



K I N G S T O N .

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THE
BRITISH
COLONIAL LIBRARY,

COMPRISING

A POPULAR AND AUTHENTIC DESCRIPTION

OF ALL THE

COLONIES OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE,

THEIR

History—Physical Geography—Geology—Climate—Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Kingdoms—Government—Finance—Military Defence—Commerce—Shipping—Monetary System—Religion—Population, white and coloured—Education and the Press—Emigration, Social State, &c.

BY

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, F.S.S.

IN TEN VOLUMES.

VOL. IV.

LONDON :

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MDCCCXLIV.

HISTORY
OF THE
WEST INDIES:

COMPRISING
JAMAICA, HONDURAS,
TRINIDAD, TOBAGO, GRENADA, THE BAHAMAS,
AND THE VIRGIN ISLES.

BY
R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, F.S.S.



GREAT SEAL OF JAMAICA.

VOL. I.

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MDCCCXXXVI.

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INTRODUCTION
TO THE
FOURTH VOLUME
OF THE
BRITISH COLONIAL LIBRARY.

WEST INDIES.

EUROPE, emerging from the dark ages which for centuries had shrouded the genius that so pre-eminently distinguished her past history, was roused from a long lethargy at the close of the fifteenth century—one of those memorable epochs when the human mind bursts through the shackles of ignorance and prejudice, thinks for itself, and approximates yet closer to the maximum of intelligence allotted unto mortals. The invention¹ of the art of printing, the discovery of the compass and astrolabe, the knowledge of gunpowder, &c. &c., all conducted at this period to stimulate men to investigate hypotheses heretofore neglected; and among the specu-

¹ I say invention and discovery, as in common parlance; but it is more than probable that what were then termed discoveries was merely imported information from China and the eastern hemisphere, where printing, the compass, astrolabe, gunpowder, metallurgy, &c., were long known.

lative opinions of the day was the possible existence of a western continent. The master-mind of Prince Henry of Portugal had already traced the African shores to the Cape Verd isles, and meditated a passage round the southern cape to the rich kingdoms of the east. An obscure navigator, yet bolder, contemplated a shorter route across the wild and heretofore unknown waste of the western waters, where it had long been surmised a vast transatlantic territory gave rotundity and balance to the world. Then was the tradition remembered, that at a period of time indefinitely remote there existed a vast insular territory, stretching beyond the coasts of Africa and Europe, which bore the appellation of *Atlantis*; and that for three days this western land was shaken to its foundations by the incessant and hourly increasing concussions of an earthquake, when it at length yielded to the irresistible and unseen mysterious power, and sunk, with its immense population, beneath the bosom of the ocean¹. Nor were the Welch chronicles forgotten—namely, that in 1170, *Madoc*, son to *Owen Quineth*, Prince of Wales, seeing his two brethren at debate who should inherit, prepared certain ships with men and munition, and left his country to seek adventures by sea. 'Leaving Ireland north, he sayled west, till he came to a land vnknown. Returning home, and relating what pleasant and fruitfull countries he had seene, without inhabitants, and for what barren ground his brethren and kindred did murther one another, he provided a number of ships, and got with him such men and women as were desirous to liue in quiet-

¹ This is the recorded tradition of Plato and the ancients; and on examining the geological features of the different West Indian islands, in the following pages, there will be found a remarkable confirmation of the earthquake tradition: in particular, vide 'Bermudas' chapter.

nesse, who arrived with him in this new land, in the year 1170¹.

As if in confirmation of these statements, pieces of curiously carved wood, large jointed reeds, and trees of a kind unknown in Europe, were picked up to the westward of Cape St. Vincent, and at the Azores, after long-continued westerly winds. At Flores the bodies of two human beings were washed ashore, whose colour and features were distinct from those of any heretofore seen men; and a singularly wrought canoe was also driven on the same coast. Several Portuguese navigators thought they had seen three islands when driven far to the westward, and the sons of the discoverer of Terceira perished in seeking them; while the legends of the Scandinavian voyagers told of a mysterious Vin-land, enveloped in danger, and surrounded by the awful superstitions of the northern mariners². Urged by these and many other indications, as also by some sound

¹ I notice these events, in order to induce the attention of the rising generation to the *geography* of our possessions, which is so little known, even in the highest quarters, that *Berlice* is marked (*printed*) in an *official* document in the House of Commons as an *island*, and placed among the Bahamas!

² Among the visions and delusions of the day was that recorded of the inhabitants of the Canary Isles, who imagined that from time to time they beheld a vast island to the westward, with lofty mountains and deep valleys. It was said to be distinctly seen in cloudy or hazy weather, or only for short intervals, while sometimes in the clearest atmosphere not a trace of it was visible. The Canary people were so convinced of the reality of the island, that they applied for and obtained permission from the King of Portugal to fit out various expeditions in search of it, but in vain; the island, however, still continued to deceive the eye occasionally, and it was identified by many with the legendary isle alleged to have been discovered by a Scottish priest, St. Brandan, in the sixth century, and was actually laid down in several old charts, as St. Brandan's or St. Borodon's Isle.

geographical reasonings, Columbus, a Genoese seaman of a hardy character and chivalrous spirit, imbued with the religious enthusiasm of the times, and actuated by a lofty desire for fame, after in vain tendering his services to several European monarchs, finally engaged in the employ of the politic Ferdinand and magnanimous Isabella of Castile and Arragon, sailed from Palos with two barks or caravals and a decked ship, on the 3d of August, 1492, and on the 12th of October set at rest a long-agitated question, by discovering and landing on one of the Bahama islands, now in our possession, and called by its discoverer San Salvador.

Cuba was the next island of importance discovered; then Haiti or St. Domingo, where the Spaniards formed a colony, and gave the isle the name of Espanola (Hispaniola). It would be out of place to detail the further progress of maritime adventure. In the three succeeding voyages of Columbus, the main land near Trinidad and several islands were explored; and as years rolled on, the Spaniards extended their colonies to Jamaica, Cuba, Trinidad, Porto Rico, &c., and finally to Mexico and Peru, under adventurers such as Cortez.

For some years the Spaniards were left in almost undisputed possession of the West Indies; but the French and English began to molest them, the former in 1536, the latter in 1565, under the command of Captain Hawkins; in 1572, by the celebrated Francis Drake; and in 1595, by Sir Walter Raleigh.

The first English vessels seen in the West Indies were two ships of war, under Sebastian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert, vice-admiral of England, in 1517. They touched at the coast of Brazil, and then proceeded to Espanola and Porto Rico. The first trading English vessel that visited the islands arrived at

Porto Rico in 1519, being, as was said by the captain, sent by the king to ascertain the state of those islands, of which there was so much talk in Europe. The Spaniards at St. Domingo fired on her, and compelled her to return to Porto Rico. The governor blamed them for not sinking her, and preventing any dissemination in England of a knowledge of the West Indies.

The commencement of the seventeenth century saw the first British colonization on the West India islands; the French and Dutch had been previously settling themselves on the main land at Guiana, and on several islands not occupied by the Spaniards; and Barbadoes was occupied by the servants of Sir William Courteen, in 1624. (*Vide* Chapter on Barbadoes.)

For the next half century, the progress of English and French settlement in the West Indies was extremely rapid. Various disputes arose as to first location. In some instances the subjects of each nation resided on the same island, partitioning it between them, or alternately expelling each other (*vide* Montserrat); and as war raged in Europe between the chief nations, it was carried on in the west with a bitterness and fury outvying that waged in the Old World. The revolution and subsequent restoration in England helped to people the western isles (*vide* Jamaica); and freedom of commercial adventure, and a bold enterprize in unison with the spirit of the age, increased the wealth and European inhabitants of the New World. The close of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth centuries were marked by the most terrible European wars that ever devastated the earth. Its effects extended to the colonies of the contending combatants. For eighteen years England waged against France and Spain the most destructive hostilities on the trans-

atlantic shores ; and, in 1810, Britain had captured every West India island belonging to any power at war with her in Europe.

At the downfall, in 1815, of that extraordinary meteor, who seems to have been sent on earth to teach a lesson to arbitrary rulers, and afford an example of the instability of all human greatness, a restoration and repartitioning of the West India Islands took place ; and they have since remained under the government of the English, French, Spaniards, Danes, and Dutch¹.

This concise notice of the settlement and acquisition of the islands will be found sufficiently amplified under each possession ; but before directing the reader to the several Books for details, I must briefly advert to the original and present population of the West Indies.

When Columbus first discovered the New World, he found the whole continent and every island, however small, densely peopled with a mild, and just, and generous race of men (I do not allude to the Caribs scattered throughout the Archipelago, and preying, or rather feasting, on their fellow-creatures), with skins of a copper or light bronze colour, long silky black hair, finely formed limbs, and pleasing features ; in some instances warlike, and civilized to no mean extent ; in others, living in luxurious idleness, under the enervating effects of a tropical clime. Such were the Indians, among whom history records some of the rarest instances of heroism that man has ever been ennobled by.

Within a few short years after the discovery of the West India islands by the Spaniards, they had for the greatest part perished ; millions of them had been swept from the face of the earth like so many

¹ The History of the Foreign Colonies will contain a description of the West India possessions not belonging to England.

ants from an ant-hill¹; countless myriads sank into the grave by reason of the avarice of a mere handful of desperate, immoral, and murderous adventurers from the west!—

Quid non mortalia pectora cogis,
Auri sacra fames!

I will not venture to comment on this terrible event in the moral history of our species. May it be a warning, an awful lesson, to the Europeans who in future extend their settlements among the dark races of mankind, and especially in the eastern hemisphere, where a handful of white men hold in subjection *one hundred million* of their fellow-creatures!

Let us pass, however, from this melancholy fact, to glance at another event scarcely less horrible, as regards its long and desolating continuance,—I allude to the slave-trade. When the Spaniards found how rapidly the aboriginal or Indian population of the West India isles perished under the system of forced labour, and beneath the tyranny of their rule, the expedient of introducing negro slaves from Africa was resorted to; and that infernal traffic in human blood and agony, doubly cursed to the enslaver and to the enslaved, sprang into deadly and ferocious activity. The example of the Spaniards² was soon

¹ Bensi states, that of two million Indians of the island of Hispaniola (St. Domingo, or Haiti), when discovered by Columbus, in 1492, not more than *one hundred and fifty* were alive in 1545! The Indians in Cuba, to avoid working in the mines, destroyed themselves in great numbers, notwithstanding all the efforts of the Spaniards to prevent them. The men, women, and children of a village containing fifty houses have been found at daylight all hanging to the trees! The Spaniards absolutely fed their dogs on the flesh of their fellow-creatures, whom they shot or slew when their bodies were required.

² Some

followed by the Portuguese, Dutch, French, and English¹; companies for the horrid traffic were formed, monopolies granted, and kings, princes, and nobles enriched their coffers with the price of human blood.

Some retributive justice has already been dealt out to Spain by the Supreme Disposer of events. At one period the Spaniards possessed entirely the Floridas, Mexico, Darien, Terra Firma, Buenos Ayres, Paraguay, Chili, Peru, and California; they are now utterly expelled from every one of these possessions, their dominion execrated, and new and flourishing republics are rising on the ruin of their once valuable colonies.

¹ In the year 1503, the Portuguese, who had settlements in Africa, had begun to send negro slaves into the Spanish settlements in America; and, in 1511, Ferdinand the Fifth permitted them to be carried in greater numbers. Bartholomew de las Casas, the Bishop of Chiapa, actuated with a desire to save the lives of the Indians, promoted the traffic; but Cardinal Ximenes, perceiving the injustice and probable ill effects of the scheme, discouraged it, and it experienced a partial interruption. Nevertheless, before the close of that century, the African slave-trade was carried on by the natives of nearly all the maritime states of Europe.

The first instance of an Englishman engaging in the traffic occurred in the year 1562, when Sir John Hawkins, in his first voyage to Africa and Hispaniola, carried slaves, and on his return deceived his mistress, Queen Elizabeth, in the report which he made of his proceedings. The queen is stated to have expressed her concern, lest any of the Africans should be carried off without their free consent, and declared, 'that it would be detestable, and call down the vengeance of Heaven upon the undertakers.' Hall, the naval historian, has the following remarkable observations on this fact:—'Here began the horrid practice of forcing the Africans into slavery, an injustice and barbarity which, so sure as there is vengeance in Heaven for the worst of crimes, will some time be the destruction of all who allow or encourage it.'

The African Company, formed in the reign of Charles II., granted by letters patent an exclusive right of trade to Queen Catherine, Mary (the Queen Dowager), the Duke of York, and others, forming a royal company, who carried on a traffic in slaves to the extent of 300,000*l.* per annum.

About *thirty millions* of our fellow-creatures have been dragged from their native homes, shipped like cattle in chains to a distant land, worked like the beasts of the field, shot like dogs if they murmured forth a claim in behalf of humanity, and finally they have, with few exceptions, pined and perished under the cruelties, avarice, and brutality of a handful of Europeans; for of the thirty millions exported from Africa to the West Indies¹ since the commencement of the sixteenth century, not half a million of the original slaves, or of their unmixed descendants, are now in existence!

I have carefully studied the pages of West India history, which chronicle the deeds of upwards of 300 years, and I find nothing but wars, usurpations, crimes, misery, and vice²;—no green spot in the desert of human wretchedness, on which the mind of a philanthropist would love to dwell:—all, all is one revolting scene of infamy, bloodshed, and unmitigated woe. *Slavery*, both Indian and negro—that blighting upas—has been the curse of the West

¹ *Half a million* of negroes were imported into Jamaica from Africa, during the first half of the eighteenth century. Between 1823 and 1832, no less than 325 *regular* slave-ships left the ports of the Havanna for the coasts of Africa: 236 returned, importing into Cuba 100,000 slaves; the remaining 89 were either captured or lost at sea.

² In 1730, the legislature of Bermuda passed an act, giving impunity to the murderers of slaves; if, however, *it could be proved* that a person had wilfully and maliciously killed a slave, he was liable to be fined 10*l.* in current money towards the support of the government! If the murderer was not the owner of the slain slave, he was, in addition, to pay the appraised value of the dead slave to the owner. What a picture of society does this legislative act in 1730 evince? In some of the islands, emasculation was resorted to for the punishment of rebellious negroes, in preference to taking away life, because that was of value to the owner of the slave. What refined and demoniac cruelty!

Indies ; it has accompanied the white colonist, whether Spaniard, Frenchman, or Briton, in his progress, tainting, like a plague, every incipient association, and blasting the efforts of man, however originally well-disposed, by its demon-like influence over the natural virtues with which his Creator had endowed him—leaving all dark, and cold, and desolate within.

But now a glorious and happier era bursts upon the western world ; it diffuses the light of a new existence over the soul,—*Liberty* is the spirit it has awakened ;—already her voice resounds along the beautiful hills and through the fertile valleys of the west, and is swept over the ocean to the uttermost bounds of the earth. Long may England wear the crown of glory that encircles her with an halo far brighter than that of all her conquests and battles ! Millions of the human race will bless her name for ages to come, and Afric's swarthy sons will pour forth prayers to the Giver of all good for her honour and prosperity. She was the last nation in Europe to enter into that accursed traffic in human beings ;—to her eternal honour be it said, she was the first to relinquish it—to strike the manacle from the slave—to bid the bond go free !

Tell me not that Christianity has no power over the soul, when we witness the consummation of this splendid act, of which the history of Paganism affords no parallel. Slavery, we are told, existed from the period when time was, and for four thousand years has continued to afflict the earth. Under the benign influence of the Christian faith, it ceased, on the first day of August, eighteen hundred and thirty-four ;—it ceased throughout an empire on which the sun never sets ; and myriads, 'redeemed, regenerated, disenthralled,' walk forth in all the majesty of freedom.

I stoop not to answer the impious assertion, that

the image of the Creator, made in his likeness, and endowed with the faculty of receiving a portion of his Divine Spirit, was *born* to a state of slavery¹,—

Veluti pecora—prona—obedientia ventri.

I heed not the physical care which may, and no doubt has, in many instances, been bestowed on the mere animal. If the negro were not a rational being, endowed with a mind to reflect, and with a soul to be saved, I might rest satisfied with thinking of the careful attention bestowed on him as a beast of burthen; but he has far higher qualifications: he is equally entitled with his white brethren to every right and privilege of man; and the alleged superior skill and intelligence of the European over the negro should make the former a kind friend, instead of, as has formerly been too often the case, a cruel and avaricious tyrant, prompted only to kindness by the despicable motives of self-interest.

But the argument founded on an alleged mental inferiority of the African race is unfounded in fact. I subjoin a few illustrations in proof thereof, and, if space permitted, I could offer many additional illustrations, from observations made by myself in Africa.

The following are a few instances of African negroes who have been mathematicians, physicians, divines, philosophers, linguists, poets, generals, and merchants—all eminent in their attainments, energetic in enterprize, and honourable in character:—Hannibal, a colonel in the Russian artillery, and Lislet, of the Isle of France (the latter of whom was named a corresponding member of the French

¹ It is declared in the Holy Scriptures, "He that stealeth a man and selleth him, or if he be found in his hands, he shall surely be put to death."—Exod. xxi. 16.

Academy of Sciences, on account of his meteorological observations), prove the capacity of the negroes for the mathematical and physical sciences. Fuller, of Maryland, was an extraordinary example of quickness of reckoning. Being asked in a company, for the purpose of trying his powers, how many seconds a person had lived, who was seventy years and some months old, he gave the answer in a minute and a half. On reckoning it up after him, a different result was obtained. 'Have you not forgot the leap years?' asked the negro. This omission was supplied, and the number then agreed with his answer. Jac. Eliza John Capitem, who was bought by a slave-dealer when eight years old, studied theology at Leyden, and published several sermons and poems. His '*Dissertatio de Servitute Libertati Christianæ non Contraria*,' that is, 'Treatise of a Servitude (or bondage) not contrary to Christian Liberty,' went through four editions very quickly. He was ordained in Amsterdam, and went to Elmina, on the Gold Coast, where it is believed he was either murdered, or consented to return to the practices and opinions of his countrymen. In 1734, A. W. Arno, an African from the coast of Guinea, took the degree of doctor in philosophy, at the University of Wittenberg. Friedig, in Vienna, an African negro, was an excellent performer, both on the violin and violoncello; he was also a capital draftsman, and had made a very successful painting of himself. Ignatius Sancho, who was born on board a slave-ship, on its passage from Guinea to the West Indies, and Gustavus Vasa, of the kingdom of Benin, both distinguished themselves as literary characters in this country. Toussaint Louverture, the negro general, and Christophe, the negro Emperor of Hayti, and his admiral, acquitted themselves with sufficient energy in war to achieve the liberties of

their country, which is still governed by persons of African descent.

But whatever may be the estimate of the negro mind, slavery has now received its death-blow, not merely in our own colonies, but throughout the civilized world; and it will doubtless be interesting to the reader to have here an abstract of the history of the abolition of slavery in the British Empire¹.

It must be grateful to an Englishman to learn that, at an early period of our colonial history, negro slavery was reprobated by many public writers. Early in the sixteenth century, it was also discountenanced by Cardinal Zimenes, by Charles V. of Spain, by Pope Leo X., and by the Spanish Dominican Friars. Queen Elizabeth would also have discountenanced it, had the facts been known to her. Milton, and many others, have left on record their solemn protests against it. The sublime poet of Paradise thus inveighed against this dreadful sin:—

‘ O, execrable son, so to aspire
Above his brethren, to himself assuming
Authority usurpt from God, not given;
He gave us only over beast, fish, fowl,
Dominion absolute; that right we hold
By his donation;—but man over men
He made not lord, such title to himself
Reserving, human left from human free.’

Morgan Godwyn, in a little book, entitled ‘The Negro’s and Indian’s Advocate,’ published in 1680; the celebrated Richard Baxter, in his ‘Christian Directory;’ Thomas Trygon, in his ‘Negro’s Complaint,’ &c.; John Woolman, in ‘Considerations on Keeping Negroes;’ Anthony Benezet, in his ‘History of Guinea,’ &c.; Southern, in his tragedy

¹ I am mainly indebted for these details to my philanthropic friend, Thomas Fisher, Esq., whose time, talents, and purse have been devoted to the welfare of his fellow-creatures.

of 'Oronooko,' 1696: Dr. Primatt; Hutcheson, in his 'Moral Philosophy'; Foster, in his 'Discourses on Natural Religion and Social Virtue'; Sir Richard Steele, in his story of 'Inkle and Yarico'; Atkins, in his 'Voyage to Guinea, Brazil, and the West Indies'; Pope, in his 'Essay on Man'; Thomson, in his 'Seasons;' together with Richard Savage, Shenstone, Dyer, and other poets; also Wallis, Hughes, the celebrated Edmund Burke, Dr. Hayter, John Philmore, Malachi Postlethwaite, Thomas Jeffery, Sterne, and Warburton, in their prose writings,—all inveighed in strong language against the bondage of man by his fellows. To these may be added, Rousseau and Baron Montesquieu. Granville Sharp, Esq., a gentleman of undying benevolence, took up the subject with intense energy in 1768; and by his noble exertions, the judges, after three days' deliberations, made the memorable decree, that the moment a slave touched the soil of England he was a *free man*. Since Mr. Sharp's time, further efforts have been made in the hallowed cause of slavery abolition; among others, by Thomas Day, author of 'Sandford and Merton,' and the 'Dying Negro,' published in 1773; Dr. Beattie, in his 'Essay on Truth;' Rev. John Wesley, who had been in America, and observed the condition of the slaves, in his 'Thoughts on Slavery;' Dr. Adam Smith, in his 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' and 'Wealth of Nations;' Professor Miller, in his 'Origin of Ranks;' Dr. Robertson, in his 'Histories of America,' and of 'Charles V.:' the Abbé Raynal; Dr. Paley, in his 'Moral Philosophy; Dr. Porteus, Bishop of Chester, afterwards of London, who published a sermon on negro slavery in 1776, which he had preached before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and became, from that time, an active and powerful friend of the oppressed Africans. In 1784, Dr. Gregory, also in his 'Historical and

Moral Essays,' gave a circumstantial detail of the slave trade, in terms calculated to excite abhorrence of it. In the same year, Gilbert Wakefield preached a sermon at Richmond, in Surrey, in which he censured the conduct of Great Britain towards the Africans; this sermon was also published. In the same year, the Rev. James Ramsay, vicar of Teston, in Kent, became an able, zealous, and indefatigable patron of the African cause; in defence of which he published an *Essay on the Treatment and Conversion of the African Slaves in the British Sugar Colonies*, 1784; an *'Inquiry into the Effects of Abolition*, 1784; a *'Reply to Personal Invectives and Objections*,' 1785; a *'Letter to James Tobin, Esq.*,' 1787; *'Objections to the Abolition of the Slave Trade, with Answers*;' and an *'Examination of Harris's Scriptural Researches on the Licitness of the Slave Trade*,' in 1788; an *'Address on the Proposed Bill for the Abolition of the Slave Trade*,' 1789. In 1785, the celebrated work of M. Necker, the French financier, made its appearance in the English language, and was found to contain some very forcible observations on the slave trade. In this year (1785), the first petition to Parliament, excepting one from the Society of Friends, was presented from the borough of Bridgewater, at the instance of the Rev. G. White and Mr. John Chubb, of that town. In 1788, Capt. J. S. Smith, of the Royal Navy, authorized the publication of a letter in vindication of the facts which had been stated by Mr. Ramsay, and disputed by the West India planters. In the same year, the poems of the celebrated William Cowper made their appearance, containing many strong passages against the slave trade and slavery. Thomas Clarkson, M.A. has been eminently distinguished by his writings against slavery, as well as by his indefatigable

labours in the cause of abolition, from the first agitation of the subject. His most considerable work is his 'History of the Abolition of the Slave Trade,' in 2 vols. 8vo. published in 1808; it is a faithful and affecting narrative, which ought to hold a conspicuous place in every Englishman's library. His other works are as follow:—'An Essay on the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species, particularly the African, translated from a Latin Dissertation, which was honoured with the First Prize, in the University of Cambridge, for the year 1785;' 'An Essay on the Impolicy of the African Slave Trade, 1788;' with several smaller productions.

To the names already mentioned must be added those of Peers of Parliament, particularly the Marquess Wellesley¹, Lords Grenville, Holland, and Teignmouth; also Sir Wm. Dolben, Sir P. Francis, Sir S. Romilly, Sir James Mackintosh, Messrs. W. Wilberforce, W. Pitt, C. Fox, S. Whitbread, J. Stephen, C. Grant, H. Gurney, G. Harrison, Z. Ma-caulay, Alex. Falconbridge, H. Thornton, William Dilwyn, Sam. Bradburn, Capt. Marjoribanks, Capt. Layman, James Montgomery, Joseph Woods, N. Vansittart, the Rev. R. Boucher Nichols (Dean of Middleham, in Yorkshire), the Rev. John Newton, the Rev. J. Jamieson, the Rev. Abraham Booth, the Rev. T. Burgess (afterwards Bishop of St. David's), Messrs. Beaufoy, Josh. Hardcastle, W. Smith, T. F. Buxton, W. T. Money, H. Brougham, with several others, who have advocated the cause of the oppressed

¹ The Marquess Wellesley, when Lord Mornington, and representing (I believe) the borough of Windsor in the English Parliament, was mainly instrumental in procuring the immediate abolition of the carrying trade in slaves, which it was then proposed to extend for a definite term of years.—R. M. M.

Africans, either in pamphlets or in speeches, which were afterwards printed and circulated through the country. His Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester especially distinguished himself by becoming the patron and president both of the African Institution and of the Anti-Slavery Society.

The Society of Friends, or Quakers, warmly espoused the cause of humanity. The members of this community have long been, individually and collectively, both in principle and practice, opposed to the enslavement of the African race. So far back as the year 1671, it was adverted to in an address delivered by the celebrated George Fox to the inhabitants of Barbadoes. He was supported in his views and conduct by his colleague, William Edmundson. The first public censure on the traffic, passed by the society in its collective capacity, bears date in the year 1727, in which year it was resolved, 'That the importing of negroes from their native country and relations, by Friends, is not a commendable nor allowed practice, and is therefore censured by this meeting.' The same sentiment was more emphatically urged upon the attention of the members of this society in 1756, and subsequently very frequently reiterated in an improved form, as the subject became better understood, and the evils of slavery more distinctly perceived. In 1761, it was resolved to disown any member of the Society of Friends, who should have any concern in the traffic in slaves. In 1783, the society petitioned the English Parliament for the abolition of the slave trade, and it was the first public body which adopted that course. From that time till the present moment, its exertions for the suppression of the slave trade, and emancipation of the slaves, have been indefatigable. The Friends have, at a great expence, circulated information upon the subject; and it is now adverted

to, as often as occasion presents, at the yearly meetings of the society.

Nor let me omit to state that the University of Cambridge frequently petitioned Parliament for the abolition of the slave trade, until that object was attained; it also distinguished itself by petitioning the House of Commons for the abolition of slavery.

Among the earliest friends of the cause in Parliament were Sir Charles Middleton (afterwards Lord Barham; William Wilberforce, Esq., the Earl of Mornington (now Marquess Wellesley), and the Right Hon. William Pitt, then Chancellor of the Exchequer. The latter, on the 9th of May, 1788, submitted a resolution to the House of Commons, 'That this House will, early in the next session of Parliament, proceed to take into consideration the circumstances of the slave trade, complained of in the said petitions, and what may be fit to be done therein.' The House, after some debate, agreed to this motion. Several distinguished members of the House delivered their sentiments on the occasion, particularly the late Right Hon. C. J. Fox, the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, Mr. S. Whitbread, Sir William Dolben, Sir James Johnson, a planter, Mr. Bastard, Mr. L. Smith, Mr. Grigby, and Mr. Pelham, who were all favourable to the motion. Lord Penrhyn and Mr. Gascoyne, the Members for Liverpool, admitted the evils of the trade, although their constituents considered themselves as having a great interest in its continuance.

Sir William Dolben having expressed himself particularly anxious to apply an immediate remedy to the crying evils of the middle passage, a short regulating act was brought in, and passed the House of Commons. It also passed the House of Lords, after considerable opposition, especially from the then Lord Chancellor, Thurlow. Upon the whole,

the cause of the oppressed Africans appeared to gain strength during the parliamentary session of the year 1788.

From this time till the passing of the first Abolition Act, in 1806, the subject did not rest in Parliament. Those who were friendly to the cause, and cherished a desire to see the slave-trade abolished, continued indefatigable in their exertions to procure information, with a view to enlighten the Members of both Houses; among those, Mr. Thomas Clarkson deserves honourable mention; his valuable life may be said to have been devoted to this holy cause. And on the 12th of May, 1789, Mr Wilberforce laid upon the table of the House of Commons twelve propositions, deduced from the report of the Committee of Privy Council, stating the number of slaves annually brought from the African shores; the means by which they were procured; their treatment; the average loss of British seamen and of slaves in the transit voyage, or, as it was more commonly called, *the middle passage*; also the average mortality of newly-imported slaves in the West Indies. These propositions Mr. Wilberforce prefaced by a brilliant address to the House, which obtained for him its plaudits, and he was supported by Mr. Burke, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, Mr. (afterwards Lord) Grenville, and other distinguished members; but the opponents of the cause, among whom were to be reckoned Aldermen Watson, Sawbridge, and Newnham, three of the members for the city of London, refused to be satisfied with the facts contained in the evidence then before them, and required further testimony. To this the House acceded, and the examination of witnesses commenced at the bar of the House. The question was, in consequence, deferred till the following session; but before the Parliament adjourned,

Sir William Dolben obtained the renewal of his regulating act.

In 1790, the examination of witnesses against the slave-trade proceeded in the House of Commons, but not without opposition.

In 1791, it was resumed and completed; and, on the 18th of April, a motion was made by Mr. Wilberforce on the evidence taken, for preventing all further importation of slaves from Africa, which, after a long and warm debate, was lost by a majority of 75 votes; the numbers being for it, 88; against it, 163.

On the 2nd of April, 1792, Mr. Wilberforce moved the House, that 'The trade carried on by British subjects for the purpose of obtaining slaves on the coast of Africa, ought to be abolished.' This proposition, after a long discussion, was agreed to by the House of Commons, with a limitation that the abolition should not take place till 1796; but when it was brought up to the House of Lords, the discussion of it was postponed till the following session, and their Lordships determined, in the interim, to receive further evidence.

Mr. Wilberforce, in his introductory speech in Parliament this session, stated some dreadful instances of mortality, which had happened on board of slave ships during the middle passage, particularly that one ship, with a cargo of 602, had lost 155; another, with 450 slaves, 200; another, with 466 slaves, 73; and another, with 546 slaves, 158; and that out of the survivors in the four ships, after the voyage was completed, 220 had died on shore in the West Indies. The discussions relative to the slave-trade were, moreover, conducted in this session with less command of temper than they had previously been on the part of the friends of that trade, who

began to distinguish their opponents by the terms *fanatic, saint, speculatist, or abolitionist.*

Notwithstanding the discouragements in the House of Lords the question was not allowed to rest after the session of 1792. In 1793 a motion was made by Mr. Wilberforce in the House of Commons to renew the resolution of the preceding year, which motion was lost, as was another for the abolition of a foreign slave-trade, then carried on by British capitalists upon British bottoms. The proceedings in the House of Lords were also remarkable this year for the opposition given in that House to the cause of the Africans: but some progress was made there in the hearing of evidence.

In the year 1794, the motion to abolish the foreign slave-trade was renewed by Mr. Wilberforce in the House of Commons, where it was carried, but was afterwards negatived in the House of Lords, who, nevertheless, made some small progress in the hearing of evidence. I think it was on this occasion that the Earl of Mornington (now Marquess Wellesley) made a celebrated speech and motion, in which his Lordship declared that he never could admit the doctrine of granting justice by instalments; and if the slave-trade were cruel, unlawful, and at direct variance with the first principles of humanity, there could be no moral, legal, or equitable plea for continuing the horrid and murderous traffic for a definite term of years.

In February, 1795, Mr. Wilberforce moved in the House of Commons for leave to bring in a bill for the abolition of the slave-trade. This motion had then become necessary, if, according to the former resolution of that House, already mentioned, the slave-trade was to cease in 1796. The proposition was, nevertheless, rejected.

In the years 1796 and 1797 a temporary success attended the exertions of Mr. Wilberforce in the

House of Commons, but it ended in disappointment ; the enemies of abolition having, in the latter year, by a recommendation that the Colonial Assemblies would adopt measures of amelioration, parried the blow aimed at their system by the abolitionists. This scheme of *amelioration* was favourably received by Parliament, where it checked discussion, although it produced few good results in the West Indies.

In 1798, Mr. Wilberforce attempted to renew his former bill for the abolition of the slave-trade within a limited time, but was again defeated, although by a small majority, in a thin House ; the numbers being, for the question, 83 ; against it, 87. Mr. Wilberforce and the friends of the Africans, convinced that truth and justice were on their side, still persevered in their hallowed course, and in the following session, 1799, Mr. Wilberforce renewed his motion in the House of Commons for the abolition of the slave-trade, but it was again lost. Another measure, proposed by Mr. Henry Thornton, for limiting the trade to certain districts of the African coast, had scarcely a better fate ; the bill passed the House of Commons, but, after much discussion, was lost in the Lords. The years 1800, 1801, 1802, and 1803, were, therefore, allowed to pass without any effort being made in Parliament to abolish this odious traffic ; but in the year 1804 Mr. Wilberforce revived the subject, and, after a very interesting debate, obtained, by a large majority of 124 votes against 49, leave to bring in a bill for the abolition of the slave-trade. The bill was, nevertheless, when brought in, opposed in every stage of it, but it finally passed the House of Commons, and was sent up to the House of Lords. There, in consequence of the advanced state of the session, the consideration of it was postponed till the following year.

It was of course revived early in the session of

1805, and met, as usual, with decided friends and strongly excited adversaries. At length the question upon it was *lost* in the House of Commons, owing, as was believed, to the excessive confidence of its friends.

The good effects of these proceedings became at last visible; an order by his Majesty in Council, 1805, gave the first check to the English slave-trade, by interdicting the importation of slaves into British colonies, except in certain cases; in the succeeding year, 1806, the prohibition was confirmed by Act of Parliament, (46 Geo. III. cap. 52), which also prohibited a British traffic in slaves for the supply of foreign colonies. In June following, the House of Commons came to certain resolutions for the more effectual suppression of the African slave-trade. On the 25th March, 1807, an Act (47 Geo. III. cap. 36) was passed, prohibiting the trade, under large penalties, and offering bounties to those who might be instrumental in detecting it. This was followed by the Act of 1811, (51 Geo. III. cap. 23), declaring the slave-trade felony, and subjecting those concerned in it to condign punishment. By a more recent Act of Parliament, (4 Geo. IV. cap. 17), the traffic in slaves by British subjects was declared to be piracy. These proceedings were followed up by the Government at home, by the colonists abroad, and by Parliament, in framing regulations for ameliorating the physical condition of the slaves, and providing for their moral and religious improvement. The crowning of all this was the final abolition of negro slavery throughout the British empire by the Act 3rd and 4th William IV. which came into operation the 1st August, 1834—20,000,000*l.* having been appropriated by Parliament for compensation to the planters, as regards any loss they may sustain from abolition.

With respect to other countries, little can yet be said on the subject. In 1807, the foreign slave-trade was abolished throughout the United States, by the Act of Congress; a revolting internal slave-trade still, however, exists in the Southern States, and nearly 2,000,000 of wretched beings exist there in bondage. Mexico abolished the slave-trade in 1824, and Buenos Ayres, Chili, and Columbia, since the treaty of Vienna. The Conventional Assembly of France, in 1794, abolished slavery, but the Act became void. Buonaparte, on his return from Elba in 1815, again decreed its abolition, but the Bourbons had neither the wisdom, humanity, nor gratitude, to carry his decree into execution. By a recent treaty between England and France, Lord Granville, (our intelligent, urbane, and patriotic ambassador at Paris), prevailed on M. Sebastiani to ratify a treaty (4th March, 1831), rendering the slave-trade, and all connexion with, or connivance at it, highly criminal. In the same year, a mutual right of search by the ships of war of each nation, was agreed to. In 1833, Lord Granville, in pursuance of his humane and noble efforts, induced M. de Broglie, the French Minister, to agree to a supplementary and highly-important article, for the capture of vessels *fitted up merely* for the trade, that they should be broken up. These clauses are of the greatest value. Denmark and Sardinia, and Spain have agreed to the terms of this convention. The United States have totally refused to agree to the right of search : so also has Prussia and Russia. Austria has not decided ; neither has the Netherlands, Sweden, or Naples. The Brazilians have declared it piracy ; Portugal still acts with faithlessness and ingratitude ; but, under the progress of pending negociations, we hope the period is not far distant

when every nation in Europe will have effectively combined to annihilate for ever this murderous traffic.

Our next step is to use every possible effort to induce the United States, France, Spain, Holland, Portugal, &c. to abolish internal slavery. They have an example in the British Colonies, and I feel assured that the result will be prosperous. The example of St. Domingo has been frequently cited as an instance of the commercial and social rule which will be the effect of slave emancipation in the British Colonies. Nothing can be more erroneous than such conclusions, in illustration of which I am happy in being able to detail the following summary of events¹, as they may lead to juster views with regard to our own colonial possessions:—

The island of St. Domingo, now the republic of Hayti, was formerly the joint property of the French and Spaniards, who had acquired their rights in it, as such rights used to be acquired, by taking possession of the land, and stocking it with a slave population. But in August, 1791, the slaves on St. Domingo achieved their own freedom by that successful insurrection against their white masters, the guilt of which was most erroneously charged upon English Abolitionists.

It has been asserted that the blacks on St. Domingo, when they acquired liberty, in 1791, murdered nearly all the whites; and that their conduct on that occasion was marked by great cruelty and atrocity. To this it is justly replied, that it was so reported by deputies sent by the whites to the French National Assembly; but to do justice to the negroes, it is necessary to advert briefly to some other circumstances in the history of the transactions referred to. When the French revolution, which decreed equality of rights to all citizens, had taken place, the free people of colour

¹ This has been furnished me by Mr. Fisher.

on St. Domingo, many of whom were persons of large property and liberal education, petitioned the National Assembly, that they might enjoy the same political privileges as the whites there. The subject of the petition was not discussed till the 8th of March, 1790, when the Assembly agreed upon a decree concerning it. The decree, however, was worded so ambiguously, that the two parties in St. Domingo, the whites and the people of colour, interpreted it each of them in its own favour. This difference of interpretation gave rise to animosities between them; and these animosities were augmented by political party spirit, according as they were royalists or partizans of the French revolution; so that disturbances took place, and blood was shed.

In the year 1791, the people of colour obtained from the Assembly in France another decree in explicit terms, which determined that they were entitled to all the rights of citizenship in all the French islands, provided they were born of free parents on both sides. The news of this decree had no sooner arrived at the Cape, than it produced an indignation almost amounting to phrenzy among the whites. They instantly trampled under foot the national cockade; and were with difficulty prevented from seizing all the French merchant ships in the roads. After this the two parties armed against each other; camps were formed, and, it is to be deplored, that fearful massacres and conflagrations followed; the reports of which, when brought to the mother country, were so terrible, that the Assembly in the same year *abolished the decree in favour of the free people of colour.*

When the news of this last Act reached St. Domingo, it occasioned as much irritation among the people of colour as the news of the passing of it had produced among the whites; and hostilities were

renewed between them, so that new battles, massacres, and burnings took place, which compelled the Conventional Assembly to retrace their steps. They sent out commissioners; who, after several attempts at pacification, emancipated such blacks as were willing to range themselves under the banners of the Republic; and in 1794 the National Convention emancipated the whole remaining slave population, who immediately betook themselves to courses of industry. In these transactions it must be evident, that the slaves in the first instance were the mere engines employed by their owners, by whom they were hurried on to excesses. If afterwards they found a cause properly their own, and in any instance prosecuted it with cruelty, it should be recollected that they had not been educated in the principles of civilized society. Their whole experience in the colonies had been limited to the contemplation of but one motive for human action, and that motive was fear. They had witnessed great excesses of cruelty practised by white men upon blacks; and when the ebullitions of their own rage and resentment, for injuries long endured, had burst all the restraints of law, and they knew that the foe they had raised up would, if triumphant, resort to still more execrable cruelties than he had formerly practised, what wonder that in the use of power they should be implacably cruel, thus following the example of their white oppressors, who certainly were not less so? The very worst part of the conduct of the blacks on St. Domingo, in their struggle for their liberties, is many shades less dark and diabolical than that of the cool calculating slave-trader, who navigates his vessel, freighted with fetters, manacles, thumb-screws, and scourges, to the shores of an unoffending people, and, after drawing numbers of them into his toils by employing the most satanic arts, sacrifices the lives of nearly half of his cargo of

human beings that he may secure the others in a distant region, in a state of irremediable bondage. The outrages of men struggling to regain their lost liberties have too much of virtue in them to admit of any comparison with such transactions as those of the slave-trader.

The inhabitants of St. Domingo have since, as might naturally be expected, experienced some revolutionary struggles; but although they are in the very midst of slave colonies belonging to several European nations, they are at this moment an independent negro state, under a republican government, over which a native mulatto chief presides, and are daily increasing in population (it is now 1,000,000, having doubled itself in twenty-five years), and improving in power, in intellectual cultivation, and all the arts of civilization. Boyer, the President of the Republic of Hayti, has thrice, viz. in 1814, 1816, and 1823, offered to compensate the former proprietors for their losses; but France wished to stipulate for sovereignty, and to this the Haytians of course would not consent. One million francs have been presented to Lafitte by the St. Domingans, for the losses he may have sustained by his projected Haytian loan.

In our own slave colonies the great question of emancipation is now in progress. It behoves all parties to be on the watch in a crisis so eventful, not merely to those immediately interested, but as regards the example which we are setting to other nations and to posterity. There should no longer be a division of classes; the interests of all should be felt as one; and harmonious efforts should be made in the mother country and in the colonies to promote calmly and judiciously the efficient working of this truly grand and noble experiment for the freedom, welfare, and happiness of millions of the human race.



Length 86 Miles.
Breadth 42 to 50 Miles.
Area 6,000 Square Miles.
Elevation, 3 Counties, 14 Parishes.
Seat of Govt Spanish Town.
Annual Revenue £, 200,000.
Exp. - Maritime Commerce value £, 4,000,000.
Highest Land 5,600 feet
Discovered by Columbus, A.D. 1494.
Colonized by Spain, A.D. 1509.
Captured by England, A.D. 1655.
Population Whites 25,000, Coloured 450,000.

WEST INDIES.

BOOK I.

JAMAICA, &c.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY, AREA, BOUNDARIES AND HISTORY.

JAMAICA, (Xaymaca¹ or St. Jago²;) a magnificent island, one hundred and sixty miles long, by forty-five broad, containing 4,000,000 acres, and situate between the parallels of 17.35 to 18.30 N. Lat. and 76 to 78.40 W. Long. four thousand miles S. W. of England, ninety miles W. of St. Domingo, the same distance S. of Cuba, and four hundred and thirty-five miles N. of Carthagena, on the S. American continent,—was discovered by Columbus on the morning of the 3d of May, 1494, during his second expedi-

¹ The isle was thus called by the Indians, signifying, in the language of Florida, abundance of wood and water.

² According to Oldmixon this name was given by Columbus, on his second visit to the island, in honour of St. Jago, *alias* St. James, the patron Saint of Spain.

tion to the New World. When first visited by the Spaniards Jamaica was found to be densely peopled with Indians, resembling in appearance and language the inhabitants of the contiguous mainland; numerous canoes put off from the shore to meet Columbus, and resistance was offered by a large party of armed Indians, when the Spanish boats proceeded to obtain soundings in the haven, now called Port Maria.

The voyagers then entered another harbour, named *Ora Cabeca*, and on experiencing a similar demonstration of opposition, several *arbaletes* were discharged at the Indians, who fled on witnessing the slaughter of their companions, and permitted the quiet landing of Columbus. The admiral, (who took formal possession of the island for his sovereign,) remained ten days among the astonished natives, and then (18th May, 1494) sailed for Cuba. On the 22nd of the ensuing month, Columbus again approached Jamaica, off Rio Bueno, and surveyed the coast (without landing), till the 20th of August, when he reached San Miguel, now Cape Tiburon. For eight years from this period nothing further was heard of Jamaica, and the peaceful Indians were yet a little while left in the tranquil occupation of their happy home. In 1502, (14th July,) Columbus, then on his 4th voyage, sailed from Hispaniola for Jamaica, but contrary and boisterous winds compelled his sheltering at Guanaja, or the isle of Pines. The succeeding year saw the first European settlement on our present colony, the result of necessity, rather than choice. Returning from the disastrous expedition

to Veragua, Columbus (with his son and brother and two ships), was driven for shelter to Maxaca, on the S. coast of Cuba, whence after imperfectly repairing his vessels, he again put to sea, but was forced, by stress of weather, and in a sinking state, on an uninhabited part of the N. coast of Jamaica, where neither water nor provisions were procurable; once more the intrepid navigator turned his shattered prows to the faithless deep, the tradewind drove him down the coast to the westward, and at St. Ann's Bay, (called by the devout and weather-beaten mariner Santa Gloria¹.) the sinking vessels were run on shore for the purpose of preserving the lives of the almost exhausted adventurers, who, protected by a reef of rocks, lashed the wrecks together, and canopied beneath a canvas awning, found present shelter and repose.

Friendly communications were opened with the unsuspecting Indians, who supplied the shipwrecked seamen with abundance of provisions in exchange for beads, bells, or other trifles². Columbus dispatched Diego Mendez, the secretary to the squadron, in company with a Genoese named Fieski, in two canoes (each furnished with six Castilians and ten Indians) to Ovando, the Governor of Hispa-

¹ The Cove is called to the present day, in remembrance of this event, Don Christopher's Cove.

² Columbus acted on the fears of the Indians, by threatening them with the Divine vengeance unless his wants were all complied with; and told them that an eclipse, which he knew was on the point of taking place, would be the signal of destruction.

niola, then the capital of the Spanish western isles, distant 200 leagues from Jamaica, and with a strong adverse wind in their course. Ovando, the Governor of Hispaniola, was the inveterate enemy of Columbus, and availed himself of the occasion of his rival's misfortune, to heap insult and injury on the unfortunate admiral; a vessel was dispatched from Hispaniola, to mock the sufferers with condolence and ironical regrets of inability to afford assistance, the commander of the reconnoitering ship (which purposely lay outside the reefs of Santa Gloria) having been expressly selected on account of his being the personal enemy of Columbus. The suffering Spaniards, under the impression that they were neglected by the Viceregal and Home Authorities, by reason of their fidelity to Columbus, mutinied at the instigation of the brothers Pooras (one a commander, and the other a military treasurer). Columbus was accused of witchcraft, and several attempts to assassinate him as he lay confined to his bed with the gout were only frustrated by the bravery and presence of mind of his brother Bartholomew; the mutineers seized on ten canoes which the admiral had been preparing, plundered the natives of provisions wherever they could be found, forced several to accompany them in their efforts to cross the sea to Hispaniola, and then threw the islanders overboard with their baggage to lighten the fragile barks in which they several times endeavoured to gain the seat of Supreme Government. When compelled to return by the storm to Jamaica, it was but to lay waste and destroy the unoffending Indians, and to make fresh

attacks on Columbus and his few faithful followers. At length, after losing several of their comrades in a battle with the admiral's friends, headed by Diego Columbus, the renegades sued for permission to return to their allegiance, and in a month after (28th June, 1504), Columbus bade a final adieu to the Jamaica shores, in vessels prepared for his relief by Mendez and Fieski, whom he had dispatched from Santa Gloria to Hispaniola and Spain (as before stated) soon after the shipwreck of his vessels. The peaceful Indians were now left for a brief period in the quiet possession of their lovely isle, but in three years after the death of Christopher Columbus, i. e. in 1509, the Spanish Court divided the Darien Government between Alfonzo d'Ojeda and Diego Nicuesa, authorizing them jointly and severally to make what use they pleased of the unoccupied island of Jamaica as a garden, whence provisions might be obtained, and as a nursery whence *slaves* might be procured to work in the mines. The result of such orders, in such times, may be easily imagined; a contest arose between the provincial Governors who should make the most of the unfortunate islanders and their country; towns and villages were laid waste and burned; the slightest resistance was revenged with indiscriminate slaughter; the caciques, or chiefs, murdered in cold blood; the women, who tempted the lust of the invaders, became victims to their sensuality; tortures of the most infernal nature were resorted to for the purpose of forcing a discovery of that which the Spaniards eagerly thirsted for—gold; and the adults and children of Jamaica who

were not fortunate enough to escape to the recesses of the mountains, there to perish, or suffer from lingering famine, were borne away into captivity, to wear out a brief existence in the rayless mines where their merciless oppressors sought wealth at an incalculable sacrifice of human life and misery. Justly may we exclaim with the poet—

quid non mortalia pectora cogis,
Auri sacra fames!

While the rival governors, Diego and Nicuesa, were disputing about the adjudication of Jamaica, Diego Columbus (the son of the great navigator) stepped in to assert his prior claim, and accordingly despatched, in 1509, Don Juan d'Esquimel, with seventy men, to take possession of the island and form a settlement at Santa Gloria, a spot sacred to his filial affections, by reason of the shipwreck and sufferings of his father. The seat of government was fixed on the banks of a small rivulet, termed *Sevilla Nueva*, to commemorate the successful termination of his suit against the crown, as recently decided by the council of the Indies; and Ferdinand, another son of Columbus, was despatched from Spain to establish a monastery, and assist in the extension of the new colony. The unwarlike Indians did not long offer resistance to the government which they found disposed to settle amongst them, they sank by degrees into the condition of serfs and slaves, and were regarded as mere ministers to the pleasures of their white brethren, who had now usurped the sole occupancy of the soil. San Do-

mingo, then in all its glory, graced by the presence of royal blood, and many of the nobility of Castile, and the seat of fashion in the new world, communicated its luxuriance and taste to *Sevilla Nueva* (now called *Sevilla d'Oro*, from the gold brought thither by the natives), and a splendid city arose, rivalling in magnificence the towns of the mother country, but of which not a vestige remains, save the memory of the name,—the cane fields, on the site of the former capital, being still termed *Seville*.

The chroniclers of the day represent the government of Don Juan d'Esquimel as mild in character towards the natives, and fostering in regard to the culture of cotton, the introduction of the sugar cane, vine¹, and European cattle, which flourished in the virgin soil, and fruitful valleys, and savannahs of the island. The cotton wool was celebrated in commerce for its quality as well as quantity; and the beautiful fabrics woven therefrom by the Indians became a source of wealth to the Spaniards, which, if they had been attended to, would have proved of more lasting value than the precious metals; in the avaricious search for which every thing living and dead was sacrificed. Unhappily for the Indians, the rule of Don Esquimel was brief; he died, and was buried at *Sevilla d'Oro*, the beautiful bay on the south of the island now called *Old Harbour*, where he had fixed his estate as an eligible ship-building settlement. Don Esquimel bequeathed to posterity the remembrance of a name whose charac-

¹ Claret was then made in Jamaica.

ter offered a bright contrast to that of his sanguinary successors. Francisco de Garay, a Spaniard, who had long been a fortunate partner of the celebrated Diaz in the famed mine of St. Christopher, in Hispaniola, and whose insatiable avarice and cruelty was notorious, succeeded Esquimel as lieutenant of Diego Columbus, in the government of Jamaica, which, in 1519 (ten years after its settlement), had risen so rapidly as to have been enabled to fit out three vessels, manned by two hundred and seventy men, to endeavour to take possession of a territory named Panuco, on the main land. In 1521, Sevilla d'Oro began to send off branches from the parent stock, and two new towns were founded—the one on the Bay of Blewfields, named Oristan, from a place in Sardinia; the other, Melilla (supposed to be on the site where Marthæ-bræ now stands), so called after a small town in Barbary.

