Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

   p. cm.
   1. Voyages and travels.  2. Travelers' writings.  3. Travel writing.
   I. Speake, Jennifer.
   II. Title.
   G465.L565 2003
   910.4'03—dc21
   2003005352

ISBN 1-57958-247-8 (3-volume set)
ISBN 1-57958-425-X (Volume 1)
ISBN 1-57958-424-1 (Volume 2)
ISBN 1-57958-440-3 (Volume 3)
however, is the quality of her descriptive writing, and her unashamed relish for adventure.

CICELY PALSER HAVELY

Biography

Born Isabella Lucy Bird in Boroughbridge, Yorkshire, 15 October 1831, daughter of Edward Bird, a clergyman. Educated by her mother at home; lived in Tattenhall, Cheshire, Birmingham, and Huntingdonshire, taking holidays in Edinburgh and the Western Isles. Suffered from ill health from an early age: traveled to the United States and Canada for health reasons, 1854 and 1857–1858. Moved with her family to Edinburgh after her father’s death, 1858. Undertook philanthropic and social work; corresponded with John Bright on social issues; cofounded the Harris cloth-manufacturing industry. Lived in London and Edinburgh after her mother’s death, 1867. Traveled around the world, visiting Australia, New Zealand, the Sandwich islands (now Hawaii), and the United States, especially the Rocky Mountains, 1872–1874. Returned to Edinburgh; traveled to Japan and Hong Kong, 1878. Nursed her invalid sister, Hennie, in Edinburgh and in Tornemor, Mull, until Hennie’s death, 1880. Married Dr. John Bishop (d. 1886), 1881. Trained as a nurse at St. Mary’s Hospital, Paddington, London, 1887. Joined the Baptist church in order to become a medical missionary, 1888. Traveled as a missionary to India, Central Asia, and Persia, 1889–1890; Korea, Hong Kong, and Japan, 1894–1895; Yangtze Valley, China, 1896. Founded hospitals in India, Korea, and China and an orphanage in Tokyo, Japan. Returned to Tornemor briefly, 1897. Lived in London, Huntingdonshire, and Edinburgh, 1897–1904. Traveled to Morocco, 1901. Fellow of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society, 1891, and the Royal Geographical Society, 1892. Died in Edinburgh, 7 October 1904.

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BLACK SEA

References to the Black Sea and its exploration before Greek colonization are very rare. The Hittite king Telifinu described the dimensions of the empire of one of his forerunners by referring to its borders reaching the coast of the sea in the north as well as in the south. A famous literary text dealing with the queen of Kanesh/Nesha (Kültepe) and her 30 children records the exposure of the babies. They were placed in a kind of box, which then was thrown into the river. The river brought them down to the land Zalpuwa and farther, to the (Black) Sea, where the gods picked up the children and raised them. The Greek name Pontos Euxinon shows that the Greeks were not the first ones to explore this area. It is a euphemism for Pontos Axeinos, which is derived from Iranian akhshaena, which means “black.”

Our knowledge gets more detailed with the beginning of Greek colonization of the Black Sea, documented in archaeological, mythical, and literary sources of later times. The Greek presence starts to get visible in the archaeological record at the end of the seventh century BCE when the western and the southern coasts became known by Greek sailors. The eastern shores around the River Phasis and the legendary lands of Colchis and Aia were explored a little later, beginning in the middle of the sixth century. The famous myth connected with Jason and the Argonauts seems to mirror the very early stage of Greek exploration in which the Black Sea, or at least parts of it, had a tremendous and fantastic connotation. It is also this myth, whose existence is already mentioned in some stanzas of the Odyssey (12, 70–72), that guaranteed the Black Sea an enduring place in the geographical and literary worldview throughout antiquity, thanks to its various literary treatmens reaching from Pindar (Pythian 4) (462 BCE), Apollonius Rhodius (third century BCE), Dionysius Scythobrachion (c. 100 BCE), and Valerius Flaccus (first century CE) to Orpheus’s Argonautika (c. 400 CE).
Only at the end of the third quarter of the sixth century BCE did Greek knowledge about the Black Sea become more precise. In a fragment of Hecataeus of Miletus (around 500 BCE) the Greek name pontos appears for the first time. This whole area was important to the Mediterranean economy for the next two centuries, because many raw materials and resources were exported. We do not know the names of the explorers and discoverers who made this vast area accessible, but their explorations and knowledge found their way into literary sources that have been preserved. Herodotus (IV: 85ff) is the first to give a fairly exact description of the whole Black Sea and its dimensions. It has been questioned whether Herodotus personally visited this area, but, in any case, his description shows that the Black Sea was no longer an unknown field in the Greek world. Also, the territories around the sea and their peoples, cultures, and features were described. The mythic view was pushed back, but it was never completely banished. The Amazons, originally located south of the Black Sea, were transferred farther to the northeast, and throughout antiquity strange peoples with odd cultural features lived at its eastern and southeastern fringes.

After the third century BCE, the Black Sea lost importance. This development too is documented in the literary sources of this time. Many of these sources are preserved only indirectly in the geographical work of Strabo (63 BCE—19 CE), where little new information appears. A bit earlier, at the end of the second century BCE, there existed an anonymous description of the southern coast of the Black Sea and its hinterland (Pseudo-Scymnus), but already in this treatise traditional views played an important role. Only a famous digression in the preserved parts of the historical work of Polybius (200—120 BCE) gives a different picture with many new insights and details (IV: 38—44). It looks like a reaction to the ignorance of his time. This standard of information was never surpassed during antiquity. Furthermore, a description of the coast of the Black Sea is part of the oldest preserved periplo of Pseudo-Scylax of Caryanda (mid-fourth century BCE), and the one of Menippus of Pergamon (end of the first century BCE) also focused on this area.

