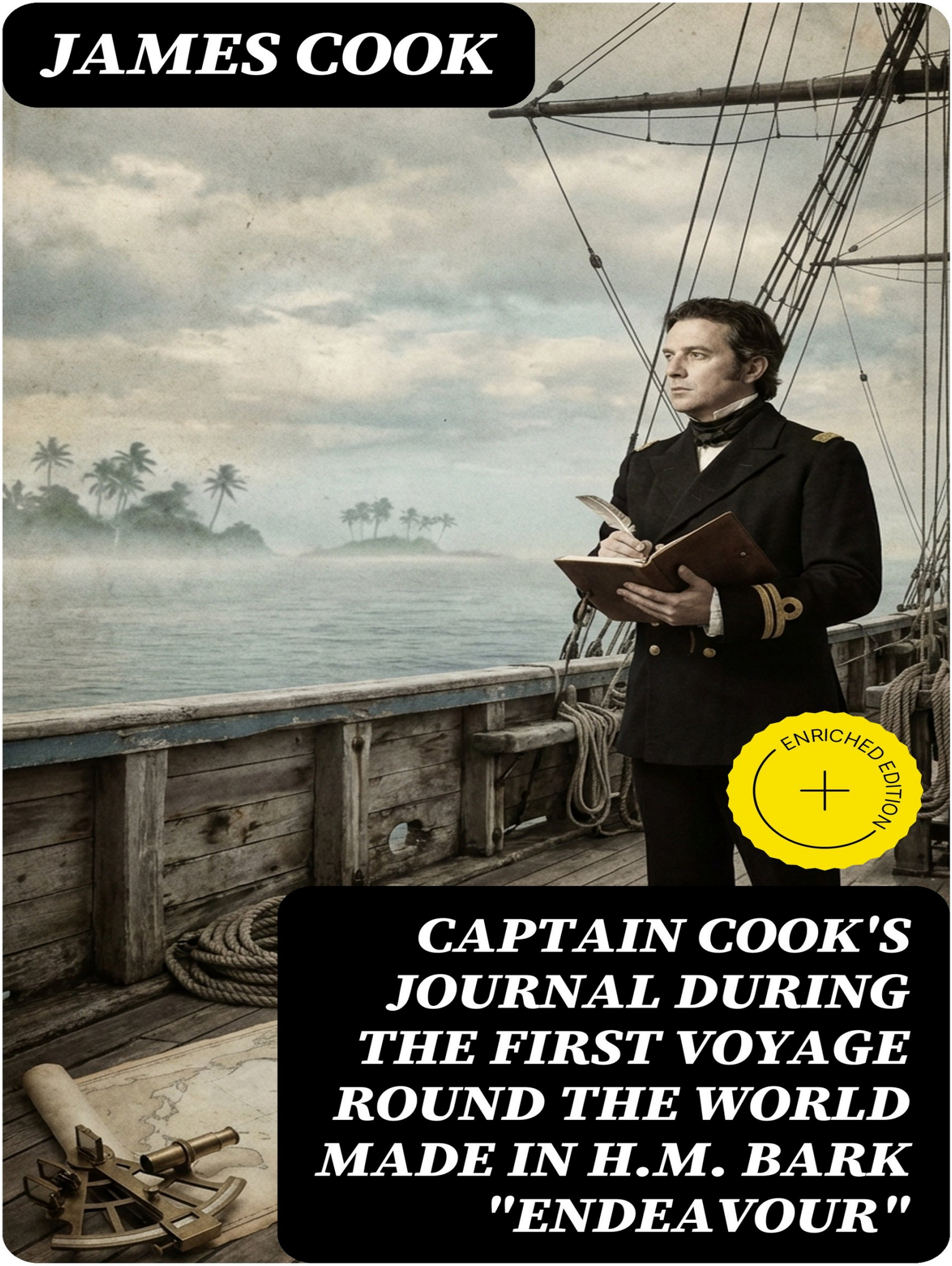
JAMES COOK



CAPTAIN COOK'S JOURNAL DURING THE FIRST VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD MADE IN H.M. BARK "ENDEAVOUR"

James Cook

Captain Cook's Journal During the First Voyage Round the World made in H.M. bark "Endeavour"

Enriched edition.