The death of Diego Columbus (who, in 1523, had founded St. Jago *de la Vega*, or St. Jago of the Plains, to distinguish it from St. Jago *de Cuba*), in 1526, checked the improvement of the island; and the cruelties of the Governor, Don Pedro d'Esquimel, whom Las Casas declares to have been the greatest destroyer of the Indians, added to the destructive piratical warfare carried on by French corsairs, under the name of *Flibustiers*—all tended to cloud the rising prosperity of Jamaica. The intelligent author of the *Annals of Jamaica*, the Rev. G. W. Bridges, says, that the consequence of such proceedings was, that the settlement of Oristan was destroyed in its infancy, Melilla was abandoned almost as soon as

built, and the capital became the repeated prey of a lawless banditti. Its buildings, many of them the creation of monastic munificence, were suspended—its trade interrupted—and such as were not bound by office to the seat of government, deserted their half-finished walls to seek a safer retreat in the southern districts of the island. The *Jamaica Almanac* says, that St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, was founded by Diego Columbus, in 1523; but Mr. Bridges states its origin to have been owing to the affrighted Spaniards, who fled over the mountain range, in 1538, in order to breathe in security from the plundering attacks of the French flibustiers, or corsairs; while superstition suggested the name of the new capital, under the impression that the patron saint of the island had been offended at the name (St. Jago) given by Columbus having been outlived by the native cognomen, *Xaymaca*, or Jamaica. Security of person and property, the main spring of national wealth and happiness, soon contributed to raise St. Jago de la Vega into a flourishing city: the neighbouring savannahs were quickly cultivated, the manufacture of sugar¹ rapidly extended, and, in sixteen years from its foundation (1555), the capital of Jamaica gave the title of Marquis to the grandson of the extraordinary mariner who may be truly said to have discovered a new world for the purpose of stimulating into renewed energy the enterprize and intelligence of the old.

¹ In 1523 there were thirty sugar mills established in the island.

The wars between Charles V. and Henry of France were carried on in America by the latter under piratical leaders; and, after a desperate attack of the filibustiers, in 1554, who massacred all the inhabitants, sculptured arches and bare walls alone remained as evidence of the pristine splendour of the once celebrated city of Sevilla d'Oro.

In 1558, it is stated that the native inhabitants of Jamaica had entirely perished. Gage, writing in 1637, says, 'This island was once very populous, but is now almost destitute of Indians, for the Spaniards have slain in it more than 60,000; insomuch that women, as well here as on the continent, did kill their children before they had given them birth, that the issues of their bodies might not serve so cruel a nation.' The Spaniards cultivated the lands in the neighbourhood of St. Jago de la Vega, by means of the few slaves which they were enabled to purchase. In 1580, owing to the junction of the crowns of Spain and Portugal, the territorial right of Jamaica was vested in the royal house of Braganza, and the Portuguese who emigrated to the island gave new life and vigour to the settlement. In 1587 Jamaica was so overrun with the breed of horned cattle, swine, and horses, originally imported from Hispaniola, that a considerable trade arose in provisions, lard, and hides; the cultivation of sugar, which had been neglected after the destruction of Sevilla d'Oro, was resumed; and ginger, tobacco, and other articles were added to the planters' commercial stock. In 1605 the famed wealth of Jamaica induced a predatory incursion on the settlement

from Sir Anthony Shirley, who was cruising in the neighbourhood with a large fleet, but the invaders retired after plundering only those parts of the island that were most accessible.

Col. or Capt. William Jackson made a descent upon Jamaica in 1644, from the windward islands, at the head of five hundred men; the Spaniards fought bravely at Passage Fort, but were beaten, and compelled to pay a large sum of money for the preservation of the capital. Little, or indeed nothing authentic, is known of the internal history of the island up to the period of the British Conquest in 1655; the acquisitions of Spain on the Continent, and the vast quantity of precious metals thence derived, soon induced the neglect of the insular possessions of the Mother Country for the sake of the more shewy, but less substantial advantages, derived by the conquest of Peru and Mexico; all accounts, however, agree in representing the *Hidalgos* of Jamaica as leading a life of slothful luxuriance; and for the latter fifty years the N. side of the island had been abandoned and allowed to be covered with dense woods. The population at the time of the British Conquest was stated by Venables to be no more than 1,500 Spaniards and Portuguese, with about an equal number of Mulattoes and negro slaves, and the higher class of inhabitants was composed of only eight families, who may be said to have divided the country between them into eight *hatos* or districts.

Cromwell, no less with a desire to rid himself of those disaffected towards his government, than with

a hope of humbling the power of the Spanish court, which favoured the restoration of Charles,—aided by the popular feeling in England against the Spaniards, for the condemnation of six hundred peaceable English settlers at St. Christopher's, to work in subterraneous bondage in the mines of Mexico in 1629,—anxious to avenge the murder of a small English colony, who had quietly settled on the unoccupied island of Tortuga eight years after the peace of 1630, and a repetition of the same bloody tragedy twelve years afterwards at Santa Cruz, in which, as at Tortuga, even the women and children were put to the sword,—and urged, moreover, by a desire to establish the maritime supremacy of England, by the foundation of colonies, and by putting an end to the exclusive right of navigating the American seas, as claimed by Ferdinand and Isabella;—influenced, I say, by these and other motives, Cromwell fitted out a large armament, which he placed under the joint command of General Venables and Admiral Penn, with three controlling commissioners, for the purpose of seizing on Hispaniola at the moment of declaring hostilities against Spain in Europe. The expedition was hastily despatched, the ranks of the army filled from the gaols and prisons in England and Ireland, and the fleet so hurried out to sea that the store-ships were left behind. Barbadoes was the rendezvous for the expedition, which, to the number of 3,000 soldiers, (including a troop of horse raised at the expense of the Barbadians,) with 30 sail of vessels, one half victuallers, departed from Barbadoes 31st March,

1655. At St. Christopher's the expedition was joined by 1,300 men, making, with those from Barbadoes, 5,000 volunteers, whose grand aim was the plunder of the Spaniards. The capture of Hispaniola was prevented by the vigilance of the Spaniards, who slew 600 of the English, wounded 300, and drove 200 into the woods. To make amends for this discomfiture, Jamaica was attacked by a force of 6,500 men, on the 3d of May, 1655, after being one hundred and forty-six years in the possession of Spain. Little resistance was offered, negotiations were entered into for the British occupation, and skilfully prolonged by the Spaniards, until the latter removed all their valuables, so that when St. Jago de la Vega was entered by the British forces, about ten days after the landing, nothing but bare walls were found. The inhabitants carried off all their goods to the mountains, where, aided by their slaves, and by occasional reinforcements from Cuba, they long held out, but after some years were gradually annihilated, pardoned, or permitted to emigrate. Spain, in 1658, vainly endeavoured to recover Jamaica; some skill and energy would have enabled her to do so, owing to the disaffection and disorganization of the British army and occupants; but the rapid acquirement of wealth, without the aid of industry, and almost solely by means of violence and craft, is as fatal to the strength and happiness of a nation as it is to that of an individual, and the Spanish government, after several unsuccessful efforts, abandoned all further prospects of re-possessing themselves of the island. During the early

British occupation much inconvenience and distress (as is the case in all infant settlements), was experienced; some of the Spaniards and their negroes still occupied the mountains¹, and martial law was the sole judicature for a series of years, during which period little progress was made in cultivation, the soldiers being disinclined to turn their swords into ploughshares. Colonel D'Oyley, the Governor of Jamaica in 1661, wrote to Secretary Nicholas, that a party of soldiers had just brought in from the mountains about 100 negroes, the remainder of some 2,000, who had infested the place since their arrival: he adds, "*the soldiers have received no pay since they came.*"—*State Paper Office*. It would appear that bloodhounds were now introduced into Jamaica, and not, as was supposed, for the first time by Lord Balcarras. The two following Jamaica orders respecting bloodhounds and Bibles afford a curious picture of the manners of the times:—August 14, 1656. "An order signed Edward D'Oyley, for the distribution to the army of 1701 Bibles."

August 26, 1659. "Order issued this day unto Mr. Peter Pugh, Treasurer, to pay unto John Hoy the summe of twenty pounds sterling, out of the impost-money, to pay for fifteene doggs, brought by him for the hunting of the negroes."

Under the government of Colonel D'Oyley, Jamaica became the head quarters of the pirates, or buccaneers, who infested these seas, and derived inordinate wealth from the plunder of the Spanish colonies

¹ This was the origin of the Maroons.

and the fleets laden with the precious metals on their return to Europe; it is stated that the tables and household utensils of the colonists were of silver and gold, and their horses sometimes shod with the former metal, loosely nailed on, to indicate the abundance of riches and contempt for slight losses of wealth. Negro slaves appear to have been imported by the British in pursuance of the policy of their predecessors, and in 1659 the population of the island was rated at 4,500 whites, and 1,400 negroes. Of the white population a chief proportion must have been outlaws and soldiers; for, according to the Board of Trade and State Paper Office Records,—“two hundred of the rebels taken at Sedgemoor were transported to Jamaica¹,” and the military strength of the island in 1662 consisted of five regiments, containing 2,083 men at arms. That emigration from England began early is nevertheless correct; Sir Thomas Modyford, in a letter dated Jamaica, January 30th, 1664, mentions the number of settlers recently arrived at 987, of which 855 came from England, and the remainder from Barbadoes.

At the restoration Charles sought to allay the feuds existing between the republican and royalist parties in Jamaica; the restraints of martial law were abolished, courts of session formed, and a council of 12 elected by the inhabitants to aid

¹ In 1656 the Council of State in England voted that 1000 girls, and as many young men, should be *listed* in Ireland and sent to Jamaica. The troops in that year were estimated at 4500 foot and 800 horse.

the government convened; a partial survey took place, 12 districts were marked out, laws framed by the council for the government of the island, and taxes levied for the maintenance thereof; every encouragement was held out to new planters, and the wise regulations of Cromwell, *exempting planters or 'adventurers' from paying excise or customs on any produce, &c. exported to Jamaica, or imported from thence into the dominions of the commonwealth, for 10 years*, was allowed; together with the abolition of hindrance or impressment on ships or mariners bound for Jamaica.

On the accession of Lord Windsor to the chief authority, in September, 1662, a municipal government was formed; judges of session and magistracy appointed; the militia established; the island divided into seven parishes, and patents of land in free soccage granted. It is interesting to examine the origin of our colonial legislatures. According to a letter in the State Paper Office from Colonel (afterwards Sir Thomas) Modyford, dated Barbadoes, February 16th, 1651, addressed to Bradshaw (the regicide), the following suggestions occur, relative to the island sending representatives to Parliament:—
'The great difficulty is, (which your wisdoms will easily overcome,) how we shall have a representative with you in your government and our parliament: to demand to have burgesses with yours to sit and vote in matters concerning England may seem immoderate; but to desire that two representatives be chosen by this island to advise and consent to matters that concern this place, I presume may be both

just and necessary; for if laws be imposed upon us without our personall or implied consent, we cannot be accounted better than slaves, which, as all Englishmen abhorre to see, so I am confident you detest to have them: This is so cleare that I shall not need to enforce it with argument, neither enter upon particulars for the good of this place,' &c. &c.

It may be gathered from this that the home authorities preferred granting colonial legislatures to colonial representatives in the British Parliament.

In January, 1664, the first assembly of Jamaica was convened by the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Charles Littleton, in conformity with the power of his commission from England; it consisted of 30 members, who chose a speaker (Mr. Robert Freeman) the 20th of January, and continued their sittings to the middle of February, then adjourned to May, and afterwards resumed them at Port Royal; thus dividing its session between the seats of Government and trade. This early establishment of a popular legislative assembly was attended with signal advantages; laws suited to the community were framed, taxes raised independent of the Governor and parent state, and the acts of assembly were sent for confirmation to the King. Disputes subsequently broke out between the Governor, Sir Thomas Modyford, and the house of assembly; but those who appreciate the blessing of legislative representation in unison with taxation, will think lightly of differences between the party desiring the exercise of uncontrollable authority, when balanced by the calm

and efficient power of a chamber freely elected by the intelligence and wealth of a community¹.

For sixty-four years the House of Assembly of Jamaica carried on a noble contest to secure the means of defending itself against tyrannical acts on the part of the Crown, to control the expenditure of their own supplies, and to resist the imposition of a tax of $4\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. on the gross produce of the island.

Up to 1670, when peace was ratified with Spain, Jamaica was the head quarters and rendezvous of all the pirates, corsairs, and buccaneers of the New World, encouraged by many of the Governors of Jamaica. Sir Thomas Lynch, in 1664, considered the calling in of the privateers 'a remote and hazardous experiment.' 'If they cannot get English commissions,' he says, 'they will get French

¹ Of Colonel Samuel Long, who nobly opposed the arbitrary measures of the Crown, endeavoured to be enforced through the then Governor, the Earl of Carlisle, in 1679, the following notice occurs in a paper in the Board of Trade :—

Nov. 23, 1676. "His Excellency," Lord Vaughan, having acquainted the Council of the present vacancy of the Chief Justice's place, and that, in this emergency, he could not propose any other than Lieutenant-Colonel Samuel Long unto them, wherein his Lordship desired their advice, all unanimously declared that they were fully satisfied with the great abilities of Lieutenant-Colonel Long to performe and discharge the said trust and employment, and did approve of his Excellency's choice."

This distinguished colonist died possessed of nearly 20,000 acres in Jamaica. His descendant, Mr. Edward Long, was the accomplished and learned author of the history of that island, and to the grandson of that gentleman I am indebted for several valuable memoranda.

or Portuguese, although they be dangerous rogues.' Sir Thomas Modyford, in 1665, acknowledges the receipt of a letter from Lord Arlington, directing that 'privateers be handled quietly for the future, and be reclaimed by degrees; encouraging them to return home and take service in H. M. fleet against the Dutch.' The celebrated, the notorious Morgan, as well as other bandits, contributed to pour a vast flood of wealth into Jamaica, the prize of their infamous marauding expeditions. As the name of Morgan, the pirate, is so intimately connected with the history of Jamaica, an island of which he subsequently became the chief authority, some account of him will be acceptable.

This extraordinary adventurer was a native of Wales, born in 1635, of a junior branch of the great clan of the Morgans of Tredegar, but by daring courage, talents, and successes, became advanced to the dignity of Lieutenant-Governor of Jamaica. Having no inclination to follow his father's agricultural pursuit, Morgan bade him adieu, wandered to Bristol, and embarked for Barbadoes, where, according to the custom of the times, he bound himself as a servant, or sold his services, for the space of four years. As soon, however, as he gained his freedom, Morgan went to Jamaica, where the temptations held out for the rapid acquirement of wealth induced him to join the West India buccaneers, who considered their pursuits legitimate because the Spaniards refused to be at peace with other nations within the tropics, where they asserted Englishmen had no right to settle. War was declared against the Spa-

niards, by beat of drum, at Port Royal, 27th February, 1666; and Morgan, by his daring intrepidity, soon brought himself into notice, made several successful cruises, and secured a share of the spoil. Seeing the excesses and improvidence of his companions, he profited by the example, and lived so moderately, that he soon amassed a sufficient sum of money to purchase a vessel, in conjunction with some of his comrades, who elected him their commander, and he returned to Port Royal with several prizes from the Bay of Campeche. Mansfeldt, the "prince of pirates," who was then preparing a formidable expedition against the Spaniards, pitched upon him to be his vice-admiral; and in a short time, with fifteen ships and five hundred men, he stormed and plundered the island of St. Catherine (Providence), thirty-five leagues from Chagres river, and, after various successes in different places, next proceeded, in 1668, with a fleet of nine ships and four hundred and sixty men against Puerto Bello. This city was defended by three castles, two of which were so situated that no hostile boat could pass, and the town itself was well garrisoned. It was night when he arrived, and being acquainted with all the avenues of the city, he sailed in canoes up the river to Puerto Pontin, where he anchored, and, guided by one who had been a prisoner there, reached *Estera longa de mar*, whence he marched to the outposts of the city. After securing the sentinel, he assailed the castle with such resistless impetuosity, that the Governor was compelled to submit. Being unable to spare men to

guard his prisoners, Morgan is accused by the Spaniards of having enclosed them all in a large dungeon, fired the magazine and blown up the fortress with every Spaniard in it. They then forced the commandant of the city into the remaining fort, who vainly endeavoured, by an incessant cannonade, to prevent the plundering of the town below; but it had no other effect than to urge them to make a quick and sanguinary dispatch. The buccaneers rifled the churches and houses, and stormed the castle at the very mouth of its guns. The carnage of this nocturnal conflict was dreadful. After performing prodigies of valour, Morgan's men became dispirited and faint; but their courage was restored by seeing the English colours waving over the third and only remaining castle, which another party of these desperadoes had successfully stormed. Our hero commanded the prisoners they had taken from the religious houses, at the point of the sword, to place the scaling ladders against the walls. The Spanish soldier's duty prevailed over his superstition, and many of the *religieuse* were slain. The pirates, however, mounted the ladders, and the Spaniards, throwing down their arms, begged for mercy. The commandant alone refused to yield, and nobly met his fate in the presence of his wife and daughter. Every species of excess marked the footsteps of the remorseless conquerors during fifteen successive days. A ransom of 100,000 pieces of eight was demanded for the preservation of the town, and paid. After levelling the redoubts which had been raised by the Spaniards, and dismounting their guns,

the buccancers returned to Jamaica with a ransom and plunder of 250,000 pieces of eight and much merchandize. The chroniclers of the day narrate that, on the sea shore at Port Royal, plate, jewels, and other rich effects were literally piled beneath the eaves of the houses for the want of warehouse room. But this immense wealth was soon transferred to others, and the pirates, reduced almost to starvation, constrained their captain to put to sea again, after a few short weeks of riotous debauchery. Morgan was now at the head of a thousand desperate fellows, and a fleet of fifteen vessels, to which was added, it is said, the *Oxford* frigate, commanded by Captain E. Collier, sent by Charles II. to aid in the war against the Spaniards. The fleet rendezvoused at the Isle de Vache, in Hispaniola; and Sir William Beeston and Esquemeling relate the following almost incredible circumstance. A council of war was held on board the *Oxford*, on the 2nd January, 1669. The captains remained to dinner, and, while feasting, the frigate, "by some unknown accident, blew up at once, and killed two hundred and fifty men: *Admiral* Morgan, and those captains that sat on that side of the table that he did, were saved; but those captains on the other side were killed." This misfortune prevented an attack on Carthagena; but Macaibuco, with Gibraltar (on the Spanish main), was again sacked, and the inhabitants underwent the same cruel torture they experienced at the hands of Solonnois. Failing, however, in this attempt to plunder them, the inhabitants having concealed their valuables in the woods, the pirates, wearied and

vexed at their unusual ill fortune, retreated from the town. They were waited for by the Spaniards, who were prepared with three men-of-war to obstruct their passage from the lake ; and even in this dilemma, when life and death were in the event, Morgan's courage alone remained unshaken. He contrived a fire-ship with such ingenuity, that it was impossible for the enemy to recognise her as such. With this he destroyed one of their vessels—the second ran on shore, and the remaining one became an easy prey to the pirates ; but, although he had destroyed their fleet, the castle, which they must pass, was impregnable. In vain did he resort to his usual practice in exposing the nuns and friars they had taken prisoners upon the deck, to restrain their countrymen from firing. Finding it utterly useless, he had recourse to a wily stratagem. He withdrew out of the reach of the guns, and, filling his boats with men, they were ordered to row ashore, as if with the design of landing ; but, instead of doing so, they concealed themselves at the bottom of the boats, and the boats returned apparently with only two or three men. After doing this several times, the Spaniards, thinking they were going to attack the castle from the land, removed their guns from the sea-side to the ramparts, leaving the former almost defenceless. The pirates then by moonlight dropped down with the tide ; when opposite the fort, spread every inch of canvass, and saluted the mortified Spaniards as they passed with a few shots, which the governor, completely outwitted, was unable to

return; thus again was Jamaica deluged with wealth and benefitted by the prodigality of the pirates. Morgan's reputation was now so great that he was joined by several young men of family from England. After a few months' peace, war was again proclaimed (2nd July, 1670) at Port Royal, against the Spaniards. Morgan received a commission from the Governor to harass the enemy, and sailed with a fleet of thirty-seven sail, carrying two thousand men at arms, besides large crews of good sailors. St. Catherine was recaptured, and kept as a place of retreat. Morgan's vice-admiral (Broadley), with four ships and four hundred men, gained possession, (after losing one hundred men in killed and wounded,) of the town and castle of Chagres. Morgan next sailed to Panama, which, after a desperate conflict, he succeeded in taking possession of; but it, by some accident, took fire, and continued burning several days. Vast quantities of molten gold and silver were found encrusted on the very pavements of the town, and the worth of millions was collected from the wells and fountains, where it had been hastily concealed. With one hundred and seventy-five mules, richly laden with gold, silver, and jewels, Morgan arrived at Chagres. There he made a division of the spoil; but his crew, suspecting him of fraud in the partition, mutinied, and he was glad to escape with two or three ships and 400,000 pieces of eight in specie, with which he arrived in Jamaica. Morgan now gave up his depredations, retired into private life, purchased a plantation, lived upon and

improved it, and so effectually recommended himself to public favour, that he was made a naval commander in the service of his king, obtained the honour of knighthood, became President of the Council of Jamaica, and thrice filled the office of Lieutenant-Governor. According to some chronicles, the pusillanimity of the British Court, and Morgan's Spanish enemies, however, prevailed so far as to procure a letter from the Secretary of State, ordering him a prisoner to England, where his robust constitution, which the numberless trials to which he had been exposed could not impair, sunk beneath unmerited disgrace. Others assert that he died at Port Royal, in comfortable retirement, and much beloved, the 26th August, 1668; leaving a name which struck terror into Spain, and which records exploits rarely equalled in the annals of British courage.

To return to the history of the island:—

In 1670, the total white population was 15,198 (vide chapter on population); the militia muster rolls exhibiting an internal strength of 2,720 men, and the British seamen about the island being 2,500 strong. Fifty-seven sugar works, yielding annually 1,710,000 lbs. of sugar; forty-seven cocoa walks, giving 180,000 lbs. of nuts; and forty-nine indigo works, producing 49,000 lbs. of dye, attested the prosperity of the island. The indigenous pimento afforded an export annually of 50,000 lbs.; 10,000 bushels of salt were produced from three salt pans;—in six years 60 tame cattle had increased to 60,000; and sheep, goats, and tame hogs, were

innumerable¹; cotton, tobacco, arnotto, and other articles, were being attended to; and, in the brief space of fourteen years, amidst numberless misfortunes abroad and at home, Jamaica exhibited a wonderful progress in colonial prosperity.

Sir Thomas Lynch, on his arrival as Governor in 1671, put an end to the privateering system, and directed the attention of the Colonists to the more permanently profitable means of attaining wealth, agriculture, and commerce. The assembly (consisting of eighteen representatives) was convened, and the revenue fixed as follows:—Land at Port Royal, one halfpenny per foot; cleared land and savanna, one penny per acre; license to sell liquor, 40s. per annum; brandy and spirits imported, 6*d.* per gallon; Portuguese and Spanish wines, 4*l.* per ton; beer, 30s. per ton; and rum, at 40s. ditto; British ships, 1*s.* per ton anchorage; foreign, double; the salary of the Governor or Commander-in-Chief fixed at 1000*l.* per annum; 400*l.* to the Lieutenant-Governor; 200*l.* to the Major-General; 80*l.* to the Chief Justice; 20*l.* to every Judge; and 10*l.* to his Assistant.

According to documents in the State Paper Office, the Assembly, in 1671, consisted of eighteen representatives; and in 1674, Mr. Cranfield, in reply to some queries from his Majesty, stated, that the

¹ The price of provisions had fallen rapidly—for in 1663 Sir Charles Lyttleton, the Lieutenant-Governor, says—“Hogg, which is planters’ food, is sold at 2*d.* per pound—and I have paid here 7*d.*: every thing else does abate almost in proportion.”

Council of Jamaica consisted of twelve gentlemen; the Assembly of Representatives elected by the freeholders, two from every parish, except from St. Jago and Port Royal, which have the privilege of choosing three. A Chief Court of Judicature sat at St. Jago, sitting every three months with appeals to the Governor as Chancellor, with six inferior courts in different parts of the island, sitting every month, and holding pleas not exceeding 20*l.*, except by Justices, and these of any sum whatever. Quarter Sessions, according to the custom of England, were held in every precinct, and an Admiralty Court was established; the domestic armed force of the island consisted of one regiment of cavalry, 500 strong, and the infantry regiments, containing 5000 men. The administration of Lord Vaughan, commencing in 1677, was termed indulgent, steady, and impartial; but the conduct of his successor, the Earl of Carlisle, has been censured as weak, petulant, and tyrannical; his efforts to induce the Colonial Assembly to surrender its independence were happily attended with discomfiture; and every lover of liberty will rejoice that the planters of Jamaica were among the foremost to resist the unconstitutional pretensions of the Crown.

In 1680, the military force of the island was 4526 men in eight regiments, the relative strength of which was as follows:—

377	661	592	420
515	496	1101	364

Sir Henry Morgan, the Lieutenant-Governor, in a

letter dated 1681, says that the north side of the island had then only been settled five years.

The first-fruits of the impolicy of slave-labour was felt by a serious insurrection of the negroes, which, however, was speedily suppressed. In 1686, the extensive immigration of Jews gave renewed commercial stimulus to the island; but the sectarian popish zeal of the Duke of Albemarle, who, to save him from starving in England, was appointed by James II. Governor of Jamaica, temporarily checked the happiness and prosperity of the islanders.

In 1691, the maroons, or runaway negroes, became exceedingly troublesome to the planters, several of whom, with their families, were murdered; but by the vigilance of the militia, the evil was for the time suppressed. In the midst, however, of much prosperity, and when the Colonists were exulting in their good fortune, the town of Port Royal, into which the wealth of the buccaneers had been poured, and on whose shores their crimes and wickedness had been felt, was suddenly destroyed by the awful interposition of Providence. Three thousand of its inhabitants were instantly engulfed in the earthquake, which entombed the scene of so much depravity for ever! On the 7th June, 1692, at mid-day, while the Governor and Council were sitting, and the wharfs were loaded with merchandize and rich spoil, a roar was heard in the distant mountains, and reverberated through the valleys to the beach, where the sea suddenly arose, and in an instant stood five fathoms deep, where a moment

before were displayed the glittering treasures of Peru and Mexico. In some places the earth opened wide, and swallowed whole houses, which were again, perhaps, thrown upwards by the violent concussion of the sea; in others, many individuals were swallowed up to the neck; and the earth, then closing, strangled them. The *Swan* frigate was forced over the tops of the sunken houses, and afforded a providential escape to many persons; and of the whole town, perhaps the richest spot in the world, not more than two hundred houses of the fort were left. The whole island felt severely the shock; in some parts mountains were riven, in others connected; the outline of every thing was changed, and the entire surface of the island considerably subsided. Many thousand persons were destroyed in the overwhelming of Port Royal, the ruins of which are yet visible in clear weather from the surface of the ocean, beneath which they lie. A dreadful epidemic, arising from the putrifying bodies floating in shoals about the harbour, and from the noxious miasm, succeeded, in which 3000 persons fell victims. Amidst the loss of much wealth and property, the destruction of the official papers and records of the island was not the least valuable. In June, 1694, while the colonists were yet bending under the effects of the earthquake, a formidable descent was made on the island by M. Du Casse, with three ships of war, twenty-three transports, and 1500 men, from France and Martinique.

This formidable invasion was most gallantly met by the Jamaica militia, and utterly routed, with a

loss to the invaders of 700 men, and on the side of the English of about 100 killed and wounded. The most wanton cruelties were committed by the French: fifty sugar estates were totally destroyed, many plantations burned, and 1500 negroes and several merchant ships carried away by the retreating marauders. The latter years of the seventeenth century were not remarkable for any memorable events in the colonial annals of Jamaica. The Scots colony of Darien was formed about the period of October, 1798, and very soon after suppressed; but the colonists of Jamaica generously extended encouragement and support to those whom the miserable policy of the home government would not permit the defence of, against the tyrannical and false usurpation of the territory by Spain. In 1698, the population was, whites, males, 2465; women and children, 4900: total, whites, 7365; negroes, 40,000: and in August, 1702, the following return was given in:—Servants, 1307; slaves, 41,596; cattle, 38,248; sheep, 28,598. Port Royal, which had begun to rise again contiguous to the site it had occupied previous to the earthquake, was now doomed to a second destruction by fire; the whole town having been annihilated by the blowing up of some gunpowder, loosely lodged beneath roofs of pitch pine. Kingston rose in prosperity as Port Royal sank under repeated misfortunes. During the reign of Queen Anne, various unconstitutional efforts were made to induce the Jamaica Assembly to pass a bill granting a permanent revenue to the crown; but the measure was steadily and triumphantly rejected. For the first

nine years of the eighteenth century, there had been fifteen Sessions and eight Assemblies, convened for the purpose of endeavouring to give the crown a power over the money-bills or supplies raised by the representatives of the people; but the Jamaica colonists have never allowed an encroachment on their constitutional rights; and neither threats nor persuasions could induce the House of Assembly to part with a power, which once lost, would have left no principles or rights worth preserving. In August, 1722, a tremendous hurricane sunk several ships, and destroyed much property and many lives; a fatal endemic, as usual, followed, causing thereby great distress; nevertheless, one of the first acts of the House of Assembly, on being convened in Jan. 1723, was to double the Duke of Portland's salary, making it 5000*l.*, "in deference to His Majesty's recommendation and to His Grace's character."

This fact demonstrates that the opposition of the House of Assembly to binding and burthening their posterity with oppressive taxes, was not founded on a parsimonious, but on a constitutional and patriotic principle. The Duke of Portland's administration is represented to have displayed a just blending of moderation and firmness, of urbanity of manners, and decision of judgment; unhappily, however, his rule was too brief to be productive of much advantage, save in the excellent example of calm discussion which he gave to political parties. His Grace's memory was honoured with the tears of all who knew him. In May, 1727, a long-agitated revenue bill passed through the House of Assembly: articles

of foreign growth or manufacture, with the quit-rents, fines, and forfeitures, which had already been relinquished, supplied the required fund of 8000*l.* per annum, and that which has been termed the Magna Charta of Jamaica passed, namely, that "all such laws and statutes of England as have been at any time introduced, used, accepted, or received as laws in the island are declared to be laws in Jamaica for ever." From this period to 1740¹, few events

¹ The following detail of the produce of Jamaica Estates, and the value thereof, in 1739, has been furnished to me from the MS. collections of the late Mr. Long. This MS. is entitled, "Number of sugar plantations in Jamaica, with the quantity of sugar generally made for some years past on them. Date, Christmas, 1739."

It mentions every estate separately, together with the name of its owner, and its produce. The estate producing the largest return appears to have been Old and New Buxton, in the parish of St. Thomas in the Vale, the property of Charles Price, Esq. The produce was 300 hds. The next single estates, producing about 250 hds., were the properties of the Beckford, Pennant, and Dawkins' families. The two estates of Longville and Lucky Valley, in the parish of Clarendon, belonging to the Long family, yielded, the first 130, the second 60 hds. In the same parish, the estate of Seven plantations, formerly also in that family, produced 200 hds. An estate called the Crescent, in St. Mary's parish, first settled in 1676, produced 150 hds. It has since, on one or two occasions, yielded 400.

The general summary of the island produce, in the same document, is as follows:—

48 sugar works in St. Thomas in the Vale, producing 3315 hds.; 3 ditto, St. Catherine's, 210 hds.; 31 ditto, St. Andrew's, 1390 hds.; 8 ditto, St. David's, 455 hds.; 44 ditto, St. Thomas in the East, 4120 hds.; 4 ditto, St. George's, 380 hds.; 19

occurred worthy of notice in a work, the main object of which is to lay before the British public the present value and importance of the colonial appendages of Britain. The Maroon war was carried on for some time, to the great vexation of the planters; and although the Maroon marauders did not exceed 500 men, they kept large bodies of troops at bay, owing to the natural fastnesses of their mountain retreats. The submission of Cudjoe, the leader, and most of his followers, was eagerly accepted by the government, and portions of land quickly allotted

ditto, St. Mary's, 1526 hds.; 19 ditto, St. Anne's, 2050 hds.; 8 ditto, St. James, 660 hds.; 39 ditto, Hanover, 2620 hds.; 64 ditto, Westmoreland, 5450 hds.; 32 ditto, St. Elizabeth's, 2745 hds.; 7 ditto, Vera, 405 hds.; 66 ditto, Clarendon, 5480 hds.; 8 ditto, St. Dorothy's, 370 hds.; 28 ditto, St. John's, 2000 hds. Total, 418 sugar works (whereof 10 are new, and make no sugar), producing 33,155 hds.

33,155 hds. of sugar, 1600 lbs. each, is 53,048,000,	
sold at 18s. per cwt., is	£477,432
Each 60 lbs. of sugar to produce 4 gallons of	
molasses, is 3,536,532 gallons, one-third where-	
of sold is 1,178,844 gallons, at 8d. per gallon .	39,294
The remaining molasses, 2,357,688 gallons, 3 gal-	
lons to make 2 gallons of rum, including the	
skimmings, is 1,571,792 gallons of rum, at 18d.	117,684
	<hr/>
	£634,610

N.B. The above is exclusive of plantation consumption.

Sugar. Consumption of Jamaica, and sent to the northward and other places, about 2000 hds.; the rest sent to Britain. Rum. Consumption of Britain, 5000 puncheons of Jamaica and other parts, 9000: total, 14,000.

for their use. The war with Spain, the gallantry of Vice-Admiral Vernon, and the patriotism of Governor Trelawney, gave glory to the British arms in the West, a stimulus to the ardent and enterprising spirits of Jamaica, and a flow of wealth towards their shores from the expeditions of the English fleets and cruisers against the Spanish settlements. Jamaica, in 1742, contained 14,000 whites and 100,000 slaves. Under the government of Admiral Knowles, in 1751, the seat of government was removed from St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, to Kingston. The lands patented, or granted, amounted at this time to 1,500,000 acres; and the exports to Great Britain, on an average of four years, were estimated at nearly 800,000*l*. In 1758, the government was again removed, after much acrimony between the government and the planters, who opposed the removal of the seat of government to Kingston. The year 1760 witnessed one of those desperate insurrections which must ever characterize a population where nine-tenths are bondsmen, and though with the feelings of men, treated as brutes. The contest ended only with the destruction of the greater part of the rebel slaves; and it exhibited the most disgusting cruelty and barbarism on the part of those whom civilization ought to have taught that humanity never suffers by the exercise of clemency towards a fallen foe. The Rev. Mr. Bridges says, that some of the condemned rebels were burned, some fixed alive on gibbets, and one lived 210 hours suspended under a tropical sun, without so much as a drop of water! It is to be hoped that the day for

the repetition of such monstrous and ineffectual attempts to enforce obedience has passed away for ever. Ninety white persons fell in this rebellion; 400 of the rebel negroes were slain; many destroyed themselves in the woods, sooner than again fall into the hands of their former masters, and their skeletons were found suspended in the lofty branches of the cotton-trees; about 600 were transported to the Bay of Honduras. Prosperity attended the island during the war ending in 1763. The king's house was completed and furnished, at an expense of 30,000*l.*, and the banks of the Rio Cobre adorned by elegant villas and well-cultivated farms. One of the finest fortresses in Jamaica (perhaps in the West Indies), Fort Augusta, was blown up, 14th September, 1763, by reason of the magazine, containing 3000 lbs. of gunpowder, being ignited by lightning. Several hundred persons were killed and wounded, and 43,000*l.* of property destroyed. It is stated that the number of slaves *annually* imported into Jamaica about this period, amounted to 16,000¹; and within thirty years the slave population had increased from

¹ According to a manuscript journal of Hampson Needham, in possession of his grandson, Major-General Needham, the price of negroes in 1750 is thus stated:—"Bought ten negroes, at 50*l.* each;" and in 1747 the following calculation appears in the Board of Trade Papers:—

500 negroes, at 30 <i>l.</i> each	£1500
Clothing with Osnaburghs four times a year, at 4 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> each	450
Maintenance, fifty-two weeks, at 1 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> each per week	2383

99,000 to upwards of 200,000; while the total numerical strength of the whites did not exceed 16,000.

The war waged against England by the N. American colonies, in a struggle for independence from a country which could not appreciate their value, and therefore deserved to lose them, called forth the utmost energies of Jamaica to preserve the island from the meditated combined attack of the French and Spanish forces. And here it may be remarked, that in every contest in which England has been engaged, the inhabitants of Jamaica have evinced a loyalty and attachment to the mother country, unsurpassed in the annals of colonial history. The combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to sixty sail of the line, with 6000 choice troops and a well-organized artillery, destined for the conquest of Jamaica, were frustrated in their intentions by the splendid victory of Rodney and Hood, on the 12th of April, 1782, off Dominica, over the French squadron of thirty-six sail of the line and ten frigates, commanded by Count de Grasse; by which personal security was afforded to the islanders, whose condition was much reduced by several years of continued hurricanes, and by the extraordinary efforts which they made for the preservation of Jamaica to the British crown. His present Majesty, then a midshipman in the British navy, visited Jamaica at this period, and generously bore testimony to the enthusiasm displayed by the colonists in their heroic endeavours to defend this valuable island from becoming the property of the enemies of England;

and on His Royal Highness' return to Jamaica in 1788, the colonists solicited the Prince's acceptance of a star of the value of one thousand guineas; while to General Campbell was presented a splendid service of plate, in testimony of his exertions as governor during the anticipated invasion from the combined fleets. The Jamaicans, with their usual liberality, caused a marble statue to be erected in memory of Rodney, which was executed by Bacon, and cost 3000 guineas.

The Maroon war, so imprudently and unjustly brought on by the intemperate policy of the Earl of Balcarras, then (1795) Governor of Jamaica, cost the lives of many brave men, and ended in the removal of the surviving Maroons to Nova Scotia, and finally to Sierra Leone. The disastrous revolution in St. Domingo caused additional expense to the island; and the West India or coloured regiments were then first raised, much to the dissatisfaction of the colonists, who were also at this time burthened with the absurd support of the 20th regiment of Dragoons. After putting the country to an enormous expense for the support of this regiment, it was discovered, after a lapse of several years, that the mountains of Jamaica were not favourable to the movements of a regiment of cavalry, and it was accordingly withdrawn.

In 1802, Kingston was constituted a corporation, and a mayor, aldermen, &c. appointed.

I have not detailed the history of the various negro insurrections which have taken place on the

island. The mere record of rebellions in Jamaica indicates the danger of a slave population :—

1678. Rebellion caused by the prolongation of martial law. 1684. Ditto—first serious one. 1686. Ditto—sanguinary at Clarendon. 1702. Ditto.

Eastern districts. 1717. Ditto—causing great alarm. Not to mention districts or particular events, it may be sufficient to name the years in which the insurrections occurred :—In 1722, 1734, 1736, 1739, 1740, 1745, 1758, 1760, 1765, 1766, 1769, 1771, 1777, 1782, 1795, 1796, 1798, 1803, 1807, 1809, 1824, 1832¹. During the latter rebellion, 200 were killed in the field, and about 500 executed. The expense of putting down the rebellion of 1760, cost 100,000*l.* It is estimated that the expense of 1832, (exclusive of the value of the property destroyed, viz. 1,154,583*l.*) was 161,596*l.* The British parliament granted a loan of 300,000*l.* to assist the almost ruined planters.

The following are the names of the Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, &c. of Jamaica, with the years when they commenced their administrations :—

Governor, Colonel D'Oyley, 1660 ; Governor, Lord Windsor, 1662 ; Lieutenant-Governor, Sir C. Lyttleton, Knt., 1662 ; President, Colonel Thomas Lynch, 1664 ; Governor, Sir T. Modyford, Knt., 1664 ; Lieutenant-Governor, Sir T. Lynch, Knt., 1671 ; Lieutenant-Governor, Sir H. Morgan, Knt.,

¹ Dr. Madden.

1675; Governor, Lord Vaughan, 1675; Lieutenant-Governor, Sir H. Morgan, Knt., 1678; Governor, Charles Earl of Carlisle, 1678; Lieutenant-Governor, Sir H. Morgan, Knt., 1680; Governor, Sir Thomas Lynch, Knt., 1682; Lieutenant-Governor, Colonel Hender Molesworth, 1684; Governor, Christopher Duke of Albemarle, 1687; President, Sir Francis Watson, 1688; Governor, William Earl of Inchiquin, 1690; President, John White, Esq., 1692; President, John Bourden, Esq., 1692; Lieutenant-Governor, Sir W. Beeston, Knt., 1693; Governor, William Selwyn, Esq., 1702; Lieutenant-Governor, P. Beckford, Esq., 1702; Lieutenant-Governor, T. Handasyd, Esq., 1702; Governor, Lord Archibald Hamilton, 1711; Governor, Peter Heywood, Esq., 1716; Governor, Sir Nicholas Lawes, Knt., 1718; Governor, Henry Duke of Portland, 1722; President, John Ayscough, Esq., 1722; Governor, Major-General Robert Hunter, 1728; President, John Ayscough, Esq., 1734; President, John Gregory, Esq., 1735. Henry Cunningham, Esq., was appointed Governor in 1735, but President Gregory was succeeded by Governor Edward Trelawny, Esq., 1738; Governor, Charles Knowles, Esq., 1752; Lieutenant-Governor, Henry Moore, Esq., 1756; Governor, George Haldane, Esq., 1758; Lieutenant-Governor, Henry Moore, Esq., 1759; Governor, W. H. Lyttleton, Esq., 1762; Lieutenant-Governor, R. H. Elletson, Esq., 1766; Governor, Sir William Trelawny, Bart., 1767; Lieutenant-Governor, Lieutenant-Colonel J. Dalling, 1773; Governor, Basil Keith, Knt., 1773; Governor, Major-General J.

Dalling, 1777; Governor, Major-General Archibald Campbell, 1782; Lieutenant-Governor, Brigadier-General Alured Clarke, 1784; Governor, Thomas Earl of Effingham, 1790; Lieutenant-Governor, Major-General Williamson, 1791; Lieutenant-Governor, Earl of Balcarras, 1795; Lieutenant-Governor, Lieutenant-General G. Nugent, 1801; Lieutenant-Governor, Lieutenant-General Sir E. Coote, 1806; Governor, Duke of Manchester, 1808; Lieutenant-Governor, Lieutenant-General E. Morrison, 1811; Governor, Duke of Manchester, 1813; Lieutenant-Governor, Major-General H. Conran, 1821; Governor, Duke of Manchester, 1822; Lieutenant-Governor, Major-General Sir John Keane, 1827; Governor, Earl of Belmore, 1829; President, G. Cuthbert, Esq., 1832; Governor, C. H. Earl of Mulgrave, 1832; Governor, Marquis of Sligo, 1834; Lieutenant-General Sir Lionel Smith, 1836.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT, MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, SOIL, AND CLIMATE; HEALTH OF TROOPS, &c.—THE CAYMAN ISLES DEPENDENCY.

THIS beautiful isle, happily screened by Cuba and Hispaniola from the tempestuous winds of the Atlantic, and peculiarly adapted for an extensive and profitable commerce with the adjacent continent, by reason of the number and disposition of its excellent havens, is really one of our most valuable colonies. Jamaica is somewhat of an oval shape, with an elevated ridge called the 'Blue Mountains,' (towering in some places to nearly 8,000 feet above the level of the sea), running longitudinally through the isle E. and W. and occasionally intersected by other high ridges, traversing from N. to S. ; approaching the sea on the S. coast in gigantic spines, of sharp ascent—difficult of access; and clothed with dense and sombre forests ;—on the N. declining into lovely mounds and round-topped hills, covered with groves of pimento, and all the exquisite verdure of the tropics,—the *coup d'œil* presenting a splendid panorama of high mountains, embosomed in clouds, and vast savannahs or plains, hills and vales, rivers, bays, and creeks. The middle part, called Pedro's Cockpit, lying between Clarendon and St. Ann's Parishes, is spread for an extent of many miles, with an infinite number

of round-topped hills, whose surface, covered with a loose lime-stone, or honey-comb rock, is clothed with fine cedar and other trees, of enormous bulk; the dales or cockpits meandering between these hummocks contain a rich soil, of great depth, where the succulent Guinea grass forms a perfect carpet of ever-verdant beauty.

When viewed at a distance from Point Morant (the southernmost high land on the coast), the picture is splendid; the blue mountains appear above the stratum of clouds, which roll along their precipitous sides,—beneath, the rugged hills are furrowed with ravines, and steep cliffs descend abruptly to the sea; on a nearer approach lofty forests are discovered on the sides of the hills, and patches of bright emerald green become visible on running along the S. coast towards Port Royal. Well might Coleridge thus apostrophize these—

Beautiful islands! where the green
Which Nature wears was never seen
'Neath zone of Europe; where the hue
Of sea and heaven is such a blue,
As England dreams not; where the night
Is all irradiate with the light
Of stars like moons, which, hung on high,
Breathe and quiver in the sky,
Each its silver haze divine
Flinging in a radiant line,
O'er gorgeous flower and mighty tree
On the soft and shadowy sea!
Beautiful islands! brief the time
I dwelt beneath your awful clime;

Yet oft I see in noonday dream
 Your glorious stars with lunar beam ;
 And oft before my sight arise
 Your sky-like seas, your sea-like skies,
 Your green banana's giant leaves,
 Your golden canes in arrowy sheaves,
 Your palms which never die, but stand
 Immortal sea-marks on the strand,—
 Their feathery tufts like plumage rare,
 Their stems so high, so strange and fair !
 Yea ! while the breeze of England now
 Flings rose-scents on my aching brow,
 I think a moment I inhale
 Again the breath of tropic gale.

From Fort Morant (conspicuous under a steep hill), to Port Royal, there is a narrow spit of land, called the palisades, composed of sand, overgrown with mangroves¹; behind this is the harbour of the chief commercial town², Kingston, situated on a gentle slope of about one mile in length, which is bounded on the S. by a spacious bason, through which all vessels must advance beneath the commanding batteries of Port Royal³. The extended inclined plane, on the verge of which Kingston stands, is inclosed on the N. by the loftiest ridge of the Blue Mountain

¹ Quicksands are commonly met with in Jamaica (and indeed in most tropical isles) on crossing the mouths of rivers or gullies on the coast, at the junction of the sea and freshes.

² St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, Co. Middlesex, on the S. W. side of the island, about sixteen miles from the sea and sixteen from Kingston, is the seat of Government, but Kingston is in reality the capital of the island.

³ This is represented in the prefixed engraving as well as the extended nature of the view would permit.

chain, termed Liguana, which, forming a semi-circle, terminates in the E. at the narrow defile of Rock Fort,—from thence a long neck of land stretches far away to Port Royal, forming the S. barrier of a beautiful haven; in the W. the semicircle terminates at a contracted pass upon the edge of an impracticable lagoon, from thence the main land sweeping round to Port Henderson, and the projecting salt pond hills, secure an harbour in which the navies of Europe might safely ride¹. The entrance is defended on the E. point of the delta of Port Royal by the formidable ramparts of Fort Charles, thickly studded with heavy ordnance; on the W. side, by the cannon of Rock Fort, while the low raking shot from the long level lines of Fort Augusta, which face the narrow channel, would sweep a hostile navy off the ocean. For nine miles around Kingston is an alluvial plain, surrounded by a series of irregular mountains, some of which to the E. and N. E. are of considerable elevation,—constantly cloud-capped, and appearing as if made up of several hills piled one upon another, with various elevations, picturesque valleys and chasms, impressing the mind with an idea of volcanic origin, or that some convulsion of nature had caused the strange irregularity displayed.

The streets in Lower Kingston are long and straight, with a mathematical regularity like the new town of Edinburgh, the houses in general two stories, with verandahs above and below. The English and Scotch

¹ For nautical directions for Port Royal and the numerous harbours in all our colonies, see the large edition of this work.

churches are really elegant structures, particularly the former, which is built on a picturesque spot, commanding a splendid view of the city, the plains around it, the amphitheatre of mountains, and the noble harbour of Port Royal.

On a plain at the top of the declivity on which Kingston is built are the fine barracks, called Up Park Camp, and not far hence on a still more conspicuous spot, is the residence for the naval commander-in-chief on the station, called the Admiral's Pen.

MOUNTAINS. The heights of the principal places above the level of the sea, are thus computed:—

	Feet.		Feet.
Blue Mountain Peak . . .	7,770	Flamsted House . . .	3,800
Ridge of ditto . . .	7,163	Sheldon House . . .	3,417
Portland Gap ridge . . .	6,501	Middleton ditto . . .	2,340
Portland Gap . . .	5,640	Stoney Hill, Bucks . . .	1,360
Catherine's Peak . . .	4,970	Green Castle . . .	1,328
Abbey Green House, s.d.	4,233	Hope Tavern . . .	699
Clifton House, s. A. . .	4,228		

It is asserted, however, that the three very remarkable peaks on the grand ridge of Blue Mountains at the eastern part of the island called the *Coldridge*, have their respective summits 8,184, 7,656, and 7,576 feet above the level of the sea, and there are other mountains in this ridge exceeding a mile in height. Catherine's peak, about seven miles and a half N. of Kingston, is stated to be 5,075 feet, and Hardwar Hill to the westward of it nearly of equal elevation, forming the summits of another grand ridge which crosses the island diagonally. The

mountains to the W. in the counties of Middlesex and Cornwall do not reach to the height of a mile, rarely exceed half a mile; *Leman's* mountain¹, in the county of Middlesex, six miles N. of Spanish Town is 2,282 feet high, and the *Bull's Head*, in Clarendon, near the centre of the island on the meridian of Carlisle Bay, is 3,140 feet. In the W., the *Dolphin's Head* S. of Lucea is 3,450 feet. On the S. E. coast Yallah's Hill, which is within the point of the same name, is only 2,706 feet. The greater proportion of the mountains are of conical form, with steep declivities, approaching very near the shore on the N. coast, and leaving plains about twelve miles wide on the S.; the dark and deep ravines between the lofty mountains, denominated *Cockpits*, are closely shut in by dense woods, and offer a marked contrast to the lower mountains, which are cultivated with coffee, pimento, cotton, capsicums, &c., in all their variety, affording delightful country retreats from the coast.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS. The beauty of the island is further enhanced by its numerous rivers, upwards of two hundred of which have been enumerated; few, however (owing to the mountainous and hill and dale nature of the country), are navigable for vessels of any burthen, though they might be made so by means of locks, &c. In St. Elizabeth parish, Black River, which flows for the most part through a flat

¹ Near this mountain is Highgate, a delightful residence, where Lord Belmore resided with his family in the hot months, and subsequently occupied by Lord and Lady Mulgrave.

country, is the deepest and least rapid, and is navigable for flat-bottomed boats and canoes for about thirty miles. The other chief rivers on the S. side are the Rio Cobre and Rio Minho, and on the N., Marthabræ, White, Ginger, and Great River, &c. The precipitate current of the streams renders them the better adapted for mechanical purposes, their quick agitation over the falls preserves their zest and sprightliness for animal drink, and prevents the too great evaporation, and formation of damps and mists, which would otherwise be occasioned.

Springs are extremely numerous, even in the highest mountains; about Kingston, and on the N. side, they are generally impregnated with calcareous earth, and in the latter stalactites are met with. Several are of a medicinal nature in Vere and Portland; the most celebrated is one of a sulphureous nature in the E. parish of St. Thomas, giving name to a village called Bath. There is a cold and a hot spring; the latter runs by many rills out of the side of a rocky cleft that confines the middle part of the sulphur river to the E., as it flows towards the South; it is very hot at its source, naturally light, and plentifully charged with volatile particles of mineral acid, combined with sulphureous steam, slightly engaged in a calcareous base. The cold spring differs only in being more abundantly charged with sulphur; the use of both is exceedingly beneficial in cutaneous disorders, obstructions of the viscera, &c.

Of the harbours it may be sufficient to state, that the Jamaica shore has sixteen principal secure havens,

besides thirty bays, roads or shipping stations, which afford good anchorage.

