the hills, and lays four eggs. In autumn they assemble in flocks, and frequent the cultivated fields.

STURNUS CINCLUS. The water-ouzel. In Feroese *aarpisa aarfuglur*. Is known here chiefly by name; but a few days before I left the country I obtained one from Mr. Winther, the clergyman at Sandegierde, which corresponded exactly with the Linnean description. It frequents the rivulets, and can dive exceedingly well under water.

ALAUDA CAMPESTRIS. The lark. Is very rare, and I do not know whether the inhabitants have any name for it.

EMBERIZA NIVALIS. The snow-bunting, or snow-bird. In Feroese *snyov-fuglur*. Is seen in flocks in the hills during summer, and in April they approach the villages. It is of a grey spotted colour, and in winter is almost white.

FRINGILLA LINARIA. The lesser red-headed linnet. I think I have both seen and heard this bird in Feroe, but I am not certain that it was the same, as it appeared to me to be somewhat less.

FRINGILLA. Is a very common singing-bird in Feroe, and is seen often in the neighbourhood of the villages; but as I had not an opportunity

of procuring one, I can not tell to what species it belongs.

MOTACILLA CENANTHE. The white-tail. In Feroese *stainstolpa*. Is seen in the middle of April, and for some time after. It lays six eggs between the stones which lie in heaps, or in the walls of buildings. Neither the bird nor the eggs are eaten.

MOTACILLA ALBA. The white wagtail. In Feroese *erla*, or *erla kongs-dotter*. Is seen first in May, and the inhabitants then conclude that the expected trading-vessels have arrived at some of the islands. A few days after its arrival it in some places disappears again; but in other places it builds its nest, almost in the same manner as the preceding.

MOTACILLA TROGLODYTES. The wren. In Feroese *musabrouir*. Is found every where, particularly in the northern islands; for as there are no rats in these islands, there are also no cats, which are great enemies to this bird. It is called by the Feroese *musabrouir*, that is, the *mouse's brother*, because it is like a mouse both in size and colour, and like the mouse creeps in through the chinks in their wind-houses, and feasts on their dried meat. It builds a large compact nest of straw and horse's hair in cavities of the earth, where it lays eight eggs. In a morning before sun-rise it sings in a very agreeable manner.

HIRUNDO URBICA. The martin. Is seen in

summer, but not during the whole year. The inhabitants, however, dislike its appearance, as they believe that it forebodes death; there will either be a destructive sickness in the country, or there will soon be a corpse carried from the house over which it happens to fly. As far as I have been able to learn, it never builds its nest in Feroe.

SECTION XIII.

Amphibia.

IN Feroe there are no frogs, toads, lizards, snakes, or serpents, and no amphibious animals of any kind; a circumstance which is certainly worthy of remark.

SECTION XIV.

FISHES.

Chondropterygii.

RAIA VULGARIS MAXIMA. The skate. In Feroese *skota*. Is caught sometimes among the cod; but as few eat this fish, though it is good when

dried in the air, no other part of it is carried home but the liver, from which train oil is obtained. Some use the skin for shoes. Its eggs, (*pulvinar marinum*) are often found on the sea-shore; they are called by the inhabitants *quita-nuira-pungar*, because they imagine that a kind of nut or bean, which is sometimes cast on shore, is produced in the same bag. This bag, after much search, was found by Olavius in one of these fish;* and it is very remarkable, that in this bag some of the before-mentioned beans† are often found. The skate is considered by the islanders as a very voracious fish; and therefore they say of a man who eats every kind of food, however coarse, *alt éat munni rekur luikasum skota*, that is, “he eats every thing that comes in his way, like the skate.”

RAIA CLAVATA. Is found sometimes like the preceding.

SQUALUS CARCHARIAS. The shark. In Feroese *haakyedling*. Is not very common, at least every year. When a single individual is caught on a cod hook, the liver, which yields train oil, is taken out, and the body thrown away.

* See his *Reisebeskr.* p. 998. tab. L.

† These beans or nuts, which are round and somewhat flat, are, without doubt, the fruit of the *mimosa scandens*, which grows in America. The bag is certainly an animal, and not a vegetable substance, as is fully proved by its smell when it is burnt.

SQUALUS ACANTHIAS. The dog-fish. In Feroese *haavur*. Is found sometimes also among the cod. Some use the skin for polishing, but the fish is seldom eaten. When salted a little it is not bad food.

SQUALUS GLAUCUS. The blue shark. In Feroese *hæmari*. I do not know that any part of this fish is used but the liver, which produces train oil. It is of the ray species, for it has four or five rows of teeth in the upper jaw; its skin is rough; and if I remember right, its blood is warm.

SQUALUS MAXIMUS. The basking-shark, the sun-fish. In Feroese *brugda*. Is seen some years.

Branchiostegi,

CYCLOPTERUS LUMPUS. The lump-sucker, or sea-owl. In Feroese *ronkilse*. Is a very fat, luscious fish, especially when salted and broiled; but none of them are found, except such as are taken from the black-backed gull.

LOPHIUS PISCATORIUS. The toad-fish, or sea-devil. Is very uncommon.

Apodes.

MURÆNA ANGUILLA. The eel. In Feroese *aadlur*. Is found both in the rivulets and small lakes. If I except one of extraordinary size, which I once had an opportunity of seeing, they are in general small, and seldom more than a foot in length. They are not eaten by the Inhabitants.

ANARRHICAS LUPUS. The cat-fish. In Feroese *stainbuytur*. A few individuals of this fish are seen in most places around these islands; but particularly where the bottom is stoney and rough. They are said to bite readily at the hook before the approach of bad weather.

AMMODYTES TOBIANUS. The sand-eel. In Feroese *rebba sild*. Is often seen.

IUGULARES.

GADUS ÆGLEFINUS. The haddock. In Feroese *huisa*. Is caught some years in considerable numbers, and hung up to dry.

GADUS MORHUA. The cod. In Feroese *toskur*. The cod-fishery was formerly of great importance to these islands, but of late years it has considerably decreased. It is much to be regretted that

the inhabitants in general are not acquainted with the salting of cod; and that the sale of salted cod is attended with so many difficulties, that those who might be inclined to exercise their industry in this way are deterred from doing it. The preparation of isinglass from the air-bladders of the cod is also unknown to them.

GADUS BARBATUS. The whiting-pout. In Feroese *reffiskur*. Has a red skin, arising, in all probability, from the red sea-ware, among which it constantly resides close to the land, and on which it, perhaps, sometimes feeds. This kind of cod is exceedingly well tasted. When young it is known by the name of *bergylta*.

GADUS VIRENS. In Feroese *sayur*. Comes in great abundance into the friths and bays some years, and affords the inhabitants a plentiful supply of provisions. They are caught in the afternoon during clear weather. A large kind of this fish, a figure of which may be seen in *Olafsen's Voyage, Tab. 25*, is sometimes caught, but very rarely.

GADUS MOLVA. The ling. In Feroese *longa*. Is caught very seldom in the seas around Feroe. But, perhaps, the hooks and lines used for catching cod are not fit for the ling fishery.

GADUS BROSMIA. In Feroese *brosmia*. Is caught sometimes on the cod hooks. When the sea is rough, and the wind blows towards the land, this fish is cast on shore by hundreds at a time.

When drawn up suddenly from deep water its stomach becomes inverted, and forced up into its mouth; if the liver follows it the fishermen tie a thread round it, as far down the throat as they can reach, and then cut it off. The oil expressed from it is said to be good for burns.

GADUS MERLANGUS. The whiting. In Feroese *giuvtingur*. Is found on the sandy bottoms, but the inhabitants rarely fish for it. They, indeed, do not pay that attention to the catching of this fish which it deserves.

BLENNIUS GUNELLUS. The spotted blenny, the butter-fish. In Feroese *tearabrosma*. Serves as food to some of the sea-fowl; at any rate it is seen often in the bill of the black guillemot, (*colymbus grille.*)

Thoracici.

COTTUS SCORPIO. The father-lasher, or sea-scorpion. In Feroese *klufta-piil*. Is found sometimes on the hooks employed near the shore for catching the say, or red cod. It is seldom eaten.

COTTUS CATAPHRACTUS. The armed bull head. Is very scarce in Feroe.

PLEURONECTES HIPPOGLOSSUS. The halibut. In Feroese *kalvi*. Is very abundant in some years;

the largest are about six feet in length, and are capable of supplying a good meal to thirty or forty persons. The fins and head are excellent. With the same parts good soup may be made; but the rest of the fish is dry and hard, and in general is cut into slices and dried.

PLEURONECTES SOLEA. The sole. PLEURONECTES FLESUS. The flounder. And PLEURONECTES LIMANDA. The dab. Are caught in some parts, but not in great abundance.

PERCA NORVEGICA. In Feroese *kongafiskur*. Is a red kind of perch, which bites sometimes at the hooks used for catching cod.

GASTEROSTEUS ACULEATUS. The three-spined stickle-back. In Feroese *hundesteile*. Is found sometimes in fresh water.

SCOMBER SCOMBRUS. The mackerel. In Feroese *makrelur*. Is very scarce in Feroe; but for several years past some of them have approached the coast and been caught.

Abdominales.

SALMO SALAR. The salmon. Has been caught only once by a peasant, who considered it as a kind of trout. Though the streams in Feroe are too small for salmon, there can be no doubt that they might be found on some parts of the coast,

were the inhabitants acquainted with the method of catching them.

SALMO TRUTTA. The salmon-trout. *SALMO LÆVIS*, *SALMO FARIO.* Is found in the rivulets and streams, and also in the sandy bays.

SALMO ALPINUS. The charr. Is found in *Leinumvatn*, a small lake in Stromoe. It is only in Sorvaagsvatn, in Vaagoe, and Toftevatn, in Osteroe, that it would be worth the trouble to catch this fish.

CLUPEA HARENGUS. The herring. Herrings uncommonly fat were found for several years in great abundance in Skaalefiord, where a building was constructed for the purpose of curing and salting them; but this fishery soon came to nothing.

SECTION XV.

Insects.

DERMESTES TYPOGRAPHUS. In Feroese *veggyattule*. Is observed to make a piping noise in the highways before cold weather.

CARABUS VULGARIS. The common beetle. In Feroese *svarta klugga*. Is common, both in the houses and fields.

STAPHYLINUS MAXILLOSUS. Has no name in Feroe, but is seen in the dunghills.

FORFICULA AURICULARIA. The ear-wig. In Feroese *tvuisterta*. A general opinion prevails here respecting this insect, which is, that if cut into two the parts can unite again.

CIMEX LECTULARIUS. The bug. In Feroese *veggialuus*. Is very uncommon; and, perhaps, is brought into the country with furniture from Copenhagen.

PHALÆNA TINIA SARCITELLA. In Feroese *hexmæur, huscatti*.

PHALÆNA TINIA PELIONELLA.

PHRYGANEÆ. Spring-fly, or summer-fly. In Feroese *hexmæur*.

TIPULA OLERACEA. In Feroese *lokkye*.

The larvæ of these insects, called *greas-orm*, are some years very destructive to the tender plants in the gardens, which they sometimes entirely eat up. In the cultivated fields they destroy whatever has been sown in them as soon as it has shot up; and in the out fields they devour the grass close to the roots, by which means they lay waste whole tracts of land, till they meet with a rivulet, or stream of water, in which a great many of them are often found drowned.

MUSCA DOMESTICA. The common fly. In Feroese *flua*. Is seen in the houses as in other countries,

MUSCA STERCORARIA, and FIMETARIA. Are seen in great numbers in the spring, on the dung of animals, and other filth.

MUSCA CARNARIA, and VOMITORIA. Are also common.

MUSCA PENDULA. Is known by the yellow circle around its body.

MUSCA CÆSAR. The large green fly. Is not found in abundance.

CULEX PIPIENS. Common gnats. Are seen sometimes in whole swarms, but without being particularly troublesome.

TERMES PULSATORIUM. The wood-louse, or death-watch. In Feroese *veggyasmiril*. Ticks like a watch in the wooden walls.

PEDICULI. Are of different kinds, according to the animals which they infest. Those of the puffin, in particular, are known to bite very sharply when they fall upon the human body.

PULEX IRRITANS. Is found here as in other places.

ACARUS LITTORALIS. Is seen upon stones near the sea-shore.

ACARUS HUMANUS SUBCUTANEUS. The ringworm. Is observed in some persons.

PHALANGIUM OPILIO. In Feroese *torva-trodl*. This uncommon insect is known by its long legs.

ARANEA BIPUNCTATA.

CANCER NORVAGICUS. Is found at Qualvig, Haldersviig, and Saxum.

CANCER MÆNAS. In Feroese *krabbi*. Is not eaten by the inhabitants; it is the principal food, however, of the eider-duck.

CANCER ARANEUS. Is not eaten in these islands.

CANCER PULEX. In Feroese *marsiua*. Is found in great abundance in the calm bays under small stones, at the time of low water.

CANCER SQUILLA. Is not eat in Feroe. A few only are found sometimes when the nets are drawn on shore. I have found them also in the stomach of the cod.

CANCER SERRATUS. (Fabrici.) Is known by its serrated back; it was found in the stomach of a cod.

CANCER BERNHARDUS. The hermit-crab. Is found always in a shell, which it drags along with it; and in which it conceals itself when it rests. A figure of it may be seen in *Olafsen, Tab. 11, fig. 1, 2*.

CANCER FÆROENSIS. Is a small crab not above half an inch in length, which is seen sometimes in the bays. A figure of it is given in *Muller's Zool. Dan. Tab. 114, f. 1, 2, 3*.

ONISCUS PSORA. Was brought to me by some of the fishermen. This insect is a torment to the salt-water fish, as it creeps into their gills

and destroys them. A figure of it may be seen in *Strom, Tab. 1, fig. 2, 3.*

MONOCULUS PISCINUS. Sea-louse. In Feroese *fiskaluus*. Is found on the large salt-water fish. A figure of it may be seen in *Strom, Tab. 1, fig. 4, 5, 6.*

To the Feroese insects may be added also *tipula oleracea, tipula hortorum, bombyx salicis, carabus piceus, carabus nivalis, curculio levigatus, syphus lapponum, syphus pendula, and idotea acuminata.*

SECTION XVI.

Snakes, Mollusca Testacea, Zoolites, and Zoophites.

GORDIUS MARINUS. Is a worm which is found rolled together in the flesh and entrails of the cod.

GORDIUS ARENARIUS. Of this worm I fished up a great many with apparatus for catching mollusca, in the bay of Vestmanhavn.

LUMBRICUS TERRESTRIS. The common earth-worm. Is most common in the gardens, where it gnaws the young plants, and draws them down

to the earth. It is used as bait for catching trout.

LUMBRICUS MARINUS, or LITTORALIS. In Feroese *fioromakur*. Is found in the sand on the shores of the bays and inlets.

LUMBRICUS OXYRUS. I fished up this insect from the mud in the bay of Vestmanhavn.

LIMAX ATER. The black snail. In Feroese *sniyrl*. Is pretty common.

LIMAX AGRESTIS. Both this snail and the preceding make great devastation in the gardens. I know no better method of destroying their larvæ, so hurtful to gardens, than to place in them a tame duck, which will soon eat them up.

DORIS OBVELATA. In Feroese *siousniil*. Of this mollusca I found several on the sea-coast at Quivig; and by comparing it with that represented in Muller's *Zool. Dan. Tab. 47, fig. 1, 2*, I concluded, either that Muller's drawing was taken from a very imperfect specimen, or that mine might be another species; I therefore made a drawing of mine, and sent the animal and drawing to the Society of Natural History at Copenhagen, where it was known to be of the same species as Muller's; but as it was exceedingly perfect and large, it was thought worthy of being engraved, and may be seen in the *Transactions of the Society, No. I. Tab. 5, fig. 1—6*.

APHRODITA ACULEATA. The aculeated aphrodite, or sea-mouse. In Feroese *grundmuus*. Is

found among the sea-ware in the bay of Kollefjord. The hair of this marine animal, and the prickles which stand out at the sides, which have a resemblance on a small scale to the quills of the porcupine, display such a change of colours, gold, purple-red, azure, blue, and green, as delights the eye of the beholder; its feet are no less singular, for the animal has on each side spathæ, or vaginæ, (sheaths) like the half bent feelers of the snail: several small, black, short bristles, as fine as horse-hair, project from these sheaths, which the animal can throw out or draw in at pleasure; and with these hairs, or bristles, it moves its body forwards.

NEREIS NOCTILUCA. The sea-fairy. In Feroese *mureld*. Which in the evenings of autumn emits a phosphoric light in the sea, when put in motion by the agitation of oars.

NEREIS PELAGICA. In Feroese *siouorm*. This animal I found under small stones on the sea-shore near Siouguard, in Stromoe.

ACTINIA DIGITATA. In Feroese *siou-kunta*. Of this animal I found, on the sea-shore at Quivig, a very pretty variety, which may be seen in the *Transactions of the Society of Natural History at Copenhagen, Vol. IV. No. 1, Tab. 5, fig. 7, 8*. This mollusca has a very beautiful appearance in the water when it spreads out on all sides its numerous antennæ, like a glory. I had two standing in my window for several days, and one

night one of them produced nineteen living young ones, which, however small, plainly displayed their antennæ.

Sometime after I saw two in a large hole on the east side of the strand at Quivig. They were uncommonly large, each about eight inches in diameter, and plainly perceptible as the sun darted his rays through the water and illuminated their antennæ. Next day they were brought to me by a man who had picked them up, but I was then ready to set out on a visitation tour, and on my return, after a few days absence, I found them dead in consequence of some hurt they had sustained when taken up. In shape they bore a great resemblance to the former; one was pale yellow, with bright red stripes, the other dark yellow, with purple-red stripes; both had a large number of antennæ; which, as far as I could observe, were placed in a double circle, and several of them had stripes perceptible at a considerable distance. Perhaps it might be the *actinia crassicornis*.

LERNEA PECTORALIS. Lernæa, or plague. In Feroese *fiskaluus*. Is very common on the halibut. *Zool. Dan. Tab. 33.*

HOLOTHURIA ELEGANS. This beautiful purple-red holothuria I found once in a hole on the west side of the strand at Quivig. *Zool. Dan. Tab. 1.*

HOLOTHURIA PENTACTES. In Feroese *trals-*

rassar. Is thrown up sometimes on the shore among the sea-ware.

SÆPIA LOLIGO. The sea-sleeve. In Feroese *hegguslokur*. This is a troublesome insect to the inhabitants of Feroe, for when very numerous in the bays and friths, it prevents the cod from biting at the hook, so that the fishermen sometimes must return with their boats empty.

MEDUSA. Sea-nettle. In Feroese *qualspuigia*. Of this species there are seen here the *capillata* and *aurita*; and, perhaps, some more kinds which I never had an opportunity of observing. They swarm in the friths during autumn; and in consequence of the pretty fringes with which many of them are ornamented, I viewed them rather with satisfaction than curiosity.

ASTERIAS RUBENS. The five-fingered starfish. In Feroese *krosfiskur*. Is very common; they have in general five points, or rays, though I found a few which had nine, thirteen, and even fifteen. I have been assured by many persons, that they place themselves upon the muscles, gnaw a small round hole in the shell, and through this hole suck up the contents.

ASTERIAS AURANCIACA. Is very scarce.

ECHINUS ESCULENTUS. In Feroese *eyilkier*. Is found both large and small; but I never saw any of them petrified.

CLIO. Is a mollusca very uncommon in Feroe. I, however, saw one which my friend J.

C. Diurhuus found among the fresh sea-ware at Næs, in Osteroe. It was an inch in length, and in form had a great resemblance to a bird; the back and the extremity of its naked wings were of a beautiful purple-red colour. As long as it was alive it continually fluttered with its wings.

CHITON CIMICINUS. The oscabrion. Is found only at high tides, on the sides of large stones; it has seven or eight shields.

LEPAS TULIPA, or FOLIACEA. In Feroese *giæar*. This testaceous animal, which certainly may be considered as one of the prettiest of its kind, adheres to the rocks in the deep parts of the sea. When a fisherman's hook fastens in it he often loses both the hook and line; but sometimes it breaks loose from the place to which it adheres, and he is so fortunate as to draw it up. In this manner are obtained those beautiful specimens seen in cabinets of natural history. It is often covered with several kinds of *sertularia* and other species of *serpula*. A figure of it, but not very correct, may be seen in *Olafsen's Voyage*, Tab. 2, fig. 13.

LEPAS BALANUS. The common barnacle. Is found adhering to the preceding as well as to muscles, and very often in whole clusters.

LEPAS PLICATA. Is seen in the same places as the preceding and following.

LEPAS BALANOIDES. The small striated acorn-shell. Is very common; they often cover

the bottoms of the hills which are under water at flood tide, or at least washed by it when the waves run high.

LEPAS ANATIFERA. Is found adhering to drifted wood which has lain a long time in the sea.

LEPAS DIADEMA. The whale acorn-shell. A large whale, which a few years ago was driven on shore on one of the northern islands, was entirely covered with these mollusca; they were depressed almost half an inch in the skin. Small lepades of the same kind, which is very singular, were said to be found entirely concealed under the skin.

MYA TRUNCATA. The abrupt gaper. In Feroese *smirslingur*. Are found at Qualboe, in Suderoe; and at Sorvaag, in Vaagoe, where they are caught and eat.

CARDIUM ECHINATUM. The thorny cockle. In Feroese *yakuskiel*. Of these I found great abundance at Qualboe. A figure of them may be seen in *Zool. Dan. Tab. 13*.

PECTEN ISLANDICUS. In Feroese *ruipuskiel*. The empty shells of these are found sometimes on the sea-coast.

VENUS ISLANDICA. In Feroese *kuskiel*. Is pretty common in the same places as the former, *Zool. Dan. Tab. 28*.

VENUS BOREALIS, and VENUS GRISCA. These

I have fished up from the bottom of the sea in the frith of Vestmanhavn.

TELLINA FÆROENSIS.