Descriptions of the coast and its hinterland were also published during the time of the Roman empire. Pomponius Mela and Pliny the Elder (both first century BCE) showed great interest in this area and presented well-organized and rich material. But the extant traditions remained valid and important and were often more dominant than new exploration. A periplo of the whole Black Sea area, which is outstanding for the high quality of its information, was written by Arrian of Nicomedia (second century BCE), who was the governor of the province of Cappadocia and knew this territory personally. But again, in late antiquity the preserved descriptions present little new information. This is true even of the works of Ammianus Marcellinus (4 CE), whose digression is strongly dependent on traditional literatures and views (22:3: 1—48), and also for an anonymous periplo of all coasts of the Black Sea (Pseudo-Arrianus, 6 CE).

Byzantine literature is not rich in travel writing, though there have been many diplomatic and official missions that the historians have recorded. Most information concerning the Black Sea area is to be found in Constantine VII Porphyrogenetos’s tenth-century books. De Thematibus (peri ton thematon) refers to geographic writers of the sixth century and the Justinian age (Stephen of Byzantium, Hierocles) and gives detailed information concerning cities, local stories, the people, and the political structure of provinces in the Byzantine empire. Andreas Libadenos (c. 1308—after 1361), an ecclesiastical and imperial official, served as undersecretary of a legation to Mameluke Egypt. His Periegetike Historia relates events up to 1355 and describes his journey, especially the history and landscape of northern Anatolia around Trebizond, his hometown. Matthew of Khazaria was sent to the Crimea in 1395 as an exarch and wrote a poem of 15-syllable verses in the form of a dialogue between the poet and the city of Theodore (most probably Dory), which complains about her prolonged sufferings under siege and attacks. The work may mirror the campaigns of Timur’s Mongols.

Byzantium did not manage to maintain military and economic control of the Black Sea in the thirteenth century. It came into conflict with Georgia, the Seljuk

“Scythia," or the region north of the Black Sea, according to the information provided in Herodotus; the Black Sea is shown here under its classical name Pontus Euxinus (from E.H. Minns, Scythians and Greeks, 1913). Courtesy of British Library, London.
Turks, and the Mongols. From 1204 on, Italian naval powers—mainly Venice and Genoa—also dominated the region and established colonies there. Finally, the Byzantine emperor granted Genoa exclusive access and tax exemptions under the Treaty of Nymphaion in 1261. Giovanni di Pian Carpini, a cleric sent by the pope to the Mongol court of Batu Khan with a diplomatic mission, left from an Italian base, as did William of Rubruk (Guillaume de Rubrach; 1253) on a similar errand. The Polo brothers entered Mongol territory from Soldaia on the Crimea in 1260 for their first journey. The Bavarian Johann Schiltberger (1380–1432), after being freed from Ottoman and then Mongol slavery, traveled along the coast of the Black Sea up to Georgia and gives detailed information concerning the areas he visited.

Skirmishes among the Italians weakened their position. After having recovered from the battle of Angora in 1402, the Ottomans obtained the supremacy in the Pontic area. In 1461, they conquered Trebizond, in 1475 Cauffa, and in 1484 the markets at the mouth of the Danube were taken by Beyazit II. From then on, this region formed part of the Ottoman empire, and until the late eighteenth century travel to the Occident was obstructed and for this reason rare. Most travelogues were therefore written by escaped prisoners or envoys (see González de Clavijo, 1582: Membré, 1542). Giovanni Antonio Menavino (1485–1534) fled in 1514 after having been a page of the Ottoman court for 13 years and describes at the end of his work the stages of his flight, specifically his travels with the Turkish army to Tabriz, passing along the southern coast of the Black Sea.

Travel reports from Russian ambassadors, who most often used the route from Azov to Constantinople, are rare, but there does exist one by Ivan Petrovich Novosilisev (1519–1576) from 1570. The learned Turk Evliya Celebi (1611–1684) refers to several long journeys he took as an individual or in an official capacity. His ten-volume Seyahatname [Book of Travels], a unique source, contains rich information on folklore, geography, and legends. He is, however, not always reliable, and some of the journeys are only fantasy. In book 2, he describes Trebizond, in books 7 and 8 the Crimea.

In 1774, after a lost war, Russia forced the Ottomans to open the Black Sea for trade, with the Treaty of Küçük Kainardzski. Moreover, it annexed the Crimean peninsula in 1783. Toward the end of the eighteenth century, the European powers started to compete for economic and military predominance in the area. This caused the Crimean War (1853–1856), during which Britain and France supported the Ottomans against Russia. As a result of this, the Black Sea was demilitarized and Britain kept close relations with Turkey. The officers Leopold G. Heath, Alexander Fisher Macintosh, and Adolphus Slade traveled the area during the Crimean War, as did the correspondent Laurence Oliphant. But theirs are only a few examples of a great many of the texts written by people involved in the war.

The accounts of Antoine-Ignace Anthoine de Saint-Joseph (1749–1826), Henry A.S. Dearborn (1751–1829), Nicolaus E. Kleemann (1736–1798), Claude Charles de Peyssonell (1727–1790), and Jean Baron de Reuilly (1780–1810) are the results of travel undertaken to collect facts of commercial conditions in the (after 1774) easily accessible region, but also contain descriptions of the voyages themselves and the traveled areas. Private, often aristocratic, travelers, like Lady Elizabeth Craven (1750–1828), Michael J. Quin (1796–1843), and William L.L.F. Baron De Ros (1797–1774), competed for importance with explorers interested in history, archaeology, geography, and geology, like Prince Démidov (1812–1870), the historian Jacob Philipp Fallmerayer (1790–1861), and Jean-Baptiste Lechevalier (1752–1836).

ROLAND STEINACHER AND ROBERT ROLLINGER

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