Division.—The island is divided into three counties—Middlesex, Surry, and Cornwall, each of which is subdivided into parishes, nine, seven and five.

Counties.	Area in Acres.	Towns.	Parishes.	Villages.
Cornwall	1,305,235	3	5	6
Middlesex	672,616	1	9	13
Surry	1,522,149	2	7	8
Total	3,500,000	6	21	27

Middlesex contains St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish town, situate in a noble plain, and adorned with many fine buildings in the Castilian style; Surry contains Kingston and Port Royal, and likewise the villages of Port Morant and Morant Bay, the latter of considerable importance on account of its shipping; Portland parish, in this county, contains Port Antonio, one of the most commodious and secure in the island; St. George parish contains Annotto Bay; Cornwall county has Montego Bay on the north-west coast, on which coast Falmouth, twenty miles east of Montego Bay, is also situate. The other places worth notice are Carlisle and Bluefield Bays on the south, and Marthæ-bræ and Lucea harbours on the north coast. The chief headlands of the island are Port Morant, at the east end of Jamaica, and two promontories on the west end, the coast along which is bold and high.

The roads through the island are in general narrow but good. By the old laws the width of the

roads was ordered as follows:—Width in standing wood, 60 feet; width of wood on one side, 40 feet; width of open ground, 24 feet. The making of some roads in the island have cost £700 per mile.

It may be necessary to say a few words respecting the position of the military stations, &c. in Jamaica, especially on the south side of the island, where four out of five regiments are stationed. To begin with

FORT AUGUSTA.—This strong fortress is built upon a low neck of land, or peninsula, joined to the hills at Port Henderson by a narrow isthmus of sand, having a coral formation for its base. The buildings of the fort occupy the whole area of the point of the peninsula, which is surrounded by the sea, except to the west, the south face of the fort being washed by the deep water of the ship channel, while the east and north fronts are environed by the shallow waters of a lagoon. The fort is considered healthy, owing to the prevalence of the wind from the S. and S. E. The barracks are two stories high, well ventilated, and contain generally four service companies.

UP-PARK CAMP contains the only government barracks in Jamaica, and they are indeed highly creditable to the island. They are situate about two miles north of Kingston, at the extremity of the plain of Liguana, which gradually rises above the level of the sea, is well cultivated, extremely fertile, about one mile and a half south of the Long Mountain, with an elevation of eight hundred feet, covered with brush-wood, and exceedingly steep towards Kingston. The height of the camp above the sea shore is about

two hundred feet, and it covers an irregular square of between two and three hundred acres, sloping towards Kingston. The barracks consist of two long parallel lines of buildings, extending from east to west (that to the south, or seaward, comprising the officers' quarters), two stories high, a six-feet basement, an excellent hospital, and a splendid bath of forty feet clear and four deep, containing 70,000 gallons of running water. This fine bath is supplied with water from Papine estate, four miles and a half distant; the pipe conveying it is six inches in diameter, with a velocity of twelve inches, and discharging 4,500 gallons per hour. This plentiful supply of so indispensable an element enables the soldiers to irrigate their neat gardens, which are laid out in the camp, and which furnish the garrison with a constant supply of vegetables. The whole cantonment, at sixty feet distance, is surrounded by a wall of six feet high, surmounted by an iron palisading. Twelve hundred and eighty-four European soldiers are encamped with comfort, and the attached offices are spacious, lofty, and commodious.

Stoney Hill garrison, capable of holding five hundred men—is situate 2000 feet above the level of the sea, on the ridge of a chain of mountains (in a depression between a more elevated chain), running in a curved direction from east to west, and enjoying a most beautiful and picturesque view of the inclined alluvial plain of Liguana, of the city of Kingston, of Port Royal, of Fort Augusta, and of the adjacent country. The barracks, hospitals, &c. are, generally speaking, situate on small detached eminences, and are

distant nine miles north of Kingston, seven of which cross the plain of Liguana; the remainder of the road is rather an abrupt ascent to the garrison, but practicable for wheeled carriages of every description. This post commands the grand pass, which intersects the island from north to south, and is therefore justly considered of great importance. The government ground at the station amounts to eighty-three acres.

Port Antonio, situate at the extremity of the island, eighty miles from Kingston, is nearly insulated;—its fort exhibiting a half-moon battery, with a magazine in the rear, one hundred and forty-four feet long, by twenty-one wide. The barracks are placed upon a kind of peninsula, forming on either side a bay, and capable of containing upwards of fifty men. The buildings are new and elevated, commodious, and commanding a fine view of the sea.

Falmouth, or Marthæ-bræ, fifteen miles east of Montego Bay, has a small fort at Point Palmetto, with a good set of artillery barracks, and an hospital, stores and quarters, open to the sea breeze. It is a bar harbour; channel very narrow, intricate, not more than sixteen or seventeen feet deep, but within a regular depth of from five to ten fathoms. The town of Falmouth is built on the west side of the harbour.

Maroon Town is situate in the interior, between the parishes of Westmoreland and St. James, on a very high mountain, affording a most desirable station, in a military as well as in a sanatory point of view. The barracks, delightfully placed in the midst

of verdant mountains and springs of the most delicious water, are capable of accommodating upwards of two hundred men, with an excellent hospital for twenty patients.

Montego Bay is situate at the foot of a range of mountains which nearly surround the town, except on the sea side. The barracks for one hundred men, and an hospital for forty patients, are complete and comfortable. The N. point is in Lat. $18.30\frac{1}{2}$ N. It is a good bay, sheltered from all winds from the N.N.E. round to E. and W., and open to those from N. and W. It is distant fifteen miles from—

Lucea, or Fort Charlotte, which is built on the north-east extremity of a peninsula, bounded on one side by the beautiful bay and secure harbour of Lucea, and on the other by the sea. The mountains of Hanover and Westmoreland rise abruptly and majestically high immediately behind the town of Lucea, about one mile from the garrison. The highest peak, termed the Dolphin's Head, serves as a good land-mark to the mariner.

Savannah Le Mar. This is a fine station, in the midst of a highly-cultivated country. From the sea-shore the ground springs a little towards the north, pretty level, and intersected by several fine rivers; towards the east, at the distance of twelve miles, the mountains begin to rise near the coast, running nearly northerly upwards of sixteen miles, when they turn to the west, and incline, after running several miles further, towards the south, where they terminate not far from the ocean, and embrace within their border a beautiful and highly-cultivated amphi-

theatre. The town of Savannah le Mar is situated on the beach, from which a low alluvial flat extends for several miles; in this plain, about one mile from the town, are an excellent range of barracks. The station is now healthy¹, and the harbour good; but requiring a pilot, on account of its intricate entrance.

Apostles' Battery is a small fort, erected on a high rock, on the shore opposite to Port Royal.

Port Royal, situate nearly at the extremity of a tongue of land, which forms the boundary of the harbours of Kingston and of Port Royal. Towards the sea, the tongue is composed of coral rocks, covered with sand, which the tide frequently inundates, as a great part of the town of Port Royal is only a few feet above the sea level. The royal naval yard lies to the N., the naval hospital to the S. W., and the works of Fort Charles, and the soldiers' barracks, to the southward. The fortifications are extremely strong, and the situation (though low) healthy from its openness to the sea-breeze. The harbour is capable of containing 1000 large ships with convenience. The European reader will remember that it was on this spot the former Port Royal stood ere it was overwhelmed by the earthquake of 1692, and with 2000 houses buried eight fathoms under water.

Spanish Town. The capital of Jamaica is situate at the extremity of an extensive plain, extending far to the S., S.E., and W., but with the mountains

¹ It is a remarkable circumstance that the most healthy stations in tropical climes have become, at times, quite the reverse.

closely approaching the town on the N. and N. W., and distant from the sea at Port Royal Harbour six miles. The *Cobre*, a river of considerable depth, passes the city at the distance of about a quarter of a mile on the N. E. The barracks are good, well situate, and capable of holding three hundred and seventeen men; the hospital, however, will not accommodate more than thirty-six patients. The buildings of the capital, as before observed, are in the magnificent style of Spanish architecture, and the city has an imposing appearance. The population is about 5000. The King's House is one of the most splendid buildings in any of our colonies; it was erected and furnished by the island at its own cost, which exceeded 50,000*l*. It is situated in the south of the great square, facing an immense pile of buildings, containing under one roof the House of Assembly, the Supreme Court, and almost all the Government offices of the island. Before leaving this subject I may advert to two natural curiosities in St. Ann's parish, which Dr. Coke thus describes:—

'The first is a surprising cascade, formed by a branch of the Rio Alto, or High River, which is supposed to re-emerge (after a subterraneous current of several miles), between Roaring River plantation and Menzie's Bog. The hills in this quarter are many of them composed of a stalactite matter; by whose easy solution, the waters oozing through the rocks are copiously charged with it, so that they incrustate all bodies deposited in them. The source of this river is at a very considerable elevation above

the level of the sea, and at a great distance from the coast. From thence it runs between the hills successively, broad or contracted, as they on each side approach nearer, or recede further from one another. In one of the more extended spaces, it expands its water in a gentle descent among a very curious group of Anchovy Pear trees, whose spreading roots intercept the shallow stream in a multitude of different directions. The water thus retarded deposits its grosser contents, which, in the course of time, have formed various incrustations around as many cisterns, spread in beautiful ranks, gradually rising one above another. A sheet of water, transparent as crystal, conforming itself to the flight of steps, overspreads their surface; and, as the rays of light or sunshine play between the waving branches of the trees, it descends glittering with a thousand variegated tints.

The incrustation in many parts is sufficiently solid to bear the weight of a man: in others it is so thin, that some persons whose curiosity induced them to venture too far, found themselves suddenly plunged up to the waist in a cold bath. The sides of the cisterns, or reservoirs, are formed by broken boughs and limbs incrustated over; and they are supported by the trunks of trees, promiscuously growing between them. The cisterns themselves are always full of water, which trickles down from one upon another; and although several of them are six or seven feet deep, the spectator may clearly discern whatever lies at the bottom. The laminae which envelop them are in general half an inch thick. To a superficial observer their sides have the appearance of stone;

but upon breaking any of them, there is found either a bough between the two incrusting coats, or a vacant space which a bough had once filled, but which, having mouldered away after a great length of time, had left the cavity. After dancing over these innumerable cisterns, the pellucid element divides itself into two currents; and then falling in with other neighbouring rivulets, composes several smaller but very beautiful falls¹.

'The other cascade, though so named by the inhabitants, may be more properly denominated a cataract, similar to that of the Rhine, at Schaffhausen, in Switzerland. It proceeds from the White River, which is of considerable magnitude; and, after a course of about twelve miles among the mountains, precipitates its waters in a fall of about three hundred feet, obliquely measured, with such a hoarse and thundering noise, that it is distinctly heard at a very great distance. Through the whole descent it is broken and interrupted by a regular succession of steps, formed by a stalactite matter, incrusting over a kind of soft chalky stone, which yields easily to the chisel. Such a vast discharge of water, thus wildly agitated by the steepness of the fall, dashing and foaming from step to step, with all the impetuosity and rage peculiar to this element, exhibits an agreeable, and at the same time an awful scene. The grandeur of this spectacle is also astonishingly increased by the fresh supplies which the torrent

¹ I could wish that space permitted me to dwell at greater length on the truly beautiful scenery of our colonies.—*R. Mont. Martin.*

receives after the rainy seasons. At those periods, the roaring of the flood, reverberated from the adjacent rocks, trees, and hills; the tumultuous violence of the cataract rolling down with unremitting fury; and the gloom of the overhanging wood, contrasted with the soft serenity of the sky, the brilliancy of the spray, the flight of birds soaring over the lofty summits of the mountains, and the placid surface of the bason, at a little distance from the foot of the fall, form an accumulation of objects, most happily blended together, and beyond the power of words to express. To complete this animating picture drawn by the hand of Nature, or rather of Nature's God, a considerable number of tall and stately trees, beautifully intermixed, rise gracefully from the margin on each side. The bark and foliage of these trees are diversified by a variety of lovely tints. And from the bason itself, two elegant trees, of the palm species, appear like two straight columns erected in the water, and towering towards the sky; planted at such equal distances from the banks on each side, that the hand of art could not have effected, by rule, more exactness and propriety in the positions.

'Another celebrated curiosity in this parish is, the wonderful grotto near Dry Harbour, about fourteen miles west from St. Anne's Bay. It is situated at the foot of a rocky hill, under which it runs a considerable way: it then branches into several adits, some of which penetrate so far, that no person has yet ventured to discover their termination. The entrance has a truly Gothic appearance. It exhibits the perpendicular front of a rock, having two arched

entrances about twenty feet asunder, which seem as if they had been formerly door-ways. In the centre of the rock, between these portals, is a natural niche, about four feet in height, and as many from the ground. In this niche, it is conjectured, that a Madona was placed at some early period of time; especially as there is a small excavation in the form of a basin at the foot of the niche, projecting a little beyond the surface of the rock, and seeming to be a proper reservoir for the *holy-water* of the Roman Catholics. But this idea implies the workmanship of art, and that the grotto was anciently inhabited; neither of which circumstances is to be traced in Long's detailed description of the interior recesses, which does not materially differ from the descriptions of other grottos and subterraneous cavities in various parts of the globe.'

GEOLGY.—Jamaica presents every indication of volcanic origin, but there is no volcano in action; a small lake of blackish water, about 3000 feet above the sea, and entirely encircled with hills, presents the appearance of an extinct crater. The precipitous cones, conical tumuli, abrupt declivities, and irregular masses of enormous rocks scattered over the island, sufficiently denote the powerful operation of fire. The soil is generally deep and fertile; on the north of a chocolate colour, in other parts a bright yellow, and every where remarkable for a shining surface when first turned up, and for staining the skin like paint when wetted; it appears to be a chalky marl, containing a large proportion of calcareous matter. There is a soil in the island termed 'brick mould,'

which is deep and mellow, on a retentive under strata; this, next to the ash mould of St. Christophers, is considered the best soil in the W. Indies for the sugar cane. A red earth abounds most in the hilly lands, and a purple loam sometimes mixed with a sandy soil in the savannahs and low-lands; but the highest mountains are remarkable for having on their summits a deep black rich soil. The principal soils on the interior hills and mountains of Jamaica may be enumerated thus:—A red clay on a white marl; a ditto on a grit; a reddish brown ditto, on marl; a yellowish clay, mixed with common mould; a red grit; a loose conchaceous mould; a black mould on a clay or other substrate; a loose black vegetable mould, on rock; a fine sand; and the varieties of all the foregoing. The mountain-land in general, when first cleared of its wood, possesses more or less a deep surface of rich black mould, mixed with shells, a soil which will grow any thing.

The brick mould soil of Jamaica (which is a compound of very fine particles of clay, sand, and black mould), is of amazing depth, and is considered by far the best for cultivation; it is always easily laboured, so inexhaustible as to require no manure, in very dry seasons it retains a moisture sufficient to preserve the cane root from perishing, and in very wet it suffers the superfluous waters to penetrate, so that the roots are never in danger of being rotted. Next in fecundity is the black shell mould, previously mentioned, which owes its fertility to the mineral

salts and exuviae intermingled with it. The soil about Kingston on the alluvial plain, consists of a layer of deep mould, chiefly composed of decayed vegetable matter, with a proportion of marl and some carbonate of lime, entirely free from gravel, and highly absorbent of water: the substratum varies, being sometimes of a compact aluminous earth alone, in other places mixed with gravel; in sinking a shaft, layers of aluminous earth and gravel are found, running horizontally, approaching to pure clay at the bottom, and at four feet from the surface a strata of finely pulverized silica. About Stoney Hill garrison, the surface is similar to what is frequently met with in elevated situations in Jamaica, namely, a superstratum of rich dark mould, varying in depth from two to twenty inches, with a substratum of argillaceous and red earth, evidently containing a mixture of carbonate of iron; and in many parts the surface of the ground is studded with lime stones of a very large size. Silver and golden mica is frequent, especially among the hills between St. Catherine's and Sixteen Mile-Walk, and when washed down with the floods mistaken for gold sand:—near Spanish Town it is found incorporated with Potters' clay. Mixed and purplish schistus are common in the mountains of St. John's, and about Bull Bay, and the hard lamellated Amianthus is found in large detached masses, having all the appearance of petrified wood. The lower mountains E. of Kingston are principally composed of a whitish bastard marble, with a smooth even grain, taking a good polish,

and frequently used in Jamaica for lime stone¹. White free stone, quartz of different species, and lime stone are abundant,—subcrystalline spar is found in small detached masses, and rock spar, very clear, may be seen formed into rocks of prodigious size in the mountains of St. Ann's, where it is observed to constitute whole strata. When exposed any time to the weather the surface grows opaque, and of a milky white. Friable white marl and clammy marl, or *aboo earth*, (of an apparently smooth, greasy, and cohesive nature,) are found, and the latter sometimes eaten by the negroes when they are diseased, to the great detriment of health.

MINERALOGY. The lead ore of Jamaica is extremely rich, and heavily impregnated with silver; several varieties have been found, and indeed, worked at Liguana, where also striated antimony is obtainable; in the lower mountains of Liguana every variety of copper ore (14 different species) is in profusion, in particular the green and livid, and the shining dark copper ores; in the more mellow matrices, yellow mundick (*marchasites*), is largely mixed. In the mountains above Bull Bay, a dark iron sand, attracted by the magnet, is found: neither gold nor silver ore has yet been discovered, though it is certain the natives possessed those metals in abundance when first visited by Columbus and the early Spanish settlers. In the river Minho in Cla-

¹ Long Mountain, near Kingston, is entirely composed of carbonate of lime. Yet limestone was sent to Jamaica from England!

rendon particles of gold have been found after heavy rains. Brown states that gold and silver ores have been discovered at Liguana; and Gage speaks (in 1655) of the mines producing 'some gold, though drossie.'

CLIMATE. The heat of Jamaica is by no means so fearful as has been represented; even on the coast it is temperate, the medium at Kingston throughout the year being 80 F. and the minimum 70. As the country is ascended the temperature of course decreases; eight miles from Kingston the maximum is 70, and at the distance of fourteen miles, where the elevation is 4,200 feet, the average range is from 55 to 65 F., the minimum in winter 44, and a fire in the evenings not only agreeable but necessary. On the summits of the mountains the range in summer is from 47 at sunrise to 58 at noon, the minimum in winter 42. The heat of a tropical climate is materially mitigated by unremitted breezes from sea or land, and by vast masses of clouds, which, interposing between the sun's rays and the earth, prevent any great inconvenience therefrom. The air is remarkably light and enlivening, producing great cheerfulness even in old age, and so equal in its pressure that it rarely varies more than an inch at any time of the year. Although the temperature alternates eight or ten degrees on the south side of the mountains, and more so on the north, it is not subject to the sudden and detrimental transitions experienced in South Carolina, and other parts of the United States. From July to October is the hurricane season, but severe storms at the Windward

Caribbee isles are not felt at Jamaica. The quantity of rain falling in the year is nearly fifty inches. For two or three months preceding the May rains lightning and thunder are prevalent, but not very mischievous; and from November to March, when the sea-breeze is irregular, northerly winds blow, becoming colder as they recede towards the west; during this season the air is delicious, resembling the finest English vernal weather. The seasons are divided into four,—viz. vernal or moderate rains, in April and May, lasting six weeks; the second, hot and dry, including June, July, and August; the third, hurricane and rainy months, embracing September, October, and November; and the fourth, serene and cool, comprising December, January, February, and March.

There is, however, considerable difference of climate on either side of the island; on the south it may be said that *spring* ranges through the months from November to April; *summer* from May to August, and *winter* from September to October; while on the north side winter ranges from October to March; the north has a larger supply of rain than the south, but distributed in smaller and more frequent showers, and it is cooler, and with a vegetation of greater bulk and height. The following Meteorological Register for Up-Park Camp is from Sir J. Mc Gregor's office.¹

¹ I am under particular obligations to this distinguished head of the army medical department, and to Dr. Gordon, for the urbanity with which the valuable public records of the army were laid before me.

	Max.	Med.	Min.	Wind.	
January ..	84	78	71	N & SE	Fine, some showers, strong N. Winds.
February .	84	78	72	Ditto	Fine and dry, strong sea breezes.
March	86	82	77	Ditto	Ditto, Earthquakes felt, ditto, ditto.
April	87	83	79	Ditto	Very dry, ditto, moderate ditto.
May	87	81	75	Ditto	Fine, with light showers.
June	86	82	78	Ditto	Mostly ditto, with heavy ditto.
July	89	85	77	Ditto	Many showers, but generally fine.
August ...	87	82	77	S S.W.	Some heavy rain, ditto.
September	89	82	76	Ditto	Mornings fine, noon heavy rains.
October ...	86	80	74	Ditto	Some heavy rain, mostly fine.
November	85	79	73	Ditto	Ditto, ditto.
December	84	78	73	Ditto	Some rain, generally fine.

On the southern side of the island, the sea breeze from the south-eastward comes on in the morning, and gradually increases till noon, when it is strongest; at two or three in the afternoon its force diminishes, and in general it entirely ceases by five o'clock. About eight in the evening the land breeze begins; this breeze extends to the distance of four leagues to the southward of the island. It increases until mid-night, and ceases about four in the morning.

The sea and land breezes are pretty regular from the latter end of January until May. In the middle of May the sea-breeze generally prevails for several days and nights, especially about the times of full and change of the moon, and thus continues throughout June and part of July: from that time the sea-breeze diminishes, and veers round to S. by W. or S.S.W., with frequent calms. August, September, and October, have generally strong gales of wind, with much rain.

In December, January, and February, when the

north winds predominate, their force checks the sea-breeze. The southern coast is that, which, of course, is least exposed to these winds, being sheltered in a great measure by the mountains. When combined with the land breeze they render the air very cold and unhealthy.

On the northern side of the island, during the greatest part of July, and the whole of August, the southerly, or sea-breeze, generally blows hard off the land, with frequent squalls; but in October northerly winds prevail, and frequently extend over all the Bahamas and Cuba; and for some time on the north side of Jamaica, where the current of air is forced upwards by the mountains, and its strength spent in the heights; but it occasionally reaches the southern coast, particularly in the neighbourhood of Kingston, and has been known to continue for some days.

During the winter season the land-breeze is more general off the shores than in summer; and it sometimes continues through the day as well as night. Westerly winds prevail also over the whole space between Jamaica and Cuba, and even so far as the Island of Hayti.

On the south side of the island, during the month of November, southerly winds generally blow, and have been known to extend from the Mosquito shore. These winds are usually faint; nor do they reach the land until it be heated by the sun, and soon after mid-day are often expelled by a fresh land-breeze, which also abates in a few hours.

The return of the sea-breeze in autumn is gradual; it first approaches the east end, then advances

a little, not unfrequently reaching Morant Point a fortnight or more before it is felt above Kingston. It also continues to blow a week or two later on the east end of the island than at Kingston; and has been known in some years to prevail there in the day-time, during the whole time it was unfelt at the former place.

That the climate of Jamaica has undergone great change since the cultivation of the isle is most true. From Mr. Nedham's journal, kept at Mount Olive, in the parish of St. Thomas in the Vale, I find that the thermometer is noted January 5th at 50—"whole day cold." Governor Modyford, in a letter to Lord Arlington, then, in 1665, Secretary-of-State, observes, with regard to the healthiness of the island, that "the officers of the old army, from strict saints, are turned debosht devils;" and "really, my Lord," he adds, "no man hath died but an account hath been given—y^t e gott his decease either by surfeits or travelling at high noone in a hott day—or being wett with rain, and not changing in season. The Spaniards, at their first coming, (I mean those who trade with the Royall Company) wondered much at the sickness of some of our people; but when they understood of the strength of their drinks, and the great quantity they charged themselves with, and the little observation of times and seasons, they told me they wondered more they were not all dead. Their health and cheerfulness depending upon their temperance, which, being my natural disposition, I doubt not but will continue me capable to serve his Majestie," &c. &c.

That the climate is not inimical to the human constitution¹ is evident from the long lives and good health which Europeans and negroes enjoy who live temperately,—and indeed intemperance, which in more temperate climates would be punished with death, here too often and too long escapes with impunity. A negro, called '*Poor Hope*,' recently died at Jamaica, aged 150 years!

At Stoney Hill garrison, nine miles from Kingston, and 2,000 feet above the sea, the thermometer is generally during the hot months 74 at 6 A.M., 82 at 2 P.M., and 80 at 6 P.M.; during the cold months at corresponding hours, 68—75 and 73; in November and December, when the north winds prevail, the mercury falls as low as 66 F.

At Trelawney-Maroon town, which is situate on a very high mountain in the interior of the island, between the parishes of Westmoreland and St. James, the thermometer seldom or ever rises higher than 71 or 72 at noon, falling during the night and early part of the morning as low as 50 and 52. The troops stationed here have for several years enjoyed as good if not indeed a better state of health than they would perhaps have experienced in any other part of the world; and, in 1795, when the yellow fever was at its acme in Jamaica, the men and officers of a newly-raised regiment (83rd) did not lose a man by fever at this station. That there have been periods of great sickness and mortality in Jamaica

¹ Of late years the yellow fever has almost, if not quite, disappeared from Jamaica and the other West India islands.

is too true. The comparative health of the different Military Stations at a period of unusual sickness—namely, for six years ending in 1822, is thus shown :

Station.	Average Strength.	Deaths.	Ratio.
Up-Park-Camp .	5,543	1,100	1 in 5
Stoney Hill . . .	1,878	163	1 in $11\frac{1}{2}$
Port Royal . . .	1,651	190	1 in $8\frac{3}{4}$
Fort Augusta . .	2,024	126	1 in 16
Spanish Town . .	1,885	300	1 in $6\frac{1}{4}$
Port Antonio . .	814	124	1 in $6\frac{1}{2}$
Port Maria . . .	115	30	1 in $3\frac{1}{2}$
Falmouth	703	65	1 in $10\frac{3}{4}$
<i>Maroon Town</i> . .	576	9	1 in 64
Lucia	417	29	1 in $14\frac{1}{4}$
Savannah le Mar	331	47	1 in 7
Montego Bay . .	117	10	1 in $10\frac{1}{2}$

The total number of deaths during each of the six years ending in 1822 was 315, 332, 754, 300, 312, 287. Owing to the humane zeal of Sir James M'Gregor, the mortality in the West Indian army has, of late years, been considerably diminished.

I have the testimony of that highly intelligent and zealous officer, Dr. Adolphus, Inspector of Military Hospitals, whose eminent services in Jamaica, and wherever his professional zeal and duties have been engaged, are duly appreciated, in proof that the climate of Jamaica has of late years most materially improved,—that the high-lands of this beautiful isle are well adapted to the European constitution, the more so when they become cleared and cultivated, (a

measure, I trust, which will speedily be accomplished,) and that there are many districts in the interior of Jamaica where the climate and soil are nearly as favourable to health as in any part of Britain, which districts are the property of the crown, and now lying waste.

Before closing this Chapter, I would here advert briefly to the Cayman isles, which are a dependency of Jamaica.

The Caymans are three small isles, in lat. 19.20. N. ; from thirty to forty leagues N.N.W. from Point Negrill, on the westward of Jamaica, the Grand Cayman being the most remote. Cayman-braque and Little Cayman lie within five miles of each other, and about thirty-four miles N. from the Grand Cayman, which is about one mile and a half long, and one mile broad, and containing about 1,000 acres. Grand Cayman (the only island inhabited) is so low that it cannot be seen from a ship's quarter-deck more than twelve or fifteen miles off, and at some distance the lofty trees on it appear like a grove of masts emerging from the ocean. It has no harbour, but the anchorage on the S. W. coast is moderately good; on the other, or N. E. side, it is fortified with a reef of rocks, between which and the shore, in smooth water, the inhabitants have their *cruals*, or pens, for keeping turtle in. The soil towards the middle of the island is very fertile, producing corn and vegetables in plenty, while hogs and poultry find ample provender.

Columbus fell in with these islands on his return

from Porto Bello to Hispaniola, and observing the coast swarming with turtle, like ridges of rocks, he called them *Las Tortugas*.

The Caymans were never occupied by the Spaniards, but became the general resort of adventurers or rovers, (chiefly French,) for the sake of the turtle, which rendezvoused here to lay their eggs in the sand, and then returned to the gulph of Mexico, Bay of Honduras, and the adjacent coast. The instinct with which the sea turtle annually visits a favourite breeding-spot is very remarkable. The Cayman Isles are yearly frequented by innumerable shoals of these animals, who cross the ocean from the Bay of Honduras, a distance of 450 miles, without the aid of chart or compass, and with an accuracy, says the eloquent historian of Jamaica (Long), superior to the best efforts of human skill: it is affirmed that vessels which have lost their latitude in hazy weather have steered entirely by the noise of the turtle in swimming. The shore of the Caymans is low and sandy, and consequently well adapted to hatch the turtle eggs; and the rich submarine pasturage around the islands affords abundance of nourishing herbage to repair the waste which must ensue after a female lays *nine hundred* eggs.

In 1655, when Jamaica was taken by England, the Caymans were still uninhabited. Mr. Long states them to have reckoned in 1774 to the number of 106 white men, women, and children. The Bishop of Jamaica in 1827 estimated the inhabitants at 1,600.

The present race of inhabitants are said to be

descended from the English Buccaneers, and, being inured to the sea, form excellent pilots and seamen: they have a chief or government officer of their own choosing, and they frame their own regulations; justices of the peace are appointed from Jamaica, but in no other way are the inhabitants interfered with by the authorities in the chief settlement to which they undoubtedly belong. The islands are extremely healthy, and the people attain a longevity, as is also the case on the Mosquito shore, greater than is enjoyed in Europe.

CHAPTER III.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.

JAMAICA is exuberantly rich in all the splendid and useful vegetation of the tropics. Its principal product is the sugar-cane, which, it is asserted, was introduced from Asia *via* Africa, Spain, the Canary Islands, and thence to St. Domingo, in 1520, when the first sugar plantation was established, the number of which had increased to thirty in 1535. This was the "creole" cane¹.

At an early period, the cane was extensively cultivated by the Spaniards in Jamaica; and in 1671, Traphan speaks of the numerous complicated sugar works, like a town or village, in various parts of the island.

Although the Spaniards at first attended to the cultivation of sugar, it was subsequently neglected.

¹ In 1788, M. Martin, a French botanist, introduced the celebrated Otaheite cane into Cayenne and Martinico from the Isle of France, whither it had been brought by the justly celebrated Bougainville. The great advantage of this latter cane is its flexibility of organization, or property of accommodating itself to various temperatures much more than the Canary or Creole cane, which will scarcely yield any sugar in Louisiana; besides, the Otaheitan cane yields more sugar, and of better quality, does not require replanting in three times the time the Creole cane does (every two or three years), and it yields more refuse for fuel.

In the year 1743, the chief productions of Jamaica were cocoa, indigo, and hides; the cultivation of sugar had just recommenced. The increase in the growth of this staple article of the island has been as follows:—1722, 11,000 hogsheads were exported; 1739, 33,155; 1744, 35,761; 1768, 55,000; 1774, 78,304; 1790, 105,400; 1802, 140,000; 1832, 1,200,000 cwts. Governor Knowles's calculation, in 1755, was 2,128,431 acres ungranted, out of which 400,000 are plantable; of these, 100,000 are fit for growing sugar, and the rest for coffee; the remaining 1,728,431 consist of barren mountains, &c. A return was made about the year 1755, of properties in the parish of St. Andrew's, and their produce, to the Board of Trade. In this, an estate called Norbrook, the property of Charles Long, Esq. is thus entered:—"2,222 acres, 55 hogsheads of sugar, nine puncheons of rum; five acres in coffee, producing 2,972 cwt.; 100 acres in provision ground; 500 in pen and pasture; five servants, 153 negroes, and 86 head of cattle. Indifferent land—some parts rocky and mountainous." This estate, in the return of 1739, is put at sixty hogsheads. The cultivation of Jamaica in 1818, according to Mr. Robertson's survey, was, in sugar plantations, 639,000 acres; in breeding farms or fens, 280,000; and in coffee, pimento, ginger, &c., 181,000. Total, 1,100,000.

The quantity of sugar now made in Jamaica is very great, and the importations into Great Britain have for some years averaged 1,400,000 cwts.; which, rated so low as 2s. per cwt., would give nearly *one million and a half sterling*. The Jamaica

sugar is of a very fine quality ; and by the improved systems of culture and manufacture coming into operation, there is little doubt but that the quantity and quality may yet be more extended, if the home government will reduce the enormous rate of taxation now levied on what ceases to be a luxury, for it is a necessary of life to the poorest individual. The quantity of rum made from the sugar is also very great ; the annual average exportations to England may be taken at 3,500,000 gallons, which may be estimated in value at 1,000,000*l.* sterling. The Jamaica rum is justly prized as an excellent spirit. Of coffee, and that too of excellent quality, the quantity grown in Jamaica is very great ; and the importation into Great Britain nearly 20,000,000 lbs. yearly, which, at the low value of 1*s.* per pound, is *another million* sterling. The coffee-plant was first introduced into Jamaica by Sir Nicholas Lawes, in 1728, where it was cultivated on an estate called Temple Hall, in Linguanea. An act of legislature of the island was passed, to encourage its growth ; and in 1732, coffee was advertised in a Jamaica paper at a pistole a pound. In 1652, there were exported 60,000 lbs. ; and in 1775, 440,000 lbs. Until 1788, little attention was paid to this singular berry. In the four years ending 30th September, 1794, the average exportation of coffee was 1,603,066 lbs. ; in 1804, it amounted to 22,000,000 lbs. ; and during three years ending 30th of September, 1807, the average exportation was more than 28,500,000 lbs., which, at 6*l.* per cwt., its cost in Jamaica, produced more than 1,700,000*l.* The production is

now about 20,000,000 lbs. yearly. It is calculated that 20,000,000*l.* is invested in coffee estates. The coffee plant thrives in almost every soil about the mountains of Jamaica, and in the very driest spots has frequently produced very abundant crops.

The following is the official return of the produce of sugar, coffee, and rum, in the island for the last two years. It is feared that the year ending 1st of August, 1836, will still be deficient¹; but a hope is held out that the ensuing year's returns will be very productive.

¹ I do not attribute this reduced importation to worn out West India soils. The planters find that improved husbandry, and the alternation of crops, are as conducive to fertility and renovation of the earth in the new world as in the old, but I attribute it to the enormous, and unjust, and impolitic taxation levied on sugar imported into England, and which the planters, notwithstanding the reduced price, have been unable to compete with.

Proportion of Taxation on the Price of West India Sugar for Thirty Years:—

	Average Price.	Tax, per Cwt	per Cent.
1792 to 1796	55 <i>s.</i> 1 <i>d.</i>	15 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>	27½
1797 ... 1798	67 3	17 6	26
1799 ... 1800	64 2½	18 2	28
1801 ... 1802	52 7	20 0	38
1803 ... 1823	46 4	27 0	58½
1824 ... 1826	33 5	27 0	80½
Dec. 1829 ... —	23 3½	27 0	110

Herein we witness the bane of our colonial policy. We have not only imposed enormous duties on the produce of our transmarine possessions, but, we have, while almost shutting the West Indies out from the home market, forbade their selling their surplus in those of Continental Europe or America; nay, not only from *selling*, but even from *buying food* and the necessaries of life, where the Colonists could readily obtain them in exchange for their sugar, rum, &c.

AN AGGREGATE RETURN from the several Ports to the Commissioners of Correspondence, of SUGAR, RUM, and COFFEE, the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the Island of Jamaica, exported in the Year ended 1st August, 1834, as compared with the Year ended 1st August, 1835.

PORTS.	YEAR ENDED 1st AUGUST, 1834.											
	SUGAR.					RUM.					COFFEE.	
	Hogsh.	Tierces.	Barrels.	Cwts.	Punchs.	Gallons.	Casks.	Lbs.				
Kingsion	18,491	1,214	1,570	332,782	8,138	942,108	10,525	9,358,760				
Morant Bay and Port Morant	6,863	1,271	71	140,489	1,922	207,539	906	768,899				
Port Antonio	2,199	282	131	42,502	764	70,350	75	59,209				
Port Maria and Annotto Bay	11,487	1,215	112	214,638	3,902	354,098	708	458,600				
Saint Ann's Bay	4,173	411	141	67,459	1,078	99,190	883	617,900				
Falmouth and Rio Bueno	11,179	1,291	233	221,898	4,346	465,789	1,091	686,166				
Montego Bay	9,975	1,713	786	215,628	5,459	525,890	83	35,975				
Lucesa	7,225	653	145	136,242	2,358	219,696	128	96,060				
Savanna Is Mar and Black River	7,883	1,210	42	153,526	2,809	274,289	7,795	5,987,577				
Total for Year ended Aug. 1, 1834	79,465	9,259	3,931	1,523,154	30,676	3,189,940	22,354	17,859,377				
Total for Year ended Aug. 1, 1835	67,687	7,432	3,066	1,319,931	27,038	2,660,657	13,495	10,489,292				
Decr. in Year ended Aug. 1, 1835	11,378	1,827	165	203,223	3,638	529,282	8,859	7,369,985				

YEAR ENDED 1st AUGUST, 1835.									
PORTS.	SUGAR.				RUM.			COFFEE.	
	Hopsls.	Tierces.	Barrels.	Cwts.	Punchs.	Gallons.	Casks.	Lbs.	
Kingston	16,703	1,504	1,732	329,172	5,813	502,084	8,104	6,790,212	
Morant Bay and Port Morant ..	6,693	1,223	223	136,944	2,391	264,054	430	304,392	
Port Antonio	1,690	320	75	33,760	457	45,700	94	20,680	
Port Maria and Annotto Bay ..	9,724	428	10	173,133	3,793	321,832	460	266,353	
Sadot Ann's Bay	4,301	445	92	72,880	1,372	214,184	665	307,010	
Palmarah and Mo Bruno	7,795	874	934	153,347	4,213	398,688	410	194,584	
Montego Bay	10,036	1,329	724	205,391	5,767	534,165	64	62,626	
Lucea	5,322	461	30	100,369	1,685	100,006	1	840	
Savanna la Mar and Black River	5,623	861	26	104,250	1,635	159,294	3,347	2,542,945	
Total for Year ended Aug-1, 1834	68,087	7,432	3,060	1,319,931	27,038	2,669,687	13,493	10,489,292	

D. MACDOWALL GRANT, Collector.
J. G. SWAINSON, Comptroller.

Custom House, Kingston, Jamaica,
22d August, 1835.

Cotton, indigo, and cocoa were at one time extensively cultivated; but they have principally given place to the foregoing staples of the island. Blome, who published a short account of Jamaica in 1672, mentions the existence of sixty cocoa walks. At present there can scarcely be said to be a plantation in the whole island. Various drugs, dye stuffs, and spices, are of excellent quality. Aloes, cochineal, spikenard, canella, liquorice-root, castor oil nut, vanilla, peppers, arrow-root, ginger, ipecacuanha, scammony, jalap, cassia, euphorbia, senna, &c. all attest the fruitfulness and capabilities of the soil and climate. The cultivated vegetables of Europe arrive at great perfection. Maize is the principal corn grown, and together with calavances, the yam and sweet potatoe, cassava, &c. form the chief food of the negroes. Various grasses thrive, but Guinea grass abounds; and, in consequence of its indispensable importance in feeding the cattle that supply manure for the sugar plantations, it is considered next in importance to the sugar-cane. This grass was introduced into the island in the early part of the last century by accident, having been forwarded with some Guinea birds that were sent as a present. The birds died, the seed was thrown away, the grass sprung up, and the cattle were observed to devour it eagerly. Attention was accordingly paid to the subject. It now grows all over the island, thriving in the most rocky places, and rendering (like sainfoin) lands productive that were heretofore considered barren, and making good hay, if salted or sprinkled with sea-water when being ricked. The

native and exotic grasses are excellent for cattle and horses; in particular that called the Scotch grass, which vegetates rapidly, and grows to the height of five or six feet, with long and juicy joints. Five horses may be fed for a year on an acre of this vegetable, allowing each, every day, fifty-six lbs. of grass.

Of vegetables, potatoes (Irish and sweet), yam, cassava, peas and beans of every variety, artichokes, beet-root, carrots, and parsnips, cucumbers and tomatoes, radishes, celery, choco, ochro, Lima bean, Indian kale, calaluc, various salads, cabbage-trees (200 feet high!)¹ &c. all flourish in abundance; and, indeed, it may be said that autumn is perpetual in Jamaica, for every month presents a fresh collation of fruits and vegetables, and some species are at maturity all the year round. The bread-fruit tree, cocoa-nut, plaintain and banana, alligator pear, the delicious mellow fig, pine, cashew, papaw, and custard apples, orange, lime, lemon, mango, grape, guava, pomegranate, soursop, shaddock, plums, tamarind, melon, wall and chestnut, mulberry, olive, date, citron, and many other delicious fruits, all arrive at perfection.

The attention of the planters is being now turned to the cultivation of other vegetable productions, which I doubt not will be attended with success: for instance, a correspondent in a recent Jamaica journal makes the following observations on a plant of great

¹ Some cabbage-trees have been known 270 feet high.

beauty and worth, the utility of cultivating which is deserving of consideration in our other colonies, and indeed at home :—

The sunflower is a plant of peculiar beauty, and which, if cultivated with attention, may be rendered valuable in a pecuniary point of view. Its fecundity in this climate renders it far preferable to corn for the common purposes of food for poultry ; and when mixed with corn, in the proportion of a pint to two quarts, it is valuable as a nutritious food for horses. As a proof of its fruitfulness, the authority from whom I derive the fact states that, averaging the quantity gathered from several hundred heads, each stalk may have produced eleven flowers, and that eight flowers will yield one quart of clean seed, by a process much less laborious than rubbing out corn. Maize, called "corn," is husked by the hand.

For the production of an oil, preferable, it is said, to olive oil, the seeds of the sunflower are more easily manufactured than even the castor nut, and will yield a greater proportion either by heat or pressure. In short, like many other productions of Jamaica which are overlooked in the eager pursuit of sugar and coffee, the sunflower, which here grows with such superior luxuriance, needs only to be more extensively cultivated to add to the valuable gifts of nature in the torrid zone. The best manner of planting them, as practised in the north of Italy, is to dibble them, in rows about three feet asunder, putting two seeds into each hole : in this way, the ripe seed may be reaped ten weeks after planting.

Of *Trees*, Jamaica possesses a great variety, one of the most valuable of which is the pimento¹, which flourishes spontaneously and in great abundance on the north side of the island; its numerous white blossoms, mixing with the dark green foliage, and with the slightest breeze diffusing around the most delicious fragrance, give a beauty and charm to nature rarely equalled, and of which he who has not visited the shady arbours and perfumed groves of the tropics can have little conception. This lovely tree, the very leaf of which, bruised, emits a fine aromatic odour, nearly as powerful as that of the spice itself, has been known to grow to the height of from thirty to forty feet, exceedingly straight, and having for its base the spinous ridge of a rock, eight or ten feet above the surface of the hill or mountain. A single tree will produce 150 of the raw, or 100 lbs. of the dried fruit.

The indigenous forest, and even exotic trees of Jamaica, grow to a prodigious height; the palmetto royal is frequently found 140 feet; the vast trunks of the ceiba (wild cotton-tree) and fig-trees often measure 90 feet from the base to the limbs; and the trunk² of the former, when hollowed out, has formed a boat capable of holding 100 persons. There is a

¹ The cultivation of the pimento is extending, as is also that of ginger, in Jamaica.

² The wild pine commonly takes root in the forks of the ceiba, and by the conformation of its leaves catches and retains the rain-water, each leaf holding about a quart. It would seem as if nature designed it to supply the gigantic trunk with occasional moisture.

great variety of timber for agricultural and household purposes, and some exquisitely beautiful cabinet woods.

The trumpet-tree grows from thirty to forty feet high; its trunk and branches are hollowed and divided with membranous septæ, like the bamboo; it produces an agreeable fruit, like our strawberry. The strong and fibrous bark is used for cordage, and the light trunks for bark logs, &c. The bamboo is plentiful, and houses built by the Spaniards with it at St. Jago de la Vega (Spanish Town) are still standing. Cedar, mahogany, *lignum vitæ*, Spanish elm, mangeneel, bræziletto, the valuable palmetto¹ (thatch), white bully or galimeta, dog-pigeon-rose, beef and iron woods, the black mangrove, green-heart, &c. all flourish².

ANIMALS.—Animal life has attained neither great variety nor size in the new world, and the islands appertaining to that vast continent, when discovered, were found to contain but few species: Jamaica, for instance, had only eight varieties of quadrupeds—the agouti, peccari, armadillo, opossum, racoon, musk rat, alco, and monkey. Of these, only the first and last remain. One species of the monkey tribe in Jamaica has, according to Dr. Coke, only four fingers on each of its fore paws, and no thumb. Wild hog hunting is a favourite, and sometimes a dangerous, amusement. All the domesticated animals of Europe thrive, and are found to multiply fast; there are many varieties of beautiful lizards, and the feathered

¹ Has been found 140 feet high. ² Vide Guyana Book.

tribe are exceedingly numerous, and some (especially the parrot) of fine plumage. Some of the smallest humming-birds are not bigger than a moderate-sized beetle, and their hue of the most beautiful golden green. The most remarkable of these exquisite specimens of feathered elegance is the long-tailed one, with plumes of six inches long crossing each other: the most opposite colours are blended together; the oceanic green of the emerald, the lustrous purple of the amethyst, and the bright flame of the ruby, are shaded and tinted by a transparent veil of waving gold. Sloane says that he saw one of those connecting links between birds and insects, which, "on being put into a balance when just killed, weighed not over twenty grains!" Next in beauty to the foregoing is a small martin, all the upper part of whose plumage is of a bright golden green, and the under part white. There are a variety of blue and red throat woodpeckers; but a bird called the nightingale (Brown calls it the "mocking-bird of America") is the only warbler remarkable for its notes. Of the wild fowl, the most delicious are the ring-dove and the rice-bird of S. Carolina, which, after fattening on the rice there, arrive in Jamaica in countless numbers in October, to feed on the Guinea grass. Epicures compare the plump and juicy flesh of this delicacy to the ortolan. Dr. Chamberlain thus enumerates the sportsman's game:—1. Wild Guinea fowl (*Numidia Meleagris*). 2. Quail (*tetrao coturnix*). 3. Wild pigeons, namely, ring-tail, bald-pate, pea-dove, white-breast, white-wing, mountain-witch, ground-dove, and red-legged

partridge. 4. Snipe (*scolopax galinago*). 5. Wild duck (*Anas boschas*). 6. Gray duck (*Anas strepora*). 7. Teal (*Anas crecca*). 8. Widgeon (*Anas Penelope*). 9. Grey and ring plover. The turkey buzzard is the scavenger of the island; and if it were not for the persevering labours of this voracious and carnivorous bird, many places would be uninhabitable, by reason of the putrifying stench from decaying animal matter. It resembles a small turkey; the head is bald, and the upper part of the beak covered with a loose red skin, which gives a disgusting appearance to this most useful bird.

FISH.—The rivers and sea-coast abound in fish of various quality, and there are several salt ponds which, if attended to, might render the planters in a great measure independent of supplies of salt fish from Europe. The sprat, herring, dolphin, anchovy or silver fish; the flying, sword, sun, parrot, rock, king, and gar fishes; flounder, sole, eel, bream, snapper, mullet, perch, boneeto, Spanish mackerel, sea devil (weighing from 100 to 300 lbs.), old wife, shark, porpoise, sting, ray, thrasher, &c. &c. may be caught; sea and land turtle are plentiful, and good eating.

Dr. Madden thus enumerates the different kinds that are to be found in the Kingston market:—

1. Calipever. The white salmon of Jamaica; from six to eighteen lbs.; caught in the brackish waters at the Ferry.
2. Snook. Both salt and fresh water; from ten to sixteen lbs.; delicate.

3. Mullet. Various kinds ; salt water, white ; the mountain species, red ; one of the three delicacies of Jamaica.
4. Stone Bass. Both fresh and salt water ; much esteemed ; from two to four lbs.
5. Snapper, black. Salt water ; four or five lbs. ; delicate.
6. Ditto, red. Ditto, not so much prized.
7. Ditto, or Mangola Drummer ; caught about Hunt's Bay ; from one to two lbs.
8. King Fish. Caught on Port Royal bank : from ten to twenty lbs. ; very delicate.
9. June Fish, or Jew. In great estimation with the Jews ; from four to thirty lbs.
10. Old Fish. Jamaica John A'Dory ; about two lbs.
11. Cutlass. A flat fish ; a good frying fish.
12. Chuck. Fresh water ; delicate ; about six lbs.
13. Grunt, red-mouthed. Salt water ; one lb.
14. Mud Fish. Fresh water ; resembles trout.
15. Hog. A good species of Bass ; about four lbs.
16. Boney Fish. Coarse ; from four to eight lbs.
17. Rock Fish. A species of Bass ; from four to six lbs. ; salt water ; good.
18. Doctor. Salt water ; about one and a half lbs. ; so called from a lancet-shaped spine.
19. Parrot Fish. Salt water ; variegated colour ; three or four lbs. ; coarse.
20. Baracouta. Said to frequent copper banks in some islands ; sometimes poisonous ; six lbs.
21. Sand Fish. Species of Mud Fish ; fresh and salt water ; three-quarters of a lb.

22. Mackerel. Mottled skin; size of ours.
23. Whiting. Not unlike ours, but smaller.
24. White Bait. The anchovy of Jamaica.

The mountain crab of Jamaica is "one of the choicest morsels in nature," according to Edwards. The crabs go down to the sea once a year to deposit their spawn, direct their march thither in a straight line, by the shortest course, and invariably attempt to scale every obstacle they meet. When they have deposited their spawn, they return to the mountains by the latter end of June, where they remain, and the young ones follow them to their habitations, which are burrows lined with dry grass, leaves, &c. and are prepared for moulting, as soon as they are able to crawl. These habitations are seldom less than one mile, or more than three from the shore. In December and January they begin to spawn, are very fat and delicate, and esteemed fit for the table; but they continue in perfection till May. The crabs perform their annual journey towards the shore in February or April. After the month of May they lose their flavour, and, when poor, are full of a black bitter fluid, which decreases as they get into condition, in July and August; after which, they retire to their burrows, shut up the hole, and remain inactive till they cast their old shell. During the moulting time, they are covered only with a thin membranous skin, variegated with red veins, about which testaceous concretions are found, which disappear when the shell is formed. The shell is observed to burst first both at the back and sides, to give a

passage to the body; the limbs are afterwards gradually extracted. In this state they are esteemed in their highest perfection. The crabs that feed in the grave-yards are the fattest and richest in flavour. In England, people talk of being food for *worms*—in the West Indies, for *crabs*.

REPTILES.—The silver, black, and yellow snakes are numerous, excepting the former; the yellow is considered good eating by the negroes; the alligator or cayman, together with varieties of lizards, guanas, and chameleons, are natives of the isle¹.

Insects are numerous, particularly cockroaches, mosquitos, fire-flies, ants, &c. The bite of the small black spider is said to produce death sometimes.

¹ The animal kingdom of the West Indies is fully detailed in the book on British Guyana.

CHAPTER IV.

POPULATION—WHITE, COLOURED, AND NEGRO; VARIOUS CLASSES OF THE INHABITANTS; CENSUS OF THE DIFFERENT PARISHES; STOCK, AND LAND IN CULTIVATION, &c.; THE PRESS; EDUCATION AND RELIGION.

It is, a melancholy reflection that the aboriginal inhabitants of Jamaica, to the amount probably of several hundred thousand, were destroyed by the European colonists within fifty years after their settling on its shores; had they been preserved, as sound policy as well as humanity would have dictated—and of which the island of Ceylon, with its million of coloured inhabitants, afford us an excellent illustration, the deadly curse of slavery—doubly cursed to the enslaved and the enslaver—would have been avoided, and an incalculable amount of human misery prevented.