TELLINULA FRAGILISSIMA, and

OSTREA MINUTA. I have often fished up these from the bottom of the sea in the frith of Vestmanhavn, on the side nearest to Vaagoe.

ANOMIA SQUAMULA. Adheres to the small stones at the bottom of the sea, in the same places as the preceding.

SOLEN ENSIS. In Feroese *langskæl*. Is found sticking in the sand at the bay of Kollefjord, and at Sorvaag. At the latter place they are eaten.

MYTILUS EDULIS. The common muscle. In Feroese *kreaklingur*. Are found in various places, particularly in Stromoe, where the inhabitants use them as food.

MYTILUS MODIOLUS. The great muscle. In Feroese *ova*. Is not so common as the preceding; they are three or four times as large, and are equally good to eat, though not so delicate. Very often they are found adhering to the roots of the large sea-ware. *Zool. Dan. Tab. 53.*

MYTILLUS BARBATUS. In Feroese *oculingur*. Is not so common. It is here believed that this is a young one of the preceding.

BUCCINUM LAPILLUS. The purple whelk. In Feroese *kuingur*. A name given to all those of the *cochlea* kind. It is very common. I found many of them at Quivig, and particularly in the

bay of Vestmanhavn, where they served as habitations to the hermit, or soldier-crab. According to Strom's account, there is found in this animal a small green bladder containing a liquor, with which if you write your name on a piece of linen, and wash it with a lye after it has been dried in the sun, it will appear of a beautiful and lasting purple colour.

BUCCINUM UNDATUM. Is found pretty large in the bay of Vestmanhavn. *Olafsen's Voyage, Tab. 10, fig. 4, Zool. Dan. Tab. 50.*

MUREX CLATHRATUS. I found once in the stomach of a cod.

TROCHUS ZISYPHINUS. The livid top. Is found at Vestmanhavn.

STROMBUS PESPELICANUS. The pelican's foot. Is very scarce; but I obtained a specimen of it from Sandegyerde. *Zool. Dan. Tab. 87.*

NERITA LITTORALIS, and

TURBO LITTOREUS, are common on the sea-shore.

PATELLA VULGARIS. The common limpet. In Feroese *flia*. Is found in great abundance on the sea-shore. They are eaten by the inhabitants. I once tasted them, but I thought them too hard and indigestible.

PATELLA FUSCA. Is very rare. It is found in the stomach of the cod.

MILLEPORA POLYMORPHA. I have found these in pretty large masses of a calcareous

nature, on the sands at Qualboe; and in many places they cover the sea-shore with a red crust. A piece of trap which I picked up on the strand, was on one side coated with this red crust, but it had on it several small pointed elevations, from which were projected fine red threads, that retired back again on the least touch. These were, no doubt, polypes which resided in this millepora.

FLUSTRA FOLIACEA, and FLUSTRA PILOSA. Are sometimes, but rarely, brought up by the fishing-hooks.

SPONGIA MANUS. In Feroese *narravottur*. Is cast on shore from the sandy bays. Having conceived an idea that this sponge might be used to kill rats, I endeavoured to fry it in grease; but in whatever manner fried it would not afterwards extend itself. It is used for washing and scouring.

CORALLINA OFFICINALIS. Adheres in great abundance to stones, and also to muscle-shells. When young it is red; but that which has been some time torn off from the rocks by the force of the waves, is white.

SERTULARIA ABIETINA. Ellis, Tab. 1, 2.

SERTULARIA FALCATA. Ellis, Tab. 7, 11.

SERTULARIA CUPRESSINA. Ellis, Tab. 3, 5.

SERTULARIA OPERCULATA. Ellis, Tab. 3, 6.

Are all found on the rocks where the water is

pretty deep; and very often on the *lepas tulipa*, along with which they are drawn up by the fishermen, when they happen to be caught by their hooks.

CHAPTER III.

ECONOMICAL DESCRIPTION OF FEROE.

SECTION I.*Agriculture.*

THE causes which prevent agriculture from being brought to a greater state of improvement in Feroe, are partly the climate, and shortness of the summer, which permit barley alone to come to maturity; and partly the steep and uneven situation of the land, which render the conveyance of manure to the fields difficult, and make it impossible in most places to use a plough or a harrow. The spring fishery also takes place exactly at the time most proper for cultivating the earth. The whole agricultural process, in regard to weeding, reaping, threshing, drying, and cleaning the corn, is, in consequence of the want of the necessary implements, proper instruction, and sufficient house-room, connected with

so many difficulties, and the people in general are so indolent, that the quantity of grain they obtain is hardly worth the labour and expense; so that in most places the land is cultivated, not so much for the sake of corn, as to procure straw for thatching their houses, and to increase their crop of grass the year following.

All the land in Feroe is divided into in-field, called *boe*, that is, land which is cultivated; and out-field, called *haver*, that is, the uncultivated land, which alone is used as common pasture; but both these are subdivided into several other kinds of fields; and these serve as rules by which each man's proportion of rent, taxes, assessment, and contributions, is calculated.

According to the estimation of Captain Born, the proportion between in-field and out-field, or between the cultivated and uncultivated land in Feroe, is as 1 to 60. In Stromoe, which, without doubt, is the least fertile part of all these islands, one, in some places, may have from six to eight returns; but in general the produce is much less. Sandoe and Suderoe are the most fertile, but particularly the latter, in which it is not uncommon to have from sixteen to twenty returns. The cause of this difference is partly the climate, which in Suderoe is much milder than it is more to the north; and partly in the situation of the islands, as more or less exposed to the sun. Besides, I have remarked that the

inhabitants of Stromoe do not begin to till the earth till late in the spring.

The manure consists, for the most part, of cow's dung, with a mixture of dirt and old hay-bands; some increase their manure also with sea-ware; but in most places where it is cast on shore in abundance, it is divided according to the proportion of each farmer's land, and thrown together in heaps on the strand, where it lies some days to rot, before it is used. In some places it is cast on shore in the autumn, at which period it is generally conveyed to the fields, and spread out over them; but in other places it is cast on shore in the month of May, the very time at which it is used. In places where it can not be cast on shore, but where it grows near the border of the sea, it is cut by means of small scythes, or sickles, made fast to a long shaft, and fished up into boats. In many parts of these islands as much, and sometimes more, land is fertilized with sea-ware, than with manure formed of cow-dung and other filth. The sea-ware cut in this manner is the sea-girdle, (*fucus digitatus*,) and that cast on shore consists of the same, and of other kinds of marine plants; but in some parts it is a kind of sea-weed called *sluigii*, (*ulva*,) which produces the finest and strongest manure.

In many places, however, the inhabitants are deficient in that industry which is necessary to increase the quantity of manure. All the offals

when cattle are slaughtered, and the garbage of the fish and fowls that are caught, might be converted into excellent manure, but in consequence of some superstitious prejudices they are consigned to the next rivulet, which carries them away. The farmers know how to increase the strength of their manure, by means of the sharp lye in which worsted stockings and woollen cloth have been fulled; but a much better method would be to have a small gutter, or drain, made from the cow-house to the dunghill; yet this would be of little use, as some of the dunghills in Feroe are surrounded merely by dry stones thrown together, between which the whole substance of it would run off, after the dung had been thoroughly drenched with rain and snow water. Some of the farmers, indeed, make their dunghills in deep holes, where the liquid part remains; but as these holes in general are close to the dwelling-houses, the smell which proceeds from them is often prejudicial to the health.

The manure is carried out to the fields by horses, in a kind of square baskets called *loiber*, one of which hangs on each side of the animal; but if the road is too steep for a horse to bear a burden in that manner, the farmer himself, and his servants, must carry these baskets on their backs. They, however, render this labour easier by dividing the way between them, so that each carries the burden a short distance, and

is then relieved by another; the second person is then relieved by a third, and so on till they arrive at the destined place.

When manure is carried to the fields on horses it is called *a raia*; and the whole apparatus placed on the horse's back, either when he carries manure or peat for fuel, is called *tuyggind*, and consists of the following articles:

1. Some sheep-skins with the wool on them, which are placed on the animal's back to prevent it from being galled.

2. A mat, made of small bands of hay fastened together with coarse woollen thread. This mat is laid upon the horse's back for the same purpose as the sheep-skins; but it hangs a good way down on both sides.

3. The *klibbari*, or crook-saddle, (*See Plate II, fig. 2,*) which consists of two strong pieces of wood, in form not unlike a pair of cards; but the shaft of the one has a hole, into which the shaft of the other is fitted, by which means they adhere together. This kind of saddle is placed upon the horse's back, and bound fast with woollen bands, one of which passes round the animal's breast, while another passes under the tail; and these bands, particularly the latter, to prevent them from galling the animal are wrapped round with wool.

4. Two baskets, called *leipar*, (*See Plate II, fig. 1.*) A basket of this kind is generally two

feet in height, and sixteen inches on each side. It consists of four posts, joined together in a square form by some thin pieces of wood, three or four inches in breadth, and half an inch in thickness. The bottom is formed of three small pieces of the same kind, the extremities of which are fixed in two small cross pieces placed parallel to each other; but the ends of one of these cross pieces are round, so that they can play in two holes made at the extremities of two of the side-posts; and by these means the bottom can be opened at pleasure. A small peg stuck into a hole in the lowest of the lateral bars, and which is made fast to the other cross piece by means of a piece of woollen rope, serves to keep the bottom from falling down. These baskets, or creels, are suspended one on each side of the horse's back by pieces of rope made fast to two of the corner-posts, and which pass over the projecting end of the crook-saddle. The girth, or band, which goes round the horse's breast, prevents the burden from gliding back when the horse ascends a hill; and that which goes beneath the tail prevents it from falling over his neck when he goes down a declivity; but when the road is very steep it is necessary to have another band, which is fastened to the lower end of one of the corner-posts, and proceeds round the horse's thighs; otherwise, if the animal were going down a steep descent the burden would

fall entirely on his neck. When it is necessary to empty these creels, or baskets, of peat, or dung, the bottom is loosened by taking out the small peg, and the peat, or dung, then drops down on the ground. The contents of one of these baskets may be about 3300, or 3500 cubic inches; but those used for carrying dung are somewhat less, and the larger ones are not always entirely filled. The quantity transported in two such baskets is called *kliiv*. In the island of Lewis, which is one of the Hebrides, I saw the same method employed to carry peat.

When the manure is thus carried out to the fields, it is spread over them, in order that it may be afterwards covered with earth for receiving the seed, or it is left uncovered to increase the crop of grass. When the land is not too old, or too much overgrown with moss, this manure produces a good crop of grass in the course of two years; but it can not be denied that a great portion of the substance of the manure may evaporate, and consequently it cannot afford much nourishment to the roots of the grass. But those only who have such a small portion of land that they cannot give up any of their grass fields to be employed for the sowing of corn, make use of this method; yet there can be no doubt, that if the manure were mixed with the mould, and corn sown, or potatoes planted in it, a good crop might be obtained, and the land would

afterwards produce excellent grass for several years, though there are some who obstinately persist in asserting the contrary. If the inhabitants would employ the large heaps of peat-dust which have been accumulating through several centuries to a great height, so as to be as large as some of their houses, they would render a great service to their fields, which would afterwards produce excellent grass.

The nature of the soil I have already mentioned, and also that the rocks are covered with a very thin crust of earth. In some places it is so thin, that the rock is concealed from view only by a stratum of grassy turf, which the islanders shave off with their spades; the manure is then spread over the bare rock, and the grass turf is again laid down with the earthy side uppermost, into which the seed is chopped with a spade.

A corn-field, or rather corn-bed, in Feroe is called *tai*, and, in general, is from eight to twelve feet in breadth; but at one side of it is a high bank, from which it proceeds in a sloping direction to the other side, where the next bed begins with a high bank also. The beds, arranged in small stripes of this kind, extend on the sides of the hills from the top to the bottom, except where the intervention of some inequality, dale, or eminence, renders it necessary to give them another direction. The bank, or higher side of the bed, must always be turned from the sun,

that the bed may have an oblique exposure to that luminary, but a contrary disposition is often observed.

Ploughs are not used in Feroe; and it may be readily conceived, from what has been already said, that in most places it is impossible to employ them. But, however much it is to be wished that some means might be devised of lessening the agricultural labour of the Feroese, in places where the situation of the ground will admit of the plough, so many impediments and difficulties occur to prevent the introduction of it, that there is reason to apprehend that many centuries will elapse before this wish can be accomplished, or the object of it be in any manner obtained. The prejudice of the natives against every innovation, or any thing new, with whatever advantage it might be attended; want of ploughs, and if they had them, the scarcity of timber necessary to repair them, or to make new ones in case they should be worn out, form so many obstacles, almost insurmountable. To this may be added, that the inhabitants would find it difficult to procure the necessary ropes; and their horses being accustomed to bear burdens, and not to draw, would not be easily habituated to the labour of the plough. But the most important of all is the steepness of the ground, and the crooked, or uneven, form of the corn-fields, or rather beds, which would render it necessary

to level and prepare them with a spade, without which it would be almost impossible that a plough could be employed in them. One of the chief objects in using ploughs and harrows is to free the ground from the grass-roots, in order that the whole nourishment of the soil may be applied to the seed entrusted to it; but the object of the Feroese in their agricultural labours is to check the growth of the grass the first summer, but without destroying its roots, that the land, when it has yielded a crop of corn, may produce for several years after abundance of grass; and by this method they attain so well what they have in view, that their grass is thicker and stronger than any produced on the cultivated land in Denmark, the artificial meadows excepted. Even if the inhabitants could accomplish the same thing in their confined and narrow patches of land by the plough, which I very much doubt, it is not certain that the crops they would thus obtain would indemnify them for the decrease they would sustain in their grass. Two of the natives of Feroe went to Norway to learn the use of the plough, and the method of constructing it, but it does not appear that they ever were of any service in this respect to their countrymen.

Some years ago the plough was introduced, and actually employed with a considerable degree of zeal, at Steegard, in Vaagoe, but it was soon laid aside, for what reason I do not know; and as

the land which was ploughed is at present not in the best state, it is much to be wished that the experiment had never been made, or that it had been continued.

Where the sea-ware is cast on shore in abundance in autumn, it is immediately used; and some of the land is tilled at a late period of that season; but the usual time for tilling the land is from about the middle of April to the middle of May. The latter month I consider as too late, especially as the summer is so short that the corn can not come to maturity. To begin in March, if the weather will permit, is, in my opinion, not too early.

In most places the inhabitants begin to turn up the turf at the upper end of the bed, because by adopting this method they are not under the necessity of stooping so much, and their backs are less exposed to be hurt; but in many parts of Suderoe they begin at the lower end, which is certainly better, for the earth which is thrown up falls closer together. At the higher side of the bed the grasso turf is shaven off along its whole length, to the breadth of twelve or eighteen inches, with a spade, the form of which may be seen in Plate II, fig. 3, and dung is then strewed over the bed, but not on the place from which the turf has been taken.

The earth is dug up in the place from which the turf was taken, and thrown over the spread-

out dung, and the grassy turf being put into the trench which remains, is trodden down with the feet till it becomes level with the lower side of the next bed; so that the breadth of this bed becomes increased by the breadth of the trench dug in the first bed. This trench thus filled up, is strewed over with dung, and, together with the bed to which it is added, is covered with mould by repeated operations of the same kind. But what the second bed gains in breadth on its lower side, it loses by the trench dug on its higher side; and what the first bed loses in breadth by the trench dug on its higher side, it gains on its lower side by the addition of the trench which is dug in the next bed on the other side; and this takes place throughout all the beds that are tilled. A piece of land prepared in this manner is called *velta*. If the ground is wet, a small drain is made between the beds to let the water run off. But the earth is not in every place of the same depth; where the mould is to be thrown up it is often very shallow, and therefore, to obtain a sufficiency of mould it is necessary to make the trench wider; and when the earth becomes deeper, the trench is then contracted. The consequence of this is, that the fields, or beds, become crooked, which not only gives them a more disagreeable appearance, but spoils them; as the rain and snow water not having a free course to run off, become stagnant in

the bendings, and render the soil damp, sour, and barren. The beds which become crooked generally remain so, for no one ever takes the trouble to make them straight.

When the ground has been prepared in the manner here described, a man with a bag on his arm, throws out a handful of seed at each step he takes, or the seed is strewed with the hands over each bed separately.

In general no other corn is sown here but common barley, which is naturalized in Feroe; and the seed, as is the case with every other kind used in these islands, is always kiln-dried in autumn; for it is allowed, that seed prepared in this manner stands better the frost in the spring than that which is undried. I have several times made experiments by sowing Danish barley, which throve exceedingly well; but the inhabitants prefer their own seed, because they imagine that it costs them nothing; whereas if they used seed from Denmark, they would be obliged to purchase it with money. Besides, they cannot always be certain that the Danish corn has not been damaged by the carriage, in which case it would be improper for seed.

Twice by way of experiment I sowed oats; the straw was strong, yet the ears were weak: but it must be observed, that Quivig, where this experiment was made, is one of the worst places for corn in Feroe, consequently it is impossible to

say, that what failed here might not succeed in some other part of the country. A gentleman in Osteroe sowed oats in the same manner, and one year had twelve returns, but in another, less. A peasant in Midvaag sowed oats also twice in land which had been tilled for barley, and his attempts were attended with the same result as mine. But it appears to me, that the cause of his failure was, that the oats were sown in land which was too rich, and too highly manured.

The gentleman above-mentioned sowed rye twice in the spring, but it never grew up, and consequently had been spoilt. I repeated a like experiment with rye three times, but my attempts were equally unsuccessful. The first time I sowed it in the spring; it grew up exceedingly well, but became very weak. The second time I sowed it before Michaelmas; it came up, but it did not live through the winter. The last time I sowed it in the middle of August; it sprung up the same autumn, but at the end of winter, when the snow had disappeared, I found only two shoots remaining, which I considered as rye. As the place where they stood was wet, I transplanted them into my garden, but they turned out to be field brome-grass, (*bromus secalinus*,) which I have never since found in Feroe. It might, however, be worth while to make experiments, as is done in some parts of Norway; that is, to sow rye in spring among the barley, by which means

two crops are obtained the first year, one of barley, and the next one of rye.

In regard to pease, though experiments made with these had not been attended with success, I sowed some in the year 1792, but in land which had been manured for barley. They grew up and bloomed, but I obtained no fruit. If any success is to be expected with pease, they ought to be sown in land which has not been prepared with manure, and not later than the end of March; and after all there will be many obstacles to prevent them from coming to maturity.

Various kinds of turnips are sown here, and attain to an uncommon degree of perfection; but particularly the Feroe turnips, which are thought to have become changed in their nature by being introduced into these islands. They grow to an extraordinary size, and are remarkably well tasted. The turnips here, in some places, particularly at Kirkeboe, are as large in diameter as a common platter.

Potatoes grow in Feroe, and begin now to be more cultivated than formerly; though much less than they deserve. But I shall now proceed to give a farther account of the agricultural labours of the Feroese in regard to their corn.

When the ground has been prepared as already described, it is sown with barley, but as these islanders have no harrows, for the situation of the ground would not admit of them, a farmer

collects all his family, men, women, and children, who walk side by side from one end of the piece of ground to the other, and hack the earth with their spades till the seed becomes mixed with the mould; and instead of rolling, a man, or boy, beats the earth with a flat board, and breaks the projecting lumps, so that the seed is better covered by it.

When the corn shoots up, the grass and weeds which would choak it are plucked up: this labour is performed about Midsummer by the whole family; and if the same operation be necessary it is repeated fourteen days after. The corn does not ripen till Michaelmas; but it never comes to the same maturity as in Denmark.

In reaping the labourers grasp the straw with their left hand, and cut it off a little above the roots, with a kind of knives. It is then bound up in sheaves; and the sheaves are placed on the highest side of the field above each other, in such a manner that the ears hang over the brink, that the water, in case the corn has been cut wet, may run off, and that it may be better dried by the wind. After being exposed in this manner a few days, it is carried home; and the ears are separated from it by picking them off with the hands; but a machine invented for this purpose by a person named Debes, has lately been introduced into these islands, and is now almost generally used. The straw, when cleansed from

grass and other weeds, is bound up in small bundles, and employed for thatching the houses; but where the farmer has more of it than is necessary for this purpose, and where there is a scarcity of hay, it is given as food to the cows.

The corn is dried sometimes in an out-house set apart for that operation, the walls of which are constructed of earth and stones; but in general, the end of some stable, or cow-house, is partitioned off for the same purpose. The partition is built of stones and clay; but it has in the middle an aperture about two feet in width, covered at the top with a flat stone. Beams, which proceed from this partition to the gavel of the house, serve to support small joists, or laths, placed at the distance of four inches from each other; and these are covered with straw, on which the corn is laid to the depth of several inches. These laths are at the distance of about four feet from the floor. A fire is then made in the aperture before-mentioned, and is constantly maintained till the corn is dry, which is commonly in from twenty-four to thirty-six hours. Though this method of drying may appear dangerous, it seldom happens that it ever occasions fires.

Those who cultivate only a small quantity of corn dry it on a hoop suspended above the fireplace, and over which an old net has been spread.

The operations of drying, thrashing, and cleaning the corn, is performed in Feroe by women; and it would be considered, particularly in some places, as very indecent if men should perform that kind of labour. When the woman who attends the drying-house, or kiln, thinks the corn is sufficiently dry, it is taken off; and if there be a large quantity of it, she is assisted on this occasion by one or two girls. A door is then placed lengthwise on the floor, but in a somewhat sloping direction, with one end of it resting against the wall, and on this door a certain quantity of the ears are deposited; the three females then get upon the door with their backs turned towards the wall, and with their feet tread upon the ears till they are pretty well bruised. Some extend a rope before them, which they lay hold off with their hands to assist them in this labour, and to enable them to jump up with more facility:

The women then place themselves on their knees, and with a piece of wood shaped somewhat like a bat, called *treskyutrea*, (the form of which may be seen in Plate II, fig. 4,) thresh, or beat the corn in measure, and then it is cleaned. One of the girls holds a kind of tray, by means of which she separates the chaff from the corn; and the other has a sieve, consisting of a skin stretched over a hoop, but without holes, into which the winnowed corn is thrown by the first

girl. This sieve is then whirled round in the hands, in order that the dirt and bad grains may rise to the top, and these being picked out, the corn is put into another tray, where it is winnowed for the last time.