Introduction, Studies and Commentaries by Hannah Nolan

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Introduction

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A measured hand steers between curiosity and power as the world’s blank spaces narrow to the width of a ship’s wake. Captain Cook’s Journal During the First Voyage Round the World made in H.M. bark Endeavour presents a record of disciplined observation in the midst of remarkable uncertainty. It is a chronicle of a naval officer tasked with scientific and exploratory duties, writing steadily as coastlines emerge from conjecture into charted fact. More than a sequence of dates and bearings, this journal captures the tension between seeking knowledge and commanding a crew, between the duty of the Crown and the wonder of discovery.

This book holds classic status because it shows how the modern travel narrative acquired its clarity, temper, and ethical stakes. Cook’s prose, shaped by the exacting requirements of navigation and command, helped establish a style that marries data to description without losing human presence. The journal’s restraint intensifies its impact: weather, currents, and shoals are noted with the same care as encounters and landscapes. Such composure influenced the tone of later maritime and exploration writing, where the authority of careful observation became a literary value as well as a scientific one.

The author is James Cook, a Royal Navy officer who kept this journal during the Endeavour voyage of 1768 to 1771. The expedition was commissioned to serve scientific aims in

the South Pacific, notably astronomical observation, and to undertake further exploration under Admiralty direction. The journal’s central premise is simple and potent: to record with fidelity what a ship and its company meet as they traverse seas, coasts, and anchorages previously unmapped by Europeans. As a working document written at sea, its pages carry the immediacy of decision-making, measurement, and daily discipline without plotting toward a foregone narrative conclusion.

The publication context also contributes to its importance. The journal we read today commonly descends from nineteenth-century editorial work, most notably the edition prepared by Captain W. J. L. Wharton and published in 1893. Wharton’s version gathered and arranged Cook’s logs and related journals, supplied notes, and made the material widely accessible. While editorial practices vary across editions, the core remains Cook’s contemporaneous record from the Endeavour. Its movement from manuscript and official papers into a carefully curated book helped secure the journal’s place both as a historical source and as a literary artifact with a durable readership.

As literature, the journal’s power lies in its fusion of method and sensibility. The steady cadence of a log—latitudes, soundings, winds—gives the text its spine. Yet alongside this technical scaffolding appear flashes of landscape, shipboard routine, and measured assessments of risk. The voice is not decorative; it is precise, and that precision accrues into drama. We feel time at sea in sequences of calm and squall, and we see knowledge assembled incrementally, one observation at a time. The

effect is narrative without contrivance, a story told by necessity rather than by ornament.

The journal also embodies a central theme of the eighteenth century: the alliance of science and seamanship. The voyage served astronomical purposes under the patronage of learned societies, with the ship carrying instruments and observers for the task. Naturalists and artists sailed as part of the broader program of inquiry, extending the mission beyond navigation into natural history and description. Within the journal, this scientific frame appears not as speculation but as routine work—measure, compare, record. The authority of the text stems from that patient labor, where empirical habit becomes both method and ethos.

Another enduring theme is the art of command under constraint. A wooden vessel on a long voyage makes discipline, prudence, and adaptability matters of survival. Cook’s entries show a leader balancing caution with enterprise, adjusting to weather, water, and the unknown edges of charts. The journal captures this equilibrium with notable seriousness: the stakes are practical, not theatrical. Readers see how judgment emerges from accumulated observations and how language itself—clear, economical, exact—becomes a tool for keeping a ship, a crew, and a purpose aligned in uncertain conditions.

The book is equally compelling as a documentary record of cross-cultural encounter. The journal preserves first impressions, negotiations, misunderstandings, and protocols of approach as a European naval expedition meets societies with their own histories and laws. Its perspective is

necessarily that of the commander and the British state, and readers today approach it with critical awareness of that position. Yet the value of a contemporaneous account is evident: it allows careful readers to see gestures, choices, and boundaries as they were articulated at the time, providing context for broader historical interpretation.

The influence of this journal stretches across genres. It helped codify a style for official narratives of exploration, where the credibility of measurement and the steadiness of tone confer authority. Later naval and scientific expeditions drew upon this model, adapting its balance of logkeeping and description for their own reports. In travel writing, its priority on observation over anecdote encouraged writers to regard places and peoples first as subjects to be understood and mapped, then as occasions for reflection. The ripple effect is visible wherever disciplined field notes evolve into compelling prose.