We have no authentic accounts of the Indian population on the island when first visited by Columbus; all accounts agree in representing it as densely peopled—within half a century they had all ceased to exist! Las Casas says, “they hanged these unfortunates by thirteen, in honour of the thirteen apostles;—I have beheld them throw the Indian infants to their dogs,—I have heard the Spaniards borrow the limb of a human being to feed their dogs, and next day return a quarter to the lender!” The original Spanish colony consisted of seventy persons, whose numbers were rapidly increased by immigration, until

the riches of the main land caused Jamaica to be comparatively neglected, and the incursions of freebooters rendering property insecure checked population; it would appear that the Spaniards began early to import negro slaves, but on the capture of the island by the British in 1655, Venables stated the whole population to be—not more than 1,500 Spaniards and Portuguese, and an equal number of negroes and mulattoes, although Spain had been one hundred and forty-six years in possession of the island. Seven years after the conquest of Jamaica by England, a census was taken, of which the aggregate was—2,600 men, 645 women, 408 children, and 552 negroes. In this census, the acres under cultivation are 2,917. The following is a census (about this period) of the whole island :—

	Men.	Women.	Children.	Negroes.	Stands of Arms.	Acres planted.
Precincts of Port Morant...	168	53	37	126	99	467
Morant.....	122	14	17	53	35	129
Yallah.....	207	36	19	54	53	353
Ligonee (now Liguana)	533	139	135	31	121	480
St. Jago Town.....	267	52	42	32	38	83
Black River, Bower's } Savannah, &c. }	138	17	10	24	38	128
Angells.....	95	15	14	46	50	133
Seven Plantations, Bay } of Macario, and Quathabacoa..... }	216	41	48	45	95	205
Guansaboa and Guardaleone	351	38	26	63	89	610
Cagua.....	400	150	80	40	100	—
	2458	454*	448	514	618	2588

The troubles in England during the commonwealth and the early years of the restoration, contributed materially to people our western colonies; and Ja-

* Some errata, but of no importance in a general view.

maica exhibited the following progressive rate of population:—

Year.	Whites.	Free Colour'd	Slaves.	Year.	Whites.	Free Colour'd	Slaves.
1658*	4,500	No Returns	1,400	1768	17,947	—	176,014
1670	7,500		8,000	1775	18,500	3,700	190,914
1734	7,644		86,146	1717	30,000	10,000	230,000
1746	10,000		112,428	1800	No Ret.	No Ret.	300,000

From the year 1702 (when the importation was 800) to 1774 (when the importation was 18,000) the number of slaves imported into Jamaica was *half a million*, of which 130,000 were re-exported, and of those retained in the island not more than 19,000 were alive in 1775.

The number of Slaves in Jamaica at the expiration of each year, from 1800 to 1817, was—

A.D.	No. of Slaves.	A.D.	No. of Slaves.	A.D.	No. of Slaves.
1800	300,939	1806	312,341	1812	319,912
1801	307,094	1807	119,351	1813	317,424
1802	307,199	1808	323,827	1814	315,385
1803	308,068	1809	323,714	1815	313,814
1804	308,542	1810	313,683	1816	314,938
1805	308,775	1811	326,830	1817	345,252

From 1817 to 1829, (the latest years before me,) the Slave population of Jamaica was—

Yrs.	Males.	Females	Total.	Increased by Birth.		Decreased by Death.		Decrease by Manu-mission.	
				Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Ma.	Fe.
1817	178,519	172,831	346,150	—	—	—	—	—	—
1820	170,466	171,916	342,382	12,201	12,145	13,423	11,681	366	650
1823	166,595	169,658	336,253	11,685	11,564	14,030	12,321	871	550
1826	162,726	168,393	331,119	11,604	11,422	13,530	11,650	316	611
1829	158,254	164,167	322,421	10,986	10,742	13,435	11,702	362	755
1832	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

* Census of Jamaica, December 12, 1661.

I have prepared the following imperfect (yet the most complete which I have seen) view of the population of Jamaica, from various documents laid before the Finance Committee of 1828 :—

PARISH AND COUNTY.	Area in Square Miles.	Whites.		Free Coloured.		Slaves.			Total of Males.	Total of Females.	Total of all Classes.	
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.				Females.
Kingston, Surry county	400	86	51	131	223	279	502	6,311	6,270	12,581	6,814	35,000
St. George, ditto ..	71	136	263	7,069	7,069	15,414
St. David, ditto ..	37	304	112	316	303	420	723	5,535	5,309	6,904	4,042	8,082
Port Royal, ditto ..	12 ¹ / ₂	7,943
St. Andrew, ditto	14,584
St. Thomas in the East, ditto	500	890	24,000	25,890
Portland, ditto	110	150	5,331	5,391
Veré, Middlesex county	300	126	15	135	120	50	210	3,847	3,853	7,800	4,093	8,149
St. Ann, ditto	349	24,000
Clarendon, ditto	20,000
St. Dorothy, ditto	150	400	4,700	5,250
St. Mary, ditto	25,000	26,673
Manchester, ditto ..	20	1190	21,000
Westmoreland, Carnival	2728	550	120	670	502	548	1056	10,600	11,400	22,000	33,400
St. Elizabeth, ditto..	625	491	266	883	1035	9,685	9,844	11,029	22,114
Trelawney, ditto ..	331	900	1000	25,431	24,000
St. James, ditto ..	223	24,000
Hanover, ditto	610	970	22,461

I trust the view of the foregoing mutilated Table (some of the parishes having no place even in it) may stimulate the House of Assembly to cause an accurate census of the island to be immediately prepared.

It is impossible to state with accuracy the actual population of Jamaica; owing to some mistaken feelings the census has not been completed: by some it is said that the population of the island is half a million of mouths, which would give *seventy-eight* persons to the square mile, a remarkable small proportion, particularly in comparison with Barbadoes, where there are *six hundred* to the square mile! The white inhabitants are estimated at 30 to 35,000, and the maroons at 1,200.

The following is a summary for 1833 of the returns of the number of slaves on each estate in the island; the number of stock, or horned cattle; and the quantity of land in cultivation and pasture: these returns are given in on oath¹:—

¹ The Jamaica Almanac for 1833, whence I derive this statement, is so imperfectly printed, that whole columns are illegible, and even the summings-up are incorrect; I have endeavoured to complete the return by a reference to the returns for 1832.

COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX.				COUNTY OF SURRY.			
PARISHES.	SLAVES.	STOCK.	ACRES OF LAND.	PARISHES.	SLAVES.	STOCK.	ACRES OF LAND.
St. Catherine	7,507	5,076	64,768	Kingston	5,265	345	3,021
St. Thomas in the Vale	10,733	3,127	79,668	Port Royal	5,965	465	26,008
St. John	5,985	985	62,000	St. Andrew	13,545	2,183	79,183
St. Dorothy	5,142	2,458	40,149	St. Thomas in the East	23,319	6,362	132,895
Vere	8,002	3,630	59,086	St. David	7,417	1,771	45,858
Clarendon	16,156	5,989	183,891	Portland	7,267	1,682	13,537
Manchester	19,364	9,872	170,377	St. George	11,568	3,707	89,772
St. Ann	24,931	23,309	215,761	Total	74,286	16,455	390,386
St. Mary	25,544	8,960	122,726				
Total	121,194	65,416	1,026,486				
COUNTY OF CORNWALL.				GRAND TOTAL.			
Hanover	21,326	14,583	115,741	Slaves.	Stock.	Acres of Land.	
Trelawney	25,337	24,557	168,047	Middlesex	121,194	65,416	1,026,486
St. Elizabeth	18,371	8,159	210,542	Surry	74,286	16,455	390,386
St. James	23,019	17,034	145,456	Cornwall	107,152	83,373	318,852
Westmoreland ..	19,589	18,047	172,166	Total	302,632	165,344	2,285,724
Total	107,152	83,373	818,852				

According to the Compensation Commissioners, by their Return dated 7th July, 1835, Jamaica stands thus in reference to the inter-colonial apportionment of £20,000,000 :—

No. of Slaves by last Registration.	Average Value of a Slave from 1822 to 1830.	Relative Value of the Slaves.	Proportion of £30,000,000. to which Jamaica is entitled.
311,692	£44:15:2 $\frac{1}{4}$	13,951,139 <i>l.</i>	£6,161,927.

By a return from Jamaica received August 1836, I find that 998 apprentices were valued and paid for at an average of 34*l.* each, amounting to 33,998*l.*; and 624 apprentices were valued at 47*l.* each, amounting to 29,445*l.* This was the extent of adjudication up to the above-mentioned period. These prices are much less than the former market value of a slave, which, fifteen or twenty years ago would be, if a good tradesman of fair character and healthy constitution, 180*l.* to 200*l.* currency. An able field negro of the above description, 140*l.* to 170*l.* currency; a female ditto, 110*l.* to 130*l.* currency; stout youths and girls, 70*l.* to 100*l.* currency; and a healthy infant, 20*l.* to 25*l.* currency.

A description of the character of the respective classes of inhabitants in the island, would be too diffuse for my object; it may be sufficient to observe that the white population, embracing the English, Irish, Scotch, French, Germans, Portuguese, &c. are divided into two classes; the higher embracing the principal merchants, chief planters, government officers, &c.; and the other, the tradesmen, overseers, and shopkeepers, &c. A large portion of the latter class are Jews, who have equal political rights with the Christians. The French emigrants from St. Domingo are a respectable and industrious

class. Hospitality and urbanity distinguish the Europeans in Jamaica, as in all our other colonies, but their means are now sadly disproportioned to their generous hearts. A high independence of character has ever characterized the British residents in Jamaica.

The free people of colour are divided into several classes, and known by the names of *Sambos* (an intermixture of the black with the mulatto), *Mulattos* (of the negroes with the white), *Quadroons* (of the mulatto with the white), and *Mestees* (of the quadroon with the white). The offspring of the Mestee by the white man is not considered of the coloured race; they are indeed often fairer than the Spaniards on the main land.

The Creoles are distinct from the "people of colour;" they are born in the country, of European parents, and form part of the white population. Many of the Creole ladies are extremely beautiful,—with the large languishing eye of the gazelle, of delicate form, pale, almost colourless features, and a quiescent, almost melancholy expression of countenance.

The Maroons (who were originally the slaves of the Spaniards previous to our conquest of the island) are divided into four stations, having each a superintendant at a salary of 200*l.* a year. Moore town station has 80 maroons and their families; Charles town, 110 ditto; Scotts-hall, 20 ditto, and accompanying town, 20 ditto.

The negro population is also formed into classes, according to the country they come from, or that

which their progenitors belonged to. They consist of Mandingo negroes from Senegal, and its vicinity; the Coromantees, from the Fanlyn country; the Passams or Whydaws, from the Adra country; the Eboes, from the borders of Benin river, and the Congos and Angolas, from the river and coasts bearing these names. The Mandingoes are superior in intelligence to the other classes; many of them read and write Arabic, and they pride themselves on their mental superiority over the other negroes. The Coromantees are distinguished from all others by firmness of body and mind,—the disposition is ferocious, but with an elevation of soul which prompts them to enterprises of great danger, and enables them to meet death in its most horrible shape with fortitude or indifference.

At the termination of the rebellion in St. Mary's parish, Jamaica, in 1760, three Coromantee negroes were sentenced to death, and an eye-witness of their fortitude, but at the same time a great apologist for negro slavery, thus details the horrid scene which followed:—"One was condemned to be burned, and the other two to be hung up alive in irons, and left to perish in that dreadful situation. The wretch that was burnt was made to sit on the ground, and, his body being chained to an iron stake, the fire was applied to his feet. He uttered not a groan, and saw his legs reduced to ashes with the utmost firmness and composure; after which, one of his arms by some means getting loose, he snatched a brand from the fire that was consuming him, and flung it at the face of the executioner.

“ The two that were hung up alive were indulged (at their own request) with a hearty meal, immediately before they were suspended on the gibbet, which was erected on the parade of the town of Kingston. From that time till they expired, they never uttered the least complaint, except only of cold in the night; but diverted themselves all day long in discourse with their countrymen, who were permitted, very improperly, to surround the gibbet. On the seventh day the commanding officer sent for me, as a notion prevailed that one of them had some important secret to communicate to his master, my near relative. I endeavoured, in his absence, to try an interpreter, to let him know I was present; but I could not understand what he said in return. I remember that both he and his fellow-sufferer laughed immoderately at something that occurred,—I know not what: the next morning one of them silently expired, as did the other, on the morning of the *ninth* day!” Who that feels for human agony but must rejoice at the extinction of slavery.

The Whydan race are amongst the most docile and meek of the African race. The Eboes are looked on as the least valuable negroes, by reason of their feeble, timid, desponding character, and being given to suicide in their dejection. They are said to be cannibals in their native country, and to hold the Guana in supreme respect.

The other races do not require particularizing, and as I intend to examine the character of the negroes in general, (of whom I have seen a great deal in their native country,) in my volume on Western

Africa, I conclude with expressing a hope that the invaluable blessing of freedom will not be found to have been conferred by the liberality of England on 300,000 of our fellow creatures in Jamaica, without the most beneficial effects resulting therefrom to humanity, social polity, and Christian happiness.

The following are the leading provisions of the Emancipation Bill, as it finally passed the House of Assembly at Jamaica, on the 12th December, 1833 :—

“ From 1st August, 1834, the slaves, aged six and upwards, are to become apprenticed labourers, without any formal indentures.

“ The slaves are divided into three classes—Prædial labourers, employed on their masters' lands—Prædial labourers employed on other lands—Non-prædial labourers.

“ The apprenticeships to cease in August, 1840, and the hours of labour not to exceed forty-five hours in the week. Non-prædial apprenticeships to cease in 1838.

“ Masters to be liable for the maintenance of discharged labourers above fifty, or those that are disabled.

“ Apprentices may purchase their discharge, without consent of the master, by paying the appraised value.

“ The value to be appraised by three Justices of the Peace, who are to order sums advanced on the security of the negro, to be paid out of the purchase money.

" No apprentice to be removed from the island, nor to another estate, if the removal separates him from his wife or child.

" An employer's right to an apprentice's labour may be transferred by bargain or sale, but families not to be separated.

" The employer bound to supply the apprentice with food, clothes, and medicine.

" Children under twelve now born, to be indentured, and remain apprentices till twenty-one.

" Special Justices to be appointed for the execution of the Act, who shall take cognizance of offences committed by negroes.

" No females to be flogged.

" Sunday markets abolished, and prædial labourers to have Saturday free."

CHAPTER V.

GOVERNMENT COUNCIL—COURTS OF LAW, SUPREME AND LOCAL—LAWS OF THE COLONY—MILITARY DEFENCE AND MILITIA—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, &c.

JAMAICA is ruled by a Governor, or Captain-General, (appointed by the Crown), aided by a council of twelve, somewhat similar to the House of Lords ; and a House of Assembly answering to the home House of Commons. The Council is generally appointed by the King, through the Secretary of State for the Colonies, from among the most respectable colonists who are *ex-officio* justices of the peace. The Lieutenant-Governor, Chief Justice, Attorney-General, and the Bishop, are all *ex-officio* Members of the Council, each member of which is removable at the pleasure of his Majesty. The Assembly consists of forty-five members, each of the parishes sending two representatives ; and Spanish Town, Kingston, and Port Royal, one additional member each ; a *representative must possess a freehold of 300*l.* per annum*¹ in any part of the island, or a personal estate of 3000*l.* ; an elector must be of age, and possessed of a freehold of 10*l.* per annum in the parish for which he votes. Persons of colour are now admitted to all the privileges of white persons, and

¹ Such was the law, but it has not been attended to.

there are no civil disabilities from religious differences. The Governor has the title of his Excellency, and is invested with the chief civil and military authority; he is also Chancellor, Ordinary, and Vice-Admiral. On his death or absence, the government devolves on the Deputy or Lieutenant-Governor, if there be any; otherwise on the senior Counsellor, who rises in rotation to the presidency, and has a salary of 1000*l.* per annum.

The Governor has the disposal of such appointments as his Majesty does not reserve to himself or his Ministers; and as to such offices so reserved, whenever a vacancy occurs by death or removal, the Governor may appoint to them till they are filled up from home, and his appointee, till superseded, takes all the emoluments.

The Council, who are by courtesy severally addressed in the colonies by the title of Honourable, consists of twelve members. They are appointed by mandamus from the King, and hold their offices during his Majesty's pleasure; but if at any time by death, absence from the island, or suspension, the Council should be reduced to less than the number limited by the instructions to the Governor, he may appoint as many persons out of the principal freeholders, inhabitants of the island, to be Members of the Council, as will make up such number; which persons so appointed may act as Counsellors until they are disapproved, or others are appointed by his Majesty. The Governor may, however, suspend any of the Members of the Council from sitting, voting, or assisting therein, if he find just cause for so doing;

but he must, by the first opportunity, signify to the English Government any vacancy in the Council, from whatever cause it may arise.

The duty of the Council is to give advice to the Governor or Commander-in-Chief for the time being, when required; and they stand in the same relation to the Governor in the colony as the Privy Council in England does to his Majesty; they are also a constituent part of the Legislature of the colony, corresponding with the British House of Peers; and, finally, they sit as Judges on certain occasions.

The General Assembly are the Representatives of, and chosen by, the people, and correspond with the British House of Commons, and its utmost duration is seven years. The laws and statutes of England passed previously to the settlement, unless they are from their enactments inapplicable to the local circumstances of Jamaica, apply to the colony. Statutes passed in England since 1728, unless they relate to trade and navigation, are not in force there. The Assembly have all the privileges of the House of Commons in England; they have the sole power of levying taxes, and the distribution thereof, with the exception of an annual permanent revenue to the Crown of 10,000*l.*; the salary of the Speaker of the Assembly is 1000*l.* per annum.

The Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council, may, from time to time, as occasion requires, summon the General Assembly together, and may, of his own authority, adjourn, prorogue, and dissolve it.

The Council and General Assembly, with the

concurrence of the King, or his representative the Governor, may make laws, statutes, and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of the colony, so that they be not repugnant, but as near as conveniently may be agreeable to the laws and statutes of Great Britain.

By an order in Council, dated 15th January, 1800, it is declared, that in all cases when his Majesty's confirmation is necessary to give validity and effect to any act passed by the legislature of any of his Majesty's colonies or plantations, unless his Majesty's confirmation thereof be obtained within three years from the passing of such act in any of the said colonies or plantations, such act shall be considered disallowed.

By the English statute, 6 Geo. III. c. 12, all the British colonies are declared to be dependent upon the Imperial Crown and Parliament of Great Britain, who have full power to make laws to bind such colonies in all cases whatsoever. But by the 18 Geo. III. c. 12, the King and Parliament declared, that thenceforth they would not impose any duty payable in the colonies, except for the regulation of commerce, the produce whereof should always be applied to the use of the colony in which it is levied.

Kingston is a corporate town, having a mayor, twelve aldermen, and twelve common councilmen, chosen on the second Wednesday in January. The following is a description of the city seal :—On one side, the arms, crest, supporters and mottos, legend—*“Sigillum commune civitatis de Kingston in Jamaica.”* Reverse—Britannia, in the dress of Minerva, holding

in one hand the trident, and in the other a mirror, reflecting the rays of the benign influence of Heaven on the produce of the island; behind her the British lion supporting her shield; a conche shell at her feet, and at a distance a ship under sail; legend—*“Hos foret, hos curat servatque Britannia mater.”* Britain, the mother country, cherishes and protects these fruits.

THE SUPREME COURT.—The jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, of the Supreme Court is co-extensive with those of the Courts of King’s Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, (and Insolvent Debtors), in England, taken collectively, and it has also the power of hearing and deciding on informations for the breach of any act of Parliament or Assembly relating to trade and navigation, or for laying any duties or customs on the import of goods, wares, and merchandizes into, or on the exportation thereof from the island; also on informations for land under the quit rent acts, and all escheats. It is likewise a court of appeal from the inferior Courts of Common Pleas.

This Court sits in the capital of St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, three times in the year, for three consecutive weeks each time, commencing respectively on the second Monday in February, the first Monday in June, and the first Monday in October in each year.

The Chief Justice is nominated by the Government in England, and has a patent of office under the great seal of the island; and the Assistant Judges are appointed either by his Majesty’s Ministers or by the

Governor of the island. There are eight or ten Assistant Judges, who sit in rotation with the Chief Justice; they have each a salary of 500*l.* per annum West Indian currency. All the judges hold their offices during his Majesty's pleasure, and are removable by his sign-manual only; but they may, upon sufficient cause, be suspended by the Governor, with the consent of a majority of a board of the Council, till his Majesty's pleasure be known. There is an Attorney and Solicitor-General, Clerk of the Crown, Clerk of the Court, and Solicitor for the Crown, attached to the Court; and from eight to ten or twelve barristers in practice. A Provost Marshall, and seven Deputies, act in the like number of districts.

THE ASSIZE COURTS.—The jurisdiction of these Courts is limited to their respective counties of Surrey and Cornwall; and the Justices in the Courts to be held respectively before them have the same power, authority, and jurisdiction that the Justices of Assize and Nisi Prius, Justices of Oyer and Terminer, and Justices of Gaol Delivery have in England.

The Court of Assize for the county of Surrey sits three times in the year, for three successive weeks each time, if necessary; and such sittings are held at the town of Kingston, in that county, and commence respectively on the second Monday in April, the first Monday in August, and the second Monday in January. The sittings of the Court of Assize for the county of Cornwall are held at the town of Montego Bay, for the like period as the Court of Assize

for the county of Surrey sits; and such sittings respectively commence on the second Monday in March, the first Monday in July, and the first Monday in November. The Justices of Assize receive no salary, are appointed by the Governor, by a commission under the broad seal of the island. They, like the Judges of the Supreme Court of Judicature, hold their places during his Majesty's pleasure (*quamdiu se bene gesserunt*), and can be removed by his sign manual only; but, upon sufficient cause, may be suspended by the Governor, with the consent of the majority of a Board of Council, till his Majesty's pleasure be known.

COURTS OF COMMON PLEAS.—The several inferior Courts of Common Pleas in the island of Jamaica have jurisdiction over all causes (wherein any freehold is not concerned) to the value of 20*l.* with costs and no more, but by the aid of a *justicias* from the Chancellor, who is the Governor, they may hold Pleas to any amount. They are, however, absolutely restricted from intermeddling with or determining actions where the title to land or negroes is concerned. These Courts are held at the same time, and in the same place of the respective precincts, as the Justices of the Peace hold the Quarter-Sessions, once in every three months; some of them have the privilege of sitting oftener. The appointment and removal of the Judges of these Courts are under the control of the Governor, and an appeal lies against their decision to the Supreme Court of Judicature.

COURTS OF QUARTER SESSIONS.—Every precinct

has a Court of Sessions, held quarterly. All manner of debts, trespasses, and other matters, not exceeding the value of 40s. wherein the titles of land are not concerned, may be heard and determined by any Justice of the Peace of the island within their respective precincts, without appeal; and after judgment, the Justice may grant a warrant of distress, and, for want of sufficient distress, may imprison the defendant in the common gaol of the precincts till he pay the debt and charges.

[A law passed in 1828 extended this jurisdiction to sums not exceeding 10*l.* but was lately disallowed by the King in Council. A bill for a similar object is now (December 1831) in progress through the legislature.]

In concluding this brief notice of the Common Law Courts, it may be observed, that their mode of proceeding is, in most respects, similar to that adopted in Westminster Hall.

COURT OF CHANCERY.—The Governor sits as Chancellor, with the same powers of judicature that the Lord High Chancellor has in England, and the proceedings of this Court are similar to those of the English Court of Chancery. The Court is held about three times a-year.

The Court of Error is held by the Governor and Council for hearing Appeals, in the nature of Writs of Error, from the Supreme and Assize Courts. These Appeals, or Writs of Error, are allowed and regulated by his Majesty's instructions to the Governor. An appeal also lies from the judgment of the Court of Chancery, to his Majesty in his Privy Council. On

an appeal to the King in Council, the proceedings must be transmitted, and the party appealing must proceed, within a year after the pronouncing of the decree or order appealed against.

The Court of Vice-Admiralty has two distinct jurisdictions; by one of which it is an *Instance* Court for deciding all maritime causes, and by the other a *Prize* Court: its practice is similar to that of the High Court of Admiralty in England, to which Court, or to the King in Council, an appeal lies from its decision. The Judge is appointed by the Government in England, and holds his office during his Majesty's pleasure; but may be suspended by the Governor for good cause, with the consent of a majority of a board of Council, till his Majesty's pleasure be known.

The Court of Ordinary is for determining ecclesiastical matters, and the Governor alone presides in it as judge.

The English Bankruptcy Laws are not in force in Jamaica, but there is an *Insolvent Debtors' Act*, by which a debtor, on making oath that he is possessed of no property above bare necessaries, and delivering his books, if he has any, into the hands of the Deputy Marshal, or Sheriff's Deputy, is exonerated from all demands against him after suffering three months' imprisonment. Any person leaving the island must give three weeks' notice on account of creditors. The parishes, which are more like counties as to their extent, are under the supervision or government of a chief magistrate (termed the *Custos Rotularum*) and bench of justices, who hold sessions of the peace

every month, and Courts of Common Pleas, for trying actions to the extent of 20*l.*; debts not exceeding 40*s.* are determined by a single justice. Each parish has a rector and church officers, according to the number of churches or chapels in the parish; the vestries consist of the *Custos*, two magistrates, ten vestrymen, and the rector (the vestrymen are elected annually by the freeholders); the vestries have the power of assessing and appropriating local taxes, allot labourers for repairing the highways, appoint way-wardens, nominate persons called constables for the collection of public and parochial rates, and regulate the police of their several parishes. Their powers correspond with the civil duties of Lord Lieutenant and *Custos Rotulorum* of an English county. There is a Board of Forts and Fortifications, a Board of Public Accounts, and a Board of Public Works, all managed by commissioners. The Council and Assembly are *ex-officio* Commissioners of Correspondence. There is a Coroner appointed for every parish.

MILITARY FORCE.—The military establishment of the island generally comprises the head-quarters of four European regiments of the line; one West India regiment, composed of Caffres or W. Coast African negroes; a strong detachment of Artillery, altogether comprising about 3000 men; and of colonial militia, from 16 to 18,000 men at arms, comprising in *Middlesex County*, a regiment of horse of eleven troops, well equipped and mounted, and nine infantry regiments; in *Surrey County*, a regiment of horse of nine troops, and eight regiments of infantry, with

artillery; in *Cornwall County*, a regiment of horse of six troops, and six regiments of infantry; and to each regiment are attached two field-pieces and a company of artillery; the whole well appointed, and proving a most efficient force in case of internal insurrection or foreign aggression. All white males, from the age of fifteen to sixty, are obliged by law to provide themselves with suitable clothing, and to enlist in either the cavalry or infantry of the militia. Substitutes are not allowed. When on permanent duty (which occurs on the proclaiming of martial law) the militia receive pay 2*s.* 6*d.* a day and rations; arms and ammunition are found by the government. When the militia and line act together, a Lieutenant-Colonel of the latter has the rank and command of a Major-General of the former, a Major of Brigadier-General, and a Captain of Lieutenant-Colonel, &c. The Governor, from his rank, holds the chief command, but having a Major-General under him in every district to whom the duties of reviews, &c. are delegated. The staff appointments are numerous, consisting of one Adjutant-General, two Assistant ditto, and two Deputy ditto ditto, a Quarter-Master-General, and three deputies; a Muster-Master-General, and three deputies; a Judge-Advocate-General, and three deputies; an Inspector-General of Hospitals; a Surgeon-General, Physician-General, &c. There is a Major-Commandant of Artillery for each county. There is also a City Guard, which was instituted 28th July, 1783. It consists of two Lieutenants, two Serjeants, and forty-four privates, all well paid. An extensive police-force is now organized for the whole island.

The following are the provisions of the bill, as it passed the House of Assembly:—It appoints an Inspector-General with 1200*l.* per annum for salary, rent, stationery, &c., without any allowance for forage of horses. It provides that when Stipendiary Magistrates are appointed County Inspectors, they shall only be entitled to half salary, or 250*l.* per annum each. It allows 3,500*l.* per annum for barracks, barrack furniture, water, wood, &c., and places the money at the disposal of the Executive, the Receiver-General to lay before the House annually an account of the sums drawn by the former, on account of the police. There is to be no mounted police; but the Executive is authorised, in case of necessity, to employ persons to carry despatches, at a rate not exceeding 15*s.* per diem. Provision is made for the policemen who may happen to be injured or killed in the service, for their widows and children. It also empowers the Executive to enlist men for any period under five years. The cost of the establishment will be about 80,000*l.* per annum.

A vaccine establishment at Kingston is presided over by a physician as director, with a sufficient number of district vaccinators.

The following detail shows the strength of the *European* troops employed in Jamaica, the number of deaths, and the annual ratio of decrement by death per cent per annum, from the year 1818 to 1828 inclusive; by which it will be observed that, in 1828, the ratio of loss was small, owing to the judicious arrangements of Sir James M'Gregor, seconded by the Medical Staff.

Years.	Strength.	Deceased.	Loss.	Ratio of	Years.	Strength.	Deceased.	Loss.	Ratio of
1812	- 4326	- 474	-	9.8	1822	- 2400	- 441	-	18.3
3	- 4128	- 371	-	8.9	3	- 2476	- 155	-	6.2
4	- 3902	- 322	-	8.2	4	- 3150	- 235	-	7.4
5	- 4331	- 336	-	7.7	5	- 2644	- 777	-	29.3
6	- 4235	- 434	-	10.2	6	- 2237	- 176	-	7.3
7	- 4322	- 317	-	7.3	7	- 3083	- 636	-	20.6
8	- 3025	- 230	-	7.6	8	- 2700	- 192	-	7.1
9	- 2969	- 754	-	25.4					
20	- 2546	- 301	-	11.8	Mean	- 3267	- 438	-	13.3
1	- 2865	- 310	-	10.6					

The following Official Return shows the number of various ranks of the Military Forces stationed in Jamaica since 1816. The strength, mortality, and centesimal ratio of mortality of the British Troops employed in Jamaica and Honduras, as also of the Colonial Troops employed in Jamaica, Honduras, and the Windward and Leeward Islands, from 1810 to 1828, was

TROOPS OF THE LINE.				COLONIAL TROOPS (Afr.)		
Years.	Strength.	Deaths.	Ratio of Deaths.	Strength.	Deaths.	Ratio of Deaths.
1810	2,952	371	12.5	4,841	163	3.3
1811	3,006	413	13.7	4,610	291	6.3
1812	3,131	504	16.0	5,143	281	5.4
1813	2,878	402	13.9	4,898	325	6.6
1814	3,621	341	9.4	3,661	266	7.2
1815	3,129	374	11.9	5,727	325	5.6
1816	4,483	459	10.2	5,319	450	8.4
1817	2,179	321	14.7	2,584	180	7.0
1818	1,956	207	10.5	2,299	98	3.9
1819	1,910	800	41.8	1,528	123	8.0
1820	1,788	295	16.5	1,414	59	4.1
1821	2,116	446	21.0	1,321	48	3.6
1822	2,128	311	14.6	1,306	65	5.0
1823	2,086	174	8.3	1,229	56	4.9
1824	2,500	251	10.0	1,185	22	1.8
1825	1,697	302	47.2	995	29	3.0
1826	2,110	165	7.8	1,108	44	4.0
1827	2,132	640	30.0	1,163	54	4.6
1828	2,243	184	8.2	1,403	59	4.2
Total....	48,045	7460		56,734	2,938	
Mean of 19 years	2,528	392	15.5	2,783	153	5.5

Return of the Numbers and Distribution of the Effective Force, Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers, and Rank and File, of the British Army, including Colonial Corps, in each year since 1815; including Artillery and Engineers :—

Years.	OFFICERS PRESENT, OR ON DUTY AT THE STATIONS.										Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.	Black Pioneers.	
	Colonels.	Lieut.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Pay-Masters.	Adjutants.	Quart.-Masters.	Surgeons.					Asstt.-Surgs.
25 Jan.															
1816	1	2	5	30	86	12	4	3	5	5	8	248	92	3710	272
17	1	5	7	40	92	37	3	5	6	5	10	282	114	4193	308
18	1	3	5	29	59	23	1	3	2	3	9	190	78	2819	217
19	1	3	6	20	44	19	3	2	2	1	6	163	73	2408	230
20	—	2	2	22	30	20	2	2	2	2	4	123	82	1924	236
21	—	5	4	26	42	21	5	3	4	4	3	130	82	2135	218
22	—	1	3	20	32	18	4	3	3	4	3	117	71	2027	110
23	—	3	6	18	27	20	4	4	4	4	4	101	43	2139	96
24	—	3	5	17	22	23	5	4	4	2	5	106	42	2015	165
25	—	3	3	24	34	20	4	4	4	4	5	133	54	2406	238
26	—	2	3	21	20	6	6	3	4	4	5	124	30	1625	228
27	—	3	5	16	28	18	5	3	2	—	6	123	40	1785	226
28	—	4	3	22	37	14	4	3	5	5	4	131	45	2087	206
29	—	4	4	22	32	18	4	3	4	6	4	126	47	2193	214
30	—	5	5	32	40	17	6	2	5	3	6	160	55	2354	234
1 Jan.															
1831	—	3	3	25	32	17	4	2	5	3	4	149	54	2474	224
32	—	3	3	23	18	15	2	3	3	2	5	109	40	1725	194
33	—	5	5	33	41	18	4	5	5	4	6	136	47	2180	—

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.—The annual income, or ways and means of the island, on an average of ten years, ending 1831, was as follows :—

Poll Tax (at 5s. 10d. per head on Slaves, and 2s. per head on stock, exempting Working Stock on Plantations), Rents at 1s. 8d. in the £, and Wheat at 20s. £105,000	On Goods from United States - £31,000
Tax on Transient Traders - - - 150	Surplus of Revenue 8,300
Arrears of former Years' Taxes - 3,000	Stamp Duty - 19,000
Land Tax - - - 23,700	For Arms and Gunpowder - - 900
Deficiency Tax - 14,000	Balance of Cash 30th September, 1830 147,945
Rum duty - - - 24,000	Duty on Cattle imported - - 1,000
Additional Duty on Wines and Spirits 15,000	Tonnage Duty on Ships to pay Custom House Salaries - - - 25,000
Tea Duty - - - 1,400	Loan to be raised - 50,000
Duties on Goods from Foreign Ports - - - 4,800	Debts due to Public on Judgments - 500
	Double Duties received by Officers of Customs and refunded - - 15,048

Excluding the shillings and pence (as given in the Parliamentary Return) the total ways and means thus given for Jamaica in 1831, is 489,743*l.* The return is certainly not a very explicit one, and it is difficult, if not indeed impossible, to ascertain the actual state of taxes in the island, and the nature of their bearing or operation on commerce.

Jamaica Expenditure (as laid before Parliament in the return whence the foregoing statement is derived) defrayed by the Island in 1831 :—

Governor - - -	£5,500	Alien and Bonding	
Chief Justice - -	4,000	Office - - -	£ 600
Assistant Judges -	3,400	Island Agent - -	2,542
Speaker of Assembly	1,400	Captains of Forts -	669
Governor's Secretary	3,000	Officers of Assembly	6,146
Officers of his Majesty's Customs -	23,390	Island Botanist -	560
Clergy of Established Church ¹ -	23,593	Engineer and Surveyor of Public Works - - -	740
Ditto Presbyterian ²	1,201	Storekeeper - - -	500
Ditto Roman Catholic ³ - - -	200	Receiver-General ..	7,000
Charitable Institutions - - -	14,656	Law Expences and Gaols - - -	14,874
Army Expences -	157,032	Roads, Bridges, and Public Buildings	25,850
Clerk of Supreme Court and Provost Marshal - - -	1,160	Printing - - -	7,159
Secretary of Commissioners of Public Accounts -	1,000	Militia Arms and Gunpowder - - -	8,594
Secretary of Ditto Correspondents -	300	Board of Works -	8,890
Clerk of Board of Works - - -	400	Premium on Increase Slaves -	8,120
Commissioners of Stamps - - -	1,550	Registry and Vestry Returns - - -	5,378
Deputy Receiver-General and Secretary at the Outports - - -	1,560	Maroons and Superintendent of Maroon Towns -	2,030
Marshals of Militia Regiments - - -	1,050	Miscellaneous -	10,000
		Interest on Public Loans - - -	16,900
			<hr/>
			370,000

¹ Curates' stipends, 8000*l.*; Rectors' ditto, 11,718*l.*; Registrar and Appositor to the Diocese, 475*l.*; Annuitants, being widows and orphans of the Clergy, 2000*l.*; Expences of building chapels, 1400*l.*—Total 23,593*l.*

² Presbyterian Institutions, 301*l.*; Support of Kirk in Kingston, 700*l.*; Presbyterian Charity Schools, 200*l.*—1201*l.*

³ Pay, 14,000*l.*; Contingent Accounts, 20,645*l.*; Rations, 72,000*l.*; Ditto to 1st April, 1831, 35,700*l.*; Repairs of Bar-

The Jamaica budget for 1832 gives the taxes and internal duties at 207,367*l.*; duties on vessels and cargoes, 95,970*l.*; the certificates in circulation were 399,205*l.*¹; and the loan certificates, including 64,415*l.* loan deposits, was 250,035*l.* Of the expenditure, the *military* amounts to 184,143*l.* besides 222,729*l.* for the general defence of the island, of which 176,691*l.* was incurred for martial law in 1832. The civil expenditure was 85,078*l.* of which 15,544*l.* was for interest. On a general view it may be stated that the annual public revenue of Jamaica is 300,000*l.*; and the vestry, or parish, or local taxation of the different counties, a nearly similar sum. Mr. Burge says—"The annual expenditure of Jamaica is 489,849*l.*; to this must be added 10,000*l.* which is annually raised, and is a perpetual revenue granted to the Crown, and made applicable to the orders of the Governor in Council, and over which the House of Assembly exercises no superintending control." It was given in evidence before Parliament in 1832, by the same authority, that "the island of Jamaica sustains the whole burden of its Government, with the exception of the salary of the

racks, 10,483*l.*; Lodgings for Officers, 2,090*l.*; Island Pay, ditto, 997*l.*; Sundry Wharfage, Water, &c. for Troops, 1115*l.*
Total, 157,032*l.*

¹ The distribution of the certificates in circulation, from 1822 to the year 1832, is as follows:—Of 1822, 645*l.*; 1825, 6,535*l.*; 1826, 41,203*l.*; 1827, 79,928*l.*; 1828, 61,741*l.*; 1829, 39,965*l.*; 1830, 96,499*l.*; 1831, 10,825*l.*; 1832, 12,000*l.*; and of 1832, comprising 1*l.* 2*s.* and 3*d.* certificates in circulation was, 49,864*l.* The legal rate of interest is six per cent.; the Government borrow at five.

Bishop; every other species of its expenditure, including its ecclesiastical, military, and civil establishments, are defrayed by the island itself." The poll-tax on slaves heretofore formed the largest item of the public income. How the amount is in future to be supplied, has not been devised. So far from Jamaica and other of the colonies being a drain on the *home* exchequer, it will be seen that they add considerably to the *national* exchequer; this one island alone contributing nearly half a million of money per annum!

CHAPTER VI.

COMMERCE—SHIPPING—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—MONETARY
SYSTEM—STATE OF THE EXCHANGES—VALUE OF PRO-
PERTY, &c.

COMMERCE.—The trade of this important island is very considerable, and principally confined to the mother country. Its maritime worth will be seen by the following return of Jamaica Shipping :—

	SHIPPING INWARDS.							
	From Great Britain.		From British Colonies.		From Foreign States.		Total Inwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1822	271	79,925	179	24,007	387	28,816	837	132,748
1832	155	68,356	59	8,554	110	15,938	324	89,187

	SHIPPING OUTWARDS.							
	To Great Britain.		To British Colonies.		To Foreign States.		Total Outwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1822	310	96,193	151	22,241	406	33,176	875	151,610
1832	177	56,448	63	8,464	96	9,577	336	74,488

The statistics of Jamaica are very deficient, and I am obliged to procure documents from any source. The following shipping return is from a board of trade manuscript; I give six years not stated in the foregoing table:—

SHIPPING INWARDS.											
From Great Britain.		From Brit. Colonies.		From Unit. States.		From For. States.		Total Inwards.			
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.	
1823	322	97,597	136	16,349	266	30,967	277	18,375	1,001	163,188	10,087
1824	258	79,219	143	16,183	263	36,785	248	17,383	912	149,572	9,060
1825	274	84,740	105	12,537	179	24,966	218	15,874	776	138,037	8,404
1828	300	93,087	145	23,043			248	21,050	693	137,186	8,177
1829	240	75,541	163	22,974			269	25,687	674	124,203	7,948
1830	263	68,700	172	25,491			280	25,530	715	120,721	

SHIPPING OUTWARDS.											
To Great Britain.		To British Colonies.		To United States.		To Foreign States.		Total Outwards.			
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.	
1823	274	86,825	131	15,038	219	25,548	309	23,942	933	151,353	9,369
1824	301	92,779	141	15,052	260	35,635	238	17,645	940	161,111	9,563
1825	253	73,588	117	13,260	162	22,182	232	17,614	764	131,644	7,899
1828	277	86,532	138	19,939			285	28,610	700	135,101	8,610
1829	287	87,729	145	18,205			256	24,454	688	130,388	6,983
1830	290	87,480	154	21,766			255	21,501	699	130,747	

The staple produce of the island has been given, for the two last years, in a preceding chapter; the following shows the quantity of Sugar, Rum, and other produce, exported from the island of Jamaica, from the year ending 29th September, 1800, to the year ending 29th September, inclusive, 1829; extracted from the journals of the House of Assembly at Jamaica:—

Years.	Sugar.			Rum.		Molasses.	Ginger.		Pimento.		Coffee.
	Hoagheads.	Tierces.	Barrels.	Punc.	Hograh.	Casks.	Bags.	Casks.	Bags.	Casks.	Lbs.
1800	96,347	13,549	1631	37,166	1550	—	444	444	12,759	610	11,116,474
1801	123,251	18,704	2032	48,679	1514	—	239	239	14,084	648	13,401,466
1802	122,544	15,405	2403	45,632	2078	386	2979	23	7,793	591	17,961,928
1803	107,357	11,825	1797	43,998	1416	461	3387	51	14,575	867	15,866,291
1804	103,352	12,802	2207	42,507	943	429	1854	1094	19,572	1,417	22,003,980
1805	137,506	17,977	3682	55,211	1325	471	2128	315	7,157	288	24,137,893
1806	133,598	18,237	3579	56,191	1178	489	1818	485	10,534	1,024	20,293,036
1807	133,173	17,844	3710	51,812	1998	659	1411	512	10,222	525	25,761,188
1808	121,448	15,686	2625	52,409	2196	379	1570	456	6,929	225	22,586,008
1809	164,457	14,596	3524	45,492	2717	250	1772	2331	1,177	24,022	25,883,285
1810	166,703	4,500	3710	42,553	1964	293	1881	520	21,163	4,276	17,460,068
1811	127,751	13,256	3056	44,668	2041	446	2072	1110	22,674	638	17,460,068
1812	105,253	11,357	2558	43,346	1581	151	1235	804	7,778	598	15,481,896
1813	97,458	10,629	2304	44,518	1345	208	1428	816	14,561	1,024	24,023,572
1814	101,846	10,485	2575	43,486	1357	145	1068	884	10,711	864	24,023,572
1815	118,767	12,224	2817	52,296	1465	242	1667	1293	27,560	844	27,869,742
1816	63,881	9,322	2256	35,736	769	165	1118	2334	28,057	851	17,283,293
1817	116,012	11,094	2868	47,949	1094	254	1896	3561	15,817	946	14,794,290
1818	113,818	11,888	2768	50,195	1108	407	1667	2326	21,071	941	25,325,456
1819	108,305	11,322	2474	45,361	1783	253	1718	1714	24,000	882	14,093,493
1820	115,065	11,322	2474	45,361	1783	253	316	1159	12,880	673	24,127,444
1821	111,512	11,703	1972	46,802	1793	107	271	984	1,334	1,334	16,819,761
1822	88,531	8,705	1292	28,728	1124	144	72	891	24,827	690	19,773,992
1823	94,905	9,179	1947	35,242	1935	610	60	1041	21,481	1,894	20,293,645
1824	90,225	9,651	2791	37,121	3381	910	52	2250	33,308	599	27,677,930
1825	75,513	7,880	2358	27,650	2077	694	348	3947	20,979	537	21,254,630
1826	95,073	9,514	3126	35,610	3098	549	517	5724	16,433	522	20,352,836
1827	82,396	7,554	3441	33,848	3099	214	186	4596	2,867,522		25,206,020
1828	81,908	8,724	2810	33,717	3253	283	412	1932	2,473,155		17,247,943
1829	91,150	9,364	3392	36,931	2513	167	319	1333	6,063,127		18,553,722

The intrinsic value of the colony to England is further shown by the returns of the Net Revenue derivable from Imports into the United Kingdom from the island of Jamaica, supposing that the whole of those Imports were to be entered for home consumption for the year 1831 :—

	Duty.		
	£.	s.	d.
1,429,093 Cwts. of Sugar, at 2½s. per Cwt.....	1,714,911	12	0
3,528,632 Galls. of Rum, at 9s. per Gall.	1,567,893	8	0
107 Puns. of Molasses, say 1177 Cwts., at 9s. } per Cwt.	529	13	0
15,644,072 lbs. of Coffee, at 6d. per lb.....	391,101	11	0
1,304 Rs. } 310 Bags } Ginger, say 4,222 Cwts., at 1½s. 6d....	2,427	13	0
4,074,302 lbs. of Pimento, at 5d. per lb.....	1,363	2	0
4,526 Cwts. of Arrow Root, at 1d. per lb.	2,112	2	8
80 Puns. of Lime Juice, say 8000 Galls., at } 0½d. per Gall.....	10	0	0
673 Packages of Sweetmeats, say 6730 lbs., at } 3d. per lb.	84	2	6
279 Bales of Cotton, say 50,220 lbs., at 4d. per lb.	837	0	0
3,182 Hides, say 2000 Cwts., at 4s. 8d. per Cwt. ...	466	13	4
7,361 Tons of Logwood, at 3s. per Ton	1,104	3	0
1,452 Tons of Fustic, at 3s. per Ton	217	16	0
328 Tons of Nicaragua Wood, at 15s. per Ton ...	246	0	0
319 Tons of Lignum Vitæ, at 16s. per Ton.....	159	10	0
244 Tons of Ebony, at 15s. per Ton	183	0	0
2,219 Logs, Mahogany and Cedar, say at 4l. per } Ton	31,000	0	0
1,750 Pieces, Cabinet Wood, &c., say at 3l. 15s. } per Ton	1,466	4	0
29,324 Lance Wood Spars, at 1s. each			
Total.....	3,736,113	10	6

It may be said that England would derive the same revenue, if the articles were imported from a foreign country; but, in such an argument, the fact of both our commerce and revenue being at the mercy of a foreign state, is quite overlooked. A foreign state, for instance, levies a duty on its exports, if at peace with us, and precludes our raising a revenue to any extent on its produce; or if

at war with us, withholds altogether its supplies. I trust that the day is far distant when our colonial commerce will be sacrificed for the imaginary idea of extending a trade with foreign nations.

The following is a statement:—

Description of Goods.	Quantity.	Value in Sterling Money.	
		£.	£.
Arrow Root	lbs. 188,084	7,937
Cinnamon	— 6,689	2,176
Cocos, Colonial.....	— 784	25
— Foreign.....	— 53,835	449
Coffee, Colonial.....	— 16,616,761	516,215
Copper, Old	— 334,853	6,276
Corn, viz. Wheat Flour	Barrels 2,807	3,688
Cotton Manufactures, British, Yards	10,439,959	254,149	
— Foreign	122,930	3,971	
— entered at value, British	1,635	
— Foreign	182	
Total Value of Cotton Manufactures		259,937
Cotton Wool, Colonial.....	lbs. 1,481	17
— Foreign.....	— 18,372	245
Dye and Hardwoods:—			
Fustic, Colonial ..	Tons 231	1,038	
— Foreign ..	— 228	788	
Logwood, Colonial ..	— 7,155	32,071	
— Foreign ..	— 305	1,518	
Mahogany, Colonial ..	Pieces 101	182	
— Foreign ..	Feet 127,889		4,942
	Pieces 879		
Other Dye and	Colonial ..	Tons 424	2,153
	— Foreign ..	Pieces 20	
Hard woods	Foreign ..	Tons 459	4,093
	— Foreign ..	Pieces 181	
Total of Dye and Hard	Feet 127,889		46,785
woods	Tons 8,802		
	Pieces 1,181		
Fruit	Value	481
Ginger	lbs. 548,821	18,149
Hides	Number 18,761	8,195
Indigo.....	lbs. 27,559	5,112
Iron and Steel Manufac- tures, British	Value	15,858
Hardware and Cutlery, Foreign —	20
Lime Juice	Gallons 19,818	968
Carried forward	592,053

Description of Goods.	Quantity.	Value in Sterling Money.	
		£.	£.
Brought forward	892,053
Linen, entered by the } Yard, British	Yards 1,020,533	67,681	
Linen, entered at value	1,107	
— entered by the } Yard, Foreign	Yards 559,249	19,193	
Linen, entered at value	47	
Total Value of Linens	88,018
Molasses	Gallons 78,035	3,901
Pimento	lbs. 4,671,827	81,625
Sarsaparilla	46,937	2,243
Silk Manufactures, British Value	449
— Foreign	97
Spirits, Rum	Gallons 3,641,620	291,736
— Shrub	3,366	272
Succades	3,860
Sugar	lbs. 164,680,028	1,386,017
Tobacco	64,100	844
Tortoiseshell	4,392	855
Wine of all sorts	Gallons 17,538	8,575
Wood, viz. Spars	Number 16,211	5,697
— of other sorts	Value	4,048
Woollens, entered by the } Yard, British	Yards 82,987	7,480	
Woollens, entered at value	56	
Woollens, entered by the } Yard, Foreign	Yards 530	107	
Total Value of Woollen Manu- } factures	7,643
Miscellaneous Articles	Value	27,227
Total Value of Exports from the } Colony	2,814,308

The imports into Jamaica, for the same year, amounted in value to 1,593,317*l.*: of which the cotton manufacture was in value 392,438*l.*; linens, 189,323*l.*; fish, 138,942*l.*; wood and lumber, 93,997*l.*; woollens, 51,793*l.*: the remainder being composed of various articles of food, clothing, and necessaries, of British manufacture.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—The state of the monetary system in the West Indies has heretofore been sadly deficient in management. In no two islands are the denomination and value of the coins alike; and these,

again, vary in proportion to sterling money—thus:

	Sterling.	Currency.	Doll.	Currency.
Jamaica . . .	100 <i>l.</i>	=140 <i>l.</i>	1	=6 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>
Barbadoes . . .	100 <i>l.</i>	135 <i>l.</i>	1	6 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>
Windward Isles, ex- cept Barbadoes . . .	100 <i>l.</i>	175 <i>l.</i>	1	8 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>
Leeward Isles . . .	100 <i>l.</i>	200 <i>l.</i>	1	9 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>

As regards Jamaica, this is the nominal par of exchange. In real transactions of buying or selling bills, the exchange is thus adjusted:—If bills bear a premium, say 20 per cent., then a bill for 100*l.* sterling is said to be equal to 120*l.* sterling: this latter sum, turned into Jamaica currency at 40 per cent., makes a bill for 100*l.* sterling require about 168*l.* currency. The relative value of the currencies of the mother country and colony varies, of course, from this ratio, as bills may at the time bear a higher or lower premium. In Barbadoes, or the other colonies, the currency, as compared with sterling, varies according to the demand for bills.

The real exchange depends on the price which may be paid for a bill of exchange. Sometimes the price or premium has been 22 per cent.; sometimes bills have been at a discount of from 7 to 10 per cent. In the former case, the buyer of the bill pays 20 per cent.; and in the latter he receives from 7 to 20 per cent.