The labour of drying and cleansing the corn is not entrusted to unexperienced girls, but to such as are fully acquainted with the whole process, and capable of performing it in a complete manner. The woman who attends the drying-house, and superintends the whole operation, receives, besides her victuals and a live lamb, what the inhabitants call *turkagiek*n; that is, as much corn of each drying as she can hold between her hands; also *sodnkieiakodn*, the ears which in drying fall down between the laths, and are either over-dried or half-burnt; and *lattukodn*, or the chaff which remains after winnowing, and which she divides with the girls who have assisted her to winnow and thresh.

The corn is generally ground in hand-mills, which are of a very simple and rude construction. They consist of two stones, which rest on a kind of table, or boards nailed together for the purpose. In a hole near the edge of the upper one is fixed a handle, by means of which the stone is turned round with the right hand, while the left is employed in supplying a hole in the centre with corn from a box standing on one side; and one, or two, and sometimes three girls, who

lighten their labour by singing in cadence, are employed in this labour, according to the size of the mill. The meal which falls from the mill upon the table, is every now and then scraped together and taken away; but as no furrows are cut in the stones, and as they are not made rough when they become smooth, the meal is exceedingly fine; but the operation of grinding is much slower. As no more meal is ground at one time than may be necessary for the consumption of one day, grinding becomes a daily labour, which, when the family is large, affords sufficient occupation to one girl.

Water-mills, therefore, are a great relief to families, as they ease them of part of their labour. They are become much more common than formerly, so that at present there are in all the islands about twenty of them; but there ought to be many more, as the numerous falls in the rivulets near most of the villages afford very convenient situations for erecting them.

The construction of a water-mill in Feroe is exceedingly simple. The building, for the most part, consists merely of wood, the roof being supported by four posts or pillars; but to save timber these pillars are sometimes built of stone mixed with mud: it is entirely open below, so that the water can have a free course through it. On the ground is placed a loose beam, having in the middle a piece of iron with a smooth

hole in it, which, however, does not pass through the beam. This hole is made to receive the gudgeon of a perpendicular axle, which proceeds up to the mill-stone, and this axle supplies the place of a crown wheel and spindle. To the upper end of the axle is fixed a round rod of iron, which passes through the lower stone, and which supports the iron cross that bears the upper mill-stone. At the lower end of the axle there are eight leaves, or boards, mortised into it, about eighteen inches in length, a foot in breadth, and from one to one and a quarter inch in thickness. These leaves, which perform the part of a water-wheel, do not stand exactly in a perpendicular, but a somewhat oblique direction, so as to turn their flat sides a little up towards the water, which falls upon them; and the spout which must give the water a sudden fall, is placed with its lower end close to these leaves. From one end of the beam lying on the ground, which supports the axle and the upper mill-stone, a piece of wood rises in a perpendicular direction towards the mill-work, where it rests on wedges; and by pushing in, or drawing out these wedges, the upper stone can be raised up or lowered at pleasure.

A mill of this kind requires no more water than a common mill. The mill-stone makes a hundred revolutions in a minute; but as the stones, in general, are small, and have no fur-

rows in them, they grind slowly, and are not well calculated for the preparation of grits, or barley. The erection of a mill of this kind costs about fifty rix-dollars.

SECTION II.

Hay-making.

GRASS grows in abundance on land which has been cultivated; but it is of a different quality, according to the nature of the soil and the situation of the ground, and according to the length of time which it has been cultivated. In the first and second year after the land has been tilled it produces the largest quantity of grass; but it is coarse and full of sour plants, so that it can never be converted into good hay; the best grass is produced in the third and succeeding year. The period during which land, after being tilled, can produce grass, depends also on the nature and situation of the ground; in some places this period is confined to six or seven years; in others it extends to eight or ten. The longer a field remains untilled the grass is finer, but less in quantity; for the moss, which increases more and more, impedes its growth. The hay

harvest in Feroe does not begin till nearly the middle of August. The instrument used for cutting the grass is a small scythe fixed to a long shaft. As the grass-fields, or rather grass-beds, are sloping and narrow—and as they have on one side a high grassy brink, and are in many places full of stones, the grass can be cut more conveniently with a small scythe than a large one; on account of its lightness it can be moved also with greater quickness, so that an active man can in the course of a day perform more work than might be expected: but the scythe must be kept very sharp, and for that purpose the mower has always ready at hand a whetstone, which is put into a small wooden trough with water. The fine grass on the oldest fields, called *fodn*, is cut first, for the grass on these comes soonest to maturity; and then that on the land last tilled, which is called *nylændi*; but in consequence of the changeableness of the weather, farmers seldom cut more than they have people to take care of, and prepare for being stacked. If it threatens rain the cut grass is suffered to lie on the ground as long as the rain continues, because it can bear several days' rain without being much injured. But if the weather be good it is collected into small heaps, not much bigger than a mole-hill, thrown so loosely together that the wind and the sun's rays can easily pass through it: this labour is called *a kluka*. When it has remained in this

manner two days, exposed to the sun and the wind, it is again turned and shaken several times, according to the state of the weather; and this is called *a fæara*. If the hay, which after this preparation is half, or almost entirely dry, should receive any rain, it sustains great injury; and therefore, when rain is expected, or when it is to lie out all night, three or four of the before-mentioned small heaps are thrown into one; but the hay is pressed well down, and the outer ends of the grass are collected a little and twisted together. This twisted wisp is placed with its semicircular side uppermost, and is distinguished by the name of *nulvinger*. These twisted heaps are capable of standing a considerable shower, and even several days dampness, without being penetrated by the moisture: in the morning, or when the weather is good, they are again spread out, in order that they may be better dried. The whole labour of hay-making is performed with the naked hands; consequently, the people must be continually in a stooping posture: rakes are used in a few places; but it is difficult to get rid of old customs.

It is natural to suppose, that hay which has been almost dry, when it becomes penetrated by rain should lose both its strength and colour; and this is frequently the case in the damp climate of Feroe, where it often rains for several weeks without intermission, during the hay-harvest, so

that the hay, whatever care and diligence may be employed, is almost entirely spoilt.

When the hay is fit for being stacked, it is collected together, and carried by the hay-makers in their arms to the place where the stack is to be erected, which is generally on the highest side of the field; and great care is taken that it may be in a place secure from the water that runs down from the ground above it. The stack is trod down and smoothed in the usual manner; but two or three ropes of twisted hay are placed over the top of it, and these ropes being stretched, the ends of them are made fast to the bottom of the stack. If it stands, however, in a spot exposed to the wind, a stone three or four pounds in weight is tied to the end of each rope, to prevent the stack from being overturned; and in some places, especially where the ground is steep, the stack for a few days must be propped with poles, one end of which is fixed in the earth, and the other in the upper part of the stack.

The duration of the hay-harvest depends on the nature of the weather. In good weather it may be ended in two or three weeks; but if the weather be unsettled, it may continue till the end of October.

When the hay is to be carried home, as many neighbours as may be necessary for accomplishing that labour in a day are invited to give their

assistance; and they are always ready to obey this summons, as that day is considered as a holiday. They carry the hay on their backs by means of a rope made of horses' hair, and it is deposited in a small inclosure in the open air; but the place on which it is to stand is covered with loose stones, to prevent it from coming into contact with the ground, and a channel is formed through these stones to allow the water to run off. The place where the hay is again stacked is four-cornered; but the length of it is greater than the breadth, so that it has the form of a parallelogram. The stack is covered with ropes of hay in the same manner as the former; and from these ropes stones are suspended to prevent the stack from being injured by the wind.

When the hay is carried home and stacked, the hay-makers partake of an entertainment in the evening; and this is followed by dancing and singing, which generally continue for an hour or two.

SECTION III.

Gardens.

GARDENING is much neglected in Feroe: the inhabitants of Thorshavn are almost the only

people in these islands who, encouraged by the example of the commandant and judge, have paid any attention to it. In other places gardens are never seen, except one now and then belonging to some of the clergy; for those small spots of ground inclosed by some of the peasants can scarcely be considered as gardens. Turnips, which are cultivated in the fields, and potatoes, the use of which begins to be more prevalent, form, besides bread, the whole of the vegetable food of the inhabitants. With many of the productions of our gardens they are unacquainted, though it is certain that the following might be reared with proper care and attention.

Peas. (*Pisum sativum*.) Particularly those which have short stems, and come early to maturity. These will succeed in most years if sown early, that is to say, in March, and in land not manured; but they seldom are obtained ripe.

Sallad. (*Lactuca sativa*, and *capitata*.)

Radishes. (*Raphanus sativus*.) And winter radishes.

Parsley. (*Apium petroselinum*.) But the roots become very small.

Celery. (*Apium graveolens*.)

Spinach. (*Spinacia oleracea*.)

Thyme. (*Thymus vulgaris*.)

Marjoram. (*Origanum majorana*.)

Leeks. (*Allium porrum*.) And shallots; in earth mixed with sand.

Sweet-scented cicely. (*Scandix odorata.*)

Red beet. (*Beta vulgaris.*) They become small, but have an excellent taste.

Horse-radish. (*Cochlearia armoracia.*). Grows readily, and comes to great perfection; but chiefly where ashes have been thrown out.

Parsnips. (*Pastinaca sativa.*)

Dill. (*Anethum graveolens.*)

Carrots. (*Daucus carota.*)

Currants; black and red. (*Ribes rubrum et nigrum.*)

Brassica viridis. But it can with difficulty be preserved throughout the winter, for the wind tears off the leaves, and buffets the stock so long: that it at length breaks off at the root. I endeavoured to fasten the plants to sticks fixed in the earth, but still the leaves were stripped off by the stormy winds, and the hearts were at length destroyed by the weight of the snow. On this account I took up a great part of my cabbages towards winter, and planted them in deep trenches, covering them with earth up to the hearts. By these means I lost the use of them during winter, but they stood the season well, and in the beginning of summer were fit for use.

White Cabbage. (*Brassica capitata.*) Seldom hearts in Feroe. I however cultivated them with great attention, for the large leaves afforded excellent food for my cows in the latter part of

autumn; and as the hearts were then protected by the remaining leaves which closed round them, they stood the winter exceedingly well.

Red cabbage. (*Brassica oleracea var. rubra.*)

Savoy. (*Brassica sabauda.*) The case with both these is the same as with white cabbage, the latter in particular stands the winter well.

The turnip-cabbage. (*Brassica gongyloides*;) and turnip-rooted cabbage. (*Brassica napobrassica.*) Particularly the latter, and the yellow species, produce very large roots, which stand the winter well; and early in the spring the leaves furnish excellent food for cows.

SECTION IV.

Timber, and Experiments with Planting.

THE Feroe islands at present are almost destitute of wood; and it is doubted by some whether they ever produced any. But the coals found in Suderoe give us reason to conclude, that it formerly contained wood; for in my opinion, there can be no doubt that these coals are composed of burnt wood impregnated with rock oil. I have even had in my hands pieces of these coals, one end of which was coal, and the other

real wood, in which the veins and fibres were plainly perceptible. This wood then, must either have been floated to Feroe previous to some convulsion of nature which took place in these islands, or it must have grown in the country. If the latter supposition, which seems the most probable, be admitted, a great change, besides the revolution by which large hills were thrown over the spot where the coals are now found, must have been effected in the climate of these islands, because since that period all traces of timber have disappeared.

At what period this revolution took place, or at what time timber grew here, I will not attempt to conjecture; but that some change took place in the climate at a much later period there is great reason to believe; for even at present, the inhabitants, while digging for peat, frequently discover trunks of the juniper tree from eight to twelve, or more, feet in length, and almost as thick as the arm, which are neither black nor rotten, but still pliable and elastic, and of an ash-grey colour. But juniper trees of this size are found no where growing in Feroe at present, and have not been seen for several centuries past. If they, therefore, existed formerly, why should they not grow at present, unless a change has been produced in the climate?

Attempts have been made at various times to introduce wood into these islands, by planting

trees and bushes of various kinds, but none of them were ever attended with much success.

In the year 1763 rose bushes were brought from Copenhagen and planted in Feroe; but, though they produced blossom the two first years, they soon after died.

In the year 1791 I carried with me from Copenhagen young plants of more than thirty different kinds of trees and shrubs, which I procured in the botanical garden; but this was not the proper place to bring plants from to Feroe; and as a considerable part of the spring elapsed before I could get a garden hedged in to receive them, a great many of them had become spoilt before they were planted. The earth also had not been properly prepared, and therefore, most of them died. Those which succeeded were,

A few rose trees, two of which were still alive when I left Feroe.

Some red and black currant bushes, which produced ripe berries when the weather had been mild in the spring.

A few bushes of willow-leaved spiræa, which flowered every year, but late in autumn.

A white poplar. (*Populus alba.*) Which in the course of seven years had scarcely grown larger than it was at first: and

Some twigs of willow. (*Salix viminalis, salix fragilis, and salix purpurea.*) Which in summer threw out a great many small branches, but in

the following winter and spring they almost all died.

Of the seeds which I sowed the greater part produced young plants, but they did not live through the next winter. One small bush only of furze, (*ulex europæus*,) survived seven years; but it was much stunted, and had suffered greatly from the severity of the cold during some winters.

In the year 1793 I procured from the nursery at Frederickberg some young apple trees, pear trees, plum trees, and cherry trees, and some young willows of different kinds, which I planted in the spring, both in and around the parsonage garden at Kirketai. They all throve exceedingly well; and the Italian poplar, (*populus Italica*,) afforded me the first summer, a sight as agreeable as it was extraordinary in Feroe. The case was the same with the cherry trees, which were covered with blossom; but the cherries had not attained to half their usual size when they all dropped off. The poplar, however, and willows, which I planted without my garden, and around the houses, did not live through the following winter; and the whole of them almost were found entirely dead in the spring. Some of the fruit trees I planted against a stone wall, that they might enjoy the benefit of the sun, and be sheltered from the north wind; but the large quantity of snow which fell upon the wall the next

winter, broke and destroyed the whole of them. Some of the cherry trees which were planted in a freer situation, produced blossom two years longer; but at the end of that time they all died in succession. Three apple trees which I planted in the open part of the garden, where they were exposed to the north wind, but screened by the parsonage-house from the sun in the spring, and from the sea-vapour, succeeded better; and the branches of one of them increased perceptibly in size. But one night in the winter of 1797 such a quantity of snow fell around the parsonage at Kirketai, that the first person who got up in the morning was obliged to make his way out through the roof. The snow in the garden was so deep, that it was almost on a level with the top of the house, and consequently about six feet higher than the summits of the trees; and when the snow had dissolved, it was found that the branches of these trees had been entirely broken by its weight.

Mr. Lunding, one of my parishioners, in the years 1792 and 1793, sent me a great number of tree seeds, and several kinds of young firs. Some of the seeds I sowed in my garden, and others in uncultivated land, where there was a sufficiency of earth to enable them to fasten their roots; but of the latter not one ever made its appearance above the ground. A few of those sown in the garden, indeed, sprung up; but none of them

held out more than two winters, except a few plants of the hazel, (*corylus avellana*,) which at the end of six years, however, were not above a foot in height ; for the extremity of every twig died in the winter, which greatly impeded their growth. I tried to sow the seeds of the Siberian apple, and of the common acacia, but with no better success ; for though both sprung up, they did not survive the second winter.

Such was the result of the experiments which I made in regard to planting. The only thing likely to insure success, which I omitted, was to cover my young trees, in order to shelter them from the frost in winter, and particularly in the spring ; for the large quantity of rain which falls in the spring renders the earth exceedingly wet, and if a strong frost suddenly takes place, the surface of the earth swells up, and loosens the roots of the young plants ; or the earth becomes filled with cracks and fissures, by which means the roots are laid bare. This, at least, was the case with my acacia plants in the spring of the year 1798. Besides, the place where I resided was not favourable for experiments of this kind, as it lay too open towards the sea, and of course was exposed to the sea-vapour ; and some winters such immense quantities of snow were accumulated, that the weight of it either broke the young trees, or bent them down to the ground.

I have also remarked, that the principal obstacles to the growth of trees in Feroe are,

1st. The violent storms which prevail in winter.

2d. The heaviness of the atmosphere.

3d. The vapour which proceeds from the sea.

4th. The unsettled state of the spring, during which the sap is sometimes induced to rise in the fine vessels of the plant by the warmth of the weather, and frost afterwards taking place, the sap, in congealing, bursts the vessels, and the plant soon dies.

SECTION V.

Cattle and Horses.

IN general, the cows in Feroe are small, because the calves when reared are fed too sparingly, and no care is taken to improve the breed. Every village has a bull; but the smaller habitations, which lie at a distance from each other, unite and keep one in common. In the large village of Sands, in Sandoe, there are three; and greatest number of cows assigned to one of animals is fifty.

About a fortnight after Michaelmas the cows are taken into the house, but in the day-time they are turned out into the fields, or commons, as long as the weather will permit, which is often the case till Christmas. When first housed they are fed with the worst and coarsest hay, the finest being reserved for them till they have calved. When kept continually in the house very little care is taken of them. About ten or eleven o'clock in the forenoon they are milked, the cow-house is then cleaned, and a large armful of hay is thrown before each of them; and this is their whole allowance till the same time the next day. About two in the afternoon they are driven out to water; but if the weather be bad the water is carried to them; and at nine or ten at night they are milked again. Cows which have newly calved receive hay twice a day; and warm water, in which hay has been boiled, is given them to drink. With such treatment it needs excite no surprise that the cows in Feroe should yield very little milk. A good milch cow gives seldom more than two quarts at a time, or four quarts a day; though experience shews that with proper treatment they might be made to give double that quantity.

In spring, as soon as the earth is free from snow, and the state of the weather will permit, the calves, and such cows as either have calved, or are about to calve, are driven out in the day.

time to shift for their food ; but good farmers do not suffer them to go into the cultivated lands, lest they should make holes with their feet in the corn-beds. In the month of May, if the weather is not unfavourable, they are allowed to remain out in the night-time.

In consequence of the steepness of the roads, the milk-maids are not able to carry their pails on their heads, but on their backs. These pails, therefore, are of a longish form, and, instead of a lid, they are covered with a tanned lamb's skin, which is tied round them, and is better calculated to prevent the milk from running over. The pail is furnished with two ears, through which passes a rope, made of wool plaited together ; and this rope, which serves to support the pail, is thrown over the breast a little below the arm-pits. In order that the jolting of the pail may not hurt the back, a piece of coarse cloth is fastened round the neck, and suffered to hang down below it. A milk-maid in these islands undertakes sometimes to milk for two, three, or four of her neighbours ; but as the milk of one or two cows is very small, and as the pails are also small, it is not uncommon to see a girl walking along with two or three pails on her back, two or three dangling on her arms, and at the same time knitting a stocking.

Little or no trade is carried on here with cattle, for few of the natives wish, or are in a condition

to rear more than they have occasion for themselves. The price of a milch cow in autumn is seven florins, or five rix-dollars, five marks;* and in the spring eight florins, or six rix-dollars, four marks.† Formerly the price was about a florin less. When a barren cow which has been fattened, is sold at Thorshavn for the shambles, the price is somewhat more; but the best oxen from Myggenæs are worth from sixteen to twenty florins.‡ The carcase of a common cow when slaughtered, may weigh from sixteen to eighteen *lispund*.§

When a cow is to be slaughtered, the person who performs the part of butcher, pricks it cautiously, but speedily, in that part of the spine which corresponds to the neck. The knife is generally made to penetrate full half an inch; and as soon as pricked the animal begins to stagger, and at length drops down; but by means of a rope fastened round its legs it is made to fall to any side at pleasure; and as soon as it has dropped, its throat is cut.

The diseases to which cattle are subject here are the following:

Ganir, consists of a kind of white knobs, or lumps, which make their appearance in the cor-

* About 1l. 3s. 4d. English.

† About 1l. 6s. 8d. English.

‡ From about 2l. 6s. to 3l. 5s. English.

§ From about 256 to 288 pounds Danish.

Handwritten notes and calculations:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 5 \frac{5}{12} \text{ r} \quad 12 \text{ r} = 4 \frac{2}{3} \text{ r} \\
 & 6 \frac{1}{4} \text{ r} \quad 1 \text{ fl} = 3.40 \\
 & 100 \text{ r} = 128 \text{ fl} \\
 & 16.4 \text{ r} = 16.40 \text{ r}
 \end{aligned}$$

ners of the mouth, and prevent the animal from eating or ruminating; they are generally extirpated by means of a sharp knife, which produces a certain cure.

Trolri, or *troldridet*, is when the animal is much puffed up, and lies upon one side. The simple and ignorant part of the natives believe, that the animal is reduced to this state in consequence of witches riding on its back, and on this account they sweep its back with a broom, or move a candle over it. In regard to the efficacy of these means I shall leave the reader to judge.

A cow will sometimes lose its appetite, and be unable to ruminate, without having that disorder called *ganir*; in this case the inhabitants employ the following means, which they consider as a certain remedy. Two or three handfuls of grass are plucked from that part of the roof of the church* which is directly over the choir, the altar, or the pulpit, and given to the animal to eat, and soon after it gets well. That this prescription may be attended with a good effect I will not altogether venture to deny, for it is not unreasonable to suppose, that the appetite of the animal, destroyed by eating mouldy and spoilt hay, may be excited by a few handfuls of fresh grass; but whether this grass be plucked from

* All the country churches in Feroe are covered with grassy turf.

the roof of the church, or from any other place it will be equally efficacious.

When a cow labours under a suppression of urine, which sometimes happens, the inhabitants boil in water a large handful of the seeds of angelica, or when these cannot be obtained, of the root, and give it to the animal to drink. In general this remedy produces the wished-for effect.