Structurally, the journal demonstrates how daily entries can create large-scale narrative momentum. Repetition of technical detail is not mere routine; it builds pressure, announces risk, and frames relief. The sparse diction sharpens the reader’s senses: a change in the wind or a new track line carries weight. Because the journal avoids retrospective embellishment, it preserves contingency. What happens next is truly unknown from the writer’s vantage, and the record respects that uncertainty. This open texture—purposeful yet provisional—keeps the book vivid and keeps readers attentive to how knowledge is made on the move.

For contemporary readers, the journal offers several points of entry. It is a primary source for the history of navigation, oceanic exploration, and imperial administration. It is also a study in professional writing under pressure, where clarity becomes a moral and practical obligation. Modern editions guide readers through specialized vocabulary and measurements, and the maps and notes help situate places and decisions. Reading attentively, one can track not only a ship but a set of working assumptions—about evidence, authority, and responsibility—that continue to shape how institutions pursue knowledge at scale.

In the end, the book’s lasting appeal lies in its balance: sober prose, ambitious purpose, and a world measured in careful lines. It addresses perennial questions—how to know, how to lead, how to meet others—through a record that never mistakes drama for accuracy. As global exploration now occurs through satellites and sensors, this journal reminds us that discovery begins with disciplined attention and ethical constraint. Its themes remain urgent, its craft exemplary, and its testimony invaluable. To open these pages is to witness the making of modernity from the deck of a small ship with a clear-eyed captain.

Synopsis

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Captain Cook’s Journal During the First Voyage Round the World made in H.M. bark “Endeavour” presents the commander’s day-by-day account of a government-backed expedition combining astronomical observation with geographic discovery. James Cook records the ship’s preparation, departure from England in 1768, and the disciplined routines that govern life at sea. The narrative establishes his practical, methodical voice: entries note winds, currents, soundings, and the condition of stores, while also tracking the health of the company and the state of the vessel. From the outset, the journal ties navigational precision to scientific purpose, outlining a voyage designed to gather data and chart unknown coasts with measured caution.

The first leg across the Atlantic emphasizes seamanship and logistics. Cook details the management of provisions, water, and rigging, and he calibrates instruments while fixing latitude and estimating longitude. Calls at Atlantic ports, including a stop at Rio de Janeiro, highlight the complexities of dealing with colonial authorities and harbor regulations. The journal juxtaposes routine maintenance with curiosity about unfamiliar flora and shoreline features visible from anchorage. Early entries underscore persistent concerns—fouling of the hull, wear on spars, and the crew’s diet—while also revealing Cook’s habit of transforming each

stop into an opportunity to improve charts, refine bearings, and test the reliability of his observations.

Entering high southern latitudes, the Endeavour negotiates the Strait of Le Maire and the stormy waters off Tierra del Fuego. These pages foreground exposure to cold, violent seas, and variable currents, and they illustrate Cook’s calculus of risk in choosing routes and anchors. The journal notes brief contacts with local inhabitants and documents the scarcity of shelter along bleak coasts. Throughout, Cook evaluates alternative courses, continually balancing the mission’s schedule with the safety of ship and crew. The passage marks a transition from Atlantic routines to Pacific uncertainties, showing the captain’s reliance on careful soundings, vigilant watchkeeping, and conservative sail plans in hazardous conditions.

Reaching Tahiti, the journal pivots to the expedition’s astronomical purpose: observing the transit of Venus. Cook selects and secures an observing site, organizes a shore party, and manages trade for wood, water, and supplies. Entries combine precise timing and instrumental arrangements with practical concerns—guarding stores, preventing misunderstandings, and maintaining amicable relations. The text records everyday exchanges with Tahitians and notes aspects of social organization and material culture insofar as they affect the work. On the appointed day in 1769, Cook documents the observation and conditions, treating it as one data point among many, yet central to the voyage’s mandate and to contemporary scientific ambitions.

With the astronomical task complete, the Endeavour surveys other islands in the central Pacific before turning to larger geographical questions. The journal then describes landfall in New Zealand and the execution of a systematic coastal exploration. Cook’s entries emphasize running surveys, bearings taken from prominent headlands, and the laying down of bays, straits, and sounds. Encounters with Māori are recorded soberly, noting protocols, trade, and moments of tension or misunderstanding. Across weeks of tracing shoreline, Cook tests hypotheses about the extent and form of the land, building a chart that distinguishes separate masses and clarifies navigational possibilities without asserting speculative continental schemes.