At the established rate of the dollar in Jamaica, 4*s.* 3½*d.* sterling will be equal to 6*s.* currency, or 14*s.* 3½*d.* sterling to 1*l.* currency. The metallic currency in the island is estimated at 100,000*l.* A silver standard and copper coinage for all the West India possessions (of a depreciated value to that of

the English coinage, so as to keep it in the settlements) would probably be productive of considerable benefit. I am glad to find that a West India bank, with its capital and direction in London, has at length been established; it cannot fail to be productive of the most beneficial results.

The paper currency of Jamaica consists of the island checks, issued by the receiver-general, under the orders of the board of accounts, and upon the security of the island and its revenue.

The coins in circulation in the island, of gold and silver, are in weight and value thus:—

	Weight.		Value.		
	dwt.	gr.	£.	s.	d.
Old Spanish Doubloon	17	8	5	6	8 currency.
Half ditto	8	16	2	13	4 —
Pistole (and half pistole)	4	8	1	6	8 —
Gold dollar	1	2	0	6	8 —
Columbian doubloon	—	—	5	6	8 —
Sovereign	—	—	1	13	4 —

Of the *gold* coins, the doubloon is equal to sixteen dollars; pistole to four; joe to sixteen and a half. Of the *silver* coins, the dollar is equal to 6s. 8d. currency; maccaroni, 1s. 8d. ditto; two bits piece, 1s. 3d.; ditto, tenpenny piece, 10d. ditto; pistareen, 7½d. ditto; a bit, ditto.

There were no copper coins current in 1832.

The rates of exchange, at Jamaica, for bills drawn on His Majesty's treasury, payable in gold from January to December, 1832, varied from 20 to 21 per cent. premium; the average being equal to 20½ per cent. premium.

The state of the money market in Kingston, 29th

March, 1834, was:—*Bills of Exchange*. Commissariat, thirty days, 18 per cent. premium, payable in doubloons and dollars; on London, at ninety days, $12\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 per cent. premium; on America, at thirty and sixty days, $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 per cent. premium. *Specie*. Mexican doubloons, 7 per cent. premium—very scarce; Columbian ditto, 2 ditto ditto; dollars, 5 to 6 ditto ditto; small silver, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 ditto ditto.

The various currencies in the different islands, as may be naturally inferred, offer the greatest impediment to commercial intercourse. This is a great evil; but a still greater evil is the state of the exchanges between England and the West Indies, which has caused the constant transmission of any metallic currency, that may be poured into the colonies, to the mother country; thus affecting the body politic in a manner similar to that which a daily or weekly abstraction of blood from the body corporate would have. To remedy these great evils, I proposed, in the former edition of this work, to form a West India bank, with a capital of 1,000,000*l.* sterling, the head-quarters of which shall be in England, and the branches thereof divided among the colonies. Such a measure would equalize or regulate the exchanges, would promote commercial intercourse between each island, and facilitate the operations of the planter, by affording him that accommodation which the country bankers of England give to the farmers and merchants. By drawing bills on England at 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the irresistible temptation to the transmission of the colonial currency to England would be prevented; and by giving an expandible circulating medium as the representative of

value to the colonists, their well-being would be materially promoted. Coupled with this banking system, should be the calling in of all the debased colonial small coin, and the substitution of a sterling currency of shillings, sixpences, and threepences, all in silver. The negroes will not, if possible, touch copper coin. I have no doubt that this measure would prove of infinite value to the West Indian colonies and parent state; and I am happy to find that my suggestion has been adopted, and that a West India bank is now organized.

VALUE OF PROPERTY.—As stated in my former volumes, it is difficult to form a definite idea of the amount of property in any place. Mr. Colquhoun, in 1812, estimated Jamaica thus:—Negroes, 19,250,000*l.*; cultivated lands (809,450 acres), 16,189,000*l.*; uncultivated (1,914,812 acres), 1,914,812*l.*; buildings, utensils, &c. on estates, 12,709,450*l.*; stock on estates, 4,800,000*l.*; houses, stores, merchandize, and furniture, 2,000,000*l.*; colonial shipping, 42,000*l.*; metallic money, 220,000*l.*; forts, barracks, &c., 1,000,000*l.*:—total, 58,125,298*l.* sterling. The same authority estimated the productions *annually* raised, including cattle, esculents, &c. at 11,169,661*l.*; exports to the United Kingdom, 6,885,339*l.*; and to the other places, 384,322*l.* It will be observed, therefore, that in the following statement I have undervalued the yearly creation and total amount of property in Jamaica:—

Nature and Value of Property annually created, moveable and immoveable, in Sterling Money¹, (1834).

¹ Mr. Bridges estimates the "internal value and intrinsic cost of Jamaica" in 1826, thus:—Slaves, 24,000,000*l.*; lands

Property annually Created or Prepared.

Sugar, 1,500,000 cwts., at 20s., 1,500,000l.; Rum, 3,000,000 gallons, at 1s. 6d., 225,000l.; Molasses, 50,000 gallons, at 10d., 2,033l.; Coffee, 20,000,000 lbs., at 7d., 500,033l.; Pimento, 5,000,000 lbs., at 4d., 83,000l.; Cotton, 50,000 lbs., at 6d., 1,250l.; Vegetable Food, at 3l.¹ per annum each, 1,200,000l.; Animal Food and Fish, at 5l. per annum each, 2,000,000l.; Domestic Manufactures—Carpentering, Tailoring, Smithing, &c., 2,000,000l.; Income and Sundries, 1,000,000l.

Property Moveable and Immoveable.

Land: Acres cultivated or patented², 2,240,000, at 10l., 22,400,000l.; Acres ungranted, or waste, 2,000,000, at 5s., 500,000l. Public Property, viz., Forts, Barracks, Roads, Wharfs, Hospitals, Gaols, Buildings, &c., 10,000,000l. Domestic Property: Dwelling Houses, Stores, Furniture, Plate, Clothes, Equipages, &c., 5,000,000l.; Horned Cattle, Horses, Sheep, Swine, Poultry, &c., 1,000,000l.; Machinery, Agricultural and Manufacturing Implements, Ships, Boats, Roads, &c., 5,000,000l. Metallic Money in Circulation, 100,000l.

Total Amount of Annually Created Property, 8,581,283l.

Total Amount of Moveable and Immoveable Property, 44,900,000l.³

patented, 18,000,000l.; forts and barracks, 1,000,000l.; private buildings, 12,000,000l.; stock, &c., 5,000,000l.; gold and silver coin, 200,000l.:—total, 60,200,000l. sterling. There seems to be no calculation for roads, wharfs, bridges, and other items.

¹ I take the total population of Jamaica at 400,000; some say it is nearer 500,000.

² There are 2,235,732 acres of land in Jamaica for which quit rents are paid to the crown. Mr. Burge thinks that at least 2,000,000 acres are cultivated.

³ Taking the number of slaves in the island, in round numbers, at 300,000, and valuing them at 30l. each, there would be a sum of 9,000,000l. to add to this. Happily, however, it is no longer necessary to make such calculations.

CHAPTER VII.

RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND THE PRESS—FUTURE PROSPECTS, &c.

RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND THE PRESS.—I connect the three foregoing subjects under one head, because they are intimately blended with each other. The press is unshackled by stamp duties, and on the increase; there are seven newspapers (two daily and five weekly) in the island, all well conducted, and displaying considerable talent; every class of the community has its public organ, and there is, perhaps, less petty feeling and faction displayed than in many journals of the Mother Country. The names of the newspapers are, the *Kingston Chronicle*, *Jamaica Courant*, the *Isonomist*, the *Despatch*, the *Watchman*, the *Cornwall Chronicle*, and the *Cornwall Standard*. There are two gazettes, the *Royal*, and the *St. Jago de la Vega*, weekly. The price of a paper is about 5*l.* currency per annum. The Jamaica almanac stands much in need of reform; it is more barren of general information than those of some of the smallest islands in the West Indies. Those of 1832 and 1833 have in some degree improved. Education is rapidly progressing under the aid of the local government, as well as with the assistance of private individuals.

In the expenditure budget of the island for 1831, there is nearly 10,000*l.* allotted for free schools¹. In 1821, the public or free schools and scholars were—Schools, 23; Male Scholars, 1125; Female, 912; Total, 2037. In 1827 the number of scholars was 3500. In 1832 the number of public or free Schools was 46; of Male Scholars, 1346; of Females, 982; Total, 2,328. The number of private Schools was 123.

The efforts for the extension of religion have been great; whether they have produced a beneficial effect as yet it is difficult to say. The outlay by the colonial government for the purpose is considerable, viz. nearly 25,000*l.* per annum (vide Expenditure). The bishop of Jamaica (whose see extends over the Bahamas and Honduras) has 4000*l.* sterling per annum, and the archdeacon 2000*l.* ditto. There are twenty-one rectors, and altogether of clergymen of the established church fifty-seven. The Scots Presbyterian clergymen are in number four, the Wesleyan ditto about twenty-four, at fifty stations, with 144 teachers; the baptist ditto seventeen, at forty-three stations; and the Moravian nineteen, at seven stations. The crown livings in Jamaica were in the gift of the governor, in virtue of his station as such, but are now in that of the bishop. The established church clergy are paid partly by a stipend, partly by fees. Take for instance the parish of St. Ann's, as an example; acres, 235,260; slaves, 24,761; pro-

¹ The Jamaica free school has 1,620*l.*; Wolmer's ditto, 1500*l.*; Vere ditto, 1120*l.*; and so on.

priectors, 47. 6. ; stipend, 378*l.* ; fees, average, 200*l.* ; vestry allowances, average, 400*l.* ; church burials, 50*l.* ; total, 1028*l.* with thirty acres of glebe and an island curate. Some parishes have a large glebe ; thus, St. Elizabeth's has 300 acres of glebe, a rectory, and 68 slaves, and the income is—stipend, 378*l.* ; fees, 245*l.* ; burials, 50*l.* ; total, 673*l.*, and the aid of an island curate and auxiliary. The Rev. Mr. Bridges says, that the average annual expenditure of Jamaica of late years, for her ecclesiastical establishment, has not fallen far short of 30,000*l.* (an immense sum for so small a country). He gives the rectors' stipends at 8820*l.*, the curates' salaries, 10,550*l.*, the aggregate vestry allowances, 3430*l.*, and the average sum drawn from the inhabitants for surplice fees, 5372*l.*, independent of the annual expenditure in maintaining thirty-nine churches and chapels. Pluralities are not permitted, and the slave (or as he is now termed, the apprentice) is entitled to *demand* the gratuitous services of the clergy ; these facts speak volumes in favour of the long calumniated colonists. I would earnestly urge on the colonists the necessity of giving every possible encouragement to the missionaries and clergymen of the different persuasions of religion. The destruction of the Baptists' Chapels was an event greatly to be deplored, but the donations, gifts, and contributions of 25,000*l.* for the use of the Baptists demonstrates the warm interest felt for the spiritual enlightenment of the negro.

FUTURE PROSPECTS.—The transition which society is now undergoing in all our slave colonies renders

it impracticable to say much on this head: judging from the past, and from the temper with which the slave emancipation bill was passed, a less gloomy, if not a more happy augury, than has been indulged in may be formed for the future. The condition of the slave population has long been undergoing amelioration, and the coloured colonists have been admitted to those rights, and to that position in society to which their talents, wealth, and conduct might entitle them; no political or religious disabilities exist: the progress of liberal institutions has been sufficiently gradual to allow of their taking permanent root, and affording that constitutional freedom which is the result of order, security of person, and the safe enjoyment of property. The Kingston Commercial Advertiser thus temperately comments on the new state of things:—"The fate of the colony is now sealed, whether it be good or evil. Whether its resources will be developed, or its present means be totally annihilated, the revolution of time can alone fully determine. Prudence, self-preservation, and expediency, loudly proclaim the necessity of employing means for rendering the changes now recognized and legalized by the Legislature of Jamaica conducive to the public good. A great duty lies before us, which is to rightly inform the negro mind, and prepare him for performing those duties to himself, his neighbour, his master, and the country, so essential to the welfare of all, and to the peace and happiness of society."

I look not despondingly on the prospects of Jamaica, or the other West India islands or possessions;

on the contrary I think (as indeed has been demonstrated by Mr. Ward, in reference to the cultivation of sugar on the South American continent), that the abolition of one of the direst curses with which mankind was ever afflicted will place society on a surer basis, and give renewed stimulus and energy to every one possessed of property; and when we reflect that out of upwards of 4,000,000 acres in Jamaica, only 2,235,732 are occupied, and with only *fifty-six* mouths to a square mile, (Barbadoes has 816!) we see what ample scope there is for a development of social prosperity and happiness. Lord Belmore justly observed, that the capabilities of this fine island would never be brought forward until slavery was abolished. In this sentence his Lordship doubtless alluded to the introduction of free white labourers¹. There are very many articles which might be largely cultivated and prepared in Jamaica, that would yield a more profitable return than sugar, such for instance as pepper, ginger, nutmeg, and various spices; silk, indigo, cotton, drugs, opium, and dye stuffs. But Jamaica, and our other possessions in the West India islands, have a right to demand from the mother country a reduction of the present enormous duties levied on their produce, particularly in respect to the article sugar, which is upwards of 100*l.* per cent. The colonists of this island, in common with their brethren throughout the Western possessions, have ever distinguished themselves by loyalty

¹ See vol. ii. of the large edition of the "History of the British Colonies," for a general view of the West India Colonies.

and attachment to the mother country in times of difficulty and distress,—let that country now exercise common justice to her colonies, and they will prove, even more than they have yet done, a bulwark of maritime strength for England, a mine of commercial wealth, and the salvation and happiness of millions of the human race.

BOOK II.
HONDURAS.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY, AREA, BOUNDARIES—HISTORY, &c.

THE British settlement of Honduras, in the province of Yucutan, is situate in the southern part of the North American continent, between the parallels of 17 and 19 north latitude, and 88 to 90 west longitude, on a peninsula extending from the west side of the Bay of Honduras (that either gives or takes its name from the settlement) to the sea, northwardly, forming the Bay of Campeachy on the west, and the Bay of Honduras on the east side of the peninsula, the coast here extending about 270 miles; but the inland boundaries are ill-defined. According to Henderson, the line which includes the settlement commences at the mouth of the Rio-Grande, or Hondo, whose course it follows; and afterwards runs parallel with for thirty miles; then, turning south,

passes through the New River Lake, in a straight line, to the river Balize, up which it ascends for a considerable distance; and then again proceeds south, till it reaches the head of the Sibun, whose windings it pursues to the sea-coast; the whole settlement embracing an area of 62,750 square miles. The Mosquito shore (the Indians of which are in alliance with, and, in some respects, subject to, the crown of Great Britain) extends from Cape Gracias a Dios, southerly, to Punta Gorda and St. Juan's river; north-west and westerly, to Romain river; and south-east, beyond Boco del Toro to Coclee or Coli, near the river Chagre and Porto Bello. The bay reaches from Cape Catoche, in 21.31, the north point of the peninsula of Yucutan, to Cape Honduras, in 16 south latitude and 86 west longitude. From thence the coast, comprehending Cape Gracias a Dios, and extending between 500 and 600 miles to the mouth of the Rio de San Juan, as it flows from the Nicaragua lake, is known by the name of the Mosquito shore. Within these limits lie the settlements which have been considered the dependencies of Jamaica.

HISTORY.—The Honduras was discovered by Columbus in 1502; the Spanish term Hondura, signifying depth, was then given to the coast by its discoverers, from the great depth of water along the shore. Its period of early settlement is very vague. At first it was occasionally resorted to by mahogany and other wood-cutters, whose chief place of residence was then a small island called St. George's Key, about nine miles to the north-east of

the town of Balize, the present capital of the settlement. The first *regular* establishment of British log-wod cutters was made at Cape Cartoche by some Jamaica adventurers, whose numbers increased so that, in a short time, they occupied as far south as the river Balize, in the Bay of Honduras, and as far west as the island of Triste and the Laguna de los Terminos, adjacent to Campeachy. The territorial jealousy of the Spaniards was soon roused, and the governor of Campeachy fitted out several expeditions against the logwood-cutters, in which he not only failed, but, on two occasions, in 1659 and 1678, the cutters actually took possession of the town of Campeachy, without a single cannon, and aided only by the seamen engaged in the trade.

By a treaty concluded with Spain in 1670, by Sir W. Godolphin, the seventh article generally, though not specifically, embraced the territorial right of British occupancy at Honduras; and, in consequence, the English population fast augmented, the number of whites (no negroes were introduced) being then 1700. The jealousy of the Spanish monarch at the success of the English led to a renewed discussion of the territorial right of our settlers, which the imbecile ministers of the pusillanimous Charles II. so far admitted as to direct the governor of Jamaica (Sir Thomas Lynch), in 1671, to inquire into the same; and had it not been for the spirited and patriotic conduct of Sir Thomas Lynch, the conduct of Spain would have been sanctioned by the court of St. James. The Spaniards, at all events, determined to drive the woodmen from the Campeachy shore; and, by 1680,

they succeeded in confining the English to the limits now occupied.

From this period the establishments on the other side of Cape Cartoche were entirely abandoned by the settlers. In 1718, the Spaniards sent a large force to try to dispossess the English from the Balize river, as they had done from the opposite coast; but the boldness of the logwood-cutters deterred the Castilians, who contented themselves with erecting a fortification in the north-west branch, of which they held possession for a few years, and finally abandoned it. The logwood-cutters were left for thirty-six years in peace, until the attack on Truxillo by the English, in 1742, which led to the long-projected expedition of 1754, to exterminate the latter from Honduras. By the treaty of peace, in 1763, the Spaniards were compelled to give a formal permission of occupancy to the British colonists, though they subsequently endeavoured to annul it.

The Spaniards made another attack on the settlements, in 1779, destroyed a great deal of property, and marched off many of the English settlers of both sexes, blindfolded and in irons, to Merida, the capital of Yucutan, and thence shipped them to the Havana, where they were kept in captivity until 1782; but, in 1784, a commission from the crown of Spain was authorized "to make a formal delivery to the British nation of *the lands allotted* for the cutting of logwood," &c. It is necessary to state this explicitly, because many persons are not only ignorant whether Honduras is an island or part of the continent, but very many, who are aware of the position

of the settlements, think the British have merely a right to logwood and mahogany cutting in the Bay of Honduras, and that it is not a territorial occupancy of the British crown, which, in fact, it is, as much as Jamaica or any other settlement. The last Spanish attack on the settlements was during the war in 1798, and consisted of an expedition of 3,000 men, under the command of Field Marshal O'Neil, who was gallantly repulsed by the "Bay Men," (as the Honduras settlers are termed,) for which they received the thanks of His Majesty.

Nothing further worth mentioning occurs in the history of the settlement.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY—SOIL AND CLIMATE.

THE sea-coast of our territory at the Bay of Honduras is flat, and the shore studded with low and verdant isles (keys); from the land the coast gradually rises into a bold and lofty country, interspersed with rivers and lagoons, and covered with the noblest forests.

The town of Balize (called by the Spaniards *Valize*, corrupted from the original Wallis, the noted buccaneer), the capital of the Honduras settlement, is divided into two parts by the river Balize, which empties itself by two mouths in a tortuous manner into the sea, at the western side of the Honduras Bay, where, as before observed, the shore is extremely flat, with numerous keys or small islands, dispersed along the coast, and densely covered with trees or shrubs, so exactly resembling each other as to puzzle the most experienced sailor, and rendering navigation exceedingly difficult. That part of Balize which is situate on the south, or right bank of the river, along the eastern edge of a point of land, is completely insulated by a canal on its western side which runs across from a small arm of the sea, and bounds the town on its south side.

The number of houses is nearly 500, many of them convenient, well built, spacious, and even

elegant; they are chiefly constructed of wood, and raised 10 feet from the ground. The streets are regular, running parallel north and south, and intersected by others, the main one running in a north-east direction (to a bridge crossing the river and facing the chief quays and wharfs) from the government house, which is situate on the south-east point or angle of the island, on the right bank of the river, and bounded on the south and east by the sea. The church is situated behind the government house on the east side of the main street, and the whole town is shaded by groves and avenues of the coconut and tamarind trees. The bridge which connects the northern to the southern town was built in 1818; its span is 220 feet, the width 20. It is constructed entirely of timber, and rests on coppered piles of wood, which are found in abundance in this country, remarkable for their durability; indeed, the slowness with which they yield to decomposition, may almost entitle them to the appellation imperishable. Government gave 1000*l.* sterling towards the expense of erecting it. The entire is well compacted, and secured by balustrades on either side. The appearance of this building from the Balize roads is very pleasing; the thick forests of evergreen, with which the banks of the river are dotted, form a rich back scene, and the many objects of various characters representing commerce and recreation, dispersed on either side, form a picture of no inconsiderable interest. To the north of Balize is an extensive morass, three miles in circumference, now being drained. Fort George is situate about half a mile

from the river, on a small islet; it is low, 600 feet long and 200 broad, principally formed of the ballast from the shipping, every vessel being obliged to deposit a portion of ballast proportioned to its tonnage. The Light House of Honduras, situate on *Half Moon Key*, or Isle, is about 43 miles east by south, southerly from Balize. Like all the islands with which the Bay of Honduras is studded, Half Moon Key appears at a distance flat, but, on a nearer approach, it is found to be more elevated than the keys in the neighbourhood. In 1821, the *lighthouse* was erected on the north-east point, the most elevated on the island, which is a rocky promontory, nearly 30 feet above the low water mark; and from its base, which is 22 feet square, to the lanthorn it rises about 50 feet. It is in lat. 17.12 N. and long 87.28 W. It is built in a pyramidal form to within nine or ten feet of the top. There is a fixed reflected line from sun-set to sun-rise, for which the public of Honduras allow the contractor the sum of 400*l.* currency per annum. By day the lighthouse, being painted white, serves as an excellent beacon. In former periods this island was much resorted to, and at several periods was the residence of the buccaneers when they infested these seas. There are many traditions of treasures having been buried here by them when closely pursued by the Spaniards, which have induced some individuals to search in the hope of a discovery; but as yet every trial has proved unsuccessful, notwithstanding a superstition which accredits the nocturnal visit of a spectre, who, though in guise of

a mutilated mortal, yet, in an unearthly horridness, appears to guard them at the hour described by Burns, as

'Of night's black arch the keystone.'

It is to be feared that every attempt to recover the supposed wealth will be, as heretofore, unavailing. This key is now the chief residence of the branch pilots. They are a set of men remarkable for their abstemious habits, activity, and humanity on all occasions; and there hardly can be remembered an instance of their deviation from duty. The aspect of the interior is worthy of notice. The falls in different parts of the river are extremely grand, and the scenery along the banks really sublime; as a specimen the river and lagoon of Manatee, situated ten leagues south of Balize, may be selected. At about a mile from the mouth of the river, is a magnificent sheet of water, usually denominated the Lagoon, which extends in a northerly direction for several leagues. The surrounding scenery is very romantic, embracing immense mountains, which descend in many places to its margin, and intersected by valleys opening into woody ranges of vast extent, possessed almost solely by wild herds of various animals, such as the tiger, antelope, armadillo, quash, opossum, racoon, and several species of deer; among the last named, the velvet deer is much esteemed for its soft and delicate flavour. The sportsman also finds ample amusement among the feathered tribe, as quails, plover, pigeons, pheasants, and wild turkeys, are abundant in these regions of silence.

Among these vast ridges, where no stream flows to cool the parched earth, nature, ever bountiful to all her creatures, has placed large marshy spots, or shallow ponds, the banks of which are frequented by the wild duck and almost every species of aquatic bird. These ponds contain vast quantities of fish during the greatest part of the year; but at the season of drought their situation may be easily discovered by the traveller at a great distance, from the quantity of sea-fowl which hover over them to prey upon the putrid fish that have been destroyed by the evaporation of the waters. At this season the alligator¹ also travels to these marshes to partake of the fish thus yearly provided. It is very singular that many of those ponds, scattered through the flat country, which have no apparent communication with each other, should annually abound with the same species of fish. The lake, or lagoon of Manatee, is supplied in the wet season by innumerable rivulets; but, during the dry months, by three streams only, viz. Corn Creek, Plantation Creek, and the Main River, which empty themselves into it. Although they are called creeks, they extend so far into the

¹ This extraordinary animal leaves his usual residence, and goes inland to partake of the fish yearly provided as above detailed. He wanders these trackless wilds, from one pond to another, in search of fish, and not unfrequently has been seen many miles in the interior. Notwithstanding the strength of this terrific animal, such is the awe of man with which the most powerful creatures are filled, that he seems timid, from the extreme caution with which he pursues his course, and, by the motionless posture in which he lies, he shows his desire to remain unnoticed if he hears the least noise.

interior that their sources are unknown to the British settlers. The banks of the river are picturesque, and divested of that sameness which marks most of the rivers on this coast. About a mile from the lake is an establishment of disbanded soldiers, from the black regiments that were broken up on the late peace. They have cleared a considerable spot of ground, and constitute the only regular settlement that could be formed by these Africans.

Eight to ten miles from the lakes the rapids begin, and the high rocky banks of the river wear a delightful appearance—a little further on (it is thus vaguely stated by the Honduras almanack) there is an extensive cataract, about a quarter of a mile in length, and of considerable acclivity. A cluster of beautiful caves, through which the river winds its way, and beneath which the traveller must pass, is next arrived at. These magnificent natural excavations of the mountains are semi-circular at the entrance, and about five yards in diameter. Within the cave the arch rises to the height of 100 feet, and leads to another low arch, which, being passed, a second cavern of large size opens, beyond which is a third, with a circular orifice, through which the river enters. During the floods the mouths of the caverns are filled with water, which boils up with prodigious fury, and thus detains travellers many days before they can pass through the caves or tunnels. In the rainy season, as the water increases on the upper, or inland sides of the mountains, the river forces its passage through the interstices and openings in its sides with tremendous noise, forming an indescribably

grand cascade of from forty to fifty feet high issuing from an hundred orifices. There are also magnificent caves in the river Libun, eight or ten days' journey from Balize, and some interesting creeks or caverns exist in the creeks or arms of the old river.

The immense chain of mountains which form the inland frontier of the British territory, has only one pass—that leading to Peten, which is merely a pathway through rocky dells, and might be defended by a few men. The mountains are covered with impenetrable forests and brushwood, and contain abundance of the finest mahogany.

The face of the country is technically divided into the Pine and Cahoun ridges, from the respective locations of these trees; the pine trees extend over immense tracts of country, presenting to the eye the resemblance of an interminable open park, clothed with verdure, and exhibiting an appearance of taste and design, rather than accident. The Cahoun ridge is covered with gigantic trees, such as the wild cotton and other vast trees, and the fertility of the soil occasions much brushwood.

Colonel Galindo has furnished an interesting paper to the Royal Geographical Society on the *Usumasinta*, which takes its rise not far from the source of the Balize, on the opposite side of the chain of mountains that bounds the Honduras territory. He describes it as remarkable among the rivers of this part of America, not only for the length of its course, the advantages of its navigation, the fertility of its banks, and the superiority of the climate of the district through which it flows, but also for the almost total ignorance

in which even the inhabitants of the surrounding country remain with respect to its relative position, its course, and branches. Part of the rich but wild territory of the Mayas is watered by the Usumasinta, which, in its course from east to west, receives the important navigable river of Chicsoi; after which its course to the sea inclines to the north-west, its principal mouth being the port of *Victoria*, in the Gulf of Mexico, to the west of the lake of Laguna de Terminos. The river Tabasco, which, near the sea, joins the Usumasinta, is much frequented by vessels from the United States of North America, which sail up to San Juan Bautista, the capital of the state of Tabasco. The banks of the Usumasinta, after passing the chain of mountains which separates the Maya territories from the Mexican states, are studded with villages of Logwood cutters. The ruins of Palenque, an ancient and magnificent city in the Maya country, well deserve further investigation.

GEOLOGY.—The first geological feature requisite for the knowledge of man, is the capability of the soil to grow food. In this respect Honduras is not behind hand in fertility to any spot in the Old or New World. The soil of the Cahoun ridge consists of a deep loam produced by decomposed vegetable matter, and capable of growing every European, as well as tropical aliment. The Pine ridge land has a substratum of loose reddish sand, and its indigenous products exhibit those varieties of the vegetable kingdom, whose assimilative powers are strong and perennial. Extensive natural prairies, or pastures spread over this soil. An inexhaustibly rich alluvial

soil exists on the margin of the numerous creeks and rivers which stud the country.

Veins of fine marble, and mountains of alabaster, are known to exist; valuable crystals have been found within 180 miles of Balize; and fine pieces of transparent felspar lie along the banks in many places, which are used in ornamental stucco work. Gold has at various periods been found in the Roaring Creek (a branch of the Balize river), but no trouble has been taken to ascertain from whence it proceeded. Quantities of lava and volcanic substances have been found in different situations. Labouring Creek, about 100 miles inland, on the Balize, is remarkable for the petrifying properties which it possesses; its waters have a powerful cathartic effect on strangers, and a healing property when applied externally to an ulcer.

CLIMATE.—The climate about Balize is generally moist; in July, the dryest and hottest month of the year, the average maximum heat is 83 F. the medium 82, and the minimum 80; but though the absolute heat appears so great during the hot months, yet it is so tempered by the sea breezes, which almost constantly prevail from the N. E., S. E., or E., that the air feels pleasant and often cool, but on the wind shifting to the N. or W., the atmosphere becomes sultry and often oppressive. During the wet seasons, which last five months, the mercury sinks to 60. The variation in the temperature is very great, sometimes 15 between 6 A.M. and 2 P.M., and at night 20 or 25 less than in the day.

Thermometrical Register at Balize, Honduras :—

	THERMOM.			WINDS.	REMARKS.
	Max.	Med.	Min.		
January -	77	75	72	W. N. and N. W.	Generally dry, fine weather, some rain.
February -	78	78	75	W. E. and N. E.	Ditto, with pleasant breezes and showers.
March -	79	78	74	E. N.E. and W.	Ditto ditto
April -	82	80	78	E. and N.E.	Ditto, sea-breeze regular.
May -	83	81	79	E. N.E. and W.	At dry, then heavy showers, lightning and thunder.
June -	84	82	80	E. N.N.E. and S.E.	Air moist, cloudy, heavy rain.
July -	83	82	70	E. N.E. and S.E.	Ditto, thunder and lightning.
August -	83	82	79	E. N.E. and W.	Ditto ditto.
September -	83	82	79	E. W. and N.E.	Fine occasionally.
October -	83	81	88	E. N.E. and W.	Fine, with some heavy showers.
November -	80	79	74	E. N.E. and W.	Dry and pleasant.
December -	78	75	71	N. N.E. and W.	Ditto ditto, slight showers.

It is asserted¹ by those who know the climate best that Honduras is more favourable to European constitutions than any other climate under the tropics; those who have not trifled with life by intemperance and irregularities enjoy the best health, as demonstrated by the many instances of longevity, European and native, that exist.

¹ By the Honduras Almanack.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION, WHITE AND COLOURED — CHARACTER AND
APPEARANCE — SCHOOLS, &c. — STAPLE PRODUCTS —
MAHOGANY, &c.

ACCORDING to a census in 1823, the population of Honduras was, — whites, 217; slaves, 2468; free people of colour, 809; free blacks, 613; pensioners from discharged West India regiment, 819; detachment of second West India regiment, 231; ditto of Royal Artillery, 22 :— total, 5,179. The proportions of males and females, adults and children, were,—

	Male Adults.	Female Adults.	Male Children.	Female Children.	Total.
Whites.....	136	51	20	10	217
Coloured	192	243	183	191	809
Free Blacks	217	222	93	81	613
Slaves	1440	628	214	186	2468
Pensioners	630	54	50	65	819
2d West India Regt.	200	14	10	7	231
Royal Artillery	10	4	4	4	22

In 1826, there were,— whites, 267 males, 65 females; coloured and free, 1629 males, 826 females; slaves, 1606 males, 3502 females :—grand total, 3502 males, 4393 females. King's troops: 379 men; females, 30; children, 47.

The aggregate population of Honduras, from 1823 to 1830, was ¹,—

Years.	White and Free Coloured.		Slaves.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1823	842	798	1654	814	2496	1612
1826	1896	891	1696	804	3592	1695
1829	1596	920	1329	798	2925	1718
1830	937	919	1347	689	2284	1599

The Board of Trade statistics for 1832, are,—whites, males, 141, females, 82; free blacks, or coloured, males, 832; females, 956; slaves, males, 1122, females, 1699:—total, 3832. Births, 167; deaths, 173; marriages, 28.

The commissioners for the slave compensation state, under Honduras,—number of slaves, 1920; average value of slaves, from 1822 to 1830, 120*l.* 4*s.* 7½*d.*; relative value of the slaves, 230,844*l.*; proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* to which the colony is entitled, 101,958*l.*

VARIOUS CLASSES OF SOCIETY AT HONDURAS².—The blacks of Honduras are not derived from the

¹ I have here given three different returns of the population, all derived from different sources; the discrepancy shows the necessity of causing more attention to the statistics of our colonies.

² I am indebted to the Honduras Almanack for this statement; and I cannot help regretting that the latter numbers of this admirable periodical are so deficient, owing to the withdrawal of the grant of the magistrates. No money can be better laid out by the colonial legislatures than in improving their respective almanacks.

aborigines of the country, but have been, in their own persons or those of their forefathers, imported from Africa, either direct or through the West India islands. Though there are many free blacks, yet for the most part they are either the children of slaves, or have been slaves themselves; and few of them are to be found entirely exempt from those low propensities which are exhibited in a state of barbarism. Some few, however, display some striking features of consistent character. There are some who possess an utter aversion to spirituous liquors, and can by no means be prevailed upon to taste a beverage in which they know any thing of the sort to be a component part; but by far the greater proportion are so strongly addicted to the use of liquors, that it is very common to see them exposed to the scorching sun or the midnight dew, in utter insensibility. Some have been accustomed from infancy to indulge in this vice; whilst others, in rejecting it, act not so much from a correct principle as from national usage, or original intercourse with Mahometan connexions. As they have come to this and other neighbouring regions from various places, so they maintain the custom of the countries whence they come; and hence their habits in a great measure continue. The African negroes of Honduras, as is the custom in Jamaica and the other islands, hold, at Christmas, a saturnalia, which continues without interruption for the space of a fortnight. During this time, there is an entire relaxation from all their toils; negroes of all conditions join in sets, and perambulate the streets from morn till night, with colours flying and

music playing, to which they keep time in graceful movements, waving their flags and umbrellas to the measured beat of the drum. Wakes and *gumby* are recreations of vivacity among the people: the former present a tolerable resemblance to the Irish wakes, where the house of mourning and the house of feasting are identified as one and the same; and the latter are interesting merely from the circumstance of their being importations from the coast of Africa. Large parties meet at night, at some appointed negro yard, where they commence dancing to the beat of the drum and the music of their own voices. It is really curious to observe the ceremony of these pastimes; and there can be nothing more calculated to impress a stranger with surprise, than the different formation of their drums and the variety of their dances. In order to preserve themselves distinct, and to uphold their customs, each nation selects one from their body, to whom they give the title of king, who exercises a certain degree of lordship over his subjects, and receives in return the most marked attention and respect. Their affection for their country is very conspicuous: a black man will share his last plantain with another native of his own land, and seldom distinguishes or addresses him by any other appellative than countryman.

The *coloured* population has arisen from the intercourse of Europeans with Africans or Indians. They therefore partake, more or less, of the qualities of black and white, directly as to their distance from either.

The *Mosquito* shore men, sojourning in great num-

bers in the colony, have long greasy black hair, and countenances remarkable for vacuity of intelligence, but with a muscular formation of body that might serve as a model for a sculptor's Hercules; they walk at a slow and lazy pace, in a state of perfect nudity, devour their food voraciously, and lie down to sleep until absolute hunger causes them to seek a fresh supply. A canoe, a paddle, and a harpoon, constitute the Mosquito man's whole wealth; with these he can supply the cravings of nature, and beyond these he requires no more. They acknowledge the existence of a good and bad spirit; the latter of whom they propitiate in order to deprecate his malevolence, while they neglect the former on the plea that his goodness is so great as to leave them nothing to apprehend from his wrath. It is customary, as with other savage nations, at their funerals of the dead, to inter the paddle and harpoon in the grave of the deceased, that he may be enabled to work a canoe, and procure sustenance in another state of existence.

The *Indians*, a timid inoffensive race, who are the real aborigines of the South American continent, seem to be guided as much by instinct as reason,—travelling independent of either track or guide, through wood and bush impervious to others, and performing their journeys with a rapidity and correctness of direction that sets other modes and marks perfectly at defiance. A small bag of maize slung over the shoulder, from which they take a handful by a rivulet or well, is all the refreshment they need; and thus, in a state of nature, they

wander with Parthian movements, over wilds unknown to other men, and through forests where one would fancy their uncultivated state alone procures for them the sympathy of wild beasts. Their greatest luxury is a drink called *pesso*, composed of the rind of limes, rubbed with corn, allowed to ferment, and with a little honey. They are, almost without exception, addicted to drunkenness to an excessive degree, but appear to be entirely free from vindictive or malicious propensities.

The canoe used by the natives here, as most subservient to their purposes, is called a *dorey*. The bottom being round, it has a very slight hold of the water, and not unfrequently swamps or capsizes; in which emergency the dexterity of the native in holding on, righting the craft, bailing out the water, and resuming his seat, is truly surprising. She seldom draws more than a few inches, when light. Sometimes the *dorey* is raised upon a keel; it is then called a *crean*, a craft of handsome model, which answers well in these waters. The rig most used is the schooner, and the main-sail is that on which most dependence is placed. There is a craft peculiar to this colony, called the *pitpan*, which is, like the *dorey*, round at the bottom, but rather more flattened, and without a keel. It is excavated from a solid tree, and is very often forty or fifty feet long, and from three feet to four feet six inches wide. It is shaped at the end something like a butcher's tray, and the bottom neatly rounded upwards; this enables the paddlers to run a long way on the beach or shore, and, in some measure, supersedes the neces-

sity of a plank to aid embarkation. The pitpan is usually fitted up in a handsome style, with awnings and curtains of oilcloth on rollers, which enclose seats and space for provision, and is the only mode of conveyance to the mahogany works: indeed, one more pleasant and better adapted to the purpose need not be desired.

STATE OF SOCIETY, MORALS, &c.—Previous to the erection of Jamaica into a bishoprick, the church of England was made the dominant religion of British Honduras, and the facilities afforded for religious instruction by the establishment are by no means contemptible. The school attached to the church establishment is well endowed, and has already exhibited some of the benefits expected to arise from institutions of the kind, in the situations filled by several of its pupils. It is conducted on the Madras system, and the average daily attendance of children is above 100. The return for 1832 gives,—males, 140; females, 87:—total, 227. The attendance on the services of the church is, upon the whole, also good, and marked throughout by the strictest order and decorum. There are also two mission schools, the Wesleyan and the Baptist; also a Sunday and three private seminaries, which are daily becoming more useful, and no doubt in time will effect the object for which they were established. The difficulty of attaining this desirable end is considerably increased by the greater part of the population being engaged at the mahogany works, and spread over a surface of country containing between 50,000 and 60,000 square miles, for at least ten months in the

year ; some of those who are not so employed are distributed among the keys or islands, at a distance from the shore ; the business of others lies upon the waters, in continual traffic with the main ; and to these causes may be added the immoral lives of many Europeans, to whom the poor untutored semi-barbarian naturally looks up with reverence and confidence. When there are such obstacles to be surmounted as those presented by local peculiarities, united with the detrimental influence of vicious example, reformation is an Herculean task. Nevertheless, the more atrocious grades of delinquency are happily but seldom witnessed ; sometimes the gaol will not afford even a single prisoner for the public works ; and there are some who do not think it necessary to secure their doors at night. The occurrence of petty larceny, however, is very frequent, as are also those of other crimes and misdemeanours, which arise from intemperance. A few years back there were very few married couples in Balize, and the sacred institution of marriage was not only neglected, but despised : concubinage, if not promiscuous intercourse, &c. were among the besetting sins of the land, and virtue and decency were but little known, and less thought of. But now a brighter prospect has opened : marriages are decidedly on the increase ; the advantages of families being united under one common surname, the dignity which the matrimonial tie confers on relationship, and the charities of life beautified with the sanction of a divine ordinance, are now more highly esteemed and duly appreciated.

The Legislature has taken advantage of this change of sentiment, and, for the encouragement of public morals, have added great facilities to the marriages of slaves by recent laws and regulations. Though there are still a great number of people who can neither read nor write, yet there are also many, in the classes to which these acquirements were formerly unknown, who have made considerable proficiency. To the production of this change, the Honduras Free School has certainly in a very great degree contributed; and this institution has the honour of leading the way in the beneficial work of education.

The mechanic arts, as yet, have made but little progress, in comparison with what might have been done. The guardians of youth seem to cherish hopes of greater gain from the trade of a carpenter than any other, and hence the great majority of boys are put to that trade. The writer in the Honduras Almanack asserts that the inventive faculties of the native artists seem to be only proportioned to the supply of native wants, without even the recommendation of embellishments or design. He is equally indifferent about forming contracts and completing his stipulated work; and a peculiar inactivity of mind, as well as corporal movement, is perceptible even in his manner of working. This has been the reason why architectural designs have not, till lately, been extended to domestic comforts. Some years back this settlement exhibited nothing better than stockadoed huts, the most primitive shelter imaginable, roofed with a thatch of leaves coarsely and

clumsily compacted; now, however, it presents many large and commodious houses, more particularly in Balize.

FOOD, VEGETATION, &c. — To detail the great variety of fruit spontaneously produced in Honduras, would far exceed my limits. Oranges, (which are uniformly of excellent quality,) shaddocks, limes, mangoes, melons, pine-apples, water melons, avocado pears, cashew, cocoa-nuts, and many others, too numerous to mention, are very abundant during their respective seasons. They all grow in the neighbourhood of the town, but are also brought in large quantities from higher plantations.

A description of the celebrated mahogany tree, or of logwood, (the present staples of Honduras,) would be supererogatory. The mode of procuring the mahogany, is to dispatch a skilful negro to climb the highest tree on lofty places, for the purpose of discovering mahogany in the woods, which is generally solitary, and visible at a great distance, from the yellow hue of its foliage. A gang of from ten to fifty men is then sent out, to erect a scaffold round each tree that is selected, and to cut it down about twelve feet from the ground. When felled, the logs are with much labour dragged to the banks of the streams, and being formed into crafts, sometimes of 200 united, are floated as many miles to places where the rivers are crossed by strong cables, and then the owners separate their respective shares. It is said that the boughs and limbs afford the finest wood; but in Britain mahogany is more valued on account of size, and none is allowed to be

exported to the United States of America exceeding twenty inches in diameter. The logwood, on the other hand, affects low swampy grounds, growing contiguous to fresh-water creeks and lakes, on the edges of which the roots (the most valuable part of the wood) extend. It is sought in the dry season; and the wood-cutters, having built a hut in the vicinity of a number of the trees on the same spot, collect the logs in heaps, and afterwards float up a small canoe in the wet season, when the ground is laid under water, to carry them off.

A valuable timber covers the country for many thousand acres, and would prove a useful article in England, if the timber duties on colonial wood were removed;—I allude to the *pinus occidentalis*, which grows to sixty feet high, with irregular branches and serrated edged leaves, and which, owing to the quantity of tar and turpentine which the best sort contains, will sink in water when felled. The pine-wood is, of course, highly inflammable—a property which, to the poor, renders it very valuable. A torch of this wood, one end inserted in the earth and the other ignited, emits a clear and powerful light, round which may frequently be seen groups of negroes assembled (their daily task completed), and occupied in the formation of various domestic articles. Owing to its durability, it is, of course, much used by builders; it not only resists the action of the atmosphere, but it is also proof against the chemical influence of the earth, even in the dampest situations. It is not uncommon to see posts extracted from the ground, in which they have been

fixed for years, in as high a state of preservation as when they were first put down; and the only difference they exhibit is increased solidity and hardness, and a strong bituminous smell.

The cahoun (locally pronounced cohoon) tree is chiefly valuable for the elegant vegetable oil it yields, which, when unadulterated, is almost colourless, being paler than the cold-drawn castor oil; it is entirely free from any empyreumatic or fœtid taste, possessing a slight and rather agreeable flavour. It emits a beautiful palish flame, without smoke or smell—a property which renders it, as a lamp oil, not equalled by any other known, and therefore much in demand in genteel society. Its affinity for oxygen is so remarkably strong, that steel smeared with it very soon rusts: indeed, its caloric is so easily abstracted, that at the temperature of 60 F. it condenses into a white wax-like substance; but when heat is applied, it immediately expands and resumes its original appearance. There are several little-known woods, of beautiful vein and close texture, which might be turned to a profitable account; such as the iron-wood, claywood, rosewood, palmaletta, dark and beautifully figured, Santa Maria, which possesses the properties of the Indian teak, caoutchouc, or Indian rubber, sapodilla, and innumerable others.

Many other valuable products of the territory would be developed with an increased population, and by the removal in England of the fiscal restrictions which check and hamper our colonial prosperity.

The country abounds with game of every variety,

whether fish, flesh, or fowl. The Spaniards, who frequent Balize from Bacalar in open crafts, carry on an extensive trade in poultry, eggs, corn, &c., and, except in very rough weather, the supply of salt water fish is abundant and excellent. The common green turtle, so called from the colour of the fat, when the animal is in a healthy state, is a staple commodity in the market. The turtle is often five feet long, and from 200 to 250 lbs. in weight. It feeds on a sea grass, which is very abundant in these parts. It is generally taken in nets, and not unfrequently by the harpoon; sometimes it is watched from the beach to its haunts, where it is secured by being turned over, and when on its back the creature is unable to rise. It is seldom seen on land. The movements of the turtle are slow, except at the time when they deposit their eggs, which they do at several times after intervals of fourteen days. The female lays about 900. The eggs are found in abundance on the low sandy beaches of the quays, towards the Spanish main, between the ports of Omoa and Truxillo.

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT — MILITARY DEFENCE — FINANCES — REVENUE
AND EXPENDITURE — COMMERCE — STAPLE EXPORTS, &c. —
FUTURE PROSPECTS.

UNTIL 1783 Honduras was solely governed by Magistrates selected by the people; since then a Superintendent has been added, at the nomination of the King, to regulate all affairs which more particularly affect the dignity of the Crown. The chief authority of the colony is a mixed legislative and executive power, termed the Magistrates of Honduras, by whom enactments are made; which, on receiving the assent of the King's representative, become laws to be enforced by the executive power. The magistrates in whom the power is thus vested, are in number seven, elected annually by the inhabitants, thus—a poll is opened on the order of the bench to the Provost-Master-General, and remains so twenty-one days; at the expiration of which a scrutiny takes place, and the Provost-Marshal-General returns those duly elected, who are sworn into office on being approved of by the Superintendent. They are the Counsellors of his Majesty's Superintendent, the Guardians of the Public Peace, the Judges of all the Lower Courts; they form the Court of Ordinary, they are the Guardians of Orphans, and can delegate

their power in the management of the property to such persons whom they consider worthy of their trust. They are the protectors of all properties of intestate, or insane persons, or of those incapable of managing their own affairs. They settle all salvage on wrecked vessels, stores, and merchandize. They manage the public funds, and control the Treasurer; and no money can be paid without the sanction of four, who sign all orders for the issue; and previous to retiring from office they examine all his accounts, and sign them, if approved. No emolument arises to them—their services are entirely gratuitous. Trial by jury, the bulwark of British freedom, is established; and from the decisions of the Court an appeal lies direct to the King in Council, which, however, is rarely made.

Honduras is under the see of Jamaica. The Baptist Missionaries have a clergyman at Balize, and the Caribs, who were expatriated from St. Vincent's, have built themselves a chapel, the first instance of the kind in the West Indies.

The militia of Honduras is a very fine body of men, about 1000 strong, and consists of a brigade of Royal Artillery, and a regiment of the line; there is also a local maritime force, termed the Prince Regent's Royal Honduras Flotilla. The Superintendent of the settlement is of course Commander-in-Chief. The following shows the number of British troops employed in the colony since 1816 :—

Return of the Numbers and Distribution of the Effective Force, Officers, Non-commissioned Officers, and Rank and File, of the British Army, including Colonial Corps, in each year since 1816; including Artillery and Engineers.

Years.	OFFICERS PRESENT, OR ON DETACHED DUTY AT THE STATIONS.						Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
	Lieut.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Assistant-Surgeons.			
25th Jan. 1816			1	6	1	1	15	6	296
17			1	7	—	1	21	4	339
18			2	6	1	1	23	4	301
19		1	1	6	2	1	20	4	389
20		1	1	3	1	—	10	6	201
21	1	1	—	5	1	—	10	6	197
22		—	2	4	1	—	10	6	188
23		1	1	3	1	—	12	5	184
24		—	1	4	—	—	10	5	184
25		1	2	2	3	—	12	5	182
26		1	4	3	2	1	22	5	342
27		—	2	1	3	2	18	8	337
28		1	1	2	3	—	22	8	292
29		—	2	7	2	1	14	8	280
30		1	2	5	1	1	14	8	265
1st Jan. 1831		1	3	6	—	1	15	8	369
32		1	1	8	1	1	26	10	440
33		1	1	6	2	1	12	5	266

FINANCES.—Revenue and Expenditure of Honduras from 1807 to 1830 :—

	Revenue.	Expenditure.		Revenue.	Expenditure.
1807	£7,566	£8,201	1819	£15,967	£16,896
1808	6,005	5,170	1820	17,249	17,266
1809	6,829	6,066	1821	12,506	12,027
1810	9,523	9,604	1822	15,881	14,296
1811	8,643	8,981	1823	19,294	20,112
1812	6,590	6,312	1824	14,125	14,163
1813	5,438	5,548	1825	17,594	17,634
1814	5,474	5,629	1826	13,256	13,755
1815	12,944	12,527	1827	17,415	17,562
1816	10,672	9,276	1828	10,653	10,760
1817	8,168	8,838	1829	11,744	11,759
1818	16,501	18,193	1830	15,673	15,896
Total	104,353	104,435	Total	180,107	182,036

The revenue of the colony, it will be perceived, has considerably increased, and it affords another example to the anti-colonial writers that there is no drain (even in the unstatesmanlike mode of viewing the subject) on the home exchequer. All duties and taxes are levied under the authority of Acts passed in the Legislative Meeting. The income is derived from customs and shipping dues, poll-tax on horses and cattle, domestic licenses, and tax on foreign goods and foreign traders. The custom duties are light, and amount on spirits, wines, and cordials, to *2s. per gallon*.

The following detail of expenditure of this Settlement for the year 1826, from its internal revenue, will convey an idea to the British public of the disbursements of the Balize treasury :—

His Majesty's Superintendent, 1000*l.*¹; Public

¹ All these items are Honduras currency.