When the cows shut up in the house are infested with the vermin common to these animals, ashes are strewed over them; or they are washed with a thin lye, made of peat-ashes and water, which destroys the vermin. I have found it useful also to strew over them some wolf's-bane, purchased from the apothecary's shop.

Cows are troubled sometimes with dysentery, but I do not know whether the natives have any remedy for this disorder.

For costiveness, the inhabitants boil in water common male-fern, (*polypodium filix mas*,) together with mouse-eared hawk-weed, (*hieracium pilosella*,) and give the water to the cows to drink, applying at the same time the warm plants to their loins.

Horses.

THE Feroe horses are small, and have thick drooping heads; they are generally of a fox

colour, but a few of them are almost black. These animals are much neglected, for the natives seldom think of them except when they want to use them; they remain out in the fields summer and winter; they become, therefore, somewhat rough-haired, and when the earth in winter is covered with hard snow, they must scrape away the snow to search for their food. They are not used for drawing, but for bearing burdens. In spring they are employed to carry out the dung to the fields; during a month or six weeks in summer they bring home the turf, and when they have performed this service, they must be lent to those who have no horses of their own, to bring home their fuel; in this manner these animals, as long as the weather permits, must labour four or five days every week, so that their backs at length become chafed; and as they have no shoes, their feet are rendered so sore that they can scarcely walk. During the period of their labour very little attention is paid to them; in the afternoon, when their work is ended, their fore-legs are tied together, to prevent them from running away, and they are then suffered to hop about in the fields in search of their scanty food.

In Stromoe and the hilly plains of Nordenfield the horses are rather sluggish and slow; in Vaa-goe, and particularly in Suderoe, they are more

lively and active, but they are every where sure-footed.

Though horses are indispensibly necessary to the inhabitants for bringing home the peat, which supplies them with fuel, and which must be procured at a great distance, the number that can be kept on each common is settled by an order of government; and it is certain, that when this number is increased the number of sheep must be lessened, to the great injury of the proprietors.

The manes of the horses are cropped twice every year; and the hair cut off is employed for making buttons and ropes.

Horses sometimes become broken-winded; and when they eat too greedily of rich grass after having a long time fed on the commons, they often swell up, and are indisposed; but I do not know that they are subject to any other diseases, than those which are occasioned by too severe labour; that is to say, sores, and bad feet, or swellings in their legs, which are washed with warm urine.

Sheep.

SHEEP, of which one peasant will sometimes have two or three hundred, are the principal

riches of these islanders, and their temporal happiness or misery depends on the success which attends their flocks; if they prosper, they can then endure many other evils, such as a bad fishing-season; for the flesh of these animals is not only better tasted than any other, but furnishes them with the most nourishing and strengthening food during the heavy labours of the spring and summer. Of a part of their wool, like the inhabitants of many other parts, they prepare clothing to secure them from the cold and the inclemency of the weather, and of the remainder they manufacture articles of commerce, which they exchange for others which they stand more in need of. A bad sheep year is a great misfortune to the inhabitants; for if they have not money they are not able to purchase the articles most necessary to render life comfortable; and it is even difficult, in the course of many years, to make up for the decrease of one bad season.

There is a great difference in the Feroese sheep: in Nordenfiord, and Sondenfiord, which generally boast of their different breeds, they are very large. Above two centuries ago, but the exact period is not known, there was such a severe winter in Feroe, and such a death among the sheep, that the race became nearly extinct; this great mortality among the sheep is still remembered by the name *scarta-fedli*, that is,

the black devastation. After this the Feroese were obliged to procure a new supply from other countries. The people of Sondenfiord obtained their's from Shetland, but those of Nordenfiord got some from Iceland, and these, in all probability, were of a larger breed than the former. It is very remarkable, that the Sondenfiord lambs grow much faster, and become sooner fit for the table than those of Nordenfiord, though in the course of time the latter attain to a larger size than the former.

The sheep remain out summer and winter, without ever being housed.* In good winters they are not injured by this continual exposure to the open air, because they can scrape away the snow with their feet in order to get at the grass; but when the winter is severe, and of long continuance, many of them are lost: for as the fields are covered with snow, these animals repair to the sides of the hills next to the sea, or to the sea-coast, where there is less snow; and as these places, in consequence of the rain, or thaws, followed by frosts, become smooth and slippery, the sheep lose their hold and fall down

* At two places in Suderoe a few of the latest lambs are taken into the house during a few weeks of the first winter, but never afterwards. It may sometimes happen also in other places, that a single sheep, when meagre and poor, may be taken into the house during a severe winter, in order that its life may be preserved.

into the sea; or when they go out in hundreds on the projecting shelves of drifted snow, these shelves give way, being borne down by their weight, and the whole are precipitated into the ocean. Sometimes also, when they retire behind the rocks to shelter themselves from the inclemency of the weather, they are often covered by the drifting snow in such a manner as to be enclosed by it, and many of them in that state perish. When the storm has subsided, and the people go out in quest of their sheep, a good dog can discover by his scent the places where they are buried, and give notice to the owners by his scratching and barking; but if they are not found, they must remain in their confined situation; and what to many may appear incredible, they will live in that state for seven weeks, without any other food than the grass of the place they stand upon, and, when that is eat up, the bare earth below it.

The only means of shelter provided for the sheep in Feroe against bad weather, are a few folds called *stovur*, or *bovl*, and consist of a fence about three or four feet in height, constructed of stones and grassy turf, in a semi-circular form, the diameter of which is turned towards the south, because it seldom snows from that quarter. A fold of this kind is capable of containing from fifty to a hundred sheep; and when they have once been driven into it, they

will afterwards repair to it of their own accord, unless a storm takes place so suddenly as to prevent them from finding it. They stand here, indeed, in the open air; but under the shelter of the fence, and squeeze themselves together so closely, that they keep each other warm. Nay, the heat they produce is sometimes so great, that the vapour arising from them may be seen at a considerable distance from the fold. The sheep which are nearest the fence become often so hot, that they are forced to retire to the extremity of the group, which gives an opportunity to those who have been in a colder station to assume their place. If the bad weather continues for any considerable time, these sheep are obliged to remain here several days, and sometimes weeks, exposed to such a degree of hunger that they often eat the wool from each other's backs.

It is much to be wished that a few of these folds at least were covered, and a rack suspended in the middle of them, that the sheep, in case of necessity, might be supplied with a little good hay to serve them as food. The expense would be trifling; but the advantage to the inhabitants very great, as they would not then have to apprehend the total destruction of their sheep in severe winters.

It has been urged, as an objection to this plan, that the sheep, not being accustomed to hay, would not eat it. It is indeed, true, that it is

difficult to accustom sheep to this kind of food, but it is known by observation, that the Feroese sheep which remain nearest to the villages in the winter-time often steal to the hay-stacks, where they shew that hay is not at all disagreeable to them. But those which keep at a greater distance from the villages, and which have not learnt this mode of satisfying their hunger, if hard pressed, would, without doubt, much rather have a substantial meal of hay than eat the wool from the backs of their neighbours.

A regular shepherd, called *soydemand*, is appointed to every common, whose business is to look after the sheep, both in the winter and spring, and particularly during the period when they cast their lambs. This shepherd is assisted by a few peasants called hill-men, who help him to drive the sheep to the fold in order to accustom them to it; and sometimes in deep snow, when the weather is good, to drive them through the snow in order to render them tamer. He is acquainted also with the sheep-walks in the hills, and arranges and directs every thing in regard to the different flocks being united. In spring, when the sheep are collected together in a fold constructed for the purpose, which is called *rat*, he marks the lambs,* numbers them, and deter-

* The sheep belonging to every common have a particular mark, which is different throughout the whole country.

mines from this enumeration how much wool must be given in tythe. He must not only know pretty exactly the whole number of sheep belonging to the common, which may be from two to eight hundred, and more, but as the sheep are divided into several flocks, more or less numerous, he must know each flock; to whom it belongs, and of how many sheep it consists, in order that he may be able to ascertain when any are missing, and what addition ought to be made to each.

The shepherd receives, instead of wages, a couple of sheep, or he is allowed to keep one or two sheep, which feed with the rest on the common.

The place to which the sheep are driven in spring, in order that the wool may be collected, and the lambs marked, and in harvest that the proprietors may know what sheep are to be taken away, or how many it may be necessary to add, consists of a fold surrounded by a stone fence, from four to six feet in height; but so large as to be capable of containing from two to three hundred sheep. The entrance, which is narrow, is formed by two walls that project like an arm, and between which the sheep are collected and driven in.

In the month of May the fence is examined and repaired; and about the middle of June, according to the state of the weather, the owners

of the sheep go the first time to collect the wool; for which purpose, eight or ten peasants with their dogs are required, according to the extent of the common. But the proprietors of the neighbouring commons must receive notice, that they may, if they think proper, send a man to see whether any sheep from their commons have got among those belonging to the other, and whether any lambs belonging to them have been marked through mistake.

As the wool is taken from the sheep only once every year, because in autumn they must not be deprived of it on account of the approaching cold in winter, this operation takes place in June, and consequently the whole fleece may be taken at once from some sheep, but from others it cannot be taken completely. What remains, therefore, is left upon them for some weeks longer, at the end of which time the owners go to the hills to collect what has been left, and to mark the lambs. But still there may be some sheep, the wool of which has not become loose, and in that case it is either cut off with a knife, or violently plucked out by the roots, so that the blood follows it. To prevent this barbarous practice in my fold, I procured a pair of wool-shears from Copenhagen, and made my men-servants accustom themselves to the use of them by clipping the wool from a dried lamb-skin; but, though I always after caused them to take

the shears with them to the fold, and went thither myself also, they were never used.

We have here a striking instance of the force of prejudice and inveterate habit, which induce the inhabitants of Feroe, in other respects tender-hearted and compassionate, to treat in so barbarous a manner these patient animals, which are the property on which they set the greatest value.

After this period the sheep, during the rest of the summer, require very little attention, unless now and then, when they are driven higher up into the hills, in order that the more grassy spots near the bottoms of them may be saved for winter; and it deserves to be remarked, that though the commons are not fenced round, or separated from each other by any hedges, the sheep belonging to each always remain within their own boundaries; and it seldom happens that sheep which are once accustomed to a certain district, ever trespass by entering the grounds of another, unless the proprietor's desire to keep more sheep than his common can maintain, obliges him to seek food for them wherever he can find it.

About the end of August, or the beginning of September, the owners again repair to the hills to pick up the lambs which have been dropped by the young ewes, lest the mothers, by suckling their lambs, should become too weak to stand the succeeding winter. In October they

go out three times more, to pick out the sheep* that are intended to be slaughtered, and to increase the number of lambs, which is done by adding a young ram to every thirty sheep and lambs, but never more, and in some places the proportion is less. A little before Christmas the owners repair once more to the hills, to pick out those sheep which they consider as incapable of standing the winter, and which are slaughtered, either to obtain provision for their Christmas holidays, or to give to some of their servants instead of wages ; because, according to an old law, a man servant at Christmas must receive a sheep, and a boy half a sheep.

The hill-men, who are seldom employed more than the before-mentioned six or eight days in the year, are maintained during that time, and receive one florin, or five marks, Danish, in money, or else a good lamb ; and in some places a farther remuneration of three pounds of wool. If the common be at a great distance, the hill-men receive more wool in payment ; but in some places, such, for example, as Lamhave, in Osteroe, the wages of the hill-men are so excessively high, that when a peasant has paid these

* In the Lesser Dimon the sheep are so wild that they cannot be driven together, and therefore, they are killed with swan-shot. It would be better, however, to catch them with nets, as was the case formerly.

people and his taxes, he has very little profit left to himself.

When the lambs are slaughtered in the autumn, they are skinned, and the bowels are taken out. The carcase is then cut open, and being spread out flat, is in that form hung up to dry. Some of the carcasses are cut into pieces, which are boiled, and while the meat is still warm it is besprinkled with salt; it is then suffered to remain in the salt a day and a night, after which it is hung up in the wind-house to dry. Here it will remain sometimes a quarter of a year without spoiling; but lamb prepared in this manner is reserved as a dainty for particular occasions, and above all, for treating strangers.

A newly slaughtered lamb of the Nordenfiord breed, may weigh about thirty-two pounds Danish, and yield from four to eight pounds of tallow; but the best lambs, and particularly wethers, and good sheep, which have not had lambs, will give fourteen, sixteen, and even eighteen pounds of tallow. From each good skin two pounds of wool are obtained; but those which are washed are estimated to lose, in general, one-third of their weight; but this estimation is carried rather too far.

The principal time when the ewes have intercourse with the rams is the month of December, and the time when they drop their lambs is from the end of April to the end of May. The Fero-

ese set most value on those which are without horns; because they have learned by experience that they are stronger than the horned, and stand better the winter.

The ewes in Feroe are never milked, for as they are in a manner half-wild, and a great number of men are necessary to drive them together, I do not know whether the milk would defray the expense of obtaining it; but in former times it appears that milking was a common practice.

The diseases to which sheep are here exposed, are chiefly the following:

Braasot, (which means sudden death,) is a disease supposed to have been introduced here with new stock from Iceland. This disease, which is infectious, is very prevalent some years, and occasions great devastation among the flocks. It begins, for the most part, soon after Michaelmas; but if it begins in November and December it is more destructive. It generally ceases, however, at Christmas; but it seldom attacks any other than the young lambs. It shews itself by no previous symptoms; and the animals, when they go out into the fields, suddenly drop down dead, and never after move a limb. In my opinion, one cause of this disease is the too great fatness of the sheep, for it is always the best and the fattest that fall a sacrifice to it. When the carcase of a sheep which has died of this disease is cut up, it immediately emits a bad smell; the

flesh appears puffed up, and is said to have a bitter taste, but the parts next the spine are the bitterest; the entrails appear, and smell, as if scorched; and the second stomach, (*reticulum*,) is red and blood-shot; and when the animal dies a bloody kind of froth issues from its mouth. This disease, however, does not sweep off whole flocks, though it often destroys the greater part of them. No cure has yet been discovered for it; but some have found by experience, that it is in a considerable degree checked when the sheep are driven about in the hills, and obliged to take a great deal of exercise. As a preservative I have employed tar, mixed with salt till it became as thick as paste; and of this I gave each lamb in the autumn, every time the flock was visited, as much as could be contained on a wooden spatula; and I found, that in those years in which this preservative was used, the disease was less prevalent among my sheep, while it raged with great violence among those of my neighbours.*

* Mr. J. C. Diurhuus, of Næs, in Osteroe, one day complained to me, that this disease had raged with such violence in his flock, that he was apprehensive that the whole of them would be destroyed, as scarcely a day passed without two or three of them being found dead. I told him the means which I used, and he immediately employed it, and from that period the disease ceased; so that none of those which were ill died after the medicine was administered. This effect of the remedy was, indeed, much speedier than I expected, for I

Sheep in Feroe are subject to a watery disease, which some imagine they acquire by feeding in damp places. In this disease the liver may appear sound, and yet be surrounded by several quarts of water; sometimes, however, the liver is white, enlarged, hard, and full of greyish knobs, which contain small worms. To make drains in marshy pastures, and keep the commons as dry as possible, is considered as the best means of preventing this disorder.

Yglasot, is a disease in sheep in which the liver becomes somewhat pale, and full of small

imagined that the disorder could be checked only by a repeated use of it. But as I do not consider it as a specific, I shall here mention a circumstance which seems to render its efficacy doubtful. The same gentleman, after this successful experiment, tried the medicine another year, but it did not check the progress of the disease. In the autumn of 1797, a few lambs died now and then in my pasture-grounds of the same disorder, though I had twice given them a mixture of salt and tar; but doubting that it had been properly administered, I went to the fold myself, and found that the quantity given amounted almost to nothing; I therefore gave orders that a larger quantity should be given them. Some proprietors, who had a right to the same common, would not assent, under a pretence that the prescription would kill the lambs; but having promised to pay the value of every lamb that should die after taking the medicine, they at length agreed, and it was accordingly administered to them. Seven weeks after, that is on the 22d of December, I again went to inspect my sheep, and having inquired how many sheep had died since I had last seen them, I found that I had not lost one.

insects, which are called *ygler*. The inhabitants suppose that this disease is produced by eating broad-leaved pond-weed, (*potamogeton natans*.) The disease, at length, terminates fatally; and no remedy has yet been found out for it.

Hovusot, is a disease which causes the sheep attacked by it to run round always to one side. It is occasioned by a bladder filled with water, which lies beneath the frontal bone of the skull; and the bone at length becomes soft, so that the place where it is may be felt. Instances have occurred of the animal being saved by cutting it out. A few years ago a young bull at Tiernevig, in Nordstromoe, having a similar disease, a hole was made in the animal's forehead, and the bladder being extracted, it recovered and lived. In general, no sheep ever survive this disorder, and the only expedient in such cases is to kill them.

Ynri, or dysentery, is a disease with which the sheep in Feroe are much troubled, when they are weak in spring, after a severe winter, and eat too greedily of the new grass.

Yndrasot, is an internal disease, which takes place at the same time as the preceding. In sheep which have died of this disease the liver is found to be of a larger size than usual; the bowels, particularly the second and third stomach, are soft, and emit a fetid smell, and a lump, of the size of a bird's-egg, is found in the former.

When sheep begin to recover from this disease, the wool drops from their head and legs.

Monusot causes the animal's spine to be contracted, and its head to bend backwards. This disease is very uncommon. Some assert, that if the extreme joint of the tail be cut off, the animal will be cured.

*Aalvaskoot** is a disease among sheep and other animals, which I know only from report. It is occasioned by a small splinter of the bone of the leg becoming loose, and falling into the marrow; but it rarely occurs.

A few other diseases occasionally make their appearance among the sheep in some of the islands; but as they are not general, and may be only variations of those already mentioned, I shall not here enumerate them.

That the breeding of sheep might be much improved in Feroe is beyond all doubt. The wool here is exceedingly coarse and strong, so that it is difficult to collect as much fine wool as is necessary to make the under-waistcoats worn by the inhabitants. The climate, and in particular, the exposure of the sheep during winter to the inclemency of the weather, are the causes of the wool being so coarse; yet there are found sometimes, though very seldom, sheep which

* According to the etymology of the word, it signifies the shot of an *aalv*; either a witch, or some invisible being.

have very fine wool; and it is well known that Iceland produces a much greater quantity of fine wool than the Feroe islands; but it is to be observed, that the inhabitants of the former, for the most part, house their sheep in winter. The breed might, perhaps, be improved by crossing it with sheep bearing finer wool; but even if sheep from a more southern country were brought hither, and naturalized to the climate, this, in my opinion, would be of little use, as the breed, if not often renewed, would soon degenerate; and to find shelter in Feroe for the sheep in winter, would, at present, in consequence of the want of buildings for the purpose, the scarcity of hay, and the method in which flocks are kept in common, be attended with insuperable difficulties. I, however, wish that the Feroese would now and then procure some fine-wooled rams from Iceland, which would thrive better in the climate of these islands than those bred in a southern climate, and accustomed to a superior mode of treatment. I cannot help wishing, at the same time, that the folds constructed for the purpose of affording the sheep shelter during bad weather, were covered in by some kind of roof, and furnished with a rack to hold hay in case of necessity. It would be of advantage also, if a trough to contain salt were fixed up in some corner of it. That sheep are fond of salt is beyond all doubt; it is equally

certain, that to these animals it is a preservative against many diseases; and if I am not greatly mistaken, contributes, in no small degree, to render their wool finer.

Drains cut in the marshy pastures in order to carry off the stagnant water, would also be of great importance. The inhabitants of Feroe are well aware that their sheep thrive best on the dry commons; and that in damp, wet, places they die, or become weak. Sometimes, therefore, they have recourse to what is here recommended, but not with that spirit and zeal which would be necessary to render it of much utility.

It is certainly a great error in the management of sheep in Feroe, that the rams are employed for increasing the breed when they are scarcely six or seven months old, and consequently, have not attained to their full growth. When they have performed this service the first winter, they are taken away, and next autumn their place is supplied by other rams half a year old. The same thing is repeated in succession; and as this practice is common in Feroe, it is certainly a matter of surprise that the breed of sheep is not lessened much more. It is beyond a doubt, that if rams full grown, and at least a year and a half old, were used, the breed would not only be improved, but preserved better in its improved state.

An old law respecting the management of

sheep in Feroe,* enacted by Magnus Lagabætur in the year 1299, and confirmed by Christian IV. in 1637, served as the foundation for a better regulation, which was issued on the 2d of April, 1698.

SECTION VI.

Bird-catching.

ONE great source of subsistence to these islanders are the sea-fowl which abound on the coast, and which are caught either by dragging them out of their holes, or by another method, for which an instrument called a bird-pole is employed.

The puffin, (*alca arctica*,) builds its nest partly in those large heaps of stones which have fallen down from the hills, and which lie on the borders of the small creeks, or in the fissures of the rocks near the surface of the sea, and partly in holes which are found in the naked rocks between their harder strata. When the fowler approaches these nests, he thrusts his hand into them, and the

* A copy of it, given verbatim, may be seen in Debes's Account of the Feroe Islands. p. 262—274.

fowls, which lay hold of his fingers with their bills, bite so fast, that he is able to pull them out; or they are dragged from these holes by means of a fish-hook fastened to the end of a short stick. This labour begins in the middle of May, and is continued a fortnight.