From New Zealand the expedition proceeds west to the coast then known as New Holland, where the journal recounts first landfall on the eastern shore. Cook narrates anchorage at a bay noted for its abundance of plant specimens and then a cautious, incremental progress northward along a largely uncharted coast. The entries detail soundings, tides, and the jagged margins of reefs, alongside brief contacts with Aboriginal people observed near landing parties. The record highlights shiphandling under uncertainty—using the lead, posting lookouts, naming points for reference, and keeping clear offing—while steadily extending geographic knowledge and preparing a sailing directory useful to those who might follow.

A sudden grounding on coral transforms the journal’s tempo from survey to survival. Cook describes decisive measures: lightening the ship, fothering the hull, manning pumps, and extracting the Endeavour from a shoal-strewn

sea. He records the retreat to a river mouth where the vessel is careened and repaired over weeks. The enforced stay yields practical gains—new spars, fresh water, and additional observations—yet the tone remains vigilant, as the coast’s barrier reefs and narrow passages demand exact piloting. Once refitted, the Endeavour threads a complex maze of shoals, and the journal carefully documents courses and soundings through these hazards toward a safe route to the northwest.

After regaining open water, Cook steers for the Dutch East Indies to refit fully at Batavia. The journal turns to administrative formalities, dockyard work, and the mounting toll of illness in a tropical port. Cook notes the deterioration of health among officers and crew, the constraints of climate and sanitation, and the need to hasten departure. The homeward track crosses the Indian Ocean to the Cape of Good Hope and then the South Atlantic, with entries resuming a rhythm of wind shifts, variation, and routine repairs. Closing passages summarize navigational care and the condition of the ship as she approaches British waters.

Throughout, the journal’s significance lies in its measured accumulation of evidence—astronomical timings, coastal outlines, soundings, and pragmatic notes on cross-cultural encounters. Cook writes as a seaman and observer, focused on what can be fixed on a chart or verified by the log, while remaining attentive to the conduct necessary for orderly relations and safe passage. The work stands as a foundation for later hydrographic practice and Pacific navigation, an emblem of Enlightenment method at sea. It endures as a

disciplined record of inquiry under sail, framing discovery as careful documentation rather than dramatic revelation.

Historical Context

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James Cook’s journal from the first voyage of H.M. Bark Endeavour emerges from the late 1760s, when Britain, strengthened after the Seven Years’ War, expanded its naval reach and scientific ambition. The Royal Navy, Admiralty, and Royal Society framed the expedition’s purpose, logistics, and knowledge-making. London served as an administrative and intellectual hub, while imperial rivalries with France and Spain shaped strategy at sea. Enlightenment ideals encouraged empirical observation, classification, and global measurement, binding scientific curiosity to state power. Within this setting, Cook—a naval officer trained in surveying—kept a detailed, methodical record that captured both the practicalities of navigation and the broader philosophical spirit of the age.

The formal justification for sailing to the Pacific was scientific: to observe the Transit of Venus on 3 June 1769. The Royal Society advocated the project, while the Admiralty funded and directed it. Tahiti, recently reported by British navigators, offered a favorable location. The expedition continued a global program begun during the 1761 transit to refine the solar parallax and, by extension, astronomical distances. Cook’s journal documents instrument use, timekeeping practices, and observational procedures, anchoring the voyage within an international network of observers. It shows how Britain’s scientific

institutions mobilized naval resources to secure data with both scholarly and strategic value.

Beyond astronomy, the Admiralty issued Cook secret instructions to seek evidence of a large southern continent—Terra Australis Incognita—thought by many Europeans to balance the globe. In a climate of imperial competition, new coasts promised resources, harbors, and geopolitical leverage. Cook was to chart coasts, assess potential for trade, and, where possible, claim lands with local agreement. His journal echoes these aims through precise coastal surveys and repeated attention to anchorages, supplies, and peoples encountered. The narrative thus reflects an entwined mandate—scientific and imperial—typical of the period's exploration, in which the collection of knowledge could enable the projection of power.

The Endeavour itself embodied pragmatic naval technology. Purchased and refitted in 1768 from a Whitby coal-carrying design, the vessel's broad beam and shallow draft suited inshore surveying and the carriage of provisions. Navigational practice combined dead reckoning with lunar-distance methods for longitude and sextant observations for latitude. On this first voyage the ship did not carry a marine chronometer; instead, astronomical observations and the Nautical Almanac underpinned longitude work. Hydrography relied on soundings, coastal profiles, and running surveys. Without copper sheathing, fouling and hull damage were persistent concerns, shaping sailing performance and decisions recorded throughout Cook's journal.