Treasurer and Collector, 1000*l.*; Colonial Agents, 869*l.*; Chaplain to the Settlement, 420*l.*; Endowment to the Free School, 167*l.*; Public School Master, Public School Mistress, Contractor for the Light-House, 400*l.*; Pensions to Paupers, 135*l.*; Physician to the Hospital, 150*l.*; Housekeeper to ditto, 60*l.*; Keeper of the Militia Clothing, 184*l.*; Adjutant to the Militia, 49*l.*; Overseer of Working Party, Pay of Men in the Government Schooner, 75*l.*; Church Clerk, 70*l.*; Sexton, 30*l.*—*Total of fixed annual charges, 4742*l.**

Contingent expenses incurred upon the administration of justice and maintenance of the Gaol Establishment, 1811*l.*; for the Military Post at Tyger Rim, up the river Balize, 185*l.*; Militia Establishment, St. John's Church, 6740*l.*; Public Works and improvements in the town of Balize, 4102*l.*; Mission to Guatemala, Peten, and Bacalar, 414*l.*; extraordinary and miscellaneous expenses, not enumerated under any particular head, 2498*l.*—*Total expended in 1826, 13,755*l.**

Value in English money of the Spanish coins in circulation :—

GOLD.—Doubloon, 5*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; half ditto, 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*; quarter ditto, 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; one-eighth ditto, 13*s.* 4*d.*; one-sixteenth, 6*s.* 8*d.* *currency.*

SILVER.—Dollar, 6*s.* 8*d.*; half ditto, 3*s.* 4*d.*; quarter ditto, 1*s.* 8*d.*; one-eighth, 10*d.*; one-sixteenth, 5*d.* *currency.*

COMMERCE.—The trade of Honduras is as yet but in its infancy, although exceeding half a million sterling annually. The value of the imports in 1830

was 234,379*l.* and of the exports, 316,151*l.*; employing a shipping inwards, of tons, 13,918, and outwards, tons, 16,351, independent of a large coasting trade, carried on by vessels of various burthen belonging to the merchants at Balize. The following is the shipping return for 1832:—

PLACES.	Inwards from			Outwards to		
	Ships	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain - - -	45	11,851		42	11,071	
British Colonies - - -	6	464		7	581	
United States - - -	26	2,759		28	2,812	
Foreign States - - -	4	421		5	521	
Total - - - -	81	15,495	840	82	14,985	810

The aggregate burthen of the colonial shipping amounted, in 1830, to 1551 tons, employing 285 seamen, and it has since increased.

The principal Articles of Export from 1824 to 1830, were—

Years.	Mahogany.	Cedar.	Indigo.
	Feet.	Feet.	Lbs.
1824	5,573,819	2,493	199,867
1825	5,083,100	21,000	211,447
1826	6,385,589	30,171	358,552
1827	6,904,898	19,781	81,767
1828	5,466,806	—	1,610 seroons.
1829	4,631,391	912	1,474 ...
1830	4,556,986	—	2,650 ...

GENERAL VIEW.—I cannot conclude this Chapter without expressing my regret, that such an important settlement as Honduras should have been so

long neglected at home. It is valuable not only in a political but in a commercial aspect; inasmuch as it opens to our trade new regions and countries, while its rich and fertile lands await only the skilful handicraft of the British emigrant to pour forth the abundance of life. The eloquent annalist of Jamaica, writing within the last two or three years, says, 'It is but within the last few months that the town of *Peten*, situated 260 miles west of Balize, at the head of its magnificent river, has been exposed to speculation, or even to our acquaintance. A road is now open, and a lively intercourse with the British merchants has arisen there. Fleets of Indian pit-pans repair almost weekly to Balize, and return loaded with articles of British manufacture. *Peten*, formerly the capital of the Itzaec Indians, was one of the last conquests of the Spaniards in the year 1679. It stands on an island in the centre of the extensive fresh-water lake Itza, in lat. 16 N., long. 91.16 W. Within 50 miles of it the enterprising spirit of the British settler has already extended the search for mahogany; and what may not be expected from a people so industrious, so judicious, and so persevering. The Itza is 26 leagues in circumference, and its pure waters, to the depth of 30 fathoms, produce the most excellent fish. The islands of *Sepet*, *Galves*, *Lopez*, *Bixit*, and *Coju*, lie scattered over its surface, and afford a delicious retreat to 10,000 inhabitants, who form part of the new republic of central America, within the spiritual jurisdiction of the Mexican diocese of Yucatan. The fertile soil yields two harvests in the year, producing

maize, chiappa pepper, balsam, vanilla, cotton, indigo, cocoa, cochineal, brazil wood, and the most exquisite fruits, in wasteful abundance. Several navigable rivers flowing thence are lost in the great Pacific, and suggest an easy communication with the British limits. Within ten leagues of the shores of the Itza lake commences the ridge of the Alabaster mountains, on whose surface glitter in vast profusion the green, the brown, and the variegated jaspers, while the forests are filled with wild and monstrous beasts, the *Equus Bisulcus*, or Chinese horse, and with tigers and lions, of a degenerated breed. Roads diverge in all directions from this favoured spot, and afford an easy communication with a free channel for British merchandize to San Antonio, to Chichanha, San Benito, Tabasco, and even Campeachy; while throughout the whole country the most stupendous timbers are abundant. The most valuable drugs, balsams, and aromatic plants, grow wild; and the achiote, amber, copal, dragon's blood, mastic, and almatico, are everywhere to be gathered.'

As the South American republics become tranquil and prosperous, Honduras will increase in political and commercial importance.





BOOK III.

TRINIDAD.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY—AREA—DISCOVERY—GENERAL HISTORY, &c.

Most favourably situate for commerce, maritime strength, and political importance, at the mouths of the mighty Oronoco, as if destined by nature to form a barrier for restraining the impetuosity of its rapid tides and currents¹,—the picturesque and valuable island of Trinidad extends from latitude $9^{\circ} 30'$ to $10^{\circ} 51'$ north, and longitude $60^{\circ} 30'$ to $61^{\circ} 20'$ west; separated from the province of Cumana, on the South American continent, by the gulf of Paria; ninety miles long by fifty broad, with an area of 2400 square miles, or 1,536,000 acres.

Christopher Columbus was the discoverer of Trinidad, on the 31st July, 1498, during his third voyage. According to some, it was named *Trinidad* by that wonderful man, while distant thirteen leagues

¹ The east mouth of the Orinoco, or Great Serpent, is about nine miles wide.

south-east from it, on account of the three mountain tops seen in that position. According to others, it was thus named, in conformity to the piety of the times, in honour of the Holy Trinity. The island was then densely peopled by Caribs, of a mild disposition, of much industry, finely formed, and of a lighter colour than the aborigines or inhabitants of the other islands. These people remained unmolested until the Spaniards took possession of Trinidad in 1588, when they fell a sacrifice to the cupidity and religious bigotry of the Castilians, who, as in Jamaica, drafted off to the mines those who escaped a more sanguinary death by fire or the sword; but a few, indeed, were saved by the apostle of the New World—the benign, the eloquent, the heroic Las Casas¹. The occupying Spaniards forced the Indians to cultivate, as servants, that which they once held as masters, and negroes were brought in from Africa to aid their labours. The chivalrous Sir Walter Raleigh visited Trinidad in 1595, and states that the

¹ Mr. Burnly, a member of council for Trinidad, on perusing my manuscript, has appended to it the following note:—
'I consider the accounts of the cruelties of the Spaniards to be very apocryphal. The Indians died off because they endured no labour, which must have been the opinion of Las Casas, who first recommended the introduction of Africans—certainly not for the purpose of being worked to death.' Unfortunately for the memory of the Spaniards of those days, their demoniac cruelties were attested by too many eye-witnesses to admit of doubt. The Indians were drafted by their tyrants from the islands to work on the main land; and the object of Las Casas, in recommending the introduction of Africans, was to save the Indians from total destruction.

inhabitants then cultivated excellent tobacco and sugar-canes. The Spaniards, to divert his attention, described to him the El Dorado, where the rivers were full of gold dust; but, on Raleigh's return from exploring the Orinoco, he entered into a treaty with the Indians (then at mortal enmity with the Spaniards), marched with them, attacked and carried by assault the capital of San Josef, and put the garrison of thirty men to the sword. The English government disowned this act of hostilities; yet Spain paid little attention to her valuable possession, being then fully occupied with conquests on the contiguous continent. In 1676, Trinidad was captured by the French, but almost immediately restored to Spain. The population and trade of Trinidad were subsequently almost extinguished; and, in 1783, the island contained but a very small number of inhabitants, considering its long settlement¹; while its sole commerce consisted in bartering cocoa and indigo for coarse cloths and agricultural implements with the smugglers from St. Eustatia. The severing of the British provinces in North America from the mother country, and the fear that the Castilian dominions in South America would follow the example thus set them, induced the council of the Indies at Madrid to lend a willing ear to an enterprising planter, named Saint Laurent, who had visited Trinidad, from Grenada, and thence proceeded home to enlighten the Spanish government as to its true interests, not merely in

¹ Viz. whites, 126; free coloured, 295; slaves, 310; and Indians, 2032.

reference to the fertility of the island, but as a commercial emporium at the mouths of the Orinoco, as also in regard to the numerous advantages of its geographical position in a political point of view. The ministers entered actively into the views of Saint Laurent; many embarrassments under which Trinidad laboured, with respect to its commerce and agriculture, were removed; an edict was passed, permitting *all foreigners* of the Roman Catholic religion to establish themselves in the colony, and they were protected for five years from being pursued for debts incurred in the places the new colonists had quitted. In consequence of these measures, and owing to the indomitable energies of Laurent, as also to the disturbed state of St. Domingo, which drove numerous planters with their slaves from that island, crowds of adventurers and abundance of capital poured into Trinidad from Europe, from continental America, and from the British and French possessions in the west, bringing their industry, skill, and perhaps ill-gotten wealth (the property of numerous creditors, who could not touch them for five years), for the benefit of their new home.

In 1787, M. de la Perouse established the first sugar plantation; and, in 1797, there were 159 large sugar plantations, 130 coffee farms, 60 cocoa ditto, and 103 cotton ditto, besides many small plantations; the whole yielding 7800 hds. of sugar, 330,000 lbs. of coffee, 96,000 lbs. of cocoa, and 224,000 lbs. of cotton. And while, in 1783, a Dutch house at St. Eustatia carried on all the commerce of the colony in a vessel of 150 tons burthen, in 1802 the

island employed 15,000 tons of shipping for the transport of its produce. Such have ever been the beneficial effects of relieving the industry of man from shackles and impediments on free intercourse with his fellows.

The number of inhabitants (see Chap. on POPULATION) rapidly increased; and as a mixed society, containing the germs of so many evil passions, required vigorous control, a strong government was formed under Don Josef Chacon, a naval captain, one of whose earliest measures was the expulsion of the dissolute monks, the abolition of the demoniacal inquisition, the granting of fertile lands to new colonists, with advances from the royal treasury to purchase cattle and implements of husbandry, and the providing freedom and safety for mercantile speculations. The revolution in France, and the disturbances in her colonies, added numbers and wealth to Trinidad; the whole face of the island was changed; and, in four years, the magnificent capital of *Port of Spain* usurped the place of a few miserable fishers' palm-leaved huts. Trinidad was then a sixth dependent on the government of Caraccas.

On the 16th of February, 1797, Admiral Harvey, with four sail of the line, appeared off Trinidad. The Spanish rear-admiral, Apodaca, who then anchored at Chagaramus with three first-rate ships of the line and a fine frigate, instead of giving battle to Harvey, *burnt his ships*, retreated to Port of Spain, reciting his rosary at the head of a band of priests. "Well, admiral," said Chacon, "all is lost—you have burnt your ships." "No," said the gallant and pious

admiral, "I have saved the image of San Jago of Compostella, the patron of my ship and myself,"—exhibiting the image of the saint! General Sir Ralph Abercrombie, with 4000 men, marched to Port of Spain, and, after a few discharges of artillery, Trinidad by capitulation became a British colony. The fleet under Admiral Harvey consisted of the Prince of Wales, 98 guns; Invincible, 74; Alfred, 74; Bellona, 74; Vengeance, 74; Scipio, 64; Dictator, 64; Alarm, 32; Arethusa, 38; Favourite, 16; Pelican, 18; Thorn, 16; La Victorieuse, 12; the Terror Bomb, 8; with three transports. Five hundred and seventy-seven Spanish soldiers were taken in the garrison, 91 naval officers, 581 and 1032 seamen; and six French officers and fifty sick men in the hospital. The Spanish ships burnt and taken were—the San Vincent, 84; the Gallarado, 74; Arrogante, 74; and San Cecilia, 36; all burnt;—the San Damaso, 74, taken. Private property was inviolate, and the free exercise of their religion secured to the inhabitants.

The subsequent history of Trinidad is of no importance to this work.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—MOUNTAINS—RIVERS, LAKES, HARBOURS,
&c.—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—MINERAL KINGDOM—VOLCANOES
—MUD AND PITCH LAKES—CLIMATE, &c.

TRINIDAD appears at a distance like an immense ridge of rocks along its whole north front; but, on entering the Gulf of Paria, the mind is imbued with intense emotions on beholding one of the most magnificent, variegated, richly luxuriant panoramas that nature ever formed. To the east, the waves of the mighty Orinoco dispute for the empire of the ocean with contending billows; the lofty mountains of Cumana rise from the bosom of the horizon in stupendous majesty; and on the west appear the cape, headlands, mountains, hills, valleys, and plains of Trinidad, enamelled with eternal verdure, and presenting a *coup-d'œil* of which the old world affords no parallel. The view from the block-house is magnificent, the deep blue waters of the gulf, with the white-sailed light canoes in the distance; to the left, the splendid capital of Trinidad; in front, the mountains of Cumana; and, on the right, the picturesque valley of Diego Martin, extending across the island to the Atlantic, with its carefully cultivated fields

and deep-foliaged woods. The batteries of Fort George rise in succession, from the gulf-shores to the barracks, 1200 feet above the level of the sea. This fort commands the pass leading to Diego Martin's Valley ; and, in the event of a war, a few judiciously disposed fortifications at the other entrances to the interior of the country would render the island impregnable. The entrenchments are elevated along several ridges, and round backed divisions, with a variety of surface, some parts of which are sufficiently flat for the erection of military works ; and on the best of these, at the elevation of 1000 feet, is the Blockhouse Barracks, calculated for 200 men. Fort George is inaccessible from behind, and not commanded by any hill in its neighbourhood ; it is admirably fortified by batteries that are disposed, as it were, along the two sides of an acute-angled triangle, terminating on a point at the Blockhouse redoubt ; each commands the other, according to the situation in which they are placed. A range of slightly elevated mountains occupy the north coast ; a group of finely wooded flat or round-topped hills the centre ; and a chain of fertile evergreen downs the south coast of the island. The fecundity of the soil, its gigantic and magnificent vegetation (compared with which the loftiest European trees are like dwarfish shrubs, and our loveliest flowers appear pale and inanimate,) its beautiful rivers, enchanting slopes, forests of palms, groves of citrons, and hedges of spices and perfumes, its succulent roots, delicious herbs and fruits, abundant and nourishing food on the earth, in the air, and in the water ;—in fine, its

azure skies, deep blue seas, fertile glades, and elastic atmosphere, have each and all combined to crown Trinidad with the appellation of *the Indian Paradise*.

Puerto d'España, or Port of Spain, the capital of Trinidad, embosomed in an amphitheatre of hills, is one of the finest towns in the West Indies. The numerous buildings are of an imposing appearance, and constructed of massive cut stone. No houses are allowed to be erected of wood, or independent of a prescribed form; the streets are wide, long, shaded with trees, and laid out in parallel lines from the land to the sea, intersected but not intercepted by cross streets, thus catching every breeze that blows; and, as in most tropical countries, there is a delightful embowered public walk. Among the principal buildings the Protestant church stands conspicuously and beautifully situate, with a large enclosed lawn in front, surrounded on two sides by the best houses of the capital. The interior of the church is superb, and at the same time elegant, its sweeping roof and aisleless sides being variegated with the various rich woods of the island, tastefully arranged. There is also a splendid Roman Catholic church, and well situate. An extensive market-place, with market-house and shambles, all built since the burning of the town in 1808, of handsome cut stone, add to the beauty and convenience of the city.

Port of Spain is divided into barrios or districts, each under the superintendence of alcaides or magistrates and officers, who are responsible for the cleanliness of the streets, for the regulating and order of the markets, and for the due execution of

the law in their several divisions: hence the policy and good order established in the capital are admirable. The St. James' barracks, for the accommodation of 600 men, are substantially, and I may add splendidly erected, on a fine plain about a mile from the capital.

MOUNTAINS.—The highest range of land (about 3000 feet) is to the north, near the sea. In the centre of the isle is a less elevated group of mountains; to the south a series of lovely hills and mounds appear, in delightful contrast to the northern shore; and, as on the contiguous coast of Cumana, the chain of mountains in the north of Trinidad runs east and west. Las Cuevas has a double summit, with a magnificent platform in the centre, from which there is a view of the ocean east and west. Four delightful valleys, watered by numerous rivulets, enhance the beauty of this charming landscape.

RIVERS.—On the west coast the principal navigable streams are, the Caroni, Chaguanas, Barrancones, Couva, Guaracara, and Sissaria. The first is navigable from its mouth in the gulf to its junction with the Aripo, also navigable, a distance of six leagues. The Guanaba, like the Aripo, flows into the Caroni, but has less water. There are many other streams on the west coast, which, being navigable for small trading vessels, afford great facilities for the cultivation of land and the transport of its produce. The north and east coasts are well furnished with rivers and rivulets of pure and crystalline water; the principal on the east coast are the Rio Grande, Oropuche, and Nariva—called by the

creoles Mitan, from its flowing through a grove of cocoa trees. This latter has been sailed up seven and a half leagues, and found navigable for a 250 ton ship, at less than a league from its source. Guatavo, to windward of the island, is large, but not navigable to any great extent for more than small boats; further south is the fine river Moruga¹; while in every direction limpid brooks run murmuring over pebbly beds to the ocean, through lofty forests and the most picturesque scenery.

It has been proposed to cut a canal between the Aripo and the Oropuche, which discharges itself on the east coast of the island, where the navigation is difficult and the anchorage insecure, when the winds are northerly or easterly. Thus a safe communication would be established between the two coasts of Trinidad, and be the means of bringing into cultivation a great quantity of fertile land.

HARBOURS AND BAYS.—The Gulf of Paria, formed by the west shore of Trinidad and the opposite coast of Cumana (which is thirty leagues long, and fifteen ditto from north to south), may be said to form one vast harbour, as ships may anchor all over the gulf in from three to six-fathom water, on gravel and mud soundings. The principal ports are, first, the harbour of Port Royal, Chagaramus, on the north-west peninsula of the island, at the entrance of the

¹ The rivers on the east coast, especially that of Moruga, have abundance of excellent oysters attached to the stems and branches of the mangrove bushes, as I found them on the shores of Africa, where our sailors used to say it was the first time they ever saw *such fruit* on trees.

north mouth, three leagues west of Port of Spain, and comprehending a space of about seventy square miles. It is esteemed the best and safest port in the island, is capable of receiving the largest ships of war, has from four to forty fathom soundings of gravel and mud, or ouze, with bold and steep northern shores.

Port of Spain, on the west coast, which gives its name to the capital, is the next best harbour, and has one of the most extensive bays in the world. The surrounding fortified heights completely command the town; and a fine stone quay, running several hundred yards into the sea, has a strong battery at its extremity. All the west coast is a series of bays where vessels may anchor in safety at all times. The Careenage, not having more than two to four fathoms, is only fit for small vessels; and Gaspar Grande is an islet within the mouths, where the Spanish ships of war were wont to anchor under the safeguard of a battery intended for the protection of the passage. The northern and eastern coasts are not equally well furnished with harbours and roadsteads, which is the more to be regretted as the wind blows for three-fourths of the year from the east and north. The principal ports to the north are Maqueribe and Las Cuevas, where fort Abercrombie is situate; to the north east are the ports of Rio Grande, Toco, and Cumana; on the east is Balandra Bay, or Boat Island, where safe anchorage may at all times be found for small vessels; further east are Guiascreek and Mayaro Bay. The safest port on the east coast is Guaiguairé, from its being

sheltered by a point of land against east winds, and its entrance to the south, from which the winds are neither frequent nor violent.

The Bocas, or mouths of the north entrances of the Gulf of Paria, are four :—Boca Grande, or great channel; Boca de Navios, or ships' channel; Boca Nuevos, or egg or umbrella channel, from the appearance of a remarkable tree, growing upon a rock on the lee side, much resembling an umbrella; and the Boca de Monas, or apes' channel. In sailing for the Port of Spain, vessels generally pass through one of these passages into the Gulf of Paria. The currents must be particularly attended to, and the navigation is very intricate¹.

GEOLOGY.—Trinidad, as viewed from the Gulf of Paria, presents an alluvial country in an active state of formation; the primitive foundations of the land, arranged in a form nearly semilunar, incline as with outstretched arms to receive into their bosoms the greater portion of the alluvies from the mouths of the mighty Orinoco; the currents, deeply charged with this alluvial soil, drive along the cliffy sides of the northern ridge and southern shores (from which they borrow in their course), to deposit their lading at the bottom of the gulf, where the metropolis, at the base of its beautiful mountain, stands. The tides, which there rise higher by several feet than in any other part of the West Indies, flow muddy and foul, and ebb with clear waters, which may be seen

¹ For sailing directions, &c., see the large edition of this work.

at some distance from the shore; each extent of new formation being marked by muddy banks of mangrove bushes. In this way, Port of Spain (like, as Dr. Ferguson says of the ancient Ostia, that was built upon the sea) may become in time an inland city, the metropolis of many other towns built on the fertile and flourishing country.

It has been observed, that the land encroaching on the sea on the coast south-west of Trinidad increases the territorial extent of the island; and at some distant day the Gulf of Paria will, probably, be a mere channel for the conveyance of the waters of the Orinoco and Guarapiche to the ocean.

The island is evidently a section of the opposite continent, formed either by a volcanic eruption or oceanic irruption—the same strata of earth, the same rocks, fossils, &c. are common to both. The nucleus of the mountains is a very dense argillaceous schistus, becoming laminated and friable when exposed to the atmosphere, and changing to micaceous schistus in the inferior layers and near the beds of rivers; in the interstices of which latter, particularly to the northward, are found great quantities of sulphureous pyrites in cubic crystals. There is no granite on the island, while the Caribbean chain of mountains are principally composed of that substance; but blocks of milky quartz, of different sizes, are found in every valley, beneath which there is frequently to be found a light layer of sulphate of lime; on the precipitous sides of the mountains, washed by the torrents, may be seen layers of a coarse argile, mixed with ferruginous sand. Thus the absence of calcareous masses

in Trinidad, Tobago, and Cumana, offers a strong geological contrast to the Antilles or Caribbean Mountains. Gypsum and limestone are rare in Trinidad. One quarry of calcareous carbonate, situate at the foot of a hill near the Port of Spain, is mixed with veins of silex and heterogeneous substances. Considerable quantities of pulverating feldspar are found on the rising ground, washed by the rains, near the Guapo mouth and on its left banks. The micaceous schistus has sometimes a transition into talcous schistus, thus giving an unctuous appearance to the soil. Near the coast are found rocks of a bluish calcareous nature, veined with white calcareous carbonate, crystallized, rather hard, and resting on coagulated clay, with pebbles of primitive rocks. The magnetic needle indicates the presence of iron in many rocks; but volcanic convulsions have produced different effects from similar eruptions in Europe: thus gypsum is found abounding in sulphur, and pyrites mingled with granite. No vestiges of organic bodies have been discovered. Maritime and land shells (many of unknown and extinct species) are found in the great alluvial plains; and although madrepore are drifted on the coast, no coral banks exist. On the surface of the soil of the valleys where rivers run, rounded pebbles are observed; but in the plains they disappear: this is particularly the case on the east and very rare on the west coast. There are several extensive valleys and plains of a deep and fertile argillaceous vegetative earth, without a rock or even pebble to be seen.

VOLCANOES.—There are several craters in Trini-

dad. South of Cape Dela Brea is a submarine volcano, which occasionally boils up and discharges a quantity of petroleum ; in the east part of the island and Bay of Mayaro is another, which, in March and June, gives several detonations resembling thunder ; these are succeeded by flames and smoke, and, some minutes after, pieces of bitumen, as black and brilliant as jet, are thrown on shore. Near the forests of Point Icaos, on the summit of a hill of argillaceous clay, M. Levyasse found a great number of little mounds, about two feet high, whose truncated and open-coned tops exhaled a gas smelling like sulphurated hydrogen ; one cone, of six feet high, on the most elevated part of the hill, continually discharged whitish matter, of an aluminous taste ; a sound was heard, indicating a fluid in a continual state of agitation, and globules of an elastic gas evaporated continually ; the scum at the top was cold ; four poles, measuring sixty feet, did not touch the bottom, and disappeared on being let go. There is neither stone nor sand within the circumference of a league of the cone ; but handsome rounded pebbles were found round the hill, together with small calcareous stones, encrusted with sulphur of a prismatic form. Contiguous to this crater, and encompassed by a marsh of mangroves, which communicate with the sea, is another hillock, with a circular shallow cavity full of a boiling liquid like alum ; a dull subterraneous sound was heard, the earth was found to tremble under the feet of the explorers, and two poles pushed into the crater disappeared in an instant ; detonations like distant cannon are heard

every year, in the month of March. It is remarkable that earthquakes, felt violently in the Antilles in 1797, were not perceived at Trinidad or in Cumana; and when the latter province was shortly after desolated by terrible earthquakes, the shocks were slightly felt in Trinidad, but not at all in the Antilles.

MUD VOLCANOES.—Forty miles south of the Pitch Lake (vide *Mineral Kingdom*), are several mud volcanoes, in a plain not more than four feet above the general surface; the largest is about 150 feet in diameter, and has boiling mud constantly bubbling, but never overflowing, remaining constantly within the surface of the crater. When the old craters cease to act, new ones invariably appear in the vicinity; thus resembling the mud volcanoes witnessed by Humboldt. Some of the mud volcanoes throw out salt water, heavily loaded with argillaceous earth. During the *hottest* months of the dry season, *cold* mud is thrown to the height of thirty feet, and the volcano is unapproachable to within fifty paces. The following detailed description of this extraordinary phenomenon is worthy of perusal¹:—

‘ They are situated near Point Icaque, the southern extremity of the island, on an alluvial tongue of land that has been appended to the primitive rocks, where, no doubt, the land originally terminated.

¹ I am indebted to the scientific observation of Dr. William Fergusson for this account—an officer whose valuable communications to the Army Medical Department evince a very high range of talent.

This appendage is several miles in length, and points directly into one of the mouths of the Orinoco, on the main land, about twelve or fifteen miles off.

' We landed nearly opposite to where we were told we should find the mud volcanoes, and, after making our way about five miles across the sandy isthmus, we came upon two plantations, very pleasantly situated, amidst a group of remarkably round little hills, each from eighty to one hundred feet in height. Our path, on leaving these, led us through some very thick wood of tall trees, till we found ourselves again upon a pretty steep regular ascent, which had nothing remarkable in it except the diminishing height of the trees as we went up. Only the tops of those trees, which were of the kind that usually grow near lagoons and salt marshes, at last appeared above the ground, as we opened a perfectly uniform round bare platform of several acres, with different chimneys in the shape of truncated cones, the highest of them not exceeding three feet, some of which were throwing out, with a strong bubbling noise, salt water, about as salt as that of the Gulf of Paria, loaded, as much as it could be to preserve its fluidity, with argillaceous earth. In some of the chimneys this went on slowly, or not at all; in others it might be called a pretty active cold ebullition. The surface of the platform round the chimneys was perfectly firm; and one of our party picked up a white sea-shell, of the turbinated kind, in the act of being thrown out along with the mud.

' We afterwards procured various pyritic fragments

that had been picked up in a similar manner—but the inhabitants of the quarter assured us that the ebullition, even during its greatest activity, was quite cold. The smooth circular platform was bounded by a perfectly regular parapet of clay, about three feet in height, propped up as it were by the tops of the trees, that like shrubs were shooting out of the ground immediately behind it. This appearance was most likely to be referred to the buried trees around having had time to shoot out in the interval between the two last great eruptions, which take place only during the hottest months of the dry seasons, and then the noise is described to be like the loudest cannon; the mud being thrown up to the height of at least thirty feet in the air, and the theatre of the eruption being unapproachable within fifty paces.

‘Close to the first volcano, but in a much more low and sunk situation, is another of precisely the same appearance and character, with only a narrow ravine between the two.

‘Such an extraordinary phenomenon induced us to examine the neighbouring mounts of the cleared country, close to which stands the residence of Mons. Chancelier, a French planter; and we found them all (except with regard to the eruption) to possess the same form and composition, in all respects, as those we had just quitted. The platform and parapet were easily distinguishable; the chimneys only were gone, but small pits were left in their places, filled with mud, from which air bubbles rose, even under our own observation; and our conductor, the intelligent manager of the estate, told us that when these

rose in salt water, a fresh eruption was to be apprehended. He pointed out the former site of his master's residence, half up the mount, which had been destroyed by one of these eruptions, after a period of cessation so long that no record remained of the one that had preceded it; and he assured us that, during the period he had lived there (fourteen years) the largest mount now in activity had gained a very considerable increase of height.

'The magnificent isolated mountain of Tamanace, in the centre of the great eastern marsh, unconnected with any chain of hills, and at an immense distance on every side from what may be called *terra firma*, may be supposed, till examined, to have arisen from the plain through the means of some similar laboratory in the works of nature.'

MINERAL KINGDOM.—The precious metals have not been found in Trinidad, but the magnet discovers iron in the greater part of its rocks and pebbles; a very brilliant white metal (specific gravity ten) more ductile and malleable than silver, has been found, and M. Vauqueline thought it either a new metal, or composed of several others. Crystals of sulphate of copper have been found encrusted with alum among flints, as also arsenic with sulphurated barytes for a matrix. Schistus plumbago has been discovered, and near it a mine of coal, about five miles from the sea-shore. But the most remarkable mineral phenomenon is the *Asphaltum*, or *Pitch Lake*, situate on the leeward side of the island, on a small peninsula, jutting into the sea about two miles (opposite the Parian Mountains on the Continent), and elevated

eighty feet above the level of the ocean. The headland on which it is situate, when seen from the sea, resembles a dark scoriaceous mass; but, when more closely examined, it is found to consist of bituminous scorix, vitrified sand, and earth, all cemented together. In some places beds of cinders are found; and a strong sulphureous smell pervades the ground to the distance of eight or ten miles from the lake, and is felt on approaching the shore.

The lake is bounded on the N. W. by the sea, on the S. by a rocky eminence, and on the E. by the usual argillaceous soil of the country; it is nearly circular, and better than half a league in length, and the same in breadth, occupying the highest part of the point of land which shelves into the sea, from which it is separated by a margin of wood. The variety and extraordinary mobility of this phenomenon is very remarkable, groups of beautiful shrubs and flowers, tufts of wild pine-apples and aloes, swarms of magnificent butterflies and brilliant humming birds enliven a scene, which would be an earthly representation of Tartarus without them. With regard to *mobility*, where a small islet has been seen on an evening, a gulf is found on the following morning, and, on another part of the lake, a pitch islet has sprung up to be in its turn adorned with the most luxuriant vegetation, and then again engulfed! Near Cape La Brea, to the S. W. (the place where this lake is) Captain Mallet observed a gulf or vortex, which, in stormy weather, gushes out, raising the water five or six feet, and covering the surface for a considerable

space with the bituminous substance. A similar gulf is said to be on the east coast, at the bay of Mayaro.

The usual consistence and appearance of the *asphaltum* (except in hot weather, when it is actually liquid an inch deep) is that of pit coal, but of a greyish colour, melting like sealing-wax, ductile by a gentle heat, and, when mixed with grease, oil, or common pitch, acquiring fluidity, and well adapted for preserving the bottoms of ships against the destructive effects of the worm termed the *teredo navalis*. Sometimes the asphaltum is found jet black and hard, breaking into a dull conchoidal fracture, but, in general, it may be readily cut, when its interior appears oily and vesicular.

Deep crevices or funnels, inclining to a conic form, and sometimes six feet deep, are found in various parts of the *asphaltum*, (pitch,) filled with excellent limpid running water, and often containing a great quantity of mullet and small fish. Alligators even are said to have been seen in these extraordinary chasms. The bottoms of some of these canals are so liquid that marked poles thrust in disappear, and have been found a few days after on the sea-shore!

Pieces, of what was once wood, are found completely changed into bitumen; and the trunk of a large tree, on being sawn, was entirely impregnated with petroleum. Where the petroleum mixes with the earth, it tends greatly to fertilize it, and the finest fruits in the colony come from districts bordering on this singular lake; the pine-apples, in particular, being less fibrous, more aromatic, and of a

deeper golden colour than are to be had any where else.

A very intelligent and enterprising traveller (to whom the author is indebted for many valuable observations,) Captain Sir J. E. Alexander, furnishes the following graphic account of his observations on this extraordinary phenomenon.

The western shore of the island, for about twenty miles, is quite flat, and richly wooded; and though only one or two houses are perceptible from the sea, the interior is well cultivated, and several small rivers, which empty themselves into the Gulf of Paria, afford great facility for the transport of sugar to ships that anchor off their embouchures. As Naparima is approached, and the singular mountain (at the foot of which San Fernandez is situated,) is plainly distinguished, the shore assumes a more smiling aspect. Here, one sees a noble forest; there, a sheet of bright green points out a cane-field. Cocoa nuts and palm trees are sprinkled over the landscape, and now and then a well-built house, close to the water's edge, appears, with a verdant lawn extending from it to the sea, and the ground sometimes broken into sinuosities, and then slightly undulating. The beauty of this part of Trinidad is very great, though from some undrained swamps poisonous malaria exhales. At Point La Brea are seen masses of pitch, which look like black rocks among the foliage. At the small hamlet of La Braye, a considerable extent of coast is covered with pitch, which runs a long way out to sea, and forms a bank under water. The pitch lake is situated on the side of a hill, eighty

feet above the level of the sea, from which it is distant three quarters of a mile. A gradual ascent leads to it, which is covered with pitch in a hard state, and trees and vegetation flourish upon it. The road leading to the lake runs through a wood, and, on emerging from it, the spectator stands on the borders of what at the first glance appears to be a lake, containing many wooded islets, but which, on a second examination, proves to be a sheet of asphaltum, intersected throughout by crevices three or four feet deep, and full of water. The pitch at the sides of the lake is perfectly hard and cold, but as one walks towards the middle with the shoes off, in order to wade through the water, the heat gradually increases, the pitch becomes softer and softer, until at last it is seen boiling up in a liquid state, and the soles of the feet become so heated that it is necessary to dance up and down in the most ridiculous manner. The air is then strongly impregnated with bitumen and sulphur, and the impression of the feet is left upon the face of the pitch. During the rainy season it is possible to walk over the whole lake nearly, but in the hot season a great part is not to be approached. Although several attempts have been made to ascertain the depth of the pitch, no bottom has ever been found. The lake is about a mile and half in circumference; and not the least extraordinary circumstance is that it should contain eight or ten small islands, on which trees are growing close to the boiling pitch. In standing still on the lake near the centre, the surface gradually sinks, forming a sort of bowl as it were; and when the shoulders become level with the

lake, it is high time to get out. Some time ago a ship of war landed casks to fill with the pitch, for the purpose of transporting it to England; the casks were rolled on the lake, and the hands commenced filling, but a piratical craft appearing in the offing, the frigate, with all hands, went in chase; on returning to the lake, all the casks had sunk and disappeared¹. There is a metallic substance thrown up by the pitch fountains, much resembling copper ore. Science is at a loss to account for this extraordinary phenomenon, for the lake does not seem to occupy the mouth of an exhausted crater, neither is the hill on which it is situated of volcanic origin, for its basis is clay. The flow of pitch from the lake has been immense; the whole country round, except near the Bay of Grappo, which is protected by a hill, being covered with it, and it seems singular that no eruption has taken place within the memory of man, although the principle of motion still exists in the centre of the lake. The appearance of the pitch which has hardened, is as if the whole surface had

¹ I am indebted to the personal courtesy of Major-General Sir Lewis Grant, late Governor of Trinidad, for the following curious fact:—'The pitch of the lake has been adopted for the improvement of the roads, particularly in the fertile district of Naparima, where it was brought for the purpose from La Brea. In the wet season the roads at Naparima are almost impassable in those parts where there has been no application of the pitch; but where the pitch has been applied, which is the case for several miles in North Naparima, there is a hard surface formed, which makes transport comparatively easy, both from the support afforded, and from the little friction of the hardened pitch.—L. G.' [R. Montgomery Martin.]

boiled up in large bubbles, and then suddenly cooled; but where the asphaltum is still liquid, the surface is perfectly smooth. Many experiments have been made to ascertain whether the pitch could be applied to any useful purpose. Admiral Cochrane sent two ship loads of it to England, but, after a variety of experiments, it was found necessary, in order to render it fit for use, to mix such a quantity of oil with it that the expense of oil alone exceeded the price of pitch in England. Another attempt was made by a company, styled the Pitch Company, who sent out an agent from England, but finding Admiral Cochrane had failed, and feeling convinced any further attempt would be useless, he let the matter drop.

CLIMATE.—The dry and rainy seasons into which the tropical year is distinguished are more marked in Trinidad than in the Antilles. The dry season commences with the month of December, and ends with that of May, the E., N. E., and N. winds then become less cool, the heat increases, and is at its height by the end of June, storms commence, and augment in frequency and violence during August and September, and in October they occur almost daily, accompanied by showers of rain. There is seldom any fall of rain during the night, but a heavy shower without wind usually precedes sun-rise by half an hour during the season. Hurricanes are unknown in Trinidad or Tobago.

The hygrometer varies much in different seasons; during the rainy season it is usually between 85 and 90; in the spring between 36 and 38 in the day,

and about 50 at night; on an average, there falls about sixty-two inches of water during the winter, and about ten inches (including the heavy dews, which may be estimated at six inches) during the spring. The October rains are very gentle; in November they are less frequent and more slight; and from the end of December to the beginning of June of some years, there does not fall a drop of rain during the day. As the island has become cleared, the quantity of rain falling has diminished.

During even the hot and stormy season the thermometer rarely stands at Port of Spain before sun-rise so high as 74 (and in the country occasionally as low as 68¹); from sun-rise to sun-set 84 to 86, falling in the evening to 82 or 80; in August and September, when the air is saturated with moisture, the mercury rises sometimes to 90, rarely above that height. When during the winter there is wind with the rain, the mornings are less hot, as are also the evenings, when the rain has been preceded by thunder during the day; but the temperature of the whole island varies with the elevation above the sea and the aspect of the place, especially in spring, when the thermometer descends to 60, and sometimes to 50, in places of moderate elevation; on the whole it is less moist than Guiana, and not so dry as Cumana, and being an island, the winds are more constant, and the atmosphere therefore more fre-

¹ From the coolness of the night, it is the ordinary custom to have a blanket folded up at the foot of the bed to draw up when necessary, during a residence in the country or in the high lands.

quently renovated. The valleys of Santa Anna, of Maraval, Diego Martin, Aricagua, and the heights of St. Joseph, to the N. W., as also the valleys on the north coast, enjoy a mild temperature, and their inhabitants breathe during nearly the whole year a fresh, pure, and very elastic air, by reason of the simultaneous action of the evaporation of rains, dews, and winds, on the well-known eastern principle, by which liquids are cooled, and even ice formed, by solar evaporation or exposure to a current of air. The beneficial and abundant dews (arising from the numerous rivers of the island, and surrounding ocean) cool and invigorate the atmosphere, and give a vigorous luxuriance to the vegetation of an isle, which were it otherwise would be nearly barren. The following table affords a Meteorological Register of Port of Spain :—

MONTHS.	THERM.	WINDS.	OBSERVATIONS.
January ..	81 to 72	E. E.N.E. & E.S.E.	Cloudy and rainy.
February .	83 - 70	E. and E.N.E.	Ditto, nights dewy.
March ...	84 - 71	Ditto	Fine, dry, and pleasant.
April	84 - 73	E.N.E.	Invigorating breezes.
May	81 - 74	S.E. E.N.E.	Strong ditto, some thund.
June	82 - 74	E.S.E. and E.N.E.	Close and rainy, ditto.
July	84 - 74	E.N.E.	Stormy, lightning, rainy.
August ...	85 - 74	E.S.E.	Squally, ditto.
September	86 - 72	E.S.E.	Heavy rains, thunder, and lightning.
October ...	84 - 73	E.S.E.	Strong breezes.
November	85 - 73	E. and E.N.E.	Fine, hot occasionally.
December	82 - 71	E. and E.N.E.	Cool, sometimes chilly.

CHAPTER III.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS — ICHTHYOLOGY —
STAPLE PRODUCE—LAND IN CULTIVATION—STOCK, &c. &c.

THE vegetation of Trinidad is of the same splendid character as that found on the main-land. M. de la Barrere discovered 240 plants in Trinidad, of which he could find no specimens like them in the Antilles. Botanists specify on the island aspen rush, or *Cyperus haspan*, *Commelina hexandra*, *panax chryso-philla*, *Vitex Capitata*, *Justicia secunda*, *solanum hartum*, *cestrum latifolium*, *Allamanda cathartica*, *Macrocnemum coccineum*, *fralichia paniculata*, *spathodea corymbosa*, *robinia rubiginosa*, *lupinis villosis*, *glycine picta*, *Bigonia humilis*, *tabernæmontana undulata*, *Zapogomea tomentosa*, *croton gossypifolium*, *tragia corniculata*, *toutalea scandens*, &c. &c. The forests contain the finest wood for ship building and for ornamental purposes, amongst which the red cedar and a great variety of palms are conspicuous. The nutmeg, cinnamon, and clove have been introduced into the island, and flourish, particularly the former. The cacao, or cocoa (whence the delicious thea broma, or divine beverage is made,) is indigenous to the new world. In Mexico, the beans served, even in Humboldt's time, for small coin, as couries do in India—six beans being equivalent to one halfpenny

English. The introduction of this wholesome and delightful beverage into the old world is due to the monks, who have ever been great lovers of good things; and the Castilians, whether in America or Spain, soon learned to consider chocolate a necessary of life; indeed, it was seriously disputed for some time among the churchmen of Rome whether it were lawful to consume so nourishing a beverage on a fast-day; but the inclinations of the palate naturally prevailed over scruples of conscience, and it was even finally served to the Creole ladies by their slaves in the chapels of Mexico during divine service. The cocoa tree somewhat resembles that producing the English cherry, fifteen feet in height, delighting in a new and productive soil near the margin of a river, and requiring shelter from strong sunshine or violent winds; for which purpose the plantain trees, *Musa Paradisiaca*, or coral bean-tree, *Erythrina* (which the Spaniards call *Madre di Cacao*) are planted between every second row, giving a most luxuriant appearance to a plantation; the long bare stems of tropical trees being strongly contrasted with the rich green of the cacao below, and here and there brilliant and burning with the golden foliage of the *Bois immortel*, a lofty umbrageous tree, which in the flowering season is covered with clusters of scarlet blossoms of exceeding brightness, and shining like brilliant velvet in the sun's rays; while the lovely butterfly plant (so called from its perfect similitude to the insect) fluttering on its almost invisible stalk, adds beauty and animation to the prospect.

The cultivation of cacao is rapidly extending, and

as Europeans are quite adequate to the very trifling degree of labour required for a plantation, it is to be hoped that emigration from Great Britain will take place to the beautiful isle, where this nourishing product is indigenous to the soil. The annual production of cocoa in Trinidad is about 1,500,000lb. weight; and, as I hope ere long to witness the final abolition of the tax (2*d.* per lb.) on cocoa when imported into the United Kingdom from any of our colonies, because it affords a wholesome nutritive diet for the poor, I subjoin the following direction for the cultivation of the plant, which, though now principally confined to Trinidad, may have its growth extended to our other colonies in the east and west hemispheres.

The cacao, or chocolate plant, delights in a rich soil, if possible near the banks of a river, or in a situation admitting of occasional irrigation. Seedling plants should be raised in the dry and sheltered spots of a nursery ground. The seeds are sown in small raised mounds, at regular intervals, two seeds being deposited in each mound, lightly covered with mould, and sheltered from the scorching sun with plantain leaves, or some other cool and umbrageous canopy. If the season be dry *moderate* watering should be used, and if both seeds germinate, the weakest plant must be destroyed. When the shrub attains fifteen or eighteen inches in height, (which will be the case in ten or twelve weeks,) its transplantation to the fixed location is necessary. The plants must be arranged in straight rows, in a quin-cunx form, with a distance between each of sixteen

feet, should the soil be rich, and of not less than thirteen if less fertile. Transplantation in dry weather, earth removed with the plants, and the tap root deep set when replaced. The cacao delights in the shade; a vertical sun destroys it, therefore it is imperatively necessary to plant between every second row either the plantain-tree or the coral bean-tree (*Erythrina*.) When the tree is about two years old, it usually puts forth from five to seven branches from the top; all beyond five are cut away: in about six months more flowers commonly appear, which must be also destroyed. Indeed, it is usual to repeat this abscission annually, until the fifth year, in order that the productive power of the tree may be finally perfected in greater strength. A great number of flowers fall without fructifying; the fruit, while growing, is green, but as it ripens the pod changes to a bluish red, approaching to purple, with pink veins; in some varieties the fruit pod becomes of a delicate yellow or lemon colour. When over ripe the pods sometimes burst, and the seeds fall from their gelatinous pulp. The crop may be said to last throughout the year, but the principal gatherings of the fruit are in June, and towards the end of December. No unripe pods must be gathered. The ripe pods are broken with a mallet or cut open, and the seeds separated from the pulp with a wooden spatula. To separate the seeds entirely from the pulp they are placed in a hole with some dry sand, and left until a very slight fermentation comes on the sand, being frequently stirred and replenished to absorb the moisture from

the seeds; when, at the end of three or four days the process is completed by spreading out the cacao nuts on rush mats, or upon a platform in the sun to dry, care being taken to prevent rain reaching the seeds. When quite dry and hard the nuts may be lightly packed in bags or boxes, and kept in a dry or airy place for use or exportation.

The following calendar of the fruits of Trinidad for the year will demonstrate the variety of delicious food which this valuable colony yields. *January* produces sappadilloes, pomegranates, sour-sops, plantains, bananas, papas, or papaws. The vegetables are:—okros, capsicums of all kinds, which indeed are common every month in the year; cocoa-nuts, which are seldom used but for cakes and puddings, ground down; pigeon, or Angola peas, sweet potatoes, yams of different sorts, and tancias. *February*, the vegetable called chicon, or christophini comesan. *March*, grenadilloes are added to the former list. *April*, Java plums, mangoes, mamme sapoetas, pines of several varieties, the Otaheitan gooseberry, Jamaica plums, cerasees, and bread-fruit. *May*, water-lemons and cashew apples. *June* is much the same in her productions; pigeon peas are now nearly out of season. In *July* the avacado pear comes in; it is also known by the name of the alligator pear, or subaltern's butter, from its inside resembling very yellow fresh butter, both in consistence and colour.

In *August* the only new fruit is the yellow hog plum; the other fruits in season are the mamme sapoetas and avacado pears. *September* produces

sugar and custard apples, sea-side grapes, and Portuguese yams. The fruits and vegetables of *October* are nearly the same as September; and the only difference in *November* is the bread-fruit being ripe again. *December* brings in guavas, and that most excellent production, sorrel. This plant has a succulent stalk, and grows from three to four feet high. There is a blossom, not unlike the common English columbine; there are two varieties, white and red; the blossoms, when slightly fermented, produce a delightful beverage, or, stewed with sugar, make tarts or jam. All the orange and lemon tribe, shad-docks, and forbidden fruit, plantains, and bananas, may be had every month in the year, but they abound most from April to September. Mountain cabbage is always in season, and is a most delicious vegetable.

ZOOLOGY.—As in the vegetable, so in the animal kingdom, there is a great resemblance between Trinidad and the continent, both being equally free from large or destructive animals, such as the elephant, lion, and tiger. Two species of small deer (*cervus Americanus*), and the mangrove stag, are found in Trinidad, but not in Tobago. The paca, or lapo, of Trinidad, is a singular animal; it is rather larger than a hare, is extremely handsome, cleanly, and easily domesticated; from birth to four or six months, the hair, naturally of a deep red, is spotted with white, which spots then disappear; it is amphibious, dives under water when hunted, and remains there, like the otter, several minutes. The flesh is excellent food.

Opossums are numerous; the females have all the membranous pouch, like the kangaroo, for depositing the young. (It is singular that New Holland and America should have the marsupial animals peculiar to them.) The armadilloes, remarkable for their laminated shell, are numerous, and, baked in their scaly coats, are a good treat. A species of porcupine (the *hystrix prehensilis* of Linnæus), two species of lizard, termed the Guana and Dragon, two species of ant-bears, the lazy sloth, the musk, and crab-swallowing rat, the tiger-cat, the peccary (wild American hog), water-dog (*didelphis Philandar*), and a variety of monkeys, are found in Trinidad.

M. Lavyasse assures us that he has seen a tribe of monkeys in Trinidad who have a great aversion to water; if obliged to cross a narrow stream, they climb a tree near the bank, and form a chain by hanging from the tails of each other; the whole string of animals then swing backwards and forwards, until the lowest, to whom the post of honour has been assigned, alights on the opposite bank, and pulls over, by the aid of the "tail," his companions on the tree and bank. This singular operation is carried on amidst terrible howling, accompanied with the most frightful cries and grimaces.

ICHTHYOLOGY, &c.—Among the great variety of fish on the shores of Trinidad, one of the most remarkable is the *squalus zygaena*, measuring twelve feet in length, and thick in proportion, after the shape of the blue shark, and with a mouth like the latter, armed with a triple row of formidable teeth; the eyes are large and terrifying, and the head has

the shape of a hammer. Another equally formidable fish is shaped somewhat like a cod, and esteemed excellent eating in the colony, although they have been found with part of a negro in the maw. M. Levaysse states that the sea-cow (*trichecus manati*) is often found in pairs, with their young, browsing on the marine plants in the cocoa-nut groves; their weight is about 1200 lbs., the flesh tasting like that of the hog, eaten fresh and salted, while the fat forms excellent lard. The manati is fifteen feet long, having two fins like arms; it is covered with hair, and from the shape of its head was called by our sailors the sea-cow; it is amphibious, suckles its young, and the cured flesh keeps long without corruption. [See British Guiana].

Land tortoises of various kinds are abundant, the flesh is delicate and very nourishing; the savannahs (marshes, in the wet season) abound with a great variety of marine birds, grey partridges, water-hens, flamingoes, and white woodcocks, of delicious flavour; wild ducks are innumerable; one species resembles the East India duck, another the European, and the third is very small, with a beautiful plumage, including blue, rose-coloured, yellow, and white, with a brilliant gold-coloured star on the forehead, of about an inch in diameter: it is called *Ovikiki*. The brown pelican, scarlet-necked vulture, the lancet bat, or vampire, the frigate bird, &c., are numerous; parrots and paroquets are in great variety, and of exceeding beauty; the green and gold humming-bird has long been celebrated for its plumage; and the doves and wild pigeons are found

of every species. Those magnificent birds termed haccos are found at Trinidad, but not at Tobago.

The Gulf of Paria, near the Bocas, is full of small rocky islets, some of which contain caves of an extraordinary size, in which are found a curious bird, the diablotin (vide *Dominica*), which, if eaten when taken from the nest, is pronounced by epicures unrivalled.

STAPLE PRODUCE.—Previous to 1783, the whole produce of Trinidad was a very small quantity of cocoa, vanilla, indigo, arnotto, cotton, and maize, not more than sufficient to employ a small schooner two or three times a year for its conveyance to St. Eustatia. In 1787, the first sugar plantation was formed; and in 1802, the cultivation and produce of some of the principal articles were as follows:—192 sugar plantations, yielding 15,461 hogsheads¹; 128 coffee ditto, 358,660 lbs.; 57 cocoa ditto, 97,000 lbs.; 101 cotton ditto, 263,000 lbs.: employing shipping annually to the amount of 15,000 tons. In 1807, there were exported to England, British America, and to the United States, 18,235 hogsheads of sugar, or 21,234,600 lbs.; 460,000 gallons of rum; and 100,000 gallons of syrup. There were made, besides, in the same year, 500,000lbs. of coffee; 355,000lbs. of cocoa; and 800,000lbs. of cotton. The annals of no country present such an extraordinary increase of cultivation, and consequent production of wealth.

¹ The hogshead, in 1802, weighed 1200lbs.; it has since been made to contain 1400 to 1500lbs.

PRODUCE OF TRINIDAD, FROM 1799 TO 1831.