When the birds have hatched their young, and the latter have taken flight, the fowlers begin in the month of July what is called *fleiningen*, and for which a particular kind of apparatus is necessary. The principal parts of it are, 1st, a round pole made of fir, ten or twelve feet in length, and an inch and a half in thickness at the lower end, but only one inch at the other; 2d, a piece of horn, generally of ram's horn, a little crooked, about eight inches in length, and an inch and a half in breadth, having in it four square holes, one in the middle and one at each end; 3d, two arms, formed of two small rods four feet in length, and half an inch in thickness; the pole is fitted into the middle hole of the piece of horn, the concavity of which is turned downwards, and the rods are inserted in the holes at the extremities of it, but in such a manner that they touch the pole beneath, and are made fast to it by means of twine tied round them; when properly fixed, these rods represent at the end of the pole the prongs of a fork, but they are bent a little inwards, and retained in that position by a piece of strong packthread, so that they stand at the

distance of about eighteen inches from each other; on these prongs or arms is placed a net, the meshes of which are two inches in width; it is made either of hempen or grey woollen thread, is pretty large, and hangs like a bag, which projects a foot beyond the arms. The lower extremity of the pole is strengthened by an iron ring, and furnished with a spike or small three-pronged fork, in order that the fowler may be enabled to direct his course by sticking it fast in the projecting rocks when suspended by a rope, and even to clamber up from one place to another. (*See Plate II. Fig. 7.*)

When the fowler goes out, he is rowed about at the bottom of the rocks where the fowls sit; and with great dexterity casts his net over them. The fowls immediately push their necks through the meshes, in order to get into the water; but the fowler, by means of the pole, inverts the net, and the fowls remain suspended in it; and even if they were able to fly up, they never attempt it, but remain hanging with their heads through the meshes towards the water, considering that element as their only place of shelter. But by this method fowls are caught only on a small scale; to catch them on a more extended one, it is necessary to ascend to a considerable height in the rocks; and it is really astonishing to see to what heights the fowlers will proceed, and to what dangers they expose themselves in this occupation. On these occasions two men go out

in company, and both of them make themselves fast to a rope, but in such a manner that there is the distance of eight or ten fathoms between them. The first man is assisted by the second to ascend the rock, and for this purpose the latter employs a pole twenty-four feet in length, having at its extremity an iron hook, which is made fast in the waistband of his breeches, or in a rope tied about his middle, or, what is more common, a piece of board is fixed to the end of the pole on which the climber sits, and when he has got a firm footing, he assists his companion to get up by means of the rope fastened round both their bodies; but they both carry their fowling-poles along with them. In this manner the second assists the first to clamber up by the help of his pole, and the first helps the other by means of the rope from one projection to another; but when they have a dangerous place to ascend, before they get to parts frequented by the fowls, the first must have a secure place of rest, that he may be able to support the other in case he should be so unfortunate as to fall. It frequently happens, however, that the one in his fall pulls down the other, so that they both become a sacrifice to their temerity. In these almost inaccessible places, and particularly such as are seldom visited by man, they find the fowls so tame that they can lay hold of them with their hands; but where the fowls are shy, they cast their net

over them with their fowling-pole, and at one throw, and in one hole, will sometimes catch from ten to twenty fowls.

When the rocks are so high and steep that it is impossible to climb up them, it then becomes necessary that the fowlers should descend from the top. This is done in two ways: A rope, three inches thick and a hundred fathoms in length*, is made fast at one end around the fowler's middle; a broad woollen band, which passes round his thighs, is fastened also to the rope; and by these means he can sit more at his ease, and continue his labour for several hours. The rope is held fast by six men, who let the fowler, with his fowling-pole in his hand, glide down the rock; and to prevent the rope from being cut by the hard edges of the rock, a piece of smooth wood is placed below it, in order to glide upon; but as the men who hold the rope cannot see when the fowler has got to the place where the fowls are, they have also a small line, one end of which is bound round the fowler's body, and by pulling this line he gives notice to the men when to lower the rope, when to stop it, and when to draw it up. The fowler directs his course with

* If one of such length be not necessary a shorter one is employed, but there are some cliffs of such immense height that the fowlers must tie together two, and even three ropes, each a hundred fathoms in length.

his fowling-pole until he reaches the projection where the fowls construct their nests; here he looses the rope from his body, and makes it fast to a stone, to prevent it from escaping him, and then he goes round catching the fowls with his hands, or casts the net over them in the manner already described; or he places himself on some projecting shelf which the fowls fly past, and it is here that he displays his dexterity in the use of his fowling-pole in what is called *fleining*. The afternoon or calm weather is the time chosen for this purpose; but in particular the wind must blow towards the rock, because in that case the puffin approaches nearest to the land. When the fowls come so near the fowler that he can reach them with his pole, he raises it towards them, and is pretty certain of catching one in his net; and to prevent the fowl from disengaging itself, he turns the pole a little round, so that one of its arms stands upwards and the other downwards; by these means the fowl hangs in the pocket of the net, below one of the arms, and is thus inclosed that it cannot get out; but as the fowls are continually flying by, great speed and dexterity are requisite. At each stroke the fowler in general catches one, and sometimes two or three; and in one afternoon a man in this manner will catch two, three, and even four hundred. Sometimes the fowler undertakes this labour while he is suspended by the rope. But there are some

cavities where the fowls build their nests which recede so far from the perpendicular direction of the rock, that the fowler, when he descends to them by help of the rope, hangs so far from them in consequence of the projecting shelf, as to be at the distance of several fathoms from the holes where the fowls reside. In this case he must throw himself so far out from the rock, by means of his pole, as to be able to swing with the rope under the shelf to the proposed place, and to secure a footing. On such occasions he can without help give himself a swing to the distance of thirty or forty feet; but if the cavity proceeds farther into the rock, so that a very great swing is necessary to reach it, he fastens a small line to the end of the suspending rope on which he sits, and a man in a boat at the bottom of the rock, who holds the other end of this small line, can by pulling it make him swing to the distance of a hundred or a hundred and twenty feet.

The fowls when caught are killed by twisting their necks; they are then bound together in bunches, and either drawn up to the summit of the rock, or cast into the sea, where they are picked up by people in boats, who are stationed below for that purpose.

Some rocks are divided into upper and lower; and in these the fowler must both ascend and be let down from the summit.

Some rocks are called *shakkur*, that is, lesser rocks, which rise towards the high rocks, and are either half or entirely separated from them; but they are so flat on the top, that fowls can be caught on them, and that they afford pasture to sheep when carried thither. When the fowler in the beginning of summer has been assisted to climb to the top of one of these rock, he makes fast the noose of a small rope, which he carries with him, to some sharp projection, and can then, without any assistance, descend by suffering himself to glide down the rope. If it be necessary that the rock should be often visited in the course of the season, the rope is left suspended, so that by means of it a man can ascend and descend at any time; but the fowler, before he descends for the last time, places the noose so near the extremity of the projection, that when he has got to the bottom he can by a sudden jerk disengage the rope and carry it with him; but if he is not able to accomplish this, he is bold enough, though he does not know but another jerk might have cast the rope loose, to ascend fifty, sixty, or more feet, in order to place the noose on the very extremity of the projection, and then to slip down by it in that dangerous situation.

This occupation is of great importance to the inhabitants; for it supplies them with a considerable part of their subsistence. In one excursion

four thousand fowls may be caught, according as the rock is more or less frequented by them, and according as it is more or less accessible: on this account the inhabitants expose themselves to so great risk; nay, in one of the islands, namely, Skuoe, the people live chiefly on the fowls which they catch in this manner.

From what has been said of this occupation, it is evident that it requires both practice and courage; for the accidents to which the fowlers are exposed are very numerous: the rope by which the two men are bound together may be weaker than supposed; in lowering them down by the rope large fragments of stone are often detached from the rocks and fall down, so that they sometimes narrowly escape destruction; a small projection on which the fowler rests his foot, or which he lays hold of with his hands, may be either loose, or break with the weight—and yet these people encounter all these dangers with the utmost intrepidity. The following instance of such intrepidity, or rather temerity, I cannot here help relating. In Fugleoe is a place formed by the projection of a rock, which is not difficult of access, but though it is at first broad and convenient for a person to stand upon, it becomes afterwards narrower and narrower, till it at length ends in a few knobs, on which it is hardly possible to fix one's toes. About twelve feet farther the same projection is continued, but much

broader, and is an excellent station for catching fowls. Where this projection breaks off, nature has formed in the rock, at the distance of two feet higher, a perpendicular projection, about nine inches in breadth. When the fowler arrives at the chasm, he places his pole on the higher projection, and clasping it in his arms, creeps over it to get at the proper station. Here fowls are caught in abundance; but to convey them from the rock, when there is no boat below to receive them, he suspends them from his neck, or places them on his head, and in this manner creeps back with his burden to the first projection. As he can carry only a few fowls at a time, he is obliged to perform this passage the oftener. At each time he perceives the sea beneath him at the distance of a hundred fathoms; and that he may have the fewer times to pass and repass, he frequently places such a heavy burden on his back that he is in great danger of losing his equilibrium and of falling from the projection, which is his only support. What adds still to the risk is, that some of the stones are loose and moveable.

The method employed at Drangoe, in Iceland, for catching sea-fowl by means of gins fastened to boards, which are suffered to float on the sea, has been introduced into Feroe: but the trials made of it have not succeeded according to expectation. This method is as follows; From

eighty to a hundred and fifty small holes are bored in a board made of hard wood, about four feet in length and fifteen inches in breadth, in which gins of horses' hair are fastened. Five such boards are bound together, at the distance of ten feet from each other, with cords made also of horses' hair; and to the first board is attached five buoys, in order that the whole apparatus may float in the water. To the middle board is made fast a decoy fowl, to entice the others; and in this manner above twenty fowls may be caught on each board. Each boat has five implements of this kind, which together are called *nederstode*.

The objections made to this method are, that the fowls when caught derange the gins with their fluttering; and that though from twenty to thirty fowls may be caught by it in a day, they do not reward the labour of rowing a mile or more to procure them.

The fowls when caught are partly eaten fresh and partly salted, or hung up to dry in the air; because, when prepared in this manner, they form, in places where they abound, a good article of winter provision for the inhabitants.

SECTION VII.

Seal Catching.

THE catching of seals is also of great importance to the inhabitants of these islands. Of the two kinds generally found here, one is the *phoca vitulina*, and the other the *phoca hispida*. The first are either shot, or when they lie asleep on the shore the natives steal upon them and knock them on the head with clubs; the other kind, which for the most part keep in holes or caverns which proceed from the sea under the rocks, and in which they pair and produce their young, are caught in the following manner: the mouth of some of these holes is below water, and in that case it is impossible to get into them; but the entrance into others is so large, that one can row into them with a boat; and the farther one goes the water becomes shallower, till one comes to a dry bottom with a large broad arch over it, which gives a strong echo. It is here that these seals have their place of residence. At the time when the young ones are pretty large and fat, the natives repair to these holes with two boats, one of which enters the cavern, while the other remains

at the mouth. Between the boats there is a rope eighty fathoms in length, in order that if the boat in the inside should be filled with water, the people in the outer one may be able to drag it out. As there is not sufficient room in the entrance for rowing into the cavern, the boatmen push the boat in with poles, and as most of these cavities are entirely dark, they are furnished with lights; but they must be concealed in the boat as much as possible, lest the seals, perceiving the glare of them too soon, should make their escape. These lights are large candles formed of old linen, twisted together and dipped in tallow. When the boatmen have got so far in that they can reach the dry bottom, the first man springs from the boat with his club; the second man then jumps out, bearing a light in each hand, which must be held well up, that they may not be extinguished by the water; and he is soon followed by the third, having his club ready prepared also. As soon as the seals, which are lying on the dry bottom, perceive the men and the lights, they rush towards the water; but the men endeavour to give them a well-aimed blow on the head or snout, by which they are stunned, and they then dispatch them by cutting their throats. It sometimes happens that the large males, when they find that they cannot escape, become furious and make an obstinate resistance. On such occasions they raise themselves on their

hind legs, with their jaws wide open, ready to attack their opponent, who must then avoid them and endeavour to knock them down with his club; but if the seal chances to meet the intended blow with his open mouth, he forces the club from the man's hands, and throws it several yards from him; in which case the man must be assisted by his nearest companion. When all the old seals have been dispatched, the men proceed farther into the cavern, where the young ones remain quiet lying on the dry rock, without paying any attention to the people or the lights, and in this manner become an easy prey. When the slaughter is ended, the dead seals are dragged to the water, and being made fast to a rope, are drawn out by the people in the other boat; and if there be any surf at the time, which is often the case, though the most favourable period is chosen for this labour, the inner boat is drawn out in the same manner. Seal-catching at present is not so productive as it was formerly. From eight to ten may be caught in most of these caverns, but sometimes the number killed amounts to twenty or thirty. Some caverns are so far distant, that the inhabitants cannot without great difficulty go thither to catch the seals which frequent them; they are therefore assigned to the inhabitants of some other island, who reside nearest to the spot, and who receive a part of the booty. The skins are employed for shoes;

but some skins are stripped off whole, and when well dried are used as bags for holding different articles, as every thing put into them can be conveniently conveyed and preserved during wet weather. The fat is melted into oil; but few eat the flesh, though it has a pretty good taste when salted and boiled. The skins of the small and very young seals are converted into tobacco pouches.

SECTION VIII.

Boats.

THE Feroe boats are exceedingly light in proportion to their size, and constructed more for rowing than for sailing. The largest have ten or twelve rowers, and are used chiefly in the southern islands for conveying loads to and from Thorshavn; but in general the largest are rowed by eight or ten men at most; they are employed chiefly in the cod fishery, out in the open sea. The least are rowed by four men, and are employed for fishing in the creeks and small bays; but there is a class of boats between these two which are rowed by eight men, and can be used for both kinds of fishing. The largest boats are

twenty-four feet in length between both prows, and six feet broad in the middle from one gunwale to the other. They are, therefore, long and narrow according to their size, and sharp-pointed at both ends. The prows are raised somewhat in the form of a goose's neck, which is exceedingly convenient when it is necessary to draw them into the water, or from the water to the dry sand. The keel is of oak, and the planking of Norway fir-trees, which are sawn for the small boats, but for the large are thinned a little with an axe. The seams are caulked with wool dipped in tar, and the interstices between the ends of the planks are filled up with cloth dipped also in tar; but the planks are fastened to each other with iron nails, and below each nail is a small plate of iron, with a hole in it, through which the nail is driven. In the other parts wooden pins are used. A thong of leather, fastened into the gunwale, passes round each oar, and prevents it from slipping from the cavity in which it plays; and a piece of wood rises from the gunwale, with a hole in it, through which the fishing-line runs when let out or drawn in. The mast is short in comparison of the size of the boat, because the people of Feroe are afraid that their boats might be overset by the winds if the sails were too large. Each boat has only one; it is made of coarse cloth, and at the top is exceedingly narrow, but broad at the bottom. No

ropes belong to the sail; but when the wind is strong the people shorten the sail by holding it in their hands; a service which those nearest the sail must always perform. Few of these boats are built with a rudder; they are generally steered by means of the oars; yet some of them are furnished with what is called *stuir*, which is an implement like a short oar, with which the master steers the boat when necessary.

The skill with which the natives manage these boats in boisterous weather, even when they are deeply laden, is really astonishing. When lightly laden, they do not give themselves much trouble to prevent the waves dashing into them; they, indeed, endeavour to avoid them, by turning the end of the boat towards them; but if this be not possible, and if it be necessary to encounter the wave sideways, which is the most dangerous, they exert all their strength to place the boat in such a manner that the wave shall dash over only one half it; for though one half of the boat be filled with water, it is still capable of swimming, and they then employ the utmost diligence to bale out the water before another wave comes upon them. In these cases it is a great advantage that they have pretty long oars, and that these oars are fastened to the boat with leather thongs. A boat, with proper care, will last twenty or thirty years. In some places, where the landing is bad, boats are drawn on

shore by making them glide on their keel; but to prevent it from being damaged, they place below it some round pieces of timber, to serve as rollers. In winter they are put into a building erected for the purpose.

SECTION IX.

Fishery.

THE fishery at Feroe is far from being at present what it was formerly, for fish at one time were an important article of food and of commerce to the inhabitants; but they have now almost entirely deserted the coast. Hence it appears, that the quantity of fish is either become less, or that the fishing banks around these islands have, in consequence of storms or other causes, been exposed to some changes, so that they no longer afford the same food and shelter to the fish which would otherwise frequent them, or the fish have found out some other places more agreeable to their habits and wants. However this may be, there are few places where fishing in most years is not attended with loss rather than advantage. But as all years are not equally unsuccessful, and even in unsuccessful years as

large quantities are caught on certain days, a taste for fishing is maintained among the inhabitants, and often to the prejudice of agriculture.

The kinds of fish caught in salt water are cod, halibut, haddock, and the sey, (*Gadus virens*).

The cod are sought for by the natives in certain places, to which they give the name of *meed*. These places are either on a stony bottom where there may be a fresh-water spring; sand banks abounding with crabs and marine insects, which the cod use as food, or where they deposit their spawn or eggs, in order that they may be hatched by the warmth of the sun; or cavities near the shore, where the cod seek shelter behind rocks from the restlessness of the waves; and it is not improbable, that the boisterous winds which prevail on the coasts some years more than in others, may be one great cause of the uncertainty of the fishery at these islands.

These *meeds*, or fishing-places, are discovered by certain marks which are observed on shore; for example, by the top of a hill, or other mark, coming in a line with the top of another hill, or with the extremity of an island, eminence, rivulet, or fissure in some rock. When the tops of the hills, therefore, are covered with fog, to row out to fish becomes very uncertain, however favourable the sea and weather in other respects may be. There are many of these fishing-places

around Feroe, which lie at the distance of from one to five miles from the shore. Each island has some of its own, to which the inhabitants generally resort, because they are nearest to them ; but there are some, and particularly the largest, which are frequented by the inhabitants of several islands. These places are in general small, and are only a few fathoms in length or breadth. The largest and best, and the only one which deserves the name of a fishing-bank, is *Daniel's Meed*, two miles north from Kalsoe. It is above three miles long, somewhat more than two miles broad, and has a bottom consisting of sand and stones.

A fishing-line, almost as thick as a swan's quill, and from sixty to eighty fathoms in length, made of hemp, spun and twisted by the natives themselves, is almost the only tackle with which they fish at sea. To the lower end of it is suspended an oval stone, weighing three pounds, and in this stone grooves are formed, by means of which a short line, with an eye for receiving the fishing-line, is made fast to it. A small thong with a hook is also fastened to the stone. The bait employed is fish, but not dried ; and in want of it, a piece of meat, until the first fish is caught, which then supplies bait ; and the entrails of the fish caught are immediately taken out and thrown into the sea, in order to entice the fish to keep around the boat.

When the fishermen catch a large halibut, ray, or other fish which the hook is not strong enough to hold, they use an instrument called *klepyadn*, which consists of a large hook, fastened to the end of a thick piece of wood, having a handle to it; this piece of wood must be of such a size, that when the hook is added to it, it can float on the water; and a piece of cord is fixed to it, that the fish may be held fast in case it should be so strong as to wrest the instrument from the hand of the person who uses it. (*See Plate II. fig. 5.*) A large fish can be easily drawn up with the fishing-line to the gunwale of the boat; but the hook is thrust into it for the purpose of dragging it into the boat, or in case it be a young shark which is often too large to be taken into the boat, it is kept at the surface of the water till the fishermen can cut out its liver, which is the only part of that fish which they use.

The cod-fishery begins properly in March, and continues till August. Halibut are caught in April along with the cod; but after that period they are caught alone. When the summer is pretty far advanced, they approach nearer to the land, and enter the creeks, where the natives fish for them by suffering their boats to drift along with the currents.

The sey-fishery some years is of great importance to the inhabitants of these islands. It begins after Whitsuntide, and continues for several

weeks in summer ; but towards autumn it recommences, and continues till Martinmas. It is undertaken in the bays and creeks with small boats, either in the evening, or during the light nights. A man seated in the middle of the boat, rows it gently backwards and forwards. Behind him are placed five or six others, each with an angling-rod, the line of which is, in general, made of woollen thread, but to the extremity of it is fixed a piece of fine wire, about two feet in length, and to this wire is fastened a small tinned hook. The bait, when nothing else can be obtained, is a small stripe of fish-skin applied to the hook ; but when the first sey is caught, a piece of its stomach is substituted in the room of the fish-skin. The point of the rod is suffered to drag in the water behind the boat, but it is moved continually backwards and forwards with the hands, by which means the fisherman immediately perceives when a sey has been hooked. When the fishing is favourable, each person in an evening, or during the course of the night, will catch from one to two hundred.

Of sey no tithe is given ; but when a boat which has been at the cod fishery comes to land, a portion of the fish is set apart for the poor, and for aged people ; the tithe is then taken out, and the remainder is divided among the fishermen ; the proprietor of the boat also gets a share. If a ling, sea-wolf, shark, or other

rare fish, has been caught, it belongs to the person who caught it. The man also, who rows the boat, gets his choice of the best fish before any are distributed.

The general method of preparing the cod is as follows: they cut up the belly so far, that the spine, and the so called blood-bone, can be taken out. Without being washed, it is then put into a cask, and well salted; but the fish must be closely packed and well pressed down, by placing above it heavy stones. In this state it is suffered to remain twenty-four hours, after which it is taken out and washed in its own brine with a bit of woollen rag, and then hung up to drain during the course of a night. The bloody brine is now thrown away, and the fish is again deposited in the cask, with a stratum of salt between each layer; but it is placed in such a manner, that the inside of the first layer is turned upwards, and that of the second, downwards; and thus the backs and insides are turned towards each other alternately. They are packed as closely as possible; and when the fish are large, the ends and tails are bent, and made to lie circularly around the sides of the cask.

Few of the inhabitants, however, take the trouble to salt their cod in this manner, though it is more advantageous than drying them. But they ought to be encouraged to adopt this method of preserving them, as a great many of those

which are dried become spoilt in consequence of the dampness of the weather.

The halibut are, both back and belly, cut into stripes, and after being washed, are hung up to dry. The fins, which are fat, are not prepared in this manner, but eaten fresh. I have, however, found by experience, that when this fish is caught in abundance, the fins put into salt for twenty-four hours, and then dried, form excellent food, and may be preserved in that state several weeks.

The sey are eaten both fresh and dried in the air; but the livers, when a great many of these fish are caught, are converted into train oil.

SECTION X.

Whale Fishery.