Shipboard life reflected Royal Navy hierarchy and discipline under the Articles of War. The company included about 90–100 officers, seamen, and marines, alongside embarked scientists and artists. Cook enforced cleanliness, ventilation, and dietetic reforms that drew on contemporary medical thinking about scurvy prevention. He employed sauerkraut, wort or malt preparations, portable soup, and, whenever possible, fresh greens and citrus-like substitutes. The journal presents these routines as matters of command responsibility and health management. Mortality from disease on the voyage was notably low by 18th-century standards, a result that contributed to Cook’s reputation for practical seamanship and humane discipline.

The scientific party amplified the voyage’s Enlightenment profile. Joseph Banks, a wealthy naturalist, financed a substantial team, including Swedish botanist Daniel Solander (a student of Linnaeus), the astronomer Charles Green from the Royal Observatory, and the artist Sydney Parkinson. Linnaean classification guided their collecting, while the ship functioned as a floating laboratory. Cook’s journal intersects with these activities: he notes landing sites, access to water and timber, and encounters that facilitated collecting. The presence of scientists reshaped daily routines, influencing when the ship anchored, how long it lingered, and which ecological niches they explored—thereby entwining naval logistics with natural history.

European knowledge of the Pacific had accumulated across two centuries—from Magellan and the Manila galleon routes to Dutch and Spanish probes, including Quiros (1606) and Tasman (1642). By the late 1760s, the Pacific still

contained large blank spaces on European charts. Recent voyages by Samuel Wallis (1766–1768), who reported Tahiti, and Louis-Antoine de Bougainville (1766–1769) heightened interest. Competition among imperial powers encouraged rapid publication and secrecy in equal measure. Cook’s journal operates within this cartographic and diplomatic landscape, documenting how new observations were stitched into older geographies and how uncertainty, rumour, and prior charts guided and constrained decisions at sea.

Tahiti became the expedition’s first scientific staging ground. The crew constructed a shore station—often dubbed Fort Venus—to secure instruments and provide a stable base for the Transit observation. Cook’s journal recounts dealings with Tahitian leaders, negotiation over supplies, and the management of thefts and misunderstandings that accompanied exchange. Iron tools and nails became central to barter, reshaping local economies during the stay. The Transit itself was observed, though the notorious “black drop” effect limited precision. Nonetheless, the recorded procedures and timings joined data collected worldwide, illustrating both the promise and practical limits of 18th-century collaborative science.

A crucial cultural interlocutor was Tupaia, a high-ranking Tahitian priest-navigator who joined the Endeavour. He served as interpreter and guide, facilitating diplomacy and reducing conflict in parts of the voyage. Tupaia shared knowledge of island networks and produced a chart reflecting Polynesian spatial understanding, which differed from European cartography but proved navigationally

insightful. Cook’s journal reflects a growing European appreciation for Indigenous wayfinding, even as Enlightenment frameworks translated it into European terms. The collaboration underscores how Pacific exploration depended on local expertise, and how cross-cultural communication shaped the expedition’s achievements and misapprehensions.

From late 1769, Cook undertook a comprehensive survey of New Zealand. He circumnavigated the two main islands, determined that they were not part of a greater southern continent, and identified what Europeans later called Cook Strait. Encounters with Māori communities ranged from violent clashes to trading and cautious diplomacy. The journal records efforts to understand social organization, food production, and weaponry, as well as the navigational hazards of complex coastlines and changeable weather. Earlier European sightings by Abel Tasman in 1642 provided limited guidance; Cook’s charts, informed by repeated soundings and coastal profiles, transformed European knowledge.

Sailing west in 1770, Cook charted Australia’s east coast for Europeans, making landfalls including at Botany Bay, where abundant plant life drew the attention of Banks and Solander. The Endeavour’s grounding on a coral reef off the northeast coast forced major repairs at the Endeavour River, producing a prolonged stay and contact with the Guugu Yimithirr people. The journal records the collection of the animal later known to Europeans as the “kangaroo,” reflecting linguistic exchanges that entered European vocabularies. Proceeding north, Cook navigated through the

Torres Strait, confirming a navigable passage and distinguishing New Guinea from the Australian mainland on European charts.