YEAR.	Sugar.	Cocoa.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Rum.	Molasses.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Galls.	Galls.
1799	8,419,859	258,390	335,913	323,415	170,671	142,636
1800	9,895,534	284,170	449,614	317,395	194,488	128,507
1801	15,461,912	324,720	328,666	262,997	343,113	173,309
1802	14,164,984	138,669	278,271	190,210	350,049	143,237
1803	16,014,056	361,070	185,658	178,046	344,292	214,120
1804	18,595,416	503,210	304,128	164,060	371,544	355,877
1805	20,438,376	327,690	286,379	256,792	426,460	564,558
1806	20,045,439	588,805	418,040	167,700	390,122	648,432
1808	25,850,928	668,993	387,028	139,200	940,564	666,100
1809	24,856,073	719,230	264,320	134,190	539,081	477,262
1810	21,746,775	726,173	295,443	114,980	463,870	82,163
1811	18,513,302	640,732	276,243	159,136	428,691	324,942
1812	20,971,580	1,375,539	282,460	130,390	548,014	395,070
1813	22,288,145	1,029,512	549,716	184,400	666,761	361,795
1814	21,604,038	1,158,163	382,888	148,505	437,142	282,698
1815	25,075,281	1,065,808	202,289	115,159	523,632	682,718
1816	24,122,415	1,056,662	119,974	93,710	449,067	373,873
1817	22,784,707	1,341,461	215,100	65,951	371,422	861,234
1818	23,206,326	1,232,685	224,972	100,070	439,663	415,251
1819	30,205,731	1,506,445	258,220	131,990	534,026	545,406
1820	30,714,368	1,744,465	211,555	96,545	524,316	471,001
1821	31,127,893	1,618,114	222,809	52,871	496,817	439,092
1822	35,595,932	1,809,730	205,586	64,300	555,878	488,125
1823	27,032,618	1,892,195	245,567	91,550	391,528	658,870
1824	26,855,946	2,443,388	245,582	45,730	344,074	798,814
1825	26,280,347	2,835,935	274,725	58,189	346,548	855,814
1826	43,154,456	2,640,989	275,226	58,030	417,794	995,201
1829	56,089,421	2,206,467	286,128	25,230	400,321	1,362,605
1831	39,240,960	1,479,568	989,373	6,800	390,536	974,031
1832						
1833						
1834						
1835						

No returns.

The resources of the island are in fact very great; the mountainous portion, which cannot be cultivated, forms less than one-thirtieth of the surface.

Major-general Sir Lewis Grant, whose enlightened government of Trinidad is sensibly appreciated

in that island, and by all friends of the colonies, has favoured me with the following note:—‘ I conceive that the mountains of Trinidad may be cultivated to their summits; the soil is good, and the growth of timber superb; but, until the level land be occupied, they will not, of course, be worth cultivating, from the difficulty of establishing roads. The sandy savannahs are the only barren spots, and they serve to pasture cattle.’ Sir Lewis informs me that he has in his possession specimens of Trinidad spices as fine as are to be found in any part of the East. This distinguished officer is a zealous advocate for the colonization of the West Indies with European settlers.

By a measurement, in 1799, it was found that there may be formed on the territory 1313 sugar, 945 coffee, 304 cocoa, and 158 cotton plantations, of 100 squares, or 320 acres each. A general return for 1831 gives the number of quarrees¹ of land in cultivation, crop, works, and stock in Trinidad, as follows:—

¹ A quarree contains three and one-fifth English acres.

TOWNS and QUARTERS.	QUARREES OF LAND IN CULTIVATION.											
	Area in Square Miles granted.	In Cocoa.		Number of Cocoa Trees.	In Coffee.		In Negro Grounds.		In Pasture.	Total in Cultivation.	Not in Cultivation.	Total held by Proprietors.
		In Cocoa.	In Cocoa.		In Coffee.	In Coffee.	In Negro Grounds.	In Estates' Provisions.				
Arima	12	304	40	35,800	2	117	20	114	494	371	1,655	
Arima	30	30	302	204,500	2	82	76	100	619	1,304	1,523	
Bocas	21	41			66	47	40	8	161	282	443	
Carriacou and Couesse	16	249	15	14,200	18	111	20	124	545	951	1,497	
Carriacou	5	583	76	65,700		194	108	167	1,133	2,024	3,757	
Caroni	32	56	61	52,000		50	19	54	220	614	834	
Couva	12	323	3	1,500		106	26	103	613	1,178	793	
Chaguaramas	24	395	139	39,000		118	22	130	840	1,415	765	
Chaguaramas	12	3				22	59	102	186	563	702	
Chimureno	6	81	44	35,800	1	34	18	41	219	318	537	
Diego Martin	15	215	56	55,070	69	115	70	172	695	1,232	1,087	
Erin	4	70	53	43,800	3	13	12	164	131	131	265	
Eastern Coast	7					87	15	102	621	621	793	
Guayama	100	10	447	337,600		79	73	92	682	2,226	2,451	
Guapo		194				64	12	160	430	703	1,150	
Hicoes	7	51				15	23	18	108	477	538	
Irish	12	66				12		30	102	98	350	
La Brea and Cugo	17	144				40	16	96	307	504	811	
Las Cuevas	14					4	30	96	37	944	281	
La Ventille	5	28	20	19,500	21	28	57	22	176	278	454	
Maraval	15	87	104	95,783	125	77	51	52	494	909	1,453	
Mayaro and Guayre	21	234	22	26,000		116	68	201	723	980	1,703	
Macurape	3	34				8	9	28	80	101	181	
Moracas Valley	11	11	368	342,000	1	37	117	79	638	1,128	1,792	
North Naparima	12	215				106	33	194	1,237	1,459	2,417	
Oropuche	14	358				83	11	69	549	908	1,457	
Point-a-Pierre	20	633	58	50,100	5	238	60	153	1,147	1,942	2,482	
Savanneta		502				174	17	187	880	1,006	2,066	
South Naparima	35	1781	44	12,700	2	327	89	229	2,203	2,228	4,333	
St. Ann's	7	5	20	18,000	33	11	62	40	171	332	504	
Santa Cruz	16	8	476	414,758	45	109	157	75	870	3,278	4,198	
St. Joseph	6	150	72	68,500	1	58	11	115	447	407	854	
Savanna Grande	18	344	25	19,600		132	37	66	815	1,071	2,004	
Tacouga and AROON	35	712	122	100,000	1	225	57	204	1,378	6,815	6,213	
Toco and Curacao	7	14	27	13,500		6	5	4	55	125	181	
Trogarete	3	110	10	6,000		26	3	28	177	77	254	
Valley of Couva	8		278	206,350	1	16	69	21	385	305	690	
Town of St. John												
St. Joseph												
Arima			38	34,100	3			15	56	795	851	
Port of Spain	1											
TOTAL		3921	2072	2,464,425	340	68	3151	1689	3462	20,612	35,718	56,230

TOWNS and QUARTERS.	CROP.								
	Lbs. of Sugar.	Packed in			Lbs. of Cocoa.	Lbs. of Coffee.	Lbs. of Cotton.	Gallons of Rum.	Gallons of Molasses.
		Hogheads.	Tons.	Barrels.					
Arlegua.....	1,084,000	528	4	668	20,880	1,400	5000	13,700	21,800
Armas.....	89,000	60			18,430	200		1,800	
Bacon.....									
Carnage and Cheese	672,882	412	8	56	6,000	4,800		10,183	8,400
Campichama.....	2,804,660	1575	33	301	450	400		19,040	77,532
Caroni.....	192,400	137			18,000			1,450	6,400
Cedro.....	2,010,085	1211	8	333				28,550	45,863
Chaguamuk.....	1,433,950	903	33	48	77,000			28,182	28,770
Chiquirroz.....									3,500
Cimaronero.....	480,000	294		250	54,210	700		5,800	7,785
Diego Martin.....	827,425	511		295	18,120	21,629		17,444	6,030
Erin.....	275,600	152			3,700			10,150	200
Eastern Coast.....									
Guano.....	4,600			20	231,385				1,425
Guapo.....	1,041,488	643	1	318				38,209	9,777
Hicacos.....	214,583	180	1	32				3,330	8,600
Iris.....	175,000	125		2					2,600
La Brea and Guapo..	710,000	433		49					21,300
Las Cuernas.....									
Va Venille.....	108,400	69		23	3,000	3,000			5,000
Maraul.....	406,000	228		257	14,510	21,028		11,500	16,000
Mayaro and Guayre..	1,310,000	890		98			1200	16,500	77,000
Mucamo.....	121,805	73	1	17				4,330	455
Murcos Valley.....	46,000			200	206,925	11,157		1,200	
North Naparima.....	4,070,125	2508	40	358		150		33,918	75,580
Orepuche.....	1,550,250	974	4	356					43,670
Point-a-Pierre.....	1,291,700	1177	20	217	10,100	2,050		28,490	32,741
Sarnacotta.....	2,061,403	1301	78	317				33,627	47,779
South Naparima.....	3,231,628	2836	100	911				16,704	271,092
St. Ann's.....					5,080	16,507			1,500
Santa Cruz.....	36,200	14		70	418,062	10,507			1,450
St. Joseph.....	858,000	409	1	275	38,470	1,000		3,737	20,300
Savanna Grande.....	2,488,580	1503	1	313		1,300		18,400	41,600
Tacurigua and Arona	3,294,213	1563	10	463	37,970			87,423	51,250
Poco and Cumana ..	5,250			35	9,340				350
Tangate.....	474,600	268		13				4,824	14,574
Valley of Choro.....					106,951				
Town of St. John ..									
St. Joseph ..									
Armas.....					10,670	1,200			
Port of Spain.....									
TOTAL.	89,240,960	34,618	308	5858	1,479,508	69,373	6900	380,336	674,031

Situation and extent of the crown lands, in acres, in Trinidad, in 1827 :—

Arima, 11,439; Carenage and Cuesse, 6221; Caroni, 30,858; Cedros, 2135; Chaguanas, 8010; Coura, Savanetta, &c., 22,969; Diego Martin, 2427; Erin, 1491; Guanapo, 52,317; Hicacos, 3017; Irois, 6474; Labrea and Guapo, 6474; Las Cuevas, 4502; Maraval, 4021; Maraccas Valley, 1328; Mayaro, 7685; Oropuche, 3175; Point à Pierre, 4527; South Naparima, 5902; Santa Cruz, 406; Savanna Grande, 733; Tacarigua and Arouca, 9763; Toco and Cumana, 2765; Valley of Caura, 2955; land in the interior undefined in its boundaries, 881,658. Total of crown lands in Trinidad, 1,080,500 acres.

CHAPTER IV.

POPULATION, WHITE, COLOURED, AND INDIANS ; PROGRESSIVE
POPULATION, BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS ; SCHOOLS,
RELIGION, &c.

POPULATION.—When Trinidad was first discovered by Europeans it had a dense Indian community, who, on its occupation by the Spaniards, were murdered or transported to the Hispaniola mines, to make room for the new occupiers, who seized on the lands of those they had slain or sent into a captivity worse than death¹. In 1783, the number of mouths was only—whites, 126 ; coloured free, 295 ; slaves, 310 ; and Indians of all ages, 2,032 : total, 2,763. Owing to the circumstances detailed elsewhere, relative to the throwing open the island to settlers, the population thus subsequently increased :—

¹ When Sir Walter Raleigh captured Trinidad in 1595, he found five Indian Caciques confined in a loathsome dungeon, quite exhausted with cruel tortures, and almost starved to death. They were of course instantly liberated.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL POPULATION RETURNS.

Yrs.	WHITE.						COLOURED.						INDIANS.						Total.	Slaves.	Chinese.	Grand Total.
	Men.		Wom.		Children.		Men.		Wom.		Children.		Men.		Wom.		Children.					
	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.				
1797	994	590	301	266	2151	1196	1624	898	765	4474	301	491	190	186	1078	10069	17712					
1798	930	606	301	291	2128	1281	1601	850	863	4594	345	942	273	283	1143	14110	21975					
1799	1010	711	327	311	2359	1241	1620	807	740	4408	344	917	311	299	1071	15012	22850					
1801	978	626	292	267	2153	1347	1740	925	868	4900	291	354	297	270	1212	13904	22229					
1802	1061	623	275	261	2222	1584	1896	950	919	5275	321	311	274	260	1160	19709	28372					
1803	961	637	265	250	2123	1484	1751	827	746	4812	327	320	271	236	1154	20138	28227					
1804	1228	662	329	342	2661	1769	2198	1171	1024	6162	387	437	293	309	1416	20925	31004					
1805	1164	652	301	317	2434	1605	2101	1094	1000	5801	488	543	372	330	1723	20108	30076					
1806	1073	589	286	316	2274	1562	1980	1047	872	5401	397	478	383	349	1697	21761	31043					
1807	1150	649	359	312	2470	1729	2272	1310	1167	6478	306	483	390	366	1635	21893	32478					
1808	1212	609	360	348	2890	1683	2212	1289	1200	6984	412	484	377	374	1647	21475	32605					
1810	1147	654	344	342	2487	1680	2105	1240	1151	6969	401	472	404	379	1639	20728	31143					
1811	1165	723	380	338	2617	1790	2380	1456	1417	7043	422	476	415	403	1716	21841	33217					
1812	1222	716	434	393	2765	1778	2326	1497	1305	7066	433	479	459	433	1804	25717	37980					
1813	1260	749	445	452	2896	2089	2675	1685	1683	8102	312	346	368	299	1265	25717	37980					
1814	1372	863	523	469	3127	2216	2926	1823	1749	8714	351	374	252	259	1206	25717	37980					
1815	1288	869	531	531	3219	2452	3103	2045	2023	9653	318	343	349	238	1147	24329	35346					
1816	1333	1000	585	594	3512	2863	3313	2315	2064	10655	267	337	315	222	1141	24329	35346					
1817	1461	1071	629	632	3793	3124	3902	2487	2343	11856	324	361	329	193	1157	24329	35346					
1818	1254	881	533	553	3221	3040	3708	2345	2343	11837	244	264	238	193	930	24329	35346					
1819	1463	1060	594	609	3715	3571	4310	3132	2319	12485	223	257	190	180	850	24329	35346					
1820	1455	1073	600	578	3760	3989	4679	2381	2682	13685	267	284	269	180	810	24329	35346					
1821	1345	972	594	589	3440	3728	4418	2682	3067	13968	240	258	237	211	956	24329	35346					
1822	1311	942	553	535	3241	3752	4430	2639	2551	13392	218	224	222	219	863	24329	35346					
1823	1297	945	523	511	3286	3837	4500	2404	13347	200	259	229	184	872	16	23110	41288					
1824	1228	955	514	516	3313	4024	4884	2657	2430	13855	203	219	192	163	783	12	23117	41288				
1825	1302	1020	490	498	3310	4503	5096	2740	2674	14983	189	195	145	148	737	19	23230	42962				
1831	1289	925	581	523	3310	4398	5314	3335	3238	16285	202	218	187	155	762	7	21302	41675				
1832																						

The natives of the eastern hemisphere were brought to the west for the purpose of cultivating rice, and perhaps with the idea of forming a free labouring population; unfortunately no Chinese women were induced to accompany them; the men soon became discontented, and there now remain but a few of them as fishermen. Captain Wildey, with a philanthropic feeling, suggests in an able pamphlet the introduction of more Chinese, together with Malays, Lascars, and other inhabitants from the East.

It will be observed from the foregoing, that the Indian or aboriginal population is fast decreasing, and, it is to be feared, that they will utterly pass away, unless measures be adopted for their preservation; what these measures should be is another question: the Indians will not amalgamate with the negroes, from whom they totally differ in appearance and manners; their stature is short, (seldom exceeding five feet six inches) of a yellow colour, with dark eyes and long hair, glossy as a raven's wing; the wide space between the nostrils and upper lip is very remarkable, (so indicative of wisdom and firmness in the European), and although with an immense breadth of frame, or rather massiveness between the shoulders, their hands and feet (as among the Hindoos and Tartars) are small boned and delicately shaped. In their present state, apathy is certainly predominant; neither joy nor sorrow seem to affect them—they appear to be without curiosity or anger—the prominent traits of savage life. I cannot think with Mr. Coleridge, that this extraordinary, I may say

interesting race of beings, are inferior to the negroes ; their countenances, when lit up by the passions of the soul, pourtray the most intense mental emotions, and the abject state to which the whites have reduced them, does not present a fair field for comparison ; while lamenting their utter destruction in the islands and on the continent, I confess my inability to divine the inscrutable dispensations of Providence.

The Slave Population, according to a Parliamentary Return, was in numbers, from 1816 to 1828, as follows :—

Yrs.	Males.	Females	Total.	Increased by Birth.		Decreased by Death.		Decrease by Manumission.	
				Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Ma.	Fe.
1816	14,133	11,411	25,544	—	—	—	—	—	—
1819	13,155	10,382	23,537	729	669	1417	1362	151	235
1822	13,052	10,336	23,388	757	731	1303	1101	190	277
1825	13,435	11,017	24,452	812	824	1065	682	133	259
1828	12,591	11,185	23,776	710	759	1079	767	177	241
1832	10,107	10,158	20,265	—	—	—	—	—	—

General Return of the Population of Trinidad for
the year 1831 :—

TOWNS AND QUARTERS.	WHITE.					COLOURED.				
	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Aricagua	17	4	4	0	34	18	23	12	15	68
Arima.....	13	8	9	12	42	59	59	45	48	211
Bocas	19	14	8	6	42	27	28	16	11	82
Carenage & Cuesse	14	9	6	4	33	46	84	53	53	236
Caroni.....	11	3	8	11	33	46	39	28	51	144
Cedros and Couvas	19	10	6	2	37	80	59	26	35	200
Chaguana	14	3	2	1	20	44	22	16	12	84
Chaguanas	10	6	7	2	25	76	77	39	41	233
Chamaronero	4	3	5	2	14	25	34	13	15	87
Carapichaima	27	3	10	8	48	111	94	73	80	358
Diego Martin	11	8	2	1	22	80	98	75	79	332
Erin	7	2	9	133	100	75	77	391
Eastern Coast	13	2	3	...	18	251	40	32	39	368
Guanapo	31	28	33	7	99	214	141	126	130	614
Guapo.....	14	4	1	4	23	15	18	9	14	56
Hicacos	3	2	...	4	14	38	53	24	22	137
Irois	1	1	1	...	3	12	8	4	5	29
La Brea	10	3	3	2	18	31	34	27	28	120
Las Cuevas	1	1	21	25	23	16	85
La Ventille	20	23	14	10	67	173	211	131	87	604
Maraval.....	9	6	2	4	21	123	141	100	83	453
Mayaro and Guayre	16	2	...	1	13	41	42	30	20	133
Mucurapo	15	9	5	6	35	18	13	6	8	43
Maracas Valley	30	29	13	17	89	128	134	122	122	506
North Naparima	68	22	8	4	102	128	168	163	105	504
Oropuche	12	12	48	33	25	32	138
Point-a-Pierre	25	13	8	7	53	35	44	20	24	123
Savonetta	23	2	4	3	32	10	15	10	8	43
South Naparima	58	10	6	9	83	56	67	40	40	203
St. Ann's	19	14	10	13	56	128	154	160	118	500
Santa Cruz	24	21	19	22	86	179	180	128	122	618
St. Joseph	17	13	4	4	38	29	38	22	22	111
Savanna Grande	23	3	3	1	32	482	297	395	372	1646
Tacarigua & Arouca	38	14	11	10	73	95	85	75	86	341
Tooe and Cumana	5	2	1	...	8	67	60	38	47	212
Tragarete	10	7	2	2	21	16	25	9	11	61
Valley of Couva	17	21	7	12	57	76	84	74	66	300
Town of St. Juan's	3	5	...	1	9	28	75	20	24	153
— St. Joseph	9	17	10	6	42	22	39	21	32	114
— St. Arima	18	22	10	9	59	20	42	19	23	104
Port of Spain	584	568	341	307	1800	1173	2305	1131	1032	5641
	1289	926	581	523	3319	4398	5314	3335	3238	16255

General Return of the Population of Trinidad for
the year 1831, *continued* :—

TOWNS AND QUARTERS.	SLAVES.—Plantation.						SLAVES.—Personal.						Total No. of Slaves.	Grand Total of Persons.
	Africans.		Creoles.				Afric.		Creoles.					
	Men.	Wom.	Men.	Wom.	Boys.	Girls.	Men.	Wom.	Men.	Wom.	Boys.	Girls.		
Aricagua	89	70	75	85	64	63	6	12	13	15	9	13	513	615
Arima	40	26	48	54	53	33	2	8	17	6	9	7	303	361
Bocas	35	20	21	35	32	31	4	8	6	10	9	23	243	367
Carenage & Cuesse	65	61	86	92	57	49	6	5	6	6	4	12	449	718
Caroni	16	22	34	35	27	19	3	2	2	2	1	5	179	347
Cedros and Couvas	93	68	102	84	56	44	1	2	6	12	3	5	474	711
Chaguana	116	83	153	98	77	62	2	5	2	11	6	5	620	724
Chaguarmas	15	16	21	19	18	16	3	4	3	3	...	3	121	379
Citronero	42	22	19	28	29	31	3	9	8	10	13	8	222	323
Carapichafma	233	203	190	206	200	153	4	1	12	12	5	8	1226	1656
Diego Martin	89	87	89	124	82	77	14	6	13	27	15	4	627	961
Erin	7	11	29	25	13	12	7	3	4	5	3	3	122	322
Eastern Coast	1	3	1	3	...	3	11	397
Guano	32	24	39	42	41	33	3	6	9	12	8	14	283	1002
Guapo	39	37	63	58	34	25	5	3	10	11	4	4	309	388
Hicoos	13	6	5	9	11	9	3	7	11	10	9	7	106	257
Iris	12	5	14	18	4	1	...	1	1	56	88
La Brea	54	29	43	45	39	19	4	8	16	14	9	6	286	424
Las Cuevas	1	5	1	...	2	5	...	1	2	4	3	2	26	112
La Ventille	11	14	8	10	9	5	20	21	13	23	17	14	165	830
Maraval	45	41	79	64	43	51	8	8	10	29	21	20	419	892
Mayaro & Guayre	83	70	127	113	53	61	1	2	11	15	6	9	551	697
Mucurapo	3	5	23	23	8	10	4	2	11	4	7	9	109	187
Marcas Valley	42	23	21	31	51	53	3	4	6	7	5	8	254	849
North Naparima ...	215	154	205	199	130	143	19	40	65	80	42	48	1340	1946
Oropuche	79	58	73	87	40	35	7	2	9	10	5	4	409	590
Point-a-Pierre	169	115	181	202	124	142	7	8	15	27	15	13	1018	1194
Savonetta	185	119	157	162	146	106	2	...	3	4	9	3	890	971
South Naparima ...	346	238	456	453	346	382	55	52	99	100	101	71	2699	2983
St. Ann's	15	10	30	17	22	9	15	22	24	38	19	18	240	801
Santa Cruz	52	42	64	54	58	43	10	10	18	18	17	12	398	1101
St. Joseph	89	66	59	61	63	60	5	2	15	15	11	9	435	604
Savanna Grande ...	108	97	110	101	103	93	24	7	87	110	75	72	987	2773
Tacarigua & Arouca	219	148	230	229	180	181	10	12	28	19	16	19	1291	1708
Toco and Cumana .	3	2	3	2	1	...	3	4	9	10	7	7	51	413
Tragarete	33	20	40	31	14	19	13	8	21	33	11	18	261	343
Valley of Caura ...	13	8	7	17	11	11	...	1	1	69	458
Town of St. Juan's	3	10	5	15	14	1	57	219
— St. Joseph	1	3	3	10	8	21	14	10	76	232
— St. Arima	1	4	3	7	7	16	27	488
Port of Spain	199	865	635	935	598	576	3358	10898
	2740	2037	2906	2915	2241	2086	483	687	1236	1758	1127	1086	21250	41675

According to the intercolonial apportionment of the 20,000,000*l.* the number of slaves in Trinidad was 22,359 ; average value, each 105*l.* 4*s.*; relative value, 2,352,655*l.*, and proportion of 20,000,000*l.* to which Trinidad is entitled 1,039,119*l.*

The Indians (who are not given in the preceding) will be found in the abstract of the population returns at page 215, and are in No. 762 ; which, with the Chinese, (No. 7,) will make the totals right.

The number of persons employed in agriculture in 1832 out of a total population of 41,220, was 2195 ; in manufactures 392, and in commerce 264. The births were 767, deaths 954, and marriages 159. The resident strangers were 4615, and the total number of mouths to the square mile, about 63.

SCHOOLS, &c. There were twelve Free Schools in the island in 1832, at which 203 and 170 females are educated under Bell's system. There are also twenty-two Private Schools, with 412 pupils. The Wesleyan Mission at Trinidad consists of Teachers—male, 5 ; female 6. Scholars—male, 36 ; female, 37 : adults—male, 5 ; female, 9 : total, 87. In society—free, 108 ; slaves, 61 : total, 109.

I think there is only one newspaper in the island.

The Roman Catholic Religion prevails to a considerable extent, by reason of the Spanish and French population.

CHAPTER V.

GOVERNMENT—MILITARY DEFENCE—FINANCES—MONEYS,
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—VALUE OF PROPERTY—COM-
MERCE, SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, &c.—GENERAL
VIEW.

THE administrative functions of Trinidad are vested in a governor, aided by an executive and legislative committee. The Executive Council consists of three *official* members (*viz.* the Colonial Secretary, the Colonial Treasurer, and Attorney General), selected from the Legislative Councils;—they have no powers, and no other functions than counsellors of the Governor, who may follow their advice or not, as he pleases. The Legislative Council consists of twelve members, six of whom are styled *official*, holding offices and salaries at the pleasure of the Crown, *viz.* the Chief Justice, the Colonial Secretary, Attorney General, Colonial Treasurer, Public Prosecutor, and Collector of Customs, and six are styled *non-official*, selected from amongst the inhabitants, the whole removable at the pleasure of the Crown. The governor presides at the board, has a vote, and a casting vote in addition, and no measure can be introduced or proposed at the board which he objects to. So that the whole power and function of the board are virtually lodged in his hands, although nominally the laws may be passed, and the taxes imposed by the Legislative Council. The inhabitants of Trinidad are endeavour-

ing to obtain a less restrictive form of Government.

The Cabildo, in its authority and functions, resembles our municipal corporations: it has power to raise revenues, which are derived from licenses to the dealers in spirituous liquors, to hucksters, &c. and from a tax on carts, and on meat and fish sold in the town of Port of Spain, thus realizing about 12,000*l.* per annum, with which the streets and market-house are kept in repair, and the salaries of the police officers paid. All other salaries are paid out of the Colonial Treasury. The laws are principally Spanish, executed after the Spanish form, with some modifications; the titles of Alcade, Alquazil, &c. are always used instead of the corresponding terms in English.

TRINIDAD MILITIA. Every freeman of the island is enrolled in the militia, which is composed of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, with a very numerous staff. Their appearance on the great plain before St. Anne's is really superb; the muster is about 4,500, and a more efficient state of discipline is kept up than perhaps in any of the other islands. The Governor is of course Commander in Chief; there are two Brigadiers-General, an Adjutant, Commissary, Paymaster, Muster-Master, Provost-Marshal, and Judge Advocate-*General*; with deputies to each; Physician, Surgeon, and Apothecary General, and of Field Officers, two Colonels, twenty-one Lieutenant-Colonels, twelve Majors, and fifty-seven Captains. The uniforms are various and splendid;—the artillery is blue, with red facings, and gold lace; the royal Trinidad light dragoons blue, facings buff, and

lace silver; mounted chasseurs and light infantry green uniform; and the sea fencibles blue, with white facings; and so on through the whole of the other corps. The fines for non-attendance on parade, agreeably to the resolutions for the government of the militia forces of this island are—

	Dol.		Dol.
A Colonel	80	Sergeant - Major and	
Lieutenant Colonel ...	50	Quarter-Master Ser-	} 8
Major	40	jeant	
Captain	12	Serjeant	6
Lieutenants, Ensign, } Surgeon, Adjutant, } and Quarter-Master }	8	Corporal	5
		Private—first offence ...	4
		Ditto second	6

and for the third renders himself liable to be brought to trial by a general regimental court martial, which court is empowered to pass sentence of fine and imprisonment; not however exceeding twenty dollars, and forty-eight hours confinement. And should a fourth offence occur, any private so offending, is liable on conviction before a court martial, to be removed from the colony, as being inimical to the regulations established for the security and good order thereof. Besides the militia, there are in the island the head quarters of a European regiment of the line, and part of a West India regiment.

TAXATION AND EXPENDITURE.—It is difficult to learn the actual financial state of any of our colonies; no measure would be more advantageous to the general weal and commerce of the empire than the appointment of commissioners to visit the different colonies, and make explicit reports on this important subject. Trinidad defrays the whole expenses of its

civil establishment, the extent of which is fixed by the Secretary for the colonies in England, without the Governor or Council having the power to increase or diminish the amount of the expenditure. The following are the colonial duties payable at the treasury :—

ON IMPORTS.	per Cent.	OF IMPORTS.	per Cent.
On Invoice, excepting	} 3½	On the value of Produce regulated per Tariff of the Market	} 3½
Cotton, Linen, and			
Cod Fish			
On Wines	7	Price	
On Spirits, 4s. per gallon in addition to	3½		

TARE.—Hogsheads and tierces, 14-lbs. per cent. ; on barrels, 20-lbs. each ; and on bags, 3-lbs. each. Transient Property to pay 2½ per cent. Tonnage duty, 6*d.* sterling per ton.

Duties on bequests by will made in Trinidad :—

	Per Hundred Pounds.
In the ascending line	£ 2 0 0
Collateral line of the first degree	2 10 0
Of the second degree	3 10 0
Of the third degree	4 10 0
To illegitimate or natural children	6 0 0
To all other persons	7 0 0
Bequests from the fifth	6 0 0
And on all legacies, or inheritances paid to persons, residents of a foreign colony or state (except in the descending line) an addition of	} 2 0 0

Besides the foregoing, there is a tax of five per cent. on the assessed rent of houses ; and a poll tax of 8*s.* 8*d.* sterling on each slave.

The taxation raised on the principal items is 15,000*l.* on colonial produce exported, being levied at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem*; 8,000*l.* on all goods imported at the same rate, except British linens, cottons, and salt fish; 10,000*l.* on slaves as a poll tax; and 2,500*l.* on the annual rents of houses. The civil establishment costs 10,000*l.*, and the judicial 7,000*l.* A recent Parliamentary Return states the revenue and expenditure for five years thus:—

	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832
Taxation	36810 <i>l.</i>	44332 <i>l.</i>	54921 <i>l.</i>	50080 <i>l.</i>	49196 <i>l.</i>	43196 <i>l.</i>*	...
Expenditure	37587	35958	44589	54015	36594	36384

The amount of the principal salaries is annually—Governor, 4,000*l.*; Chief Judge, 2,000*l.*; first Puisne, 1,500*l.*; second ditto, 1,500*l.*; Island Secretary, 800*l.*; Register, 600*l.*; Attorney-General, 1,200*l.*; Treasurer, 800*l.*; Examiner of Public Accounts, 400*l.*; Escriband to Judicial Courts, 800*l.*; Commissioners of Population, 500*l.*

A very large sum is raised by fees, the tables for regulating which occupy the greater part of the colonial Almanack; it would seem very desirable that such a system were in a great measure reformed. By the 114th cap. 6, Geo. IV., all custom-house fees are wisely abolished, under a penalty of 100*l.* for any officer receiving such fee or bribe, besides dismissal from office.

* Mr. Porter's Board of Trade, Statistical Vol., gives the gross revenue of Trinidad for 1831 at 34,993*l.* The expense of civil establishments, 41,801*l.*; and the charges incurred by the colony for garrisons, 726*l.*; total, 42,527*l.*

MONIES.—Accounts are kept in dollars and bits, (reals are sometimes denoted, particularly in the multifarious fees of the Roman Catholic church); the difference between the colonial currency and sterling, is—3*d.* currency = $1\frac{1}{4}$ *d.* sterling; 1*s.* currency = $5\frac{1}{4}$ *d.* sterling; 1*l.* currency = 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling.

VALUE OF PROPERTY.—Referring to the general remarks on the value of property, as made under Jamaica and British Guiana, I give the following table as the nearest approximation to truth :—

VALUE OF PROPERTY ANNUALLY CREATED, AND MOVEABLE AND IMMOVEABLE, IN TRINIDAD.

Total Property Moveable and Immoveable.		7,710,000	
Total Property Annually Created.		1,332,100	
Property Moveable and Immoveable.	Bullion or Coin in Circulation.	60,000	
	Private Property.	Horses, Cattle, Mules, Goats, &c.	100,000
		Roads, Wharfs, Machineries, Boats, &c.	500,000
		Dwelling Houses, Stores, Furniture, Clothes, &c.	1,800,000
	Public Property.	Roads, Buildings, Wharfs, Cannons, Timber, &c.	1,000,000
	Land.	Uncultivated and Ungranted.	1,000,000 acres at 5s. 250,000.
Cultivated.		400,000 acres at 10s. 4,000,000.	
Property Annually Created.	Manufactures, Income, and Sundries.	500,000.	
	Animal Food and Fish.	At 5s. per annum each, 210,000.	
	Vegetable Food, &c.	At 3s. per annum each, 126,000.	
	Cotton.	Lbs. 25,000 at 6s. 625.	
	Coffee.	Lbs. 1,000,000 at 7s. 29,166.	
	Cocoa.	Lbs. 1,500,000 at 6s. 37,500.	
	Molasses.	gal. 1,000,000 at 1s. 6d. 41,666.	
	Rum.	gal. 400,000 at 1s. 6d. 30,000.	
	Sugar.	Cwt. 337,148 at 20s. 357,143.	

COMMERCE, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—The trade of the island may, to a great extent, be judged of by the quantity of produce raised in it, as given at page 211. For twelve consecutive years, the quantity of the principal articles exported from Trinidad is thus shown:—

EXPORTED PRODUCE of TRINIDAD from 1821 to 1832.										
Years.	Sugar.			Molasses.		Rum.	Cocoa.	Coffee.	Cotton.	
	Hhds.	Tier.	Bar.	Hhds.	Tier.	Pun.	lbs.	lbs.	Bales	Sers.
1821	20,412	570	7,999	2,730	...	1208	1,214,063	199,553	208	...
1822	20,951	714	7,908	2,832	...	761	1,790,379	347,399	222	...
1823	23,662	510	7,038	6,245	...	566	2,424,703	299,404	460	...
1824	23,362	882	6,856	7,409	...	471	2,661,628	284,637	352	...
1825	22,512	16,370	7,890	7,896	...	68	2,760,603	177,348	492	567
1826	25,541	1,358	8,075	8,672	...	353	2,951,171	321,254	107	2,811
1827	26,075	1,320	7,618	9,694	...	589	3,696,144	373,424	201	2,308
1828	29,605	1,067	6,634	11,320	306	285	2,582,323	266,754	148	2,915
1829	30,629	877	5,184	10,686	596	559	2,756,603	199,615	123	1,234
1830	31,812	480	3,781	4,846	163	258	1,646,531	197,360	59	1,010
1831	23,750	449	5,506	8,297	94	853	1,888,852	19,994	31	250
1832	25,912	774	6,885	10,977	504	65	1,530,990	150,966	40	498
1833
1834

The Indigo Exports were in 1828,—Seroons 50, and in the several subsequent years, 10, 7, 12, and 11.

The *Imports* valued in sterling money, were in 1831, from Great Britain, 182,856*l.*; from British Colonies, 51,197*l.*; from Foreign States, 66,514*l.*:—total, 300,567*l.* The *Exports* were, to Great Britain, 202,057*l.*; to British Colonies, 30,428*l.*; to Foreign States, 11,907*l.*: total, 244,392*l.*, making a grand total of maritime commerce to the amount of 544,959*l.* The shipping employed in the trade of the island will be seen from the following official return:—

SHIPPING OF TRINIDAD, INWARDS AND OUTWARDS.

Years.	SHIPS INWARDS, FROM						SHIPS OUTWARDS, TO										
	Great British.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total.		Great British.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total.		
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	
1826	77	9,241	151	10,532	214	19,399	442	210,336	4312	76	16,920	167	1,039	178	17,353	430	44,297
1827	83	16,375	185	11,845	159	11,043	426	41585	...	87	19,823	217	15,030	124	11,350	428	40,312
1828	102	29,864	151	12,884	176	11,371	499	46519	...	100	23,938	218	15,980	102	3,455	429	43,349
1829	99	24,333	179	17,058	203	14,394	484	45715	...	101	25,804	245	19,171	135	11,164	481	51,079
1830	59	13,865	174	13,681	148	10,619	381	39165	...	71	17,755	216	17,101	123	10,233	410	45,181
1831	88	31,611	189	14,880	103	9,156	380	45787	...	73	17,907	218	16,634	78	8,374	369	42,115
1832	73	16,722	163	12,903	113	9,235	84	19,113	209	14,302	62	6,776
1833	2662

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The following are the Spanish Weights and Measures, and the proportion they bear to each other :—

WEIGHTS.

The Fanega	=	110-lbs.	English.
The Quintal	=	100	„ „
1 Aroba . . .	=	25	„ „
4 Arobas ..	=	1	Quintal.

MEASURES.

Varas.	Estadale.			
100	=	1	Solare.	
2500	=	25	=	1 Suerte.
10000	=	100	=	4 = 1 Fanega.
40000	=	400	=	16 = 4 = 1
				English Inches.
The Vara of Castile			32,529
—————	Seville.....			33,127
—————	Madrid			39,166

The Measure used in surveying in Trinidad is the Quarrée, containing $18,526\frac{1}{2}$ Varas of Castile, or 3 and 1-5th English Acres; consequently 100 Quarrée are equal to 320 acres.

The side of a square of a Quarrée or 3 and 1-5th English Acres, is equal to 373 8-11ths English feet; $408\frac{5}{4}$ Spanish ditto; 350 French ditto; or 136 and 1-10th Spanish Varas.

GENERAL VIEW AND FUTURE PROSPECTS.—No person can peruse even the brief description now given of this lovely isle, without admitting its importance and value to Great Britain, not only in reference to its fertile soil, and the quantity of crown land lying waste, but also with regard to its admirable position on the South American coast, by means

of which an extensive depot may be formed for continental commerce, as the civilization and wealth of the Transatlantic republics increase. The remarks made under Jamaica, in reference to the *future prospects* of that island, apply equally well to Trinidad, as regards the ultimate result of the Slave Emancipation Bill. The grand principle by which our colonies ought to have been governed, after they have arrived at a certain extent of population and wealth, has not yet been applied to Trinidad. I am confident, however, that the inhabitants of Trinidad have only to press forward their claims for a Legislative assembly, with respectful energy, and their prayer will not be refused by the ministers of the crown, or the Parliament of the nation. If our fellow subjects in Trinidad be not admitted to send a representative to sit in the Imperial Assembly, they ought in common justice be permitted to manage their local affairs by a local assembly at home. The colonies possessing local legislative assemblies are not only no drain on the British exchequer, but a very great support to it; and although Trinidad now defrays the *whole of its civil* and a part of its military defence, yet would its inhabitants yield more readily a greater revenue if allowed to tax themselves; or they would be enabled to relieve themselves of injurious fiscal imposts by curtailing unnecessary taxation, and by keeping a watchful eye over the expenditure of the government. The discussion of general principles affecting the mother county and her transmarine possessions, will be found in my work on the "*Colonial Policy of the British Empire.*"

BOOK IV.
T O B A G O.

CHAPTER I.

ITS LOCALITY — GENERAL HISTORY — PHYSICAL ASPECT —
GEOLOGY—CLIMATE—ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS
—POPULATION—COMMERCE—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE
—GOVERNMENT, &c.

IN $11^{\circ} 16'$ north latitude, $60^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude, the western end distant but six miles from Trinidad, and the eastern twenty-four leagues from Grenada, is situate Tobago, the most southerly of the Caribbee islands, about thirty-two miles long, in an east-north-east direction; and in its greatest breadth twelve miles, embracing a mountainous area of forty-four square miles.

Tobago, or *Tobacco*, was discovered by Columbus in 1496, and thus named after the pipe used by the islanders in smoking the herb now so extensively used in the Old World, and then termed *Kohiba*¹.

¹ The herb and pipe bore the same name at the other extremity of the Carib Archipelago in St. Domingo.

When first visited, it was found to be peopled by a race since well known under the denomination of Caribs, who were at continual war with another nation denominated the Arrawaaks, residing on the main land¹. The Tobagians some time after left the island, and retired from the pursuit of the Arrawaaks to St. Vincent's, where, it is said, they lived in peace with the Indians inhabiting that isle. It would appear from this that the Arrawaaks, as asserted by some, were a nation of Caribs, differing in some points from those now generally called by the name of Carib.

In 1580 the British flag was planted on the island. In 1608 James the First claimed its sovereignty; no effectual colonization, however, then took place. A small British colony is said to have settled on the island from Barbadoes, in 1625; but it was subsequently abandoned. A description of Tobago is said to have suggested the scenery of Crusoe's island to De Foe.

The isle was granted to the Earl of Pembroke, in 1628, by Charles the First. Some Dutch navigators visited Tobago on their return voyage from the Brazils, and, struck with its advantageous situation for trade with the continent, as also with the beauty of its climate and the richness of its soil, a company of Flushing traders formed an establishment on the almost deserted isle, in 1632, founding the colony with 200 persons, and naming it New Walcheren, in

¹ Vide Book on British Guiana, for a description of these people.

honour of their native home; but, in 1634, before the Hollanders had time to fortify themselves, the jealousy of the Spaniards of Trinidad was roused, and, aided by some native Indians, the Dutch that escaped the onslaught were conducted as prisoners to Trinidad, the rising walls of the fortress of New Walcheren razed, the cannon and stores carried off, and the plantations utterly destroyed. For nearly twenty succeeding years the island remained untenanted, but occasionally frequented by seamen from Martinique and Guadaloupe, to fish for turtle, or by the Indians of St. Vincent and the other Antilles, who touched there on their frequent expeditions against the Arrawaaks of the Orinoco.

In 1654¹, some merchants at Flushing, named the Lampsins, obtained a charter from the government of the United Provinces, authorizing their occupation of Tobago for their sole use, with the privilege of appointing a governor and magistrates, but giving a veto to the Dutch government at home on the nomination of the former. The spirit of commerce was then at its height in Holland; and Tobago, or New Walcheren, soon became not merely an agricultural colony, but one of the most thriving commercial emporiums in the West Indies. Shortly after the Dutch occupation, a vessel arrived at Tobago with colonists from Courland, James the First of England having previously granted Tobago to his godson the Duke of Courland. Nearly 100 families

¹ Some say that the Courlanders arrived on the north coast of Tobago in 1648.

were thus landed on one of the most beautiful parts of the island, termed Courland Bay. In a few days, the contending colonists came to blows; but the belligerents at length agreed to leave each other quiet until their respective governments at home should decide to whom the island belonged. The Courlanders were neglected, partly owing to the Duke being imprisoned and deprived of his territories by the King of Sweden, while the Lampsins strongly reinforced their friends: the result was, that, in 1659, the latter forced the Courlanders to relinquish Fort James, which they had built in Courland Bay. The efforts of the Duke of Courland to recover Tobago, on the restitution of his estates, were ineffectual, notwithstanding the manifesto of Charles II. in his favour, 17th of November, 1654, when declaring war against Holland; the Lampsins, therefore, remained in peaceable possession for some years. No mention was made of Tobago at the treaty of Breda; and during the interval of the first and second war between England and Holland, the governor, Hubert de Beveren, and the colonists, amounting to 1200, placed Forts James and Lampsinberg in a good state of defence; while the commerce and cultivation of the island rapidly increased.

Nevertheless Tobago was shortly after plundered and sacked by Sir Tobias Bridges, at the head of the Barbadian privateers; and subsequently, the Dutch having declared war against the French, the Duke D'Estrées attacked and defeated Admiral Binkes, in Scarborough Bay, and pillaged the island. Four

months after, D'Estrées again appeared off Fort Lampkins, landed his infantry, and attacked Binkes in the fortress, who, after a gallant defence, was, together with a great part of his little garrison, blown up by the explosion of a powder magazine; and on the 24th of December, 1677, the brave and industrious Hollanders were compelled to abandon a colony which they had commenced under such favourable auspices in 1654: such are the wretched effects of desolating wars for personal aggrandizement. In 1678, the Duke of Courland renewed his pretensions, and for many years strenuous but unavailing efforts were made to induce colonists to settle in the island. In 1737, the house of Kettler, sovereigns of Courland, being extinct by the death of Ferdinand, son of James, England claimed the reversion of Tobago. In 1748, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it was stipulated that St. Lucia should belong to France, and that Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, and Dominica, should be considered as neutral islands; that the subjects of all European powers should have the right to establish themselves and carry on commerce in and with those islands; but that none of the contracting parties should place garrisons in them. Whether Tobago was then inhabited or not, it is hard to say. The chroniclers of the island assert that, in 1757, the ship *Stirling Castle* touched at Tobago; and on Mr. Thompson, a midshipman, landing, he found an old French hermit on the island, who had been living alone on it for twenty-one years.

At the peace of 1763, Louis XV. ceded Tobago in

perpetuity to England; and on the 20th of May, 1765, a commission was appointed for granting lands on the island. The prosperity of the island dates from this period; large capitals were invested by enterprising British colonists, and agriculture and commerce rapidly progressed; but the miseries of war had not yet terminated. During our contest with North America, in 1781, Tobago was captured by the Marquis de Bouillié, and ceded to France by the treaty of Versailles in 1783. While Tobago remained in the possession of France, a few French settlers established themselves in the island; and on the breaking out of hostilities between England and France, General Cuyler, in March, 1793, at the head of 2000 men, took possession of the island for Great Britain, in whose possession it has ever since remained.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Tobago has been termed the '*Melancholy Isle*,' because, when viewed from the north, it seems to be only a mass of lofty, gloomy mountains, with black precipices descending abruptly to the sea. On a nearer approach, the island exhibits a very irregular aspect; it is principally composed of conical hills, of basaltic formation, and of ridges which descend from the interior (where they rise in a distinct manner from a common base or dorsal ridge, 1800 feet high, and running twenty miles out of the thirty-two that the island is long) toward the sea, terminating sometimes in abrupt precipices; the ravines are deep and narrow, and end generally in small alluvial plains. The north-west part is the least mountainous, terminating in the north in

abrupt precipices, with the dark island of Little Tobago and the dangerous rocks called St. Giles's. The south terminates in broken plains and low lands, the whole aspect, like Trinidad, being calm and magnificent, with occasional beautiful mounds of isolated hills, so close that few levels for marsh or swamps present themselves; the delightful vales every where exhibiting the effects of a rotatory and undulating motion of vast currents of water, and forming, with the contiguous mountains, truly picturesque scenery. The island is well watered by rivulets and streams, arising in the interior, and passing over the low lands to the coast, where they are occasionally obstructed, which, however, a little attention would prevent.

Scarborough, the principal town, is situate on the south-west side of Tobago, along the sea-shore, at the base of Fort George Hill, and extends, with little uniformity, easterly towards the fort, the distance from the latter place being upwards of half a mile. On the south and south-west the descent to the sea is gradual, and at the base of the hill approaching the town are scattered several country houses. Fort George Hill, the road to which is steep, and towards the west, rises to the height of 422 feet, of a conical shape, and crowned by 'Fort King George,' the chief military station in the island. On the windward side are numerous excellent bays, and on the northward is situate 'Man-of-War Bay,' capacious, safe, and adapted to the largest ships. At Courland Bay (on the north side, six miles from Fort King George), which approaches the leeward extremity, the hills,

covered with rich forests, are bolder and more abrupt than on the south side, and consequently the cultivation more scattered; the 'Richmond,' a large river, passes through the district. Extending from Courland to Sandy Point, on the south side, are several estates on the low lands, in good cultivation, owing to the number of rivulets watering the shore. Sandy Point District (or, as it may be termed, Garden) forms the western extremity of the island, and is the only level land of any extent in Tobago. The eastern district is chiefly composed of high mountains, clothed with noble trees, and but thinly cultivated.

Man of War, Courland, Sandy Point, and King Bays, are adapted to the largest-sized ships; Tyrrels, Bloody, Mangrove, Englishman's, and Castara's Bays, have good anchorage for vessels up to 150 tons burthen; Halifax Bay admits vessels of 250 tons, but a shoal at the entrance requires a pilot.

GEOLOGY.—On a complete view of the island, as compared with the adjacent continent, the observer is impressed with the belief that it formed, at some distant day, a bold promontory of main land, from which it has been violently dissevered. There is, in fact, a general physiognomical resemblance between Tobago and Trinidad, except that there are not seen those large blocks of hyaline quartz in the former that are found almost every where in the latter, on the summits of mountains as well as on the plains; the rounded pebbles found in the beds of rivers are generally of quartz or freestone, some of hyaline quartz, others of amphiobolic schistus, &c. Neither sulphur nor carbonate of lime have been seen. The

hill above Scarborough appears to be a bed of basalt and schistus rock, with a loose and heavy superstratum; the soil is a rich dark mould, and resembles, particularly in the east part, that of its neighbouring isle, with the advantage of the vegetative earth being deeper on the hills of Tobago.

CLIMATE—though moist, by being impregnated with saline particles, is not at all unhealthy, particularly if proper attention were paid to promoting the exits of the mountain streams. The rainy season begins in June, and gradually becomes heavy until September; the violence of the rains then abate, showers continuing, at intervals, to the end of December or beginning of January, when the season termed 'crop-time' begins. The island is out of the usual range of hurricanes; the winds are south-east and south during the greater part of the year; in December and January they prevail from the north, often very strong and cold. So decidedly salubrious are the high lands of the interior, that Dr. Lloyd, the principal medical officer, reported to Sir James M'Grigor, in 1827, that 'on some of the estates in the interior, no European resident had been buried for upwards of *ten years*!'

TIDES, WINDS, and SAILING DIRECTIONS.—The currents round the island are very uncertain, especially in the Trinidad channel. At new and full moon the rise of the tide is four feet; the north-east trade blows all the year about the island. The island being seen towards evening, the mariner, cautious of approaching, should stand under easy sail to the southward, as the current sets to the

north-west; coming from the east, steer for the south coast, and keep well to the southward to stem the north-west current, which always sets round the lesser Tobago. On entering any of the bays to leeward, ships may approach quite close to St. Giles's rock. There is nothing to fear at the south-west Bay of Courland but rocks above water, except the Chesterfield rock. Tobago is free from hurricanes, though Grenada, the most southward of the Antilles, and only thirty leagues from the continent, is as much under the influence of squalls as the other Antilles.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Almost every kind of plant that grows on the Antilles flourishes at Tobago, and also, in common with Trinidad, the greater part of those which are cultivated in Guiana and Cumana: the orange, lemon, guava, pomegranate, fig, and grape, are in perfection; the two latter yield fruit twice a year, if pruned three weeks after the fruit has been gathered, and all the culinary plants of Europe arrive at perfection; the cinnamon and pimento (some say also the nutmeg) trees grow wild in different parts of the island, and the cotton of Tobago is of excellent quality.

ZOOLOGY.—Although the vegetation of Tobago and Trinidad is similar, some quadrupeds and birds are found in the latter which do not exist in the former, and *vice-versa*: the *Katraka*, for instance, a very singular species of pheasant, although taken from Tobago to Trinidad, and let loose, has not multiplied there; while the *Hoccos* of Trinidad are in a similar position with regard to Tobago; and

although nearly all the quadrupeds of the immense region between the Amazon river and the isthmus of Panama are to be found at Trinidad, very few of them are to be seen at Tobago; even the small deer of Guiana, so plentiful at Trinidad, do not exist here. The indigenous birds are, varieties of wild ducks, pigeons, blackbirds (yellow and black), white woodcocks, thrushes, herons, pouched pelicans, &c. The eagles of the Orinoco, and flamingoes, frequent the coasts; three varieties of humming-birds exist, and a small bird of the size of a sparrow, with magnificent plumage; the head, neck, and upper part of the body are of a most brilliant red; the feathers of the wings and tail of a deep purple above and a sky-blue underneath, and the breast and belly of an azure hue. A great variety of shell-fish are found on the coast, which is frequented by sea-cows and turtles in abundance.