THE whale fishery is periodical, and does not take place so often as formerly; but where carried on it produces great advantage to these islands. The whales, which are of a small species, come to Feroe in shoals of from one hundred to a thousand; and when it is considered that each fish in general yields one cask of train oil, which sells for nine rix dollars, the value of

one fishing will amount to from nine hundred to a thousand rix dollars, besides the benefit which the natives derive from the fish itself, which, if not employed for making oil, affords savory and wholesome food. The word whale is an agreeable sound to the inhabitants of Feroe; when a few of them are met on particular occasions, if any subject of discourse is introduced, which, however, is seldom the case among them, the word *whale* is no sooner mentioned, than every face brightens up with joy, and they all seem to be animated with a desire of talking on so favourite a subject; but if a messenger suddenly arrives with intelligence that a shoal of whales has been seen approaching the islands, it operates like an electric shock, and the whole village, old and young, are instantly in motion.

These shoals are generally discovered by some of the fishing-boats, and as soon as they are observed, a signal is suspended from the boat's mast, in order that the other boats may assemble to assist in driving the whales towards the land. When the boats are assembled, they form themselves into a semi-circle around the whales, and the fishermen drive them before them by throwing out the stones which are fixed to their fishing-lines. As soon as it is discovered from any village that the fishermen are thus employed, the agreeable intelligence is echoed from one to another; the men crowd together, rush into the

boats to lend their assistance, and messengers are dispatched in great haste over the hills and valleys to give notice to the villages which are more distant; but before the messenger can reach them all, the report, perhaps, has been heard, and each man, furnished with a piece of bread and meat, stands ready to run to the spot where the messenger may announce the whales to be. But if the village lies on the other side of a bay, a signal is made either by three sheets displayed on the shore, or by a strong smoke produced by burnt hay; and in the course of a few hours the men of several villages, and even of several islands, are assembled in boats out at sea, or in the creeks to which they observe the whales to be driven. The whales in the meantime are exceedingly tame, and suffer themselves to be driven before the boats like a flock of sheep; but sometimes they are wild, and can with difficulty be driven, especially when the foremost have been near the land. In this case they often turn about, dive under the boats, and endeavour to escape to sea again. It is the business then of the fishermen to pursue them, to surround them, and, if possible, to turn them back, which is done by beating and splashing in the water with the oars, or, as before said, throwing at them the stones fastened to the fishing-lines. This occupation requires sometimes the toilsome labour of several days and nights; but it is often

entirely lost, and the whales, notwithstanding all the care employed, make their escape. When the shoal has been driven into a convenient creek, if night be approaching, the fishermen must remain at rest in their boats, in order to keep the whales confined till the morning; but if they have the day before them, and if there be a sufficient number of people collected on the shore to meet the whales, the attack then begins, and affords a very singular and terrible spectacle to the by-standers. If the time will permit, a fire is kindled on the shore, to deceive the whales; for it has been discovered by experience, that they are accustomed to follow the light of the moon when it appears at a small distance from the horizon, or shore; and the smoke of the fire conceals from them the land. The boats in the meantime are arranged in a semi-circular form, to intercept the whales in case they should endeavour to escape when attacked on all sides.

When the shoal has advanced within about two hundred fathoms of the shore, and the whales have turned their heads towards the land, which is the position in which the fishermen wish them to be, a part of the boats, the men in which are provided with the proper weapons, begin the slaughter by rowing into the middle of the shoal, and darting their lances into the whales behind

the tail.* They, however, avoid wounding those whales which lie close to the boats, because, if wounded, they might dash the boats to pieces, and hurt the men in them. The shoal, when many of them are thus wounded, move forward with prodigious force, carrying with them an immense body of water, and a great many of them run on shore, so that in consequence of the reflux of the water they are left on dry land; but the people collected on the shore rush on them in a furious manner, and with their sharp knives cut every whale they meet with across the neck. An active man, who knows how to make use of his knife, can at two strokes cut the neck to the bone; and after that the animal by its tumbling breaks its neck entirely. The people drag the whales on shore by thrusting their hands into the

* The weapon used on this occasion consists of a blade, or point, fourteen inches in length, and three inches in breadth, two-edged, and thickest in the middle, but constructed in such a manner that it can be straightened on the knee if it becomes bent in using it. The shaft, or shank, which is hollow, is bent into the form of a ring at the extremity, and the end of the blade, passing through the cavity, is made to project about an inch sideways. This blade and shaft are made fast to a pole six feet in length, and the point, which projects from the side of the shaft, fits into a cavity in the pole, by which means it can be better secured. A rope fastened to the ring at the extremity of the shaft, enables the person who uses this weapon to draw it back in case it should happen to escape from his hands. (*See Plate II, fig. 6.*)

hole through which they breathe; but above all things they must not touch their eyes, for if they did, the whales would become exceedingly restless, and with a stroke of their tail, in which they have a particular strength, might hurt the men who are dragging them. The sea in consequence of this slaughter becomes as red as blood, and the whales which have not been wounded remain in it, as it were, blinded, or bewildered; and it is very singular, that when a whale which has not been wounded gets into clear water, it immediately returns to the bloody water, where it becomes a sacrifice to its mistake.

There have been instances of these whales running on shore of themselves, without being driven by the inhabitants; but there is reason to think that in this case they were pursued by some ravenous marine animal.

When the whales have been dispatched and carried on shore, they are valued by the provincial judge and two assistants, and the value is marked on each fish in Roman characters. The tithe is then set apart, and the largest whale is selected for the boat which first discovered the shoal: the head of this whale is given to the man who first perceived the shoal approaching, and another fish falls to the share of those who have sustained any damage in their boats or their oars. A whale for the provost (clergyman) and another

for the poor are next picked out; and if the shoal has been large, a whale is distributed to each of some inferior civil officers. The remainder is divided into two portions, one of which belongs to the proprietor of the place where the whales were driven on shore, and the other to those who assisted either in the driving or killing them; but some portion is assigned also to those who arrived first on the sand after the whales were killed, in order that they may not have made a long journey in vain.

The flesh of these whales is eaten fresh by the inhabitants, who account it agreeable food, and certain parts are even used by foreigners as a delicacy; the flesh below the blubber has a great resemblance to beef, both in taste and appearance; that which is not eaten fresh is cut into thick stripes and hung up to be dried. The greater part of the blubber is converted into train oil; but some of it is salted in casks or barrels, and in want of these, in boats: the blubber on the back is suffered to remain on the animal till it is used; but that on the sides, after being hung up a week or a fortnight, will keep several years, and is used by the inhabitants instead of bacon.

Besides these small whales, large ones, called *dogtingen*, are sometimes caught, but chiefly at the southernmost islands. This kind of whale is easily killed; when it appears, the inhabitants

row close to it, and scratch it on the back with an oar, by which means it lies perfectly still; they then close up its breathing holes with wool, which prevents it from diving under the water, and they make a hole in its blubber, into which they tie a rope, and thus drag it on shore. It is asserted, that the animal experiences no pain from the hole made in its blubber, but rather an agreeable sensation, which, as it remains so quiet, appears to be the case. When it has been brought near to the land, and the rope has been made fast on shore, others row around it in boats, and pierce it till the blood gushes out; but this labour is attended with very great danger, as it then beats about in a terrible manner with its tail. The blubber of this whale is not used as food; if it be eaten by any of the inhabitants, it passes through the pores of the skin, and communicates to the clothes a yellow colour and a fœtid smell.

Other large whales are seen around these islands, and in some of the bays, but the inhabitants have not yet learnt the method of overcoming them.

SECTION XI.

Division of Land.

ALL the land in Feroe is either allodial, or king's land. A man who occupies two marks of allodial land, or above it, is called *odelsbond*, that is, an allodial peasant; and he who occupies the same quantity of king's land is called a leasehold, or king's peasant, because he holds the land on lease at a certain annual rent, which is paid at the rate of so much for every *mark** of land he possesses; but a king's peasant may be proprietor of one or more marks of allodial land. Some peasants occupy also allodial land of which another person is proprietor, to whom they in like manner pay a certain yearly rent. Another class of peasants called *ognermænd*, are those who occupy less than two marks of land, and who pay a yearly rent, either in money or kind, to the real proprietor. There are few houses in Feroe which have not some portion of land belonging

* A *mark* of land is different in different parts of Feroe. In general, it may be about 8000 square Danish ells, or 32,000 square English feet. T.

to them. When the proper owner of land, whatever kind it may be, is unable, in consequence of age, want of servants, or any other cause, to till it himself, he commits it to the care of a tenant, who either allows him one third of the annual produce, the proprietor engaging to pay the taxes and other burthens, or he agrees to give him one half of the produce, and undertakes to pay those himself.

No quantity of land less than four marks can be let to any peasant ; but in former times this regulation was not strictly observed, for some of the land here, and particularly the allodial, is portioned out in such small patches, that the occupiers can with difficulty maintain themselves from them. A peasant's eldest son has a kind of hereditary title to the lease of his father's land ; and if there be no son in the family, the judge lets the land to the son of some peasant who may be capable of managing it ; but the son of a clergyman, according to a late regulation, has a right in preference, if he solicits for it.

A mark of allodial land is different in value according to the fertility of the soil, or rather according to the number of lambs which are slaughtered from it yearly. But I think I shall not be far from the truth if I estimate the value of a mark of land at three hundred Feroese

florins, each florin being worth about five marks Danish.*

SECTION XII.

Mechanics, Tradesmen, and Servants.

OF regularly bred tradesmen, there are in Thorshavn only one good joiner, two blacksmiths, a person who employs himself in making shoes, and one taylor. In the islands there are also several smiths, most of whom, however, are self-taught; and in the villages may be found carpenters who possess sufficient knowledge for constructing every thing wanted in the country. There are likewise good boat-builders in various places, and particularly in Naalsoe. A peasant at Qualvig is a pretty expert founder: every native almost is his own taylor; but more than common practice is necessary to be able to fashion and sew the high hats used in Feroe. Two comb-makers, both self-taught, the one at Zelletræe, and the other in Hestoe, make horn combs as good as those manufactured at Copenhagen. Several of the inhabitants can manufac-

* About 50 or 60l. sterling.

ture of horse-hair very neat buttons for clothes, and some of them can make mill-stones of stones found in the country, all which shews that the natives of Feroe are not destitute of ingenuity and fitness for the arts; but the most important branch of their industry is the manufacturing of wool. The business of carding and spinning it belongs to the men, that of weaving or knitting to the women. A man besides other necessary labour such as carrying home turf and giving hay to the cows, can card and spin daily two pounds of wool for what is called the half-fine soldiers' hose, and there are some who can card and spin from two and a half to three pounds. A girl can knit in a day one pair of hose, and there are some who knit three hose; many of the women can weave also, and on a loom, the construction of which is exceedingly simple.

Before the introduction of wheels, which were not known here till the reign of Christian V. the inhabitants, in spinning, used only a spindle a foot in length, and about as thick as the shank of a tobacco-pipe. It was stuck into a circular piece of wood, which served to increase its velocity when put in motion, and also to prevent the thread wound round it to glide downwards. In the thickest end of the spindle, which rose about an inch above this circular piece of wood, there was a spiral kind of notch into which the thread was fastened. The spindle was put in

motion by giving it a sudden twirl on the thigh with the right hand, and being suspended by the thread, it twisted and spun the wool which was dealt out with the fingers. This spindle is still used, especially for spinning warp for weaving, but it is employed only by the women. The stockings manufactured in Feroe, are either half fine, which are divided into two sorts, long and short, the former being twenty-four inches in length and the latter fifteen, or coarse hose, which are knit in Sandoe and Suderoe. Really fine hose are seldom manufactured; when they are they sell at a pretty high price. A great many pairs of trowsers however, both fine and coarse are knit here, some of which are ornamented with various coloured figures; the former are used by the inhabitants, but the latter are sold to seafaring people. A weaving loom in Feroe is very simple: it consists of two side posts about six or seven feet in height, placed against a wall in a somewhat oblique direction, and at the distance from each other of five feet which forms the breadth of the web; at the upper end of each post is fixed a knee, having in it a semicircular cavity, which supports the extremities of the beam; the upper ends of the warp are made fast to the beam, but the lower ends are wound round stones, each four or five pounds in weight, which hanging down almost to the ground, keep the threads distended. The threads of the warp

are separated by round pieces of wood five inches in thickness, which pass in a horizontal direction through them, and rest with their ends on knags projecting from the side posts. The operation of weaving is begun at the beam, the woof being conveyed through the warp by means of the hand and arm, and here and there it is forced upwards with a small pin called *reala-pind*; after each thread has been thrust home, the before-mentioned pieces of wood are shifted by first moving the one end and then the other: a piece of smooth whale-bone is employed to thrust home the thread that the cloth may be closer and stronger. As the cloth is wove it is rolled round the beam, which is moveable; but each time a part of the thread must be unwound from the stones which hang down towards the floor. With a loom of this kind a woman in the course of a day can weave from three quarters of a yard to a yard of coarse cloth.

Though the cloth wove in this manner is both close and strong, the operation is exceedingly tedious as well as laborious, and it must excite no little surprise that the inhabitants of Feroe in the course of so many centuries, and particularly of late years, during which so many improvements have been made in various branches of manufacture, never thought of introducing a better kind of loom, and that they should still adhere to their old method which is attended with

so much trouble. Government indeed has made some attempts to effect a change in this respect by offering premiums to those who might introduce the Danish method of weaving in Feroe; but hitherto these attempts have not been attended with success.

The inhabitants of Feroe can tan both skins and hides in a manner peculiar to themselves with the root of the tormentilla, but this operation belongs properly to the women, whose process is as follows: the root is washed clean and then bruised with a stone, after which it is mixed with water till it becomes like paste; this paste is rubbed over the skin on the hairy side, the hair being first scraped off; the skin, is then folded twice double, and laid by for a couple of days, but if it has been moistened eight days before in order that the wool may be loosened, it must remain in this smeared condition for eight days: if it be required to have the skins very neat the same process must be repeated once or twice, and the skins must be washed each time in sea water and then dried. If the bruised root be moistened with sea water, the skins by tanning acquire a pale yellow colour, but if urine be used instead of sea-water they become darker.

The process for dying woollen yarn with dye stuffs found in these islands is generally known, also in Feroe: the colours dyed with indigenous dye stuffs are brownish yellow, red, yellow, vio-

let, black, and sometimes green. Some of the processes for that purpose have been already mentioned; the colours dyed with foreign dye stuffs, are blue with indigo, and bright red with cochineal; but the latter as far as I know is dyed only at Thorshavn.

Fulling is also an occupation assigned to the women, and is performed by treading with their feet on the cloth in a tub. A girl in four or five hours can full twenty pair of hose; for fulling the inhabitants use warm urine and unmelted tallow, or the liquor in which fresh fish has been boiled.

Servants, in consequence of the thinness of the population are not always to be procured, and as they are well aware of this circumstance, and also that if they should think proper to quit their service at an unseasonable time they may do so with impunity, we must ascribe it to the good disposition of the natives that they are not more obstinate and unruly than they are. It happens not unfrequently, however, that a farmer is obliged to undertake that labour himself which he has ordered his servant to perform, and when the latter is called up in the morning to his work, he will sometimes answer, "*E troiste mær itye up,*" which is "I have no desire to get up." There are, however, among these islanders some honest and industrious servants, as I experienced with

much satisfaction during the last years of my residence in Feroe.

SECTION XIII.

Trade.

IN the oldest times of which we have any certain account, the trade of the Feroe islands was carried on by the natives, and with their own ships, in which they exported wool, fish, and perhaps, at a later period, feathers and train oil; these they exchanged for other necessities, particularly in Norway, their original country, and as the town of Bergen lay nearest to them it is reasonable to suppose that this place drew to itself the whole trade of Feroe; but as the Hanse Towns afterwards established a branch of their trade in Norway, and had factors at Bergen, it may be justly concluded that this trade soon fell into their hands, and that they supplied these islanders with such articles as they stood most in need of, and took their superfluities in return. In consequence of this mode of trade, so convenient for the inhabitants of Feroe, their own navigation and trade decreased; and as in the

time of Frederic II. and the succeeding periods they suffered much from the depredations committed by Scottish, English, French, and even Turkish free-booters*, and thus became too weak to revive their own trade, the above prince assigned the trade of the Feroe islands to a company of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Rostock merchants. Christian IV. who endeavoured to restrain the trade of the Hanse Towns, dissolved that company in 1607, and made over the trade of Feroe to a few citizens of Bergen. It afterwards came into the hands of the Icelandic company, established by the same sovereign in 1619. On the dissolution of that company in 1662, it was assigned by Frederic III. to Christopher Gabel, in reward for some services rendered by him to the state; but on the death of his son in 1706, Frederic IV. in consequence of some complaints made by the natives, took the trade into his own hands, and since that time it has always been carried on by government.

The exports from Feroe are hose and pantaloons, tallow, fish, train oil, feathers, skins, and butter. The imports are corn and grain, bread, malt, brandy, wine, tea, coffee, sugar, salt, spices, tobacco, hemp, iron, lead, lime, bricks,

* Magnus Haynesen, the celebrated naval hero of these islands, cleared the seas as long as he lived of these depredators, but after his death they again made their appearance and exercised their piracy as before.

timber, deals, tar, glass, nails, gun-powder, linen cloth, shoes, religious books, and various other articles.

According to Pontoppidan's* account the trade of Feroe during a period of twenty-one years, that is from 1749 to 1780 inclusive, produced to government a neat balance of 197,237 rix-dollars. The number of hose exported annually, one year with another, amounts to upwards of a hundred thousand pairs.

SECTION XIV.

Manner of Life.—Food.

THE only bread used throughout the whole country is barley bread, of which a quantity sufficient for the consumption of the following day is baked every afternoon. On festivals and when the hay-harvest is over, the inhabitants form cakes of rye-meal about an inch in thickness, which are baked upon the coals, or on a small gridiron; but in my opinion this is the worst kind of bread, as it is indigestible, and inferior

* In his journal entitled *For almecennyttige Bidrag* I. D. p. 291.

to barley bread both in taste and the wholesomeness of its quality.

When the inhabitants go out to dig turf in the summer mornings, they take with them a small piece of bread and meat; but the proper breakfast *morgenmêad*, the time of which is nine o'clock, consists of barley bread and milk or fat; those, however, employed in labouring in the fields breakfast on dried meat and barley bread. In slaughtering time the breakfast of these islanders consists often of *sveiti*, that is, lamb's blood coagulated and boiled together with *fleytir*, or milk thickened by twirling in it a piece of stick to the lower end of which is fastened a bunch of swines' bristles.

Dinner *middagsmad* or *dovere*, consists generally of halibut either dried, soaked, or fresh, or of the heads of the cod fish, hung up a few days before in order that they may acquire a strong taste. A second dish is a kind of soup, or rather gruel, made of water and oatmeal, in which some bones, tallow, or a lamb's tail, have been boiled to render it stronger. This soup is for the most part drank, and seldom eat with a spoon.

Supper called *aftens-maden* or *nottere*, is the most important meal to the inhabitants of these islands; it is eaten at nine o'clock, and sometimes later. It consists of barley-meal pottage and milk, fresh fish, or the before-mentioned soup or milk. Sometimes of soup made of greens

and turnip heads, boiled with fresh or dried meat or fowls; but in winter when no milk can be had a kind of meat soup, thickened with meal and roots, is used in its stead, and, if I except a very few variations, introduced in consequence of the slaughtering season and whale fishery, this is the usual method of living in Feroe from the one end of the year to the other. Barley-broth, pease-soup, soup made with meat, and salted meat, are delicacies reserved for strangers and travellers.

The usual drink of these islanders is milk, or the before-mentioned meal-soup, and if the latter be not at hand, pure water which they provide themselves with also when they go out to fish, for ale is used only at weddings, and on other solemn occasions. The malt is purchased in the course of their trade; and their method of brewing, as far as I know, is in nothing different from that followed by the common people in other parts of Denmark.

SECTION XV.

Dress.

THE men in these islands still retain very nearly the same simple and plain dress used by their

forefathers : they wear fine white woollen shirts, which at the collar, breast, and wrist-bands, are bordered with blue cloth. None but a few people of condition have shirts of linen.

For daily wear these people have almost generally used for some time past a woollen vest, wove or knit, of various colours ; it is open before, and worn sometimes with and sometimes without lining, but the edges and button-holes are covered with red tape, and the buttons are either of bone or of tin.

Over this they wear a jacket, *sioštuka*, mostly of a blackish brown or the dark natural colour of the wool ; it fits close to the body, has no seam on the back, and the skirts which are wide are plaited in different folds. The sleeves have one seam only which is on the inside of the arm ; they are pretty wide, but become narrower towards the wrists where they are made to button. The buttons which are of bone are not made in the country but imported. The breeches are of the same cloth ; they are of considerable width, and at the knees are fastened tight with a piece of tape ; they have no buttons, and the aperture where they ought to be is left entirely open.

The stockings are of woollen, and are either black or grey ; they are tied fast below the knee with striped garters.

Their shoes are of yellow tanned sheep or lamb's-skin ; they are formed of one piece of

skin wrapped closely together, and puckered from the toes towards the instep; the heels also are wrapped closely together, and puckered in the like manner. Close to the seam on each side is a small hole through which passes a flat woollen string made of six threads plaited together; this string is wrapped cross-ways several times around the ankle, and by these means fastens the shoe to the foot: when they go abroad into the fields they use shoes of cow-hide formed in the same manner.

Around the neck they tie a white neckcloth, or a coloured cotton handkerchief, and wear on the head a short striped woollen cap, or a knit cap with a border. Some also wear skin caps with the hairy side outermost.

When they go out to fish these people have jackets and trowsers made of tanned skins; but they use when employed in their field labour, a jacket of tanned skin with the woolly side turned inwards. When they go abroad they have always in their hand a staff which is an inch and a half in thickness, and a good deal longer than the height of the person who bears it; the lower end of it is furnished with a large strong spike, and on the top of it are carved out a great many figured rings. This staff is used both for supporting them on the steep sides of the hills, and for enabling them to spring over the rivulets.