Natural history was a central output of the voyage. Thousands of plant specimens, shells, and animal skins were collected; Parkinson’s drawings provided crucial visual documentation, though he died homeward-bound in 1771. The materials fed European cabinets, museums, and botanical gardens, notably in London. Banks later became President of the Royal Society (1778–1820) and a key patron of science and empire, using collections and contacts formed on the voyage. Cook’s journal offers the logistical and descriptive context for these achievements: anchorages, habitats, seasons, and local knowledge that enabled collecting and recording within Linnaean frameworks.

Contact brought disease, desire, and violence into close proximity. European sailors and Polynesians exchanged goods and sometimes sexual relations; accounts from the period discuss venereal disease as a consequence of such encounters. Episodes of theft, reprisals, and fatalities occurred at several landfalls. Cook’s journal often portrays a balancing act: demonstrations of force to deter attacks, efforts at restraint, and repeated attempts to communicate rules of trade and property. These entries reflect 18th-century European legal and moral assumptions and the practical challenges of enforcing them, while also preserving Indigenous responses that complicate a simple narrative of European control.

Cartography and hydrography formed the voyage's enduring technical legacy. Cook's running surveys, meticulous soundings, and coastal sketches produced charts prized for accuracy and clarity. Without chronometers, he leaned on repeated astronomical observations to refine longitude, cross-checking with coastal features. His attention to tides, reefs, and anchorage quality met Admiralty needs and set high standards for subsequent surveys. The journal illuminates the discipline of observation: how weather, visibility, and instrument limits shaped what could be known. Later British hydrography, institutionalized in the early 19th century, retained Cook's emphasis on method and detail.

Economic and imperial considerations permeate the narrative. The British state sought timber, flax, navigational routes, and future harbors to support commerce and naval logistics. Cook's assessments of soils, resources, and anchorages fed planning horizons that extended beyond immediate science. While large-scale colonization of New South Wales began only in 1788, the first voyage's charts and claims furnished key information. Public interest was stoked by publications and specimens on the expedition's return. In this sense, the journal sits at the intersection of curiosity and utility: a record of discovery that doubled as a survey for potential imperial development.

The published form of Cook's observations shaped their reception. In 1773, John Hawkesworth edited and combined journals from the recent Pacific voyages, including Cook's, into a popular account that attracted intense attention and criticism for its tone on religion and Tahitian sexuality.

Readers encountered a mediated voice that blended moral commentary with reportage. Cook’s own journal circulated in official contexts and extracts, but a more direct edition based on his manuscript was published in 1893 by Admiral W. J. L. Wharton. The history of publication reminds us that editorial choices reframed Indigenous cultures, scientific motives, and imperial acts for metropolitan audiences.

Legal and ritual practices of possession structured how Europeans asserted claims. Ceremonies, name-giving, and inscriptions translated exploration into sovereignty, a process Cook documented in succinct, procedural language. His instructions emphasized obtaining consent where feasible, yet the realities of language barriers, differing concepts of land, and asymmetries of power complicated this ideal. The journal traces how reconnaissance and nomenclature served political ends, even as Cook’s careful notes on peoples and places preserved evidence of negotiation, conflict, and mutual curiosity. These tensions embedded the voyage in broader debates about discovery, legitimacy, and the uses of knowledge in empire-building.

Author Biography

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James Cook (1728–1779) was a British navigator, cartographer, and Royal Navy captain whose three Pacific voyages reshaped European understanding of the globe. Working during the Enlightenment, he combined seamanship with disciplined observation, producing charts and journals that guided scientists, administrators, and later explorers. His expeditions advanced astronomy, geography, and natural history while refining navigation and health practices at sea. Cook’s reports circulated widely, and the places he mapped—from New Zealand and Australia’s eastern coast to the North Pacific—entered European atlases with unprecedented accuracy. Celebrated in his lifetime and debated since, he stands as a pivotal figure in the transition from speculative geography to empirically grounded exploration.

Cook’s early education in Yorkshire was limited, but he pursued mathematics, astronomy, and charting through self-study and maritime apprenticeships. After time in the North Sea coal trade at Whitby, he entered the Royal Navy in 1755. During the Seven Years’ War he served in North America and earned notice for surveying the St. Lawrence River and coastal waters essential to British operations. From the early 1760s he conducted detailed hydrographic surveys around Newfoundland and Labrador, publishing accurate charts that demonstrated uncommon technical skill. These surveys, executed with astronomical

observations and careful soundings, established his reputation as a navigator who could combine scientific method with practical command.