The holiday dress of the men consists of Danish

shoes, fine white woollen stockings, black breeches, a calimanco vest, and a sort of jacket with small pockets on the sides, and small cuffs; a white neckcloth, and a hat of black cloth with two cocks or points, one behind and the other before, which rise about a foot, and the edges of these cocks are ornamented with a kind of stiff and narrow lace: this hat gives to a well-made inhabitant of these islands, a respectable appearance, especially when he has in his hand his walking staff, which according to rule must be so long that when the person who bears it fixes the spike at the lower end in the ground, he can just touch the top with the extremity of his finger. The women have laid aside their old dress which consisted of a jacket called *stakkur*, and use now ⁱⁿ general shoes made of the yellow tanned ^{rov} skins ~~skins~~ already mentioned, with coloured strings, black stockings, shirts either brown or striped with black and white, dark violet knit jackets*, fastened before with hooks and eyes; sometimes, but not often, a blue apron, a coloured neckhandkerchief, and a cotton cap with lappets, which are fastened under the chin.

Their holiday dress is a woollen shirt striped with yellow, a fine knit jacket either bright red and white, bright red and blue, or dark blue and

* This dark violet colour is produced by dyeing the jacket, which is knit of black and grey worsted, with the *lichen tartareus*.

black intermixed with light blue, and under the cap, which is sometimes of silk, they have a fine border neatly plaited.

A wedding dress consists of a fine blue, and sometimes red jacket, called *stakkur*, somewhat short in the body, with long round skirts formed into many small folds or plaits. The sleeves, which reach to the wrists, are ornamented with small black velvet cuffs, and to the extremities are sewed broad lace ruffles, which are folded back on the cuffs. Around the neck the bride wears a fine white handkerchief with broad lace at the edges. On the breast is fastened a large silver pin, from which is suspended by one corner a square plate of the same metal, about four inches wide. This plate is furnished with a great many projecting rings or hooks, from which hang abundance of silver spangles that on the least motion glitter and make a rattling noise. Around the middle is a girdle of red velvet, interspersed with silver figures and fastened before with a silver buckle; but one end of the girdle hangs down over the skirts of the jacket. The hair is formed into two braids, which are folded round the head, and above them are placed a small roll or fillet ornamented with ribbands, either of different colours or interwoven with gold and silver, which are entwined and fastened to each other in a great many knots and figures to the height of about two or three inches; to the back part of

this fillet are fastened four broad ribbands, often interwoven with gold and silver or covered with various ornaments; of these four ribbands, each of which is about eighteen inches in length, two are suffered to hang down the back; but the other two are drawn forwards and fastened in such a manner as to hang down on the breast*. Such is the attire of a bride in Feroe, and it must indeed be confessed that if she be a personable figure, as is generally the case, she makes an agreeable appearance, and in that dress looks like a queen in the midst of the neat young girls who perform what is called the bride's dance.

The bridegroom wears the holiday dress already described, and has nothing else remarkable but his white fringed neckcloth, which hangs down his breast, and which is ornamented with narrow red ribbands waving to the extremities of it.

SECTION XVI.

Houses and Buildings.

THE houses of the inhabitants and the out-houses are all built in a line, or are disposed in

* If the bride be a widow or with child before marriage she must wear below the fillet a cap of red velvet or cloth, which stands somewhat upwards, in order to cover the back part of her head, but without the ribbands that hang down on the back and breast.

two rows, which generally stand parallel to each other at the distance of about eight or nine feet, or they are scattered about irregularly, as the situation of the place seemed to require. The principal part of a dwelling-house is a small building with glass windows, an improvement lately introduced, and not usual in former times. This building is constructed of a wooden frame covered with fir boards, daubed over with tar: it is, however, skreened on one or two sides with a wall built of stones and green turf, which stands at the distance of two feet from the wooden work, and the intermediate space is covered with a roof which joins to that of the house itself. To the fore-part of this building is added another called *kova*, one end of which serves as a parlour, and the other as a pantry for preserving milk, meat, and other articles of provision. The building distinguished by glass windows is furnished with a bed, and among the more opulent, a chest of drawers, a stove, a table, with benches on each side, sometimes stools, and one or two chests for holding clothes; this apartment is not employed for daily use. To a dwelling-house belong also a small kitchen, and one or two small chambers, near which stands one for the servants and labouring people; the last has no chimney; but on one side, in some of the corners, a few large stones laid on the floor serve as a fire-place, and some stones or

bricks placed behind it, prevent the wooden wall from being damaged by the fire. A square hole in the roof, as there are no windows, admits the light, and at the same time gives vent to the smoke; in rainy weather this hole is covered with a board having a pole affixed to it, by means of which it can be opened or shut. On the sides this apartment is furnished with benches and alcove beds; it is surrounded, at least on three sides, by a thick wall built of stones with thin grass turf placed between them, and earth closely rammed into the middle. This wall stands about a foot from the wooden wall, and is covered with a roof joined to that of the rest of the building. The roof of the latter consists either of birch-bark, or barley-straw, with grass turf laid over it. It is very remarkable, as there are no chimneys in such apartments, and though the wooden walls are so near the fire-place, that fires are scarcely ever heard of in Feroe. This seems to be owing to two causes; the first is, that as a great part of the timber used for building is floated from the place where it is purchased to that where it is used, it becomes impregnated with salt water, the saline particles of which render it less inflammable; the second is, that nothing is burnt here but turf, and I have found by experience, that pieces of timber well penetrated by the smoke arising from turf, do not readily catch fire.

The *fyéus*, or cow-house, for here there are no stables, as the horses always remain out in the open air, consists of thick walls built of stone, with earth rammed in between them. But the best houses of this kind have posts placed within the walls to support the roof, so that if the walls should happen to tumble down, which is often the case when they are not well secured at the top from water, which soaks into the earth, and which, when frost comes, forces out the stones, the roof still remains standing, whereas if it rested on the wall it would infallibly fall in. These houses also, in general, are built very low, and the roof is made very flat, that they may be better secured against storms; but this renders them more unhealthy for the animals, and contributes to the speedier destruction of the roof, which, as it consists only of straw and grass turf, seldom lasts above two or three years.

Kiادلur is a building erected for the purpose of drying meat, or fish. The roof, which is like that of the other out-houses, rests upon four strong posts placed in the four corners, and the sides and ends are composed of laths, placed at about the distance of half an inch from each other, so as to afford a free passage to the air and the wind. To secure it from the rats, which are so destructive in these islands, the floor must be raised so far from the earth that these vermin cannot gnaw a passage through it. When a

building of this kind is employed for drying fish, each of the gavels consists of a stone wall. Another building, called *ofnakiadlur*, is used also for drying fish; but the roof is supported only by two stone walls at the ends, and the sides are enclosed with laths. Houses of this kind are generally erected near the sea-shore; and, if possible, in such a situation that the wind can have free access to them.

Nest is a building on the sea-shore in which one or more boats are preserved during the winter. The walls are built of stone, and the roof consists of straw and green turf, or straw with hay laid over it, and kept down with ropes of hay, to the ends of which stones are suspended.

Another building, the walls of which are of stones, without earth or cement, that the wind may pass through them, and which has a roof like the preceding, is destined to hold the turf used for fuel.

CHAPTER IV.

POLITICAL DESCRIPTION OF FEROE.

SECTION I.*Persons and Character of the Inhabitants.*

THE natives of Feroe are, in general, handsome and well made. In the colour of their hair there is considerable variety; and it is difficult to determine which is the most prevalent, unless it be the brown. Their complexion exhibits a healthful mixture of red and white; but in hot summers the sun, during the time they are employed in procuring turf, gives it a brownish cast. Their features are never disfigured by the small-pox, for this disease has not yet become endemial in these islands. It hardly seems possible that the distance of seventy miles, which is the greatest extent of the Feroe islands from north to south, should produce any difference in the conformation and properties of these people: and yet

this difference is very perceptible; for the natives of the southern islands are of less stature, have round faces, speak in a precipitate manner, and appear to be much livelier in their actions; whereas the natives of the northern islands are in general taller, have more lengthened countenances, speak slower, and are much graver in their whole deportment. The women, for the most part, are exceedingly pretty and well-proportioned. In regard to the mental qualities of these people, they are much more ingenious than might be expected in so insulated an abode; but, if in this respect they surpass the inhabitants of a great part of the other Danish provinces, which, however, I am far from asserting, they are certainly indebted for this advantage to their state of freedom, and the little restraint they are under in conversing with each other. A great portion of them are naturally inclined to the phlegmatic; but they possess great sensibility, and on melancholy occasions are easily excited to shed tears, even though the event may not concern themselves. I have no reason to think that they are much to be praised for their courage; but it ought not to occasion much wonder if people who have no arms to defend themselves should, on the appearance of an enemy, seek shelter among their hills.

SECTION II.

Manners, Virtues, and Vices.

THE system of education which they have adopted for their children is none of the best; for as the parents entertain too blind an affection for them, they are allowed too much of their own will; and it is astonishing that the children, notwithstanding their neglected education, should when they grow up, become ingenious, active, and well-bred. In saluting strangers they are accustomed from their youth to scrape with their foot and kiss their hand before they stretch it out to lay hold of that of another; and this custom is general among the natives when they salute any person above the rank of peasant; but among themselves they always salute with a kiss of the mouth, whether they know each other or not. They are religious; behave with great reverence during divine service; and though for many Sundays they cannot have the attendance of a clergyman, as he must perform duty at five, six, or seven churches, they do not fail to meet in church, where they sing psalms, and hear the service read by one of the congregation, who

reads also the explanation of some text of scripture from a book of sermons. If the village lies at a distance from the church, they assemble in the house of some one of the inhabitants, and go through the same forms. They live, for the most part, in great peace and harmony with each other; so that before the Commission of Arbitration was introduced among them, few, or none of their quarrels ever terminated in lawsuits: this is the case at present, in general; but, in my opinion, the natives of the northern islands are more to be commended for their peaceable disposition than those of the southern. They are all hospitable according to their means.

They are friendly and affable in their disposition. When they speak to, or address each other, they always use the expression "Thou Blessed." But whether this flattering appellation proceeds at all times from the heart, I will not venture to affirm: according to my observation, I am rather inclined to ascribe it to custom, and a desire of rendering themselves agreeable.

These islanders are so fortunate as to be blessed with a contented disposition, in consequence of which they suffer the cares of each day to pass over without repining, and give themselves very little trouble in regard to the events which may take place in the course of the year; but it cannot be denied that a part of them seem to carry this indifference to too great a length, as they

appear to confide, not so much in Providence, as in the assistance of their charitable neighbours.

The natives of Feroe are also compassionate and benevolent, so that no person who solicits relief from them ever does so in vain; and their alms, which are readily given in meat or wool, are seldom of less value than four or five skillings Danish. So general, indeed, is this spirit of benevolence, that those who beg in the morning will give away at night. But it is much to be wished, that in indulging this praise-worthy disposition, they would pay more attention to distinguish those who are really objects of charity, in order that they might not increase the number of idlers and impostors, which is too often the case.

They are honest in all their dealings with each other; but this virtue, as well as their humanity and readiness to assist their fellow-creatures, is displayed in a particular manner when any vessel is so unfortunate as to be wrecked on their coasts. On such occasions they afford every relief to the crew, and use every endeavour to save as much as they can of the property, of which they claim one-third by way of salvage: but they never secrete any part of what has been thus saved. The unfortunate sailors they receive into their houses, where they are treated with great kindness, and maintained at free cost, even for several months, and on their departure they are sup-

plied with money; so that these poor fellows often acknowledge, with tears in their eyes, that through the kindness of their benefactors they have lost little by their misfortune.

It cannot be denied that these northern islanders are fond of strong liquors; but few of them in this respect ever exceed the bounds of moderation; even at their weddings, though they drink till their spirits are exhilarated, they seldom proceed to intoxication. The inhabitants of some of the villages near to the places of trade are, however, not entitled to the same commendation.

Their temperance in eating and drinking has been already mentioned, and also the simplicity of the dress of the men; but the women appear to be rather fond of foreign ornaments. A part of the inhabitants have in their houses featherbeds and sheets, of which some make use, but most of them are satisfied with sleeping in blankets without either of these luxuries.

Though the inhabitants of Feroe possess these virtues, their character is not altogether destitute of blemishes. Their absurd and obstinate attachment to old habits and customs, even in things where it can be clearly proved that the proposed innovation would be much better, is a failing which they participate in common with the populace of other countries, and particularly, in my opinion, with all islanders. Envy, the vice of low minds, is also a defect in the character of

these people. A man employed in collecting the produce of his fields in a place where he can see a fishing-boat on the coast, with the blessing which he holds in his hands, cannot help viewing with an eye of jealousy every little fish that the owner draws into his boat.

That propensity to talking, which is so peculiar to these people, degenerates in many to prattling; so that a trifling and sometimes feigned event is conveyed from village to village with great rapidity, and always increased like the snow-ball rolled down from the hills during the time of a thaw.

In regard to another vice, Debes, in his work, says, "Among the common and poor people there is much more dishonesty and thieving than might well be expected; but, in general, they steal only eatables to relieve their necessity; gold and silver are perfectly safe among them:" and I am far from accusing Debes of falsehood in this respect, after being so long in his grave. A few sheep or lambs may sometimes be missing in the fields, and as there are no ravenous quadrupeds in these islands, people are almost inclined to ascribe their loss to the two-legged race; but sheep and lambs belong to eatables, and besides, I console myself with reflecting that I can safely assert, that the number of two-legged thieves is at present very small in these islands.

SECTION III.

Language.

THE language of Feroe appears at first to a stranger to be very difficult, but it is learned much sooner than might be expected ; for a great part of the words are old Danish, or rather Norwegian, which, with a corrupted pronunciation, have assumed a foreign appearance. As a specimen we shall give the following short vocabulary :

<i>Feroese.</i>	<i>Danish.</i>	<i>English.</i>
Fræ Froæ	Sædekorn	A grain of corn.
Siegverin	Soen	The sea.
Loret	Lærred	Linen cloth.
Oyn Baug	En Bog	A book.
Ditnar	Dör	A door.
Puypa	Pibe	A pipe.
Höddet	Hovedet	The head.
Skortin	Fiæs (ansigt)	The face.
Eyen	Oynene	The eyes.
Nosin	Næsen	The nose.

<i>Feroese.</i>	<i>Danish.</i>	<i>English.</i>
Muveren	Munden	The mouth.
Hökan	Hagen	The neck.
Oyren	Oerne	The ears.
Mæyin	Maven	The stomach.
Ogn	Eyendom	Property.
Munere	Forskiel	Difference.

As a farther specimen we shall add the following short dialogue:

<i>Feroese.</i>	<i>English.</i>
Geñan morgun! Gud signe tee! Qveât eru örindi tuyni so tuylia aa modni?	Good morning! God bless you! What is your errand so early to-day?
E atli meâr tiil utiraurar.	I am thinking of going out to fish.
Qvussu eer vegri?	How is the weather?
Qvussu eer atta?	How is the wind?
Teâ eer got enn; men e. wait ikkyi qvussu teâ viil teâka up mouti dei.	Good as yet; but I do not know how they will be in the course of the day.
Viil tu ikkyi feâra vi?	Will you not accompany me?
Nai.	No.
Qvuy taa?	For what reason?

*Feroese.**English.*

<p>Tuy e vantí meâar ayn- kyi aa syeunum ; o tea eer betri a feâra cât seyi.</p>	<p>Because I do not intend to fish ; and it is bet- ter to look after the sheep.</p>
--	--

Proverbs.

Syoldan kemur du-ungie eáf rafes æg. Seldom are pigeons hatched from a raven's egg ; that is to say, bad parents seldom produce good children.

Ommaala döyr ikkye. Calumny never dies ; that is, he who calumniates others may be calumniated in his turn.

Got eer oufötun a beâsa. It is easy to overcome the unborn, or those who do not exist ; that is, it is easy to gain the victory where there is no resistance.

Ofta teáka trodl gaua manna bodn. The evil spirit often carries away the child of a good man ; this alludes to the case when the daughter of an honest or respectable man, marries a bad husband, or one beneath her station.

Tunt eer thæ blau, ikkye eer tiukkare end vatn. Thin is that blood which is not thicker than water.

Oyngyin voyt aa modni a sia, qvæer han aa

qvoldi gistir. That is, no one knows in the morning where he shall be entertained in the afternoon; or, no one knows in the morning what will happen to him before night.

Among the old names of persons still used in Feroe are the following:

<i>Names of Men.</i>		<i>Names of Women.</i>
John	Eydan	Sunneva
Haldan	Guttorm	Zigga
Harald	Kolbeyn	Ragnil
Gulak	Heyne	Femya
Gutte	Likyir	Armgaard
Dyone	Yeser	
Ansind	Oystan	

It deserves here to be remarked, that, though the natives of Feroe always speak their own language, the pronunciation of which approaches near to that of the Norwegian, the whole of them, almost, understand pretty well the Danish, in which language the Christian religion is taught, and divine service performed; nay, many of them speak very good Danish, and with more neatness and propriety than the populace in the other Danish provinces.

SECTION IV.

Learning.—Method of Reckoning Time.

IN a country like Feroe, where there is not a single village-school, or school-master, it might be expected that nothing could prevail but the grossest ignorance, especially in matters of religion; yet I can safely affirm that this is not the case in Feroe. If I except a few persons of very great age, who cannot read a letter, the natives of Feroe are very well instructed in the Christian religion, and often thoroughly acquainted with the bible; at least I found this to be the case in the ten parishes in which I performed duty.

Parents instruct their children themselves; and it cannot be denied, that where this method is practicable it is the most natural, and at the same time the most advantageous, both for the children and parents; for who will not admit the truth of the Roman adage, *docendo discimus ipsi*? If the parents at any time have not leisure to give their children the necessary instruction, it is not unusual for them to request some neighbouring friend to undertake that task for them.

The inhabitants have also a great taste for reading; and this gives the clergymen an excellent opportunity of diffusing general knowledge among their parishioners. A great many of them not only learn to read writing, but also to write themselves; and I have known several of them, that from a few copies set them have learned to write a neat and legible hand. They are very ready in reckoning, and can even sum up accompts where fractions occur merely from memory. Their rowing out to fish, on which occasion they generally employ the night, that they may be able to reach in proper time the destined place, gives them an opportunity of knowing and observing the planets; and the numerous summits of the hills serve them as marks, by means of which they are better able to make themselves acquainted with their motions. This knowledge of astronomy renders it easy for them to determine pretty accurately, in clear weather, the hour of the night. Many of them are good chess-players; but with instrumental music they are entirely unacquainted, and their dances are always accompanied with singing. They have more than common knowledge of the calendar, and know the different changes of the moon, from which they can calculate the time of high and low water. They undertake the labours destined for different periods of the year accord-

ing to certain fixed days, which they consider of great importance.

In regard to the marking of time, they divide the day, like the people of other countries, into twenty-four hours; and sometimes they give to the hours their proper appellations; but they have also a method of dividing the day which is peculiar to themselves, and according to which the day contains eight *ökter*,* and each *ökt* three hours; but to determine the time with more accuracy, they have also half *ökter*, which consist each of an hour and a half; and to these they give names according to the point of the compass in which the sun is at the time.

Thus, when the sun is on the following points the hours are as expressed opposite to each.

East-north-east	4½ in the morning.
East	6
East-south-east	7½
South-east	9
South-south-east	10½
South	12
South-south-west	1½ in the afternoon.
South-west	3
West-south-west	4½
West	6
West-north-west	7½

* *Oke* is certainly a corruption of *vike*, which signifies a week.

North-west	9 in the afternoon.
North-north-west	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
North	12

SECTION V.

Superstition.

WERE a man to travel from Kamschatka to South America, or from Greenland to China, he would, in my opinion, find every where among the lower orders a great deal of superstition, and a belief in some supernatural beings, who, in common with the inhabitants, make use of the earth, or districts where they reside; an idea, which on account of its general prevalence, must have had its origin at a very early period. It will, therefore, excite no wonder that it should have been adopted by the people of Feroe. Nay, they have their so-called *hulde-folk*, who reside in the fields; are of large stature, wear a grey dress, and have on their heads black hats. These beings possess large fat cows and sheep, and also dogs; which, though invisible, are sometimes, but very seldom, seen by the inhabitants. They are fond of Christian women, as well as of children, and often carry the latter

away, leaving their own in their stead. *Nikar* is a supposed being which resides in the fresh waters, or lakes, drags people into them, and drowns them. *Niügruisar*, (hobgoblins) are small beings in the human form, with red caps on their heads, which bring good fortune to the place where they have taken up their abode. *Vattrar* are good beings, which reside, for the most part, in church-yards. *Marra* lie upon people when asleep, and almost suffocate them; but if they are able to pronounce the name of Jesus they immediately betake themselves to flight; they may be driven away also by keeping a knife in the house, and by repeating certain words, which I do not at present remember. In the seventeenth century, when Debes wrote his *Feroa Reserata*, several of the inhabitants had been carried away by these evil spirits, some of whom never appeared, but the greater part of them were again found, or returned home of their own accord. People may be carried away in this manner either by these evil spirits, or by Satan himself. In the course of the last century these islands were pretty free from such terrible events, but not entirely; for when I left Feroe there was still living in Osteroe, a man little more than forty years of age, who, when a child about three years old, was carried away from his father's house, without any one knowing whither, or in what manner; but after a search of two

days the child was found asleep on a rock, at the distance of about two miles from its home. This circumstance is confirmed by the testimony of many persons now living; but it is not known what kind of a spirit could have carried this child to such a distance from the place of its residence.*

Witches sometimes think proper to ride on the backs of the cows, which produces in them a disease called *trolri*. And when a cow has calved various superstitious means are practised, by plucking the hair from the tail, moving a light round the horns, singing some of the hair about the udder, between the horns, or on the hoofs; and when the animal is milked for the first time, a small wooden cross, a knife, a white muscle-shell, and a nut, or bean, called *quitnnuyra*, must be previously placed in the milking pail. But, to the honour of our more enlightened age, I am happy to say, that only a few among the most ignorant of the common people in Feroe place any confidence, at present, in such absurdities.

* It is very singular that recourse should be had to supernatural causes to account for an effect which can be produced by natural causes. It may be readily conceived that a hurricane, or whirlwind, which is capable of tearing up the grass turf from the fields, of overturning and carrying away haystacks, and of removing huge stones from their seats, is capable also of overturning a man, or of carrying away a child of three years of age.

SECTION VI.

Weddings, &c.

SOMETIMES a young man in Feroe endeavours to gain the affection of a young woman without communicating his intentions to any of his friends; but as soon as he obtains the young woman's consent, he no longer thinks concealment necessary. If he proves unfortunate in his suit, has no means of access to the object of his love, or is unacquainted with her parents, he employs the intervention of some respectable person, who makes the proposal in his name. This confidential friend waits upon the young woman and her parents, acquaints them with the young man's intention, and receives their answer. If the offer be rejected nothing more is to be done, and the suitor must direct his views to some other quarter; but if no objections are made by any of the parties, the lover repairs a week after to the house of the young woman with his high hat on his head, and his wooing staff in his hand, as a signal of his errand. Persons of higher rank celebrate their weddings at

any period of the year they think proper; but the common people marry only in the autumn, which is their slaughtering time. As the wedding-dress of both sexes has been already described, I shall here only make a few observations in regard to the ceremonies. The bridegroom has two men, who are generally selected from the most respectable of his friends, and whose duty is to accompany him to and from church, and to dress and undress him. The bride has also two bride-maidens, who dress her, and who, during the ceremony, stand behind her and the bridegroom; she has also two young men called *loyasvoynar*, that is, leaders, who each laying hold of an arm, accompany her to the church, hand her into her pew, and when the service is over, attend her in the same manner back to the house where the wedding is celebrated. The bridegroom first repairs to the church, with all his male attendants walking in pairs; and then the bride, who, however, is preceded by a company of bride-girls, (*stoylar*,) all neatly dressed and ornamented, who arrange themselves in a row in the passage before the pew appropriated for her, where they remain standing till she and her maids have passed them.*

* A widow, or bride, who is pregnant, has no bride-girls at her wedding; and in this case the men and the women walk promiscuously together.

During the ceremony a great many candles are placed on the altar; and when it is ended, which is generally in the afternoon, the company return. After the new married pair have received a congratulatory kiss from each of the guests, they all sit down to a dinner, which consists of soup made with beef, or lamb; roast beef, or lamb, succeeded by rice soup, plum tarts, and a kind of fritters without apples; and on such occasions there is always a plentiful supply of brandy and ale, which is handed about by cup-bearers. When the dinner is over, and a thanksgiving hymn sung, the apartment is made ready for dancing. The bride and bridegroom, with the whole company, form themselves into a circle, and joining hands, dance round in cadence, towards the left side, to the sound of a nuptial song, which is sung by all the dancers in full chorus. If the apartment is not large enough to admit the whole company to make one circle, they form themselves into two or more concentric circles.

When the evening has been spent in dancing, the cup-bearers enter, and giving a loud thump on one of the beams, summon the bridegroom to bed for the first time; half an hour after they give a second thump, and summon the bride to bed; this ceremony is repeated, and afterwards the bridegroom is summoned to bed for the last time. The bride is conducted first to bed, in

which she lies down half undressed, and on this occasion she sheds a few tears; the same ceremony is observed in regard to the bridegroom, who, however, lies down without dropping any tears. When both are in bed a couple of psalms are sung in most places, and the evening prayers read, after which the company retire, and continue their dancing as long as they think proper. Next morning the wedded pair receive in bed presents from the guests, which generally amount to one or two crowns, and a glass of wine, or brandy is given to each person present. The whole of the day is spent in feasting and dancing; but after dinner one of the most ingenious of the guests brings in a rump of roast beef, part of the cow killed for the wedding, the tail of which, adhering to it, is bent upwards and ornamented with ribbons; but the whole piece sometimes is decorated with painted, or gilt paper; it is introduced with a poetical oration, the subject of which is a panegyric on the dish; and sometimes the fate and history of the cow is detailed in this speech, with a tiresome and insipid minuteness. The vessel containing the dish is placed at the upper end of the table, where it is handed from the one to the other, each of the company, if they choose, giving vent at the same time to some witty and extempore effusion in verse, which either contains some trait of

satyr, or is calculated to excite a roar of laughter.*

Christmas also is a period of pastime and mirth to these islanders, at which time they assemble on Sundays and holidays in the afternoon, to amuse themselves with singing and dancing; but they never drink, or indulge in any games that could tend to corrupt their morals.

SECTION VII.

Diseases and Remedies.

AMONG the diseases of Feroe is a violent inflammatory fever, which, during some years, prevails in the country, and is exceedingly infec-

* Some injury done to them by their superiors, or rulers, serves sometimes on such occasions as the subject of these effusions. The following is an example: an inhabitant of Feroe was once condemned to pay a fine for shooting an eider-duck, though the witnesses differed in regard to the colour of the fowl, the one asserting it to be grey, and the other affirming that it was white. The culprit, therefore, turned the whole procedure into verse, and with so much satirical humour, that it afterwards served as a fund of amusement to various companies.

tious and mortal. The common symptoms of this disease are pains in the head and back, bleeding at the nose, delirium; in some, diarrhæa, and in others, costiveness. Medicines are seldom administered in this fever, because it is considered as incurable; yet I have remarked, that copious bleeding, employed in proper time, checks the violence of the disease, and helps to prevent a fatal termination. Those who survive the disease seldom recover their full strength in less than a quarter of a year.

Kruym is a malignant catarrhal fever, which commonly attacks all the inhabitants without exception,* especially in the autumn and spring, on the sudden changes of the weather; it is accompanied with a cough, and sometimes pain in the head. Many of those affected are confined to bed, but seldom any die of it.

Erysipela is pretty common in Feroe, as well as the gout, both fixed and flying; but I am inclined to think that some bring this latter disorder upon themselves by their imprudence, as many who come home wet from their labour are accustomed to throw themselves on their beds to rest without pulling off their damp clothing. The excessive heat of their apartments, and the bad custom the inhabitants have of sitting close

* Foreigners who settle in Feroe, are generally free from the attack of this disease during the two first years.

to the fire, dispose the body also to be goutish when exposed to the least cold, or sharpness of the wind.

Many bring on a disorder of the breast in consequence of kneeling down at a spring when dry and covered with perspiration, after their field labour, and drinking large draughts of ice-cold water. As a cure, some drink the water in which upright fir-moss, (*lycopodium selago*,) has been boiled.

The stone* is more common in Feroe, as far as I have observed, than in other countries, and occasions to many a painful and lingering death. A stone which has been voided by a woman, pulverised and mixed with water, is considered as a cure for a man, and *vice versa*. But I doubt much whether the efficacy of this remedy can be confirmed by experience.

The jaundice may be cured, it is said, by drinking water in which an eagle's claw has been steeped. I find a great coincidence between this prescription and another used by the populace in many parts of Denmark, namely, to eat the broth in which a yellow-legged hen has been

* Is it not possible that the bread baked in the ashes, to the crust of which a portion of ashes and cinders must undoubtedly adhere during the operation of baking which is used by the inhabitants, may contribute to the formation of the stone? This question I shall leave to the determination of physicians.

boiled. The sanative quality is here ascribed to the yellow legs.

When the uvula falls down a portion of it is cut off with a knife; and no other bad effect has been experienced from this singular and bold expedient but a continual hoarseness.

The small-pox, as has been said, is a disease not yet endemial in Feroe; but when it happens to be introduced by careless or thoughtless seamen, it rages like the plague. These islands have been free from it for these seventy years.

Gyo is a swelling and stiffness of the wrist, in consequence of which it cracks, or makes a noise when the hand is moved backwards and forwards. To cure it the natives employ certain superstitious practices; holding the diseased part over the hot ashes, and repeating certain words.

Quroynt is a violent pain, or smarting, in some one part of the body or another, occasioned by small worms beneath the skin. The method of cure used by the inhabitants is as follows. The place of the body in which the pain is felt is held over a vessel, or tub, filled with water, in which any piece of gold handed down from father to son in the family, such as money or rings, has been boiled, and the diseased limb is covered with a cloth; the small worms are thus extracted, and may be seen alive, swimming in the water.

Another disease consists of a great many small bladders, which suddenly make their appearance

on the body, like those produced by burning, but with this difference, that the former are surrounded by a red ring. When spread over the whole body and stomach they prove mortal; but if they occupy only a part of it they may be cured, it is said, by bathing them in a decoction of ground liverwort, (*lichen caninus*,) pulled with gloves on, either at sun-set, or when the sun is below the horizon.

A higher degree of this painful disorder, called *olvar-eld*, is cured by fumigating the part with *conferva*, first dried a little, and then placed on burning coals.

Many of the women are subject to a suppression of the menses, arising partly from their sedentary life, and partly from wet feet, which they cannot avoid when they go out to milk their cows in rainy weather, as their shoes are exceedingly thin. It is remarkable, that many of them never experience this periodical evacuation, and yet continue well.

A kind of leprosy, called by Debes *elephantia*, prevailed formerly in Feroe, but is now almost extirpated. I have, however, seen two persons who had something which bore a resemblance to this disease. One of them was a girl fourteen years of age, who had on her arms a great many white scales, which, however, disappeared of themselves when she grew up; the other was a man about twenty-eight years old, who had on

one of his legs an ugly, thick, lead-coloured crust, or scab, composed of whitish-grey scales. This sore occasioned a violent itching, and sometimes an acute pain; but it seldom emitted any water. As this disease was very common in former times, an hospital, called *Arge*, was founded in the neighbourhood of Thorshavn, about two centuries ago, for the reception of persons infected by it; but as no leprous persons have for a long time been seen in these islands, it is now employed as a dwelling-house for the managers of the institution, by which means it is preserved from falling into ruins.

I must not here omit to remark, that bleeding and cupping are the principal means which the inhabitants employ in most of their diseases; and I am inclined to believe, that their nourishing food, in which there is too small a proportion of fresh vegetables, and their sedentary labours within doors, especially at certain times of the year, thicken their blood too much, so that this frequent bleeding is not only more useful, but even more necessary among them than among the natives of other countries; and as the only surgeon in Feroe, who must be acquainted with the diseases prevalent in it, is not able to attend all the inhabitants, a great part of them have been obliged to practice bleeding, so that in most of the villages there is always one or

more persons who can perform this operation with great expertness.

SECTION VIII.

Population.

ACCORDING to the best information I was able to obtain in regard to the population of Feroe, which was that of Svaboe in the year 1782, the numbers were,

Norderøe parish	585
Osterøe	1040
Nordströmøe	535
Sydströmøe	840
Vaagøe	384
Sandøe	388
Suderøe	637

Total 4409

In regard to Nordströmøe, I know from my own experience that the population in late years has perceptibly increased; but the registers of baptism, and bills of mortality, in some of the other parishes do not warrant the same assertion. At any rate, I may venture to fix the whole

population of the Feroe islands at 5000. As these islands contain about 470 English square miles, we have, therefore, ten persons for each square mile.

SECTION IX.

Revenue.

THE principal part of the revenue which the Danish government derives from the Feroe islands consists in taxes, quit-rents, or royal domains. One of the taxes is thirty-six pounds of tallow for every sixty sheep, and a lamb's skin for every sheep; but in Sandöe and Suderöe the proportion is less. For every eighty sheep, or lambs, killed, a certain quantity of wool is paid; but in Suderöe and Sandöe this tax is paid in stockings, and in Myggenæs, in sheep. In the year 1790, the whole of the king's revenue from these islands amounted to about 3172 rix-dollars.

The greater part of this revenue is received in produce of the country; namely, skins, tallow, butter, fish, train-oil, stockings, &c. which are shipped for Copenhagen; but the wool belonging to government is sold at a fixed price to the poor at Thorshavn, to prevent a scarcity of it, and to preserve industry among the inhabitants.

SECTION X.

Religious Establishment, and Schools.

THE Christian religion was introduced into Feroe in the year 1000, by the celebrated Sigmund Bresteson, a native of the country, who had been before baptized at Copenhagen. About a century after a bishop was appointed for these islands, whose residence was at Kirkebøe, in Stromøe; and after that time they always had a bishop of their own, for the space of about 500 years. Debes enumerates fifteen bishops of Feroe before the Reformation, one of whom, named Hilarius, is said to have built the church-wall still standing at Kirkebøe. The last, named Amund Olafsen, who had before been a canon at Bergen, was appointed bishop of Feroe in 1532.

After him there was only one protestant bishop, namely, Jens Riber, who having been several times plundered by the French freebooters, quitted the country, and retired to Copenhagen, from which he was sent to be bishop of Stavanger, in Norway, in the year 1556. After that time a provost was placed at the head of the church in Feroe, and as long as the people

of Bergen carried on trade with these islands he was subordinate to the bishops of Bergen; but since this trade has been transferred to Copenhagen, he is subject to the bishops of that city.

The inhabitants of Feroe are divided into thirty-nine congregations, forming seven parishes; so that every clergyman has the care of four, five, six, and sometimes seven parishes, some of which lie at a considerable distance from the principal church. The ecclesiastical duty, therefore, in these islands is exceedingly laborious, in consequence of the long journeys which the clergyman must undertake, sometimes by sea, and sometimes by land. The latter, however, are the most difficult; for in a country so full of rocks no carriage can be employed, and the nature of the roads, or the depth of the snow early in autumn, and late in the spring, renders riding, even on horseback, in some places impossible. Duty, therefore, can be performed in these churches by the clergyman every fourth, fifth, sixth, or seventh week only, and in two places, but twice a year. It has been already mentioned, that when the clergyman visits the Greater Dimon it is necessary to hoist him up by a rope; and this is the case sometimes at Myggenæs. In several places also the performance of Divine service must be regulated according to the currents, for the delay of less than a quarter of an hour may render it impossible for

a boat to land during several days, weeks, or even months.

I have already said, that in the absence of the clergyman the congregation assemble in the church, and hear the service read by some one of themselves, selected for that purpose. The clergyman also makes choice of one of the most intelligent and respectable of the parishioners, to instruct the children in the principles of religion during the time he is obliged to attend his duty in other places.

There are no country schools in Feroe; but at Thorshavn there is a grammar-school, established after the Reformation by Christian III. who appointed the clergyman of that place to be master of it; but as the duty of these two offices could not well be discharged by one person, it is now under the care of a rector.

SECTION XI.

Incomes of the Clergy.

OFFERINGS are given only once a year, that is to say, at Candlemas, when they are presented in stockings, which are carried to the clergyman's house. They amount to about twelve

skillings annually from each communicant. And the whole, according to the extent of the parish, may be worth about from twenty to forty rix-dollars. The clergyman also receives one-third of the tithes of barley and wool; but in Suderoe, where the sheep do not produce large fleeces, they receive stockings instead of the latter article: the value of them, however, in each place does not exceed eight or ten rix-dollars.* To this is to be added the tithe of fish, whales, and seals, which, in consequence of the bad state of the fisheries at present, is both uncertain and of little value. The clergy also are entitled to the tithe of sea-fowl where any are caught, as well as to that of butter; and each has a glebe, the rent of which, if let, would bring in about twenty florins.† Besides this, he sometimes enjoys the benefit of an annexed glebe, which his widow, if he leaves one behind him at his death, possesses during her life-time; and in that case she receives no other pension from the parish. Casual emoluments where the population is small, cannot be of much importance, though each readily contributes according to his circumstances. For baptisms, the people in some places make a small present to the clergyman, but in others they give nothing. A woman

* About thirty or forty shillings sterling.

† About thirty shillings.

when churched gives one florin, or, perhaps, only half a florin;* and a bride on her being married from three to seven;† but all these perquisites, with the other offerings, do not amount to more than from six to twenty florins.‡ When a clergyman preaches a funeral sermon he receives ten florins.§

The provost receives, as visitation-money, one rix-dollar for each church; and has, besides, a glebe, called *garshodn*, situated at Andefiord, which brings him in, according to my information, sixty rix-dollars yearly.||

The annual taxes, &c. paid by each clergyman to government, are different according to the extent of the parish, but taking a mean, they may be estimated at about fifteen rix-dollars.* *

SECTION XII.

Income of the Churches.

THE only income almost which the churches have in Feroe, is one-third of the before-men-

* About a shilling, or two shillings sterling.

† From about ten to thirty shillings sterling.

‡ From four to ten shillings sterling.

§ About eighteen shillings.

|| About twelve or fourteen pounds sterling.

* * About three pounds sterling.

tioned tythes. In a very few places there is also bell-money, when ringing is required at weddings and funerals. Two church-wardens, chosen by the provost and clergyman of each parish, collect the church tythes, and pay the amount into the Royal Commercial Office, which holds them in trust, along with the duties belonging to government; but the small tythes, such as salt-fish, sea-fowl, seals, and corn, belong to the church-wardens, who farm them for a certain trifling sum paid annually. In some places these small tythes are of very little value; but in others, particularly where many sea-fowl are caught, and corn is much cultivated, I am well convinced that they far exceed the sum at which they are farmed.

The yearly revenue of each church may amount, in general, to ten, fifteen, or twenty, rix-dollars.*

The expenses on the other hand may be as follows:

For wafers and wine, from seven to twenty marks.†

Visitation-money to the provost, one rix-dollar.‡

* From two to four pounds sterling.

† From five to fifteen shillings sterling.

‡ About four shillings sterling.

To the church-wardens, from two ris-dollars to fifteen marks.*

On the church's account, one mark.†

To the surveyor of the church, in some places forty skillings.‡

SECTION XIII.

Military Establishment.

THE Feroese naval hero, Magnus Heynessen, so much celebrated in his time, who lived about the year 1588, was the first person, as far as I know, who, to protect himself from the unexpected attack of freebooters, constructed a fort at Thorshavn, in the place where it is still to be seen. It lies on the east side of the bay; and a few years ago was put into a state of complete repair, under the direction of Captain Born. The fort itself stands on a rock, and is surrounded by out-works. The lowest and southernmost of these is mounted with eight eight-pounders, and could prevent any enemy's ship from approaching

* From eight to twelve shillingss

† About ten pence.

‡ About one shilling and eight pence sterling.

the coast. The other batteries, which are higher and situated towards the north, are furnished also with a few cannon of a less calibre. The fort itself, which is mounted with cannon, contains a guard-house, a store-house, and a powder-magazine, all built of stone and lime. The garrison consists of a commandant, four artillery-men, and thirty-three soldiers; a number far from sufficient to work, in an effectual manner, the guns with which the fort and outworks are furnished.

SECTION XIV.

Provision for the Poor.

THE inhabitants of Feroe being naturally of a benevolent and compassionate disposition, it will excite no surprise that the number of strolling beggars should increase in these islands, especially when it is considered that there are scarcely any establishments formed here for the relief of those reduced to indigence, and no means pursued to prevent that vagabond kind of life, which is followed by artful impostors as well as by real objects of charity.

A merchant of the name of Lund, in conjunc-

tion with two or three other well-disposed persons, was the first who exerted himself in the establishment of a fund here for the benefit of the poor. It was begun in the year 1767, and since that time has been increased by donations, bequests, contributions, &c. but it is not yet in a condition to afford any effectual relief to the poor of these islands, who amount, at present, to more than fifty.*

In the year 1797 the fund amounted to 4691 rix-dollars.† The same year the income was 196 rix-dollars,‡ and the money expended 164.§

SECTION XV.

Roads, and Convenience for Travelling.

TRAVELLING in Feroe is very expeditious both by land and by water; but people who have to go from one village to another on the same

* All the king's ships and foreign vessels which anchor in the Feroese harbours, pay a certain toll, or duty, to this institution.

† About 900l. sterling.

‡ About 35l. sterling.

§ About 32l. sterling.

coast, prefer travelling by water; because the road by land, being intersected by many bays and creeks from the sea, and passing over steep hills, it is both long and difficult. But, as the whole country consists of hills, most of which are steep, and lie close to each other; and as the road often proceeds along the declivities of these hills, it may readily be conceived that no carriages can be used on them. Travellers, therefore, ride in those places which are practicable for horses; and this is the case in most parts of these islands; and, also at those seasons of the year when the road is not rendered insecure for horses by excessive falls of rain, or too much snow and ice. Among these hills there is either no road at all, or the road is nearly in the same state in which nature formed it. It is only between the villages where there is a church-path, which may pass over a steep declivity, or be intersected by a rivulet dangerous to be crossed, particularly after a thaw, that the people sometimes think of mending, or repairing a few parts of the road. But when travellers get to a considerable distance from the villages, and ascend the hills, they often find no road, because the inhabitants, as long as the snow lies on the ground, go sometimes a different way; and when the ground is bare one goes one way, and another, another, so that nothing is seen but

here and there a foot-path, like that formed by sheep on the sides of the hills. A traveller, therefore, must always be accompanied by two guides, one to carry a change of clothes, that he may shift in case he should get wet by a fall of rain, which, in consequence of the variableness of the weather, is often the case; and the other to point out the road: for as the horses are accustomed to be led when they bear burdens, most of them must be led when a person rides on them; and they will never move from the spot where they are unless a man goes before them with the bridle in his hand: but there are more places in the northern islands where the roads are bad, than in the southern.

The horses remain always out in the fields, where they may be long missing and difficult to find. Those, therefore, who wish to be certain of obtaining horses, must bespeak them the day before, and also bring their own saddles along with them. The two guides are paid at the rate of so much per Danish mile for their trouble; and the hire of the horses is paid in the same manner. Travellers, and persons in office, who travel on government service, give no pay, but only a piece of tobacco instead of drink-money. Those who travel by sea, if the distance be a few miles, must hire a large boat and six or eight men, especially if they have to encounter a

strong current, and if the wind and tide be not perfectly favourable. I must here observe, that there is not a single inn in the whole country; nor is it necessary that there should be, as the kindness and hospitality of the inhabitants render such houses unnecessary.

FINIS.