Chosen to command HMS Endeavour, Cook sailed in 1768 to observe the transit of Venus at Tahiti, then to explore the South Pacific under Admiralty orders. The voyage demonstrated coordinated science at sea: astronomers, naturalists, and artists worked alongside the crew. Cook circumnavigated and charted New Zealand, proving it comprised two main islands, and traced the long eastern coast of Australia in 1770, making landfalls and recording hazards of the Great Barrier Reef. The expedition gathered extensive ethnographic notes and natural history collections. John Hawkesworth later edited an official narrative (1773) from the journals of Cook and others, bringing the voyage to a broad reading public.

Leading a second expedition in 1772 with HMS Resolution and the companion ship Adventure, Cook pushed far into the high southern latitudes, crossing the Antarctic Circle and dispelling hopes for an extensive temperate southern continent. The voyage became a proving ground for improved navigation and health practices: he enforced cleanliness, ventilation, and a varied diet, sharply reducing scurvy. He also tested a precision timekeeper for determining longitude. Returning in 1775, he authored A Voyage Towards the South Pole, and Round the World (1777), a carefully structured account that emphasized methods, observations, and cartography, and shaped expectations for how exploratory results should be documented and shared.

In 1776 Cook embarked again in Resolution, joined by Discovery, to seek a navigable Northwest Passage from the Pacific. He revisited the South Pacific, reached the Hawaiian Islands in 1778, and charted stretches of the North American coast from present-day California to Alaska, noting currents, anchorages, and indigenous communities encountered en route. He was killed at Kealakekua Bay in 1779. The official narrative, A Voyage to the Pacific Ocean (1784), drew on his journals and was completed by James King. Together with the first voyage account edited by John Hawkesworth, these publications ensured that Cook’s observations entered scientific discourse and general readership alike.

Cook worked within the Enlightenment’s empiricist ethos, favoring precise measurement, replicable procedures, and sober prose over rhetoric. He collaborated with naturalists and astronomers, coordinated shipboard experiments, and treated charts as cumulative, revisable instruments. His approach to maritime health—dietary regimen, cleanliness, and strict routine—became influential, and he was recognized by the Royal Society in the mid-1770s for work related to scurvy prevention. His journals record attempts at negotiation and exchange with Pacific peoples as well as violent clashes, and modern scholarship debates the aims and consequences of his expeditions. He left no treatises on policy; his influence lies chiefly in method, reportage, and mapping.

Cook’s later reputation has combined technical admiration with critical reassessment. Mariners long relied on his tracks and sailing directions, and scientists mined his

measurements for data on climate, ocean currents, and high-latitude ice. Museums and libraries preserve collections gathered under his command, which continue to inform ethnography and natural history. Place-names and commemorations attest to his prominence, while studies of empire highlight how his routes foreshadowed colonization and upheaval for Indigenous societies. As a writer of voyages and a maker of charts, he helped standardize the evidentiary record of exploration, leaving a legacy that remains essential—and contested—in global historical narratives.

Captain Cook's Journal During the First Voyage Round the World made in H.M. bark "Endeavour"

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Cook describes using a kedge to help free or reposition Endeavour when larger anchors or cables failed.

110 A hawser is a thick rope or cable used for mooring, towing, or hauling a ship's anchor. Cook records attempts to ‘sweep the Anchor with a Hawser,’ meaning they tried to drag a heavy line to catch and recover a lost anchor.

111 Cook Reef is the shoal Cook identifies near his recorded position; he notes breakers and shallow water there. Modern charts preserve some of these names and hazards, and Cook’s notes contributed to later mapping and naming of reefs.

112 St. Bartholomew is the name used in the charts for a low island off New Guinea that Cook observed from the Endeavour. He compares chart positions with his observations, illustrating how 18th-century charts often contained inaccuracies that navigators tried to correct.

113 The Dutch East India Company (VOC) was a powerful chartered trading company that controlled Dutch trade and many colonial outposts in the Indian Ocean and Southeast Asia. Cook encounters VOC authority and infrastructure at islands like Savu and Batavia, and their monopoly shaped local trade and European interactions.

114 De Brye's Voyages refers to a published collection of travel accounts and maps associated with Theodor de Bry and later compilers, used in the 18th century as sources for earlier discoveries. Cook mentions these charts as examples of compilations that sometimes incorporated Dutch sources and influenced contemporary navigational knowledge.

115 La Maire in Cook’s text refers to the Straits La Maire (Strait of Le Maire) south of Tierra del Fuego, a known stop

for replenishing wood and water on long voyages. Cook notes having replenished supplies there earlier in the voyage, a common practice for ships rounding southern capes.

116 Sunda Strait is the channel between the Indonesian islands of Java and Sumatra that leads to the port of Batavia (now Jakarta). Cook's entry into the Sunda Strait marks his approach to Batavia and illustrates the navigational challenges and currents he encountered in the archipelago.

117 Cracatoa (now Krakatoa) is a volcanic island in the Sunda Strait; Cook observed it while approaching Java. The island is famous for its catastrophic eruption in 1883, which is not contemporary to Cook but helps modern readers locate the feature he mentions.

118 Onrust (also spelled Onroost) is a small island in the bay near Batavia that the Dutch used as a naval yard and careening (heaving down) station. Cook sought permission to heave down the Endeavour there for bottom repairs, using the island's Dutch facilities and workforce.

119 Shebander (often written 'Shabandar' or similar) was the local port official in Batavia responsible for harbour administration and provisioning. Cook dealt with the Shebander to obtain orders, money, and logistics for repairs and supplies at Onrust and Batavia.

120 Arrack is a distilled alcoholic beverage made in South and Southeast Asia from fermented palm sap or sugarcane; it was a common colonial trade good and ration item. Cook records receiving casks of arrack during his stay, reflecting typical provisioning practices of the era.

121 The ‘Electrical Chain’ Cook mentions refers to an early form of lightning conductor rigged on the ship to divert lightning away from masts and rigging. Cook credited such a chain with preventing serious damage during a thunderstorm that struck a nearby Dutch ship, illustrating 18th-century adoption of electrical safety measures.

122 Batavia was the name used by the Dutch East India Company (VOC) for their colonial capital on the island of Java, at the site of present-day Jakarta. In the 18th century it was a major trading and administrative hub but had a reputation among European sailors for unhealthy, disease-prone conditions.

123 Princes Island refers to one of the small islands in the Sunda Strait between Java and Sumatra where Cook anchored to take on wood, water, and provisions. Such islands were commonly used by visiting ships for replenishment, and their freshwater sources were sometimes suspect and linked to subsequent sickness aboard.

124 Spanish Dollars (also called pieces of eight, the eight-real coin) were widely used as an international silver currency in the 18th-century world trade. Cook notes them as the primary medium of exchange with local people, reflecting their role as a common, trusted coin across many ports.

125 Mr. Charles Green was an astronomer appointed by the Royal Society to observe the 1769 Transit of Venus; he was aboard Endeavour to perform astronomical measurements. Cook records his death en route, depriving the expedition of a dedicated observational scientist.

126 Mr. Sydney Parkinson was the natural history painter who accompanied Joseph Banks on Cook’s first voyage and produced many of the expedition’s botanical and ethnographic drawings. His death, as recorded here, meant the loss of a principal artist and recorder of specimens and native peoples.

127 'The Flux' is an 18th-century term for a severe intestinal disorder, most often dysentery, characterized by acute diarrhoea and dehydration. It was a frequent and often fatal disease on long sea voyages, especially where water or provisions were contaminated or climates were unhealthy.

128 'Cape Laguillas' in the text is Cook’s spelling for L'Agulhas (Cape Agulhas), the southernmost point of Africa where the Indian and Atlantic Oceans meet. Variations in place-name spellings were common in 18th-century charts; Cook uses it in navigation and latitude/longitude calculations near the cape.

129 Table Mountain is the flat-topped mountain overlooking Cape Town, noted by Cook as a prominent landmark and a local weather signal when its summit is capped with clouds. Sailors routinely used it for coastal recognition and to judge approaching weather and wind patterns.

130 Bitts are paired upright wooden or metal posts fixed to a ship’s deck used for securing lines or cables; Cook reports the bitts that secure the foot of the bowsprit had worked loose. A failure of bitts can compromise the bowsprit and rigging, requiring immediate attention to avoid further damage while under sail.