POPULATION.—Of the yearly increase or decrease of the inhabitants, I can find no connected details. In 1776, the population was 2397 white, 1050 free negroes, and 10,752 slaves; in 1787, whites, 1397; free coloured, 1050; slaves, 10,539; and the import of slaves, in a medium of four years, 1400; in 1805, whites, 900; coloured people, 700; slaves, 14,883. The whites are now estimated at 450; the free coloured, males, 477; females, 686. The following table shows the numbers, increase, and decrease of the slave population, from 1819 to 1832:—

THE NUMBERS, INCREASE, AND DECREASE
OF THE SLAVE POPULATION.

Years.	Males.	Females	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Decrease by Manumission.	
				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1810	7,633	7,837	15,470						
1820	7,384	7,679	15,063	141	163	416	384	1	5
1821	7,107	7,474	14,521	178	155	370	366	1	2
1822	6,952	7,303	14,315	159	158	367	305	10	12
1823	6,812	7,263	14,074	151	167	232	211	5	16
1824	6,558	7,098	13,656	166	157	371	290	9	14
1825	6,532	7,151	13,683	154	157	213	191	4	2
1826	6,391	7,094	13,428	108	160	362	328	7	10
1827	6,138	6,861	12,999	170	163	213	185	3	7
1828	6,088	6,807	12,895	178	191	289	249	4	7
1829	5,966	6,757	12,723	178	196	283	248	2	6
1830	5,872	6,614	12,556	165	155	288	220	4	12
1831	5,769	6,601	12,370	170	171	274	241	4	11
1832	5,663	6,488	12,091	145	161	298	253	13	21

Under the intercolonial apportionment act, the number of slaves registered is 11,621; the average value of each, 45*l.* 12*s.*; relative value, 529,941*l.*; proportion of the 20,000,000*l.*, to which Tobago is entitled, 335,627*l.*

COMMERCE (EXPORTS).—The principal exports are sugar, molasses, and rum; of which there were exported, in 1831, sugar, 8453 hogsheads; molasses, 183 puncheons; rum, 5171 ditto. The value of the trade of the island, and the shipping employed for the same year, was,—

IMPORTS. VALUE IN STERLING.				
1831.	From Great Britain.	From British Colonies.	From Foreign States.	Total Value.
£.	54,530	57,961	4,780	117,271
Ships Inwards.				
Tons.	7,127	6,647	1,478	15,252
EXPORTS. VALUE IN STERLING.				
1831.	To Great Britain.	To British Colonies.	To Foreign States.	Total Value.
£.	144,384	15,686	220	160,290
Ships Outwards.				
Tons.	7,385	7,377	582	15,344

The progress of the exports is thus shown:—

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT.			
Years.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Rum.
	Hogsheds.	Puncheons.	Puncheons.
1822	7509	442	5111
1823	8760	850	4667
1824	8681	401	5053
1825	8110	737	5484
1826	8700	300	5477
1827	5419	138	4136
1828	8685	812	5450
1829	7570	183	4154
1830	6687	48	4220
1831	8453	138	5171

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The gross receipts of the island revenue, for 1831, was 9992l.; and the expenses of the civil establishment, 7388l. From a Colonial Office manuscript, I derive the following statement, which, however imperfect, I give as recorded:—

TOBAGO GROSS REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE IN STERLING MONEY.				
Years.	Gross Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	8,662			7,838
1822	11,699			9,033
1823	5,909	No Returns	No Returns.	7,055
1824	8,753			8,802
1825	5,894			5,232
1827	7,654			8,009
1828	5,732	5,478	174	5,652
1829	9,614	9,875	152	10,027
1830	9,132	8,233	185	8,418
1831	9,992	7,388	185	7,573

FORM OF GOVERNMENT.—Tobago is ruled by a governor, council, and house of assembly, whose powers and authority are similar to those of Jamaica, &c.

BOOK V.

GRENADA AND THE GRENADINES.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY—AREA—GENERAL HISTORY, &c.

GRENADA, the most southerly of the Antilles, and most lovely of our West India isles, is situate between the parallels of $12^{\circ} 20'$ and $11^{\circ} 58'$ north latitude, and $61^{\circ} 20'$ and $61^{\circ} 35'$ west longitude, nearly equi-distant from Tobago (60 miles) and the nearest point of the continent of South America; its greatest length, north and south, about twenty five miles, and at either extremity narrowing to a point; in its greatest breadth twelve, in circumference fifty miles, and containing about 80,000 acres.

Christopher Columbus, during his third adventurous voyage, in 1498, discovered Grenada, and found it fully occupied by a warlike race (the Charibs), among whom the Spaniards never attempted to form a settlement, and who remained for a century after

in peaceable possession of their native home. In 1650, the French governor of Martinique, Du Parquet¹, collected 200 hardy adventurers, for the purpose of seizing on the island, which, from the manly character of the natives, was considered an enterprize of difficulty and danger.

This expedition², as related by Father du Tertre, exhibits a monstrous mixture of fanaticism and knavery. The commanders administered the holy sacrament, in the most solemn manner, to all the soldiers, on their embarkation, and again on their landing; and Du Parquet, causing a cross to be erected, compelled them to kneel down before it, and join in devout prayer to Almighty God for the success of their enterprize.

The natives received and entertained the French with the utmost kindness and cordiality. Pretending to open a treaty with the chiefs of the Charibs, for the purchase of the country, the latter gave the natives *'some knives and hatchets, and a large quantity of glass beads, besides two bottles of brandy for the chief himself,'* and then asserted that the island was fairly ceded to the French nation, by the natives themselves, in lawful purchase!

Du Parquet thus established a colony in Grenada, built a fort for its protection, and left the government of the island to a kinsman, named Le Compte. Within eight months after this period, we find a war

¹ Du Parquet subsequently sold the island to Count Cerillac for 30,000 crowns.

² I am indebted to the Grenada Almanack for many details relative to this isle.

of extermination carried on by the French against the Charibs. Du Parquet sent a reinforcement of 300 men from Martinique, with orders to extirpate the natives altogether; but Le Compte seems not to have wanted any incitement to acts of barbarity; for Du Tertre admits that he had already proceeded to murder, without mercy, every Charib that fell into his hands—not sparing even the women and children.

The manner in which the unfortunate aborigines were destroyed may be judged of by a circumstance which Father Du Tertre relates of *one* expedition:— ‘Forty of the Charaibes were massacred on the spot. About forty others, who had escaped the sword, ran towards a precipice, from whence they cast themselves headlong into the sea, and miserably perished. A beautiful girl, of twelve or thirteen years of age, who was taken alive, became the object of dispute between two of our officers, each of them claiming her as his prize; a third, coming up, put an end to the contest by shooting the girl through the head. The place from which these barbarians threw themselves into the sea has been called, ever since, *le Morne de Sauteurs* (Leapers’ Hill). Our people, having lost but one man in the expedition, proceeded in the next place to set fire to the cottages, and root up the provisions of the savages; and having destroyed or taken away every thing belonging to them, returned *in high spirits*.’ No wonder that the whole native population was soon extirpated!

It may well be imagined that cultivation made but little progress. So late as 1700, the island

contained no more than 251 whites and 525 blacks, who were employed on three plantations of sugar and fifty-two of indigo.

After the peace of Utrecht, the government of France began to turn its attention towards her West India possessions. Grenada, however, for many years, partook less of its care than the rest. By a smuggling intercourse with the Dutch, the Grenadians changed their circumstances for the better, increased their numbers, and a great part of the country was settled. In 1762, Grenada and the Grenadines are said to have yielded annually, in clayed and muscovado sugar, a quantity equal to about 11,000 hogsheads of muscovado, of fifteen cwt. each, and about 27,000 lbs. of indigo.

Grenada surrendered, on capitulation, in February, 1762, and, with its dependencies, was finally ceded to Great Britain, by the definitive treaty of Paris, on the 10th of February, 1763, St. Lucia being restored at the same time to France. The chief stipulations in favour of the inhabitants, as well by the treaty as by the articles of capitulation, were these:—First, That as they would become, by their surrender, subjects of Great Britain, they should enjoy their properties and privileges, and pay taxes, *in like manner as the rest of his Majesty's subjects of the other British Leeward Islands.* Secondly, With respect to religion, they were put on the same footing as the inhabitants of Canada, viz., liberty was given them to exercise it according to the rites of the Romish Church, *as far as the laws of Great Britain permitted.* Thirdly, Such of the inhabitants of Grenada as chose

to quit the island, should have liberty to do so, and eighteen months allowed them to dispose of their effects.

A legislative assembly was granted by England, and the Grenadians resisted the imposition of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duties. The crown, however, persisting in its claim, and the inhabitants in opposing it, issue was joined before the judges of the Court of King's Bench, in England. The case was elaborately argued in Westminster Hall four several times; and in Michaelmas Term, 1774, Lord Chief Justice Mansfield pronounced judgment *against the crown*. The consequence was, that the duty in question was abolished, not only in Grenada, but also in Dominica, St. Vincent's, and Tobago. It should have been abolished in all the islands.

On the 2d of July, 1797, a French armament, consisting of a fleet of twenty-five ships of the line, ten frigates, and 5000 troops, under the command of the Count d'Estaing, appeared off the harbour and town of St. George. The whole force of the island was composed of 90 men of the forty-eighth regiment, 300 militia of the island, and 150 seamen from the merchant ships; and its fortifications consisted chiefly of an entrenchment, which had been hastily thrown up round the summit of Hospital Hill. This entrenchment the Count d'Estaing invested the next day, at the head of 3000 of his best forces, which he led up in three columns, and, after a desperate conflict and the loss of 300 men, carried the lines. Never did so small a body of men make a nobler defence against such inequality of numbers. The

governor (Lord Macartney) and the remains of his little garrison immediately retired into the old fort at the mouth of the harbour, which, however, was wholly untenable, being commanded by the Hospital Hill battery, the guns of which, having been most unfortunately left unspiked, were now turned against them. At day-break the French opened a battery of two twenty-four-pounders against the walls of the old fort. In this situation, the governor and inhabitants had no alternative but an unconditional surrender; and the Count d'Estaing became master of the island.

Grenada and the Grenadines were restored to Great Britain, with all the other captured islands in the West Indies (Tobago excepted), by the general pacification which took place in 1783. An insurrection, fomented, it was said, by the French revolutionists, broke out in March, 1795, which was not finally terminated until July, 1796. During the continuance of the disturbance, the greatest distress prevailed, and the most horrid murders were perpetrated by the infatuated rebels; wherever they appeared, devastation followed them; and, from the direful effects of their cruelty and rapine, Grenada has never recovered the flourishing state which it had previously enjoyed.

For the sake of reference, and as historical data, I give, wherever I find it practicable, a list of the chief authorities in each settlement, with the dates of their period of office.

A list of governors, lieutenant-governors, &c., who have held the government of Grenada, since

the cession of the colony to Great Britain in the year 1763:—

Brig.-Gen. Robert Melville, Capt.-Gen. Commander-in-Chief in and over the southern Caribbee Islands of Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago, 1764; Ulysses Fitzmaurice, Sen. Lieut.-Gov. of St. Vincent, 1768; Brig.-Gen. R. Melville, again, 1770; F. Corsar, Esq., President, 1771; U. Fitzmaurice, Lieut.-Gov. of St. Vincent, again, 1771; Brig.-Gen. W. Leybourne, Gov. S. C. Islands, 1771; F. Corsar, Esq., President, again, 1775; W. Young, Lieut.-Gov. Tobago, 1775; Sir G. (afterwards Lord) Macartney, K. B., Gov., 1776; Lieut.-Gen. E. Matthew, Gov., 1784; W. Lucas, Esq., President, 1785; S. Williams, Esq., President, 1787; J. Campbell, Esq., President, 1788; S. Williams, Esq., again President, 1789 to 1793; N. Home, Esq., Lieut.-Gov., 1793; K. M'Kenzie, Esq., President, 1795; S. Williams, Esq., again President, 1795; A. Houstoun, Esq., Lieut.-Gov., 1796; Colonel C. Green, Gov., 1797; S. Mitchell, Esq., President, 1798; Rev. S. Dent, President, 1801; G. V. Hobart, Esq., Lieut.-Gov., 1802; Rev. S. Dent, again President, 1802; Major-Gen. W. D. M'Lean Clephane, Lieut.-Gov., 1803; Rev. S. Dent, again President, 1803; A. C. Adye, Esq., President, 1804; Brig.-Gen. F. Maitland, Gov., 1805; J. Harvey, Esq., President, 1807; A. C. Adye, Esq., again President, 1808 to 1809; Major-Gen. F. Maitland, Gov., 1810; A. C. Adye, Esq., again President, 1810 to 1811; Colonel G. R. Ainalie, Vice-Gov., 1812; J. Harvey, Esq., President, 1813; Major-Gen. Sir C. Shipley, Gov., 1813 to 1815; G. Paterson, Esq., President, 1815; Major-Gen. Phineas Riall, Gov., 1816; A. Houstoun, Esq., President, 1817 to 1819; Major-Gen. P. Riall (resumed), Gov., 1821; G. Paterson, Esq., President, 1821 to 1823; Sir J. Campbell, K. C. B., Gov., 1826 to 1831; A. Houstoun, Esq., President, 1829; F. Palmer, Esq., President, 1831.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND DIVISION INTO PARISHES — GEOLOGY — SOIL — CLIMATE — ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOM, &c.

THE general aspect of Grenada is extremely lovely, but mountainous and picturesque; the interior and north-west coast consist of successive piles of conical hills or continuous ridges, rounded in their outline, and covered with vast forest-trees and brush-wood; from north to south the island is traversed by one continued though irregular range, rising in some places to a very considerable elevation, often to 3000 feet above the level of the sea, but everywhere accessible. From this chain, but particularly from one very remarkable and magnificent spot in the centre of the island, north-east of St. George's, called the *Grand-Etang*, numerous small rivers and streamlets have their source, irrigating the country in every direction. One of the most prominent features in this wild, romantic district is Mount St. Catherine, (Morne Michel), which, clothed with a splendid vegetation, towers to an altitude of 3200 feet above the ocean level! Several mountain ridges extend from the great chain towards the windward, or south-east side, forming rich and picturesque valleys, but nearly the whole of the windward coast, from the south

termination of the range of mountains at Point Calivigny, about five miles from St. George, till it reaches the leeward boundary, loses the rugged and precipitous features and deep bold shore (as seen on the leeward side), and consists of a level alluvial plain, with numerous coral reefs.

RIVERS AND LAKES.—The rivers, as before observed, are numerous, but not large; the principal are those of Great Buccolet, Duguisne, and Antoine, on the windward; and St. John's and Beau Sejour, on the leeward. Several hot chalybeate and sulphurous springs exist, the former being the most numerous. One of these (at Annandale, in St. George's parish) is very remarkable for its heat and strong metallic impregnation; the mercury rises to 86, and since the earthquake of 1825, both the temperature and impregnation have been very sensibly increased. A hot spring in St. Andrew's parish emits considerable quantities of carbonic acid gas, possessing analogous qualities to the famous *grotto del cane*; it contains iron and lime, and possesses a strong petrifactive quality. Some of the warm sulphurous springs in the hilly parishes of St. Mark and St. John's are hot enough to boil an egg. Near the centre of the island, at an elevation of 1740 feet, amidst the mountain scenery, is situate the Grand Etang, an almost perfectly circular fresh water lake, two miles and a half in circumference, and fourteen feet deep, with a bottom composed of a superstrature of soft mud, arising from decayed vegetable substances (especially Loti, which grow in great profusion around the margin, over a light cold argilla-

ceous bed). Around this singular lake is a superb sylvan amphitheatre of mountains, clothed in all the verdant grandeur of a tropical forest. Another lake (Antoine) of nearly similar size (covering sixty English acres), and form, is situate on the east coast, only half a mile from the sea, and but forty-three feet above its level. It is about fifty feet in depth, having no communication with the sea, constantly increasing towards the centre in the shape of an inverted hollow cone, and increasing in size for the last sixty years. From these circumstances, and the formation of rocks, and the quantity of scorise found near its brink, there is every reason to suppose it the crater of an exhausted volcano. The inhabitants state that there are subterraneous communications between this lake and different parts of the island, and that during the great eruption of the Souffriere in St. Vincent's, in 1812, the waters of Lake Antoine were not only in continual agitation and undulation, but that considerable quantities of lava and sulphur were thrown upon the surface of the water from beneath. On the south shore, near Point Salines, there are extensive salt-ponds.

DIVISION.—This island is divided into six parishes or districts, Sts. Patrick, Andrew, John, Mark, David, and George. The two first named are the most productive in sugar, cocoa, and coffee. St. John and Mark are mountainous, and the two latter named are rather less so. The principal (St. George) contains the capital of that name, and the fortifications and military posts of Richmond Hill, Fort King George, Hospital Hill, and

Cardinal Heights; it is also the chief sea-port, the residence of the Governor, and the station of the Courts of Judicature, &c. The district is situate on the south and west part of the island, embracing twenty-six square miles, and extending along the King's high road, eleven miles, and twenty-eight chains from the river Douce to the river Chemin. It has twenty-eight sugar estates, twenty coffee-settlements, and eight coffee plantations. The population of the capital and parish is about 10,000. St. David's lies towards the south-east, and forms several points and some bays capable of receiving small craft; it extends from the river Chemin to the river Crochu, nine miles and fifty chains along the King's high road, and contains twelve sugar and several provision estates. St. Andrew's, situate on the east side, extends from the river Crochu to the river Antoine, eleven miles and sixty-six chains along the high road. It comprises the town and port of Grenville, formerly called La Baye, and contains thirty-seven sugar plantations, and eight coffee and cocoa settlements. St. Patrick, situate on the north-east, containing sixteen square miles, extends nine miles and forty-four chains along the high road, from the river Antoine to the river Duguesne. In this parish is the town of St. Patrick, formerly, and now known by the name of Sauteurs. It contains twenty-six of the richest sugar-plantations in the island. St. Mark, the smallest and least considerable in the island, is situate on the north-west, extending four miles and forty-three chains along the high road, from the

river Duguesne to the river Maran, which separates it on the south side from the parish of St. John. St. John's, on the west side, extends from the river Maran to the river Douce, six miles and thirty-six chains. Charlotte Town is situate in this parish, which is the next in magnitude and population to the town of St. George. *It contains sixteen sugar estates, and eleven cocoa and coffee settlements.* St. George, the capital, is situate within an amphitheatre of hills, with a good harbour in front. Were it not for the military works on Richmond Hill, which are seen at a great distance, it would be difficult to ascertain from the sea where George Town and harbour are placed, but on approaching the base of the fortified hills, an opening is discerned into a spacious and excellent harbour. The houses are well and tastefully built of stone or brick, with sashed windows and tiled roofs, with the streets well ventilated, and a spacious handsome square in the centre, and the shops equal to any in Oxford street. The town is divided into upper and lower; the latter, or carinage, being principally occupied with stores, shipyards, and wharfs. The streets leading from the one to the other are extremely rugged and steep. Constitution Hill, leading to the market-place, is at an angle not far removed from the perpendicular. The carinage of Grenada is one of the best that can be conceived both for the convenience and securing of shipping. It is completely land-locked; there is a sufficient depth of water and good holding-ground; it is protected by the batteries on shore, and it is exempt from hurricanes. The harbour is said to be

capable of containing 1000 ships, of 350 tons each, secure from storms. The population consists of 4000, of whom 320 are whites, and 2000 free coloured. A recent visitor says that Grenada with its azure sky, cloud-capped mountains, and verdant slopes, well merits to be entitled the gem of the ocean. A town of white and gay-looking houses, occupies a rocky peninsula, projecting into a clear bay; the spire of a church rises on the isthmus, and Fort George and Hospital Fort, with flag staffs, on which are displayed waving signals, look down on the harbour from their commanding heights. Behind a point numerous vessels are seen, sheltered from every wind. The fortifications of Richmond heights, far above and beyond the town, occupy the background in the picture. In the country, on the slopes of the hills, are orange groves and palm-trees, plantations and cultivated fields, mound and dale, through which numerous streams are constantly rushing to the sea.

The dependencies of Grenada are, the island of Carriacou, and such of the small islands called Grenadines, as lay between it and Grenada. These are a cluster of isles, of more or less extent, between St. Vincent and Grenada; the largest are Becquia, Canuan, Urion, and Carriacou: the last-named alone are dependent on Grenada; many are inhabited, and several well cultivated, producing small quantities of sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, fruits, vegetables, poultry, live stock, &c. in great abundance. Carriacou constitutes a parish, containing, according to estimate, 6913 acres of land; it is about nineteen

miles in circumference. In the town of Hillsborough is a church and rectory. The island is, in general, fertile, and well cultivated; and the successful mode of the management of slaves is amply manifested in their constant increase. Cotton was formerly the chief article of cultivation, and about 1,000,000 lb. was annually exported. Eight of the principal estates are now cultivated in sugar; and the average produce of that article in a good season is upwards of 2,000,000 lbs. The island is however greatly exposed to suffer from droughts, which mars the best efforts of industry. The chief cause of this calamity is supposed to be the want of wood, which has gradually become exhausted, without proper means having been used to renew it by planting. A society has lately been established for the sole purpose of remedying this defect; and it is to be hoped that a few years will reward their exertions, by producing more regularity in the seasons.

GEOLOGY.—The geology of the island is very complicated and irregular; the mountains, and different parts of the low lands, so far as they have been examined, consist of strata, or rather mingled portions of red and grey sand-stone, graywacké, irregular alternations of hornblende, hard argillaceous schist, and a variety of gneis. In various spots (as at Richmond Hill) an imperfect species of granite, or nodules of the same, interbedded in a coarse loose red sand-stone, are frequently met with, and sometimes in argillaceous schist. A very coarse porphyry is also sometimes seen. Immediately behind Richmond Hill, on the estate of Mount Parnassus, lime-

stone is found, and a quarry was at one time worked for agricultural purposes. Basaltic rocks are met with on the north-west coast, and it is said magnesian limestone also. At Point Salines (the extremity of the island) fullers-earth, of the very finest quality, is procurable in abundance; and at La Fortune, in the parish of St. Patrick, numerous specimens of the natural magnet; sulphur, in its native state, but not crystallized, is almost every where met with. In fine, it may be said, that the great mass of mountains consist of sandstone, greywacké, hornblende, and argillaceous schist, but the stratification is so diversified, and the face of the country so rugged and abrupt, as to bid defiance to any regular definition.

In one place they are horizontal, in another vertical, and in almost all they are suddenly and abruptly intersected by each other, appearing as if they had been separated and again mingled together by some great convulsion of nature. One remarkable cliff on the river St. John, about one mile and a half from St. George's, presents a curious arrangement, which Dr. Simpson is inclined to ascribe to volcanic origin. Immediately under the soil is a stratum of pudding-stone; to that succeeds one of iron pyrites (exhibiting regular prisms); then one of alluvial formation; and, lastly, one of brown sandstone. In some of the less elevated situations, the strata are extremely thin, numerous, and more regular. In one cliff, near Government House (not more than twenty-five feet high), are seen running from south-east to north-west, at a very obtuse angle with the horizon, at least sixty distinct strata of white, grey, and brown

sand-stone, alternating with loose sand and gravel, and near the surface mixed with alluvial soil. The bed of the sea on the south-west point of the island is composed of phosphate of lime, or a species of coralline, but its effects are not observable on the surface of the water. Neither the sandstone, nor the very imperfect species of granite found effervesce with acids. No shells are found in any of these formations; but the red sandstone of Grand Mal and Callevigny, in the parish of St. George (which is much used for building), is thickly studded with beautiful crystals of carburet of iron; and in the Callevigny sandstone, vegetable remains, such as the leaves and stalks of trees, are not uncommon. The soil varies with the external features of the country; in the low lands, consisting of rich black mould on a substratum of light-coloured clay, while in the high and central situations the soil is of a dingy red or brick colour.

CLIMATE.—Locality, as may be supposed, influences materially the temperature and health of Grenada; 82 F. may be considered the medium heat throughout the year in the *low* country; but in the *high* lands the mercury, which at St. George's stands at 86, will be ten degrees lower at the Grand Etang at the same moment. The quantity of rain which falls is very considerable, and throughout the year showers are felt. Hurricanes are comparatively mild and unfrequent, but earthquakes, or shocks, are sometimes felt. The climate is much improved, in common with the whole of the

West Indies, of late years. (For yearly range of thermometer, vide St. Vincent's).

ANIMAL KINGDOM.—As in all the West India islands, the animals of Grenada are few and uninteresting to the naturalist. It is a matter of dispute whether even the monkey be a native; black snakes are common, but almost harmless; scorpions and centipedes abound, but their bite is mild and little regarded. The principal annoyance is from that species of ant called *formica omnivora*. It is recorded in the island that at a former period these minute creatures threatened the destruction of the colony. They were in such myriads as to form bridges of each other's bodies across the largest streams, and to extinguish the fires kindled in the fields for their destruction. A reward of 20,000*l.* was offered in vain by the legislature for any plan that would ensure their destruction. This terrible (Egyptian) plague, after baffling human invention for its suppression, was only finally destroyed by the hurricane in 1780.

This destructive insect was termed the sugar ant, and described by Sir Hans Sloane as the *formica fusca minima antennis longissimus*. The ants are of an ordinary size, a slender shape, a dark red colour, remarkable for the quickness of their motions; but are distinguished from any other species chiefly by the sharp acid taste which they yield when applied to the tongue, and the strong sulphurous smell which they emit when rubbed together between the palms of the hands. Their

numbers were often so immense as to cover the roads for the space of several miles; and so crowded in many places that the prints of the horses' feet were distinctly marked amongst them till filled by the surrounding multitudes. They were never seen to consume or carry off any vegetable substance whatever, but always laid hold of any dead insect or animal substance that came in their way. Every kind of cold victuals, all species of vermin, particularly rats, and even the sores of the negroes were exposed to their attacks. But they were decidedly injurious by constructing their nests among the roots of the lime, lemon, orange-trees, and sugar-canes, and so obstructing their growth as to render the plants sickly and unproductive. Various plans were devised for their destruction in consequence of the promised reward of 20,000*l.*, and the principal means employed were poison and fire. By mixing arsenic and corrosive sublimate with animal substances, myriads were destroyed; and the slightest tasting of the poison rendered them so outrageous as to devour one another. Lines of red-hot charcoal were laid in their way, to which they crowded in such numbers as to extinguish it with their bodies; and holes full of fire were dug in the cane grounds, which were soon extinguished by heaps of dead. But while the nests remained undisturbed, new progenies appeared as numerous as ever, and the only effectual check which they received was from the destructive hurricane of 1780, which, by tearing up altogether, or so loosening the roots where they nestled as to admit the rain, almost extirpated the

whole race, and pointed out the frequent digging up and consuming by fire these stools and roots, in which they take refuge, as the best preventative of their future increase. The ornithology of Grenada is similar to that of the other islands, but with rather less numerous varieties of birds.

The rivers, or rivulets, are plentifully supplied with fish, such as snapper, mullet, cray-fish, eels, pike, &c.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The descriptions given in the Guiana and Jamaica Books answer for Grenada, and the fruits and vegetables, which for their seasons will be found under St. Vincent's equally applicable to the island under consideration. Dr. Hancock informs me that he found a very singular animal flower (or Zoophyte), inhabiting the side of the rocky wall that lines the carinage, next to the town, about two feet below the surface of the water, consisting of a worm encased in a cylindric tube, fastened at the end to the rock, and throwing out its rays or tentacula at the other or outward end; the rays when extended standing in a sort of funnel shape; the flower bearing an exact resemblance to the purple passifloras or granadilla (passion flower). When fully expanded, this flower is peculiarly sensitive of the approach of any thing towards it, and it is next to impossible to obtain one in that state, as it is immediately retracted (something in the manner of a snail when its horns are touched), even on the undulation of the water within its tubular shell. Whether this shell is separable from the rock at the will of the inmate, has not yet been thoroughly ascertained,

conflicting accounts being given. It is evidently one of that genus called *Tubularia* by Linnæus, of the order Zoophyta, and which are designated as composite animals, *efflorescing* like vegetables.

In 1762, when Grenada surrendered to the British arms, it is said to have yielded annually, together with its dependencies, the Grenadines, a quantity of clay and muscovado sugar, equal to 11,000 hogsheads, of fifteen cwt. each, and 27,000 lbs. of indigo.

The principal vegetable staples at present are sugar, cocoa, coffee, and cotton; and the following return shows the produce made in Grenada and the Grenadines in 1830, which differs but little from that of 1832:—

Parishes and Island.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Cotton
Par. St. George	lbs.	Gals.	Gals.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
— Mark's....	3,179,916	122,422	56,382	9839	20,022	7,139
— John.....	958,276	34,533	11,784	3287	125,454	...
— Patrick ...	913,247	29,450	7,880	7852	148,225	...
— Andrew's	6,214,350	278,891	3,997	500	...	600
— David's....	6,756,021	303,592	24,955	1500	39,670	...
Isl. of Carrineou	1,853,443	114,550	6,368	1144	4,534	...
	2,225,700	9,996	144,513	90,055
Total.....	22,100,953	890,434	255,679	26,122	337,503	97,804

The prices of produce in Colonial Currency was, in 1832:—

Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Cotton.	Coffee.	Cocoa.
per 100-lbs	per Gallon.	per Gallon.	per lb.	per lb.	per lb.
30s.	2s.	1s. 6d.	6d.	1s. 6d.	6d.

The prices of provisions established by the magistrates, and settled by the Market Act, in 1831, was—beef, prime pieces, per lb. 2s., all others, ditto, 1s. 9d.; veal, ditto, 2s.; goat or kid, ditto, 1s. 9d.; turtle, ditto, 1s. 3d.; hawksbill, ditto, 1s. 9d.; fish, large, ditto, 1s.; jacks, three to the lb. 9d.; ditto small, and sprats, 6d.; milk, pure, per quart, 1s. These are currency prices (vide Monetary System).

In 1700, more than twenty years after the sovereignty had been vested in the crown of France, there were found on the whole island only sixty-four horses, 569 horned cattle, three plantations of sugar, and fifty-two of indigo. About fourteen years afterwards, however, an active commercial intercourse was opened with the island of Martinique, cultivation was rapidly extended, and notwithstanding the interruption which these improvements sustained by the war in 1744, Grenada was found in 1753 to contain 2298 horses or mules, 2556 horned cattle, 3278 sheep, 902 goats, 331 hogs, 83 sugar plantations, &c. The following shows the stock in 1832:—

DISTRICT.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Mules and Asses.
TOWN OF ST. GEORGE.			
Parish of Ditto	102	1944	432
— St. John	43	590	216
— St. Mark	26	457	192
— St. Patrick	90	1813	776
— St. Andrew	133	1913	729
— St. David	57	1017	288
Island of Carriacou	84	783	53
Totals.....	515	8517	2677

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION, WHITE AND COLOURED—GOVERNMENT, CIVIL,
MILITARY, AND ECCLESIASTICAL—FINANCES—MONETARY
SYSTEM—COMMERCE—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS, &c.—VALUE
OF PROPERTY, &c.

WE have already seen in Chapter I. how the un-offending native inhabitants were destroyed. In 1700 there were but 151 whites, 53 blacks, or mulattoes, and 525 slaves. In 1753 there were 1262 whites, 175 free negroes, and 11,991 slaves. In 1779 there were 35,000 negroes in the island. In 1788 there were 996 whites, 1125 free coloured, and 23,926 slaves. In 1817 there were 28,029 slaves; in 1818, 27,415; in 1819, 27,060; in 1820, 26,899; in 1821, 25,667; in 1822, 25,586: namely, males, 12,355; females, 13,231. The next data shows that, in 1827, the island contained 29,168 mouths; namely, of free whites, 834, free blacks and coloured, 3892—Total, 4726; slaves agricultural, 21,652, slaves, domestics and artizans, 2790—Total, 24,442. The following return shows the population of Grenada and the Grenadines, December 31st, 1832:—

Parishes.	Free, White and Coloured.		Slaves.		Total Males.	Total Females.	Aliens & Strangers.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
Town of St. George	922	1349	785	839	1704	2208	96
Parish of St. do.	311	348	1942	2067	2253	2415	65
— John	186	255	1086	1068	1272	1303	28
— Marks	71	60	646	730	717	780	2
— Patrick ...	151	88	2042	2239	2193	2327	12
— Andrew ...	238	317	2377	2430	2615	2747	20
— David's ...	124	165	900	949	1024	1054	9
Island of Carriacou	297	256	1607	1753	1814	2009	18
Total.....	2210	2758	11,586	12,085	13,596	14,843	250

The *white* population was, in 1829, Town of St. George, 177 males, 107 females; parish of ditto, 90 males, 28 females; St. John's, 38 males, 34 females; St. Mark, 25 males, 10 females; St. Patrick, 84 males, 3 females; St. Andrew, 94 males, 8 females; St. David's, 38 males, 11 females; Carriacou Isle, 50 males, 4 females:—Total, 596 males, 205 females;—total, coloured males, 1562; females, 2224.

The progressive decrease of the slave population from the years 1817, to 1831 inclusive, is shown in the following table:—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Decrease by Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1817	13,737	14,292	28,029	212	239	451	478	424	902	38
1818	13,328	14,087	27,415	305	352	657	538	532	1070	54
1819	13,155	13,905	27,060	339	375	714	585	584	1169	99
1820	13,007	13,892	26,899	311	330	641	485	410	805	41
1821	12,398	13,269	25,667	352	330	682	506	422	928	63
1822	12,353	13,231	25,586	371	350	721	364	316	680	63
1823	12,258	13,052	25,310	361	358	719	398	426	824	104
1824	12,101	12,871	24,972	353	334	677	392	332	724	97
1825	12,057	12,840	24,897	337	340	677	399	369	759	122
1826	11,896	12,685	24,581	320	340	660	397	397	794	91
1827	11,841	12,632	24,473	309	335	704	360	369	669	79
1828	11,777	12,565	24,342	355	332	687	376	337	713	95
1829*	11,711	12,434	24,145	377	359	736	372	358	730	95
1830	11,572	12,306	23,878	385	349	734	503	476	979	71
1831	11,432	12,172	23,604	348	336	684	500	428	923	115

The returns to the Slave Compensation Commissioners gives the number of slaves as 23,536; average value of each, 59*l.* 6*s.*; relative value of the slaves, 1,395,684*l.*; proportion of 20,000,000*l.* to which Grenada is entitled, 616,444*l.*

GOVERNMENT, LEGAL, MILITARY, AND ECCLESIASTICAL.—The people are ruled by a Lieutenant-Governor, Council, and House of Assembly, whose powers are similar to those described under Jamaica, &c. The Council consists of twelve members, and the Assembly of twenty-six. A freehold, or life estate of fifty acres in the country, or of 50*l.* house-rent in the capital, qualifies for a representative. An estate of ten acres in fee, or for life, or a rent of 10*l.* in any of the country towns; and a rent

* Of Africans, males, 2226; females, 2075.

of 20*l.* out of any freehold or life estate in the capital, gives a vote in the election of the representatives. The Law Courts, besides those of Chancery, in which the Governor presides, are the Court of Grand Session of the Peace, held twice a-year, in which the person first named in the Commission of the Peace presides; the Court of Common Pleas, in which a professional judge, with a salary of 600*l.* presides; the Court of Exchequer, lately fallen into disuse; the Court of Admiralty, and the Court of Error, composed of the Governor and Council, for trying appeals. In all cases the common statute law of England is the rule of justice, unless when particular laws of the island interfere. Since its restoration to Great Britain, in 1783, a Protestant clergy have been established by law. Four clergymen are allotted to the whole, and each is provided with an annual stipend of 330*l.* currency, 60*l.* for house-rent, and a considerable portion of valuable glebe-land, which had formerly been appropriated to the support of the Romish clergy, for whose benefit a part of the grant is still reserved.

There are eight places of worship, capable of containing 2870 persons; and the expenses of the church establishment to the colonists is about 1500*l.* sterling per annum; that of five public schools is 430*l.*

FINANCE.—Colonial taxes and duties (payable at the Treasury by virtue of the acts of the legislature), are levied on all wines imported (wines for the use of his Majesty's service excepted), per pipe, 3*l.* 6*s.* In bottles, per dozen, 2*s.* 3*d.*; on all brandy and

gin, per gallon, 18s.; on each and every saddle-horse, or mule, 3*l.* 6s.; for every 100*l.* of actual rental of houses, stores, buildings, and sheds (not used in the manufacture of produce), or of the estimated rental thereof, when occupied by the proprietor thereof, 3*l.*; on each and every slave, 18s.; on every 100*l.* value of produce, grown or manufactured in the year 1831, estimated as follow:—Muscovado sugar at 40s. per 100 lbs.; Rum, 2s. per gallon; Molasses, 1s. 6*d.* ditto; Cotton, 6*d.* per lb.; Coffee, 1s. ditto; Cocoa, 4*d.* ditto; 3*l.* per cent.

Grenada Colonial Revenue and Expenditure, from 1821 to 1831, in pounds sterling:—

Years.	Gross Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	11,325	10,512	800	11,312
1822	12,302	11,592	555	12,147
1823	10,360	8,722	720	9,442
1824	13,059	8,311	1704	10,015
1825	12,740	11,455	960	12,415
1826	16,658	15,273	659	15,931
1827	12,473	12,466	727	13,193
1828	13,810	11,504	858	12,142
1829	12,443	11,302	822	11,954
1830	12,208	11,132	761	12,722
1831	12,513	12,630	719	13,340

Harbour duty on all vessels clearing, per ton, 4*d.*; canal duty on all vessels clearing, per ton, 2*d.*

MONETARY SYSTEM.—Each of our West India settlements, it will be observed, has almost a distinct currency; at least few are alike. The following is the standard table for Grenada currency, established (by proclamation) in 1798:—

Coins.	Weight.		Value in Sterling.			Value in Currency.	
	Dts.	Grs.	£	s.	d.	Dols.	Bits.
Joe	8	12	3	12	...	8	...
Joe	7	12	3	6	...	7	4
Pistole	4	6	1	16	...	4	...
Moïdoire	6	...	2	9	6	5	6
Guinea	5	...	2	5	...	5	...
Dollar.....	17	9	12
Bit.....	9	...	1

A Joe, valued 3*l.* 12*s.* has a G. stamped in the middle of the face side. A Joe, value 3*l.* 6*s.* has a G stamped in three places near the edge of the face side. When a Joe is plugged, the initials of the workman's name are stamped upon the plug.

The British and Colonial currency, established by proclamation in May, 1797, consisted of British half-crowns, 6*s.* 3*d.*; shilling, 2*s.* 6*d.*; sixpence, 1*s.* 3*d.*; Colonial Moneta, marked IV. 2*s.* 6*d.*; VIII. 1*s.* 3*d.*; XVI. 7½*d.*

COMMERCE.—In 1776 the exports from the island and its dependencies were 14,012,157 lbs. of muscovado, and 9,273,607 lbs. of clayed sugar; 818,700 gallons of rum; 1,827,166 lbs. of coffee; 457,719 lbs. of cocoa; 91,943 lbs. of cotton; 27,638 lbs. of indigo; and some smaller articles, the whole of which, at a moderate computation, was worth at the ports of shipping, 600,000*l.* sterling. The sugar was the produce of 106 plantations, worked by 18,293 negroes, which gives rather more than a hogshead of muscovado sugar of 16 cwt. from the labour of each negro: a return, which Mr. Edwards affirms to be unequalled by any other British island in the West

Indies, except St. Christopher's. In 1787 the exports were 175,548 cwts. of sugar; 670,390 gallons of rum; 8812 cwts. of coffee; 2,062,427 lbs. of cotton; and 2810 lbs. of indigo. In 1832 the principal articles of export were—sugar, 22,213,240 lbs. (value, 160,008*l.*); rum, 684,227 gallons; molasses, 370,310 gallons; cocoa, 160,752 lbs. The total value of the *exports* was 201,276*l.*, and of *imports*, 111,605*l.*

Principal Exports from Grenada (except cocoa) :—

Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.
	Hgs.	Pns.	Pns.	Bags.
1823	16,766	11,288	3790	222
1824	5,363	8,663	1869	147
1825	15,848	7,964	2945	11
1826	15,441	8,358	2498	176
				lbs.
1827	12,695	7,730	1403	17,120
1828	20,171	9,464	3216	28,320
1829	No Returns.	No Returns.		
1830	13,268	2,777	864	31,504
				Bags.
1831	11,908	6,634	2464	6,163

SHIPPING EMPLOYED BY GRENADA, IN 1832.

Places.	Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Great Britain.....	34	9899	34	9668
British Colonies.....	170	10504	178	11068
United States.....	25	4086	17	2956
Foreign States.....	53	1141	27	1282
Total.....	281	25570	256	24914
	1850	Men.	1779	Men.

BOOK VI.
THE BAHAMAS.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — ASPECT — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE—
POPULATION—PRODUCTIONS—FINANCES—GOVERNMENT—
WASTE LANDS, &c.

THIS singular group of isles, reefs, and keys, termed the Lucayos¹, or Bahamas, extend in a crescent-like form, from the Matanilla Reef in 27° 50' N. latitude, and 79° 5' W. longitude, to Turk's Island in 21° 23' N. latitude, and 71° 5' W. longitude, a distance of about 600 miles, not including various sand-banks and coral reefs, stretching to a great extent eastward.

HISTORY.—One of the Bahama isles, St. Salvador², is celebrated as being the first land discovered by the renowned western navigator on the 12th of October,

¹ This word probably owes its origin to the Spanish words *los cayos*, (Anglice, the keys).

² Guanahani, now called Cat Island.

1492, when he made this advanced post of a new world. The Bahamas were then densely peopled by the mild and happy Indian race, who were soon shipped off to work in the mines of Peru and Mexico, when the Spaniards began their search for gold. In 1629 New Providence was colonized by the English (the natives were then totally extinct), who remained there till 1641, when the Spaniards drove them from the islands, murdered the Governor, and committed many acts of savage cruelty. In 1666 the English again colonized in the Bahamas, and New Providence remained in their hands till 1703, when the French and Spaniards again expelled them, and destroyed their plantations. The Bahamas now became a rendezvous for pirates, whose proceedings, so hurtful to commerce, were only finally suppressed by Capt. Woodes Rogers, of the British navy, who was established as Governor, and soon reduced the outlaws to obedience. After this some of the other islands became inhabited, and remained quietly in our possession until the American war, when, in 1776, Commodore Hopkins, with a squadron from Philadelphia, attacked and plundered the settlement, and carried off the Governor. In 1781 the Spaniards took possession of the isles, but they were restored to the British crown by treaty in 1783, having, however, been previously captured for England by the enterprising Colonel Devaux, of South Carolina. The Bahamas have ever since remained in our possession, and the historian is not called on to narrate any further event of importance to Great Britain as connected with them.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Amidst a group of several hundred islets none are elevated; they are evidently the work of that extraordinary being—the coral insect, who, with all his apparent insignificance, has created many beautiful and habitable spots for the dwelling and culture of man. The ocean close to the isles is of an unfathomable depth; reefs of rock, or rather walls of coral, bound the islands after the manner observable in the South Sea islands. Some of the Bahamas are inhabited, others present to the eye a few plantations; the remainder are tenantless, though doubtless suited for culture, if there were an abundant population desirous of obtaining food. Generally speaking, the Bahamas are low and flat; indeed, little elevated, even in their highest points, above the level of the sea. Nevertheless, their verdant appearances render them extremely prepossessing. It will be sufficient to particularize a few of the principal of our possessions in the group.

New Providence, from its harbour and relative situation with respect to the Florida Channel, is considered the most important of the Bahamas, and on it is situate Nassau, the seat of Government for the isles, and the head-quarters of the naval and military establishments. The island is about 21 miles in length from E. to W., and seven in breadth from N. to S.; mostly flat, and covered with brushwood and extensive lagoons. A range of hilly rocks runs along part of the island, at a very short distance from the sea, in a direction E. and W. On this ridge many of the buildings of Nassau are constructed, including the Government House, and at

its extremity to the W. are the barracks and Fort Charlotte. Another ridge, called the Blue Hills, runs in a direction nearly parallel with the former, and at about two and a half miles distance. Hog Island is little more than a reef of rocks, which forms part of the N. harbour of New Providence. Rose Island, to the N. and E. of New Providence, is about nine miles long and a quarter broad. It affords protection to 'Cochrane's Anchorage.' Harbour Island is five miles long and two broad, latitude $25^{\circ} 29' N.$ longitude $76^{\circ} 34' W.$ very healthy, and a favourite resort for convalescents. Turk's Island, latitude $21^{\circ} 32' N.$ longitude $71^{\circ} 5' W.$ principal mart for salt-making, peculiarly healthy, and a point of military importance in regard to St. Domingo. North and South Biminis: These isles are about seven miles long, in latitude $25^{\circ} 40' N.$ longitude $79^{\circ} 18' W.$ healthy, well-wooded, and watered, capacious anchorage, and in the event of a war highly important for the protection of the trade of the gulf of Florida, to the east of which they are situate. The anchorage on the gulf side can admit any class of shipping.

An idea of the number and extent of the isles¹ will

¹ Those not mentioned are in chief—Andros, long (22 leagues), and irregular, to the west of New Providence, 8 leagues. Between them a tongue of ocean water runs in S. E. as far as latitude $23^{\circ} 21'$, called the Gulf of Providence: access difficult from reefs. Off its S. E. end are the Espirito Santo Isles. The Berry Islands, an irregular group. Several small harbours formed by them, where refreshments may be had. The S. E. of these islands are denominated the Frozen Keys, and the N. the Stirrup Keys. Off the northernmost of

be conveyed by the following statement of the lands in the Bahamas, from an official return dated in 1827:—

the latter there is anchorage on the bank, in latitude $25^{\circ} 49'$. The Great and Little Isaacs: W. $\frac{3}{4}$ N., 48 miles from Little Stirrup Key, is the easternmost of three small keys, called the Little Isaacs, and five miles further is the westernmost key of the same name: these are from 50 to 60 or 70 feet in length; the middle key is not so large. These keys are situated on the western end of the Gingerbread Ground, which extends five leagues E. by S. from the westernmost rock, or Little Isaac, is about five miles wide near the east end, and has some dangerous sharp rocks upon it, with only seven to nine feet water. The Naranjos, or two Orange Keys, lie four miles within the edge of the bank, in latitude $24^{\circ} 55'$, and longitude $79^{\circ} 7'$. Eleuthera extends E. nine leagues, S. E. four ditto, and S. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. twelve leagues. Guanahani, or Cat Island, N. W. $8\frac{1}{2}$ leagues, E. $\frac{1}{2}$ S. from Powel's Point, in Eleuthera; it thence extends south-eastward, 15 leagues, having a breadth of three to seven miles. Eleven miles south-east from Cat Island is Conception Island, of about seven miles in length N. E. and S. W., and three miles in breadth. Yuma, or Long Island, seventeen leagues in length from S. E. to N. W., S. by W., $17\frac{1}{2}$ leagues from the S. point of Long Island, is Cayo Verde or Green Key. From Cayo Verde the edge of the bank forms a great and deep bay to the N. W., in the S. W. part of which is Cayo de Sal, at the distance of ten leagues from the former. Egg's Island is small, in latitude $25^{\circ} 31'$.

There are many smaller keys, and rocks too numerous to mention.

	Acres Granted.	Acres Vacant.	Total Area.
New Providence, Hog Island, Rose Isle, and Keys	33,281	31,000	64,281
Andros Islands, Sheep, Grass, and Green Keys	25,380	475,000	500,380
Berry Islands, Biminis, and Chain of Keys	2,116	18,000	20,116
Grand Bahama and its Keys	6,019	282,000	288,019
Great and Little Abaco, and Chain of Keys	24,715	296,000	320,715
Harbour Island	1,000	1,000
Eleuthers, Royal and Egg Islands, and Keys	43,922	227,000	270,922
St. Salvador and Leeward Little Isle	50,868	190,000	240,922
Watling's and Windward Little Isles	18,015	10,000	28,015
Great and Little Exumas	32,876	58,000	90,876
Rum Key	15,434	5,000	20,434
Hagged Island and Keys	3,000	3,000
Long Island	67,260	86,000	153,260
Crooked and Acklin's Island, and Long Keys	31,509	130,000	161,509
Atwood Keys	18,000	18,000
Mayaguana and French Keys	60,000	60,000
Great and Little Hencague	6,210	351,000	357,210
The Caicos Islands	37,881	171,000	208,881
Turk's Island	9,000	9,000
Keymal and Angulla	10,000	10,000
Total acres	408,486	2,434,000	2,842,000

Remaining in possession of the Crown, acres 2,434,000 in the Bahamas Isles.

GEOLOGY.—The Bahamas are formed of calcareous rocks, which are composed of corals, shells, Madre-pores, and various marine deposits, hardened into solid masses in the revolutions of ages. The deposits appear to have been thrown up in regular strata at various periods, and their upper surface deeply honey-combed, bears evident marks of having been long covered by the waters of the ocean. No primitive formation has been formed, and the bases of the islands are evidently coral reefs, originating with

the Molluscæ, which, unpossessed of locomotive powers, have organic functions destined for the secretion of the lime required for their calcareous coverings. Marl is formed on many of the out islands, and here and there strata of argillaceous earth may be met with. Meteoric stones have been discovered rudely sculptured with human features, by the aborigines, but whether found on the island or brought thither it is impossible to say; and at Turk's Island a great number of calcareous balls have been found, all bearing an indentation, as though they had been suspended to a pedicle. Their origin and nature are equally unknown. In confirmation of the idea that these islands have been raised from the bottom of the ocean, on pillars of coral, after the manner of the east and southern hemisphere, it may be stated, many of their salt water lakes and ponds communicate with the ocean, as shown by their sea fish. Many of them are so deep as not to allow soundings, and the water in them rises and falls with the tides on the coast.

CLIMATE.—Situated at the mouth of the gulf of Florida, placed by geographical position without the tropics, removed from the excessive heat of a vertical sun, and the intense cold of a northern winter, the Bahamas enjoy a climate mild, equable, and delightful. To the islands within the torrid zone they are nearly akin, in the little variety of season, the natural productions of the earth, and the manners and customs of the people. But the decided difference in the mean annual temperature, and the more robust and healthy appearance of all

classes of the community, gives to the Bahamas all the appearances of a country situate in a more temperate latitude. The summer and winter (hot and cold), the wet and dry seasons are well marked; the cold season lasts from November to May, during which period the sky is remarkably clear and serene, the mercury at noon F. occasionally below 60, seldom beyond 70 or 75, while a refreshing north breeze tempers the mid-day heat, and the mornings and evenings are cool and invigorating. From May to November the heat increases and decreases as the sun advances and retires from its great northern declination. The thermometer ranges from 75 to 85 F., rarely higher; a fine breeze frequently blows from the east with cooling showers of rain, before the summer solstice and towards the autumnal equinox. The mornings have then a peculiar freshness, and the evenings a softness and beauty unknown to colder countries. From the flatness of the isles the full benefit of the sea-breezes is felt throughout every part of each island. The health of the climate will be indicated by the fact that out of a population of 1148 at Harbour Island, no funeral took place from the 5th of June to the 12th of November, while with the same population twenty or thirty would have expired in any part of Europe; and at Nassau the proportion of deaths to the population was, in 1826, only 1 in 45, which is less than the mortality of England.

The following is a Meteorological Table for Nassau, New Providence:—

	THERMOM.			WIND.	REMARKS.
	Max.	Med.	Min.		
January -	80	69	58	S. N.E. N.E. N.	Strong breezes and cloudy.
February -	78	73	68	N.E. S.E. N.E.	Moderate & variable.
March - -	84	76	68	N.E. S.E. N.E. N.	Clear and squally.
April - - -	84	78	73	E. N.E. S.E. N.W.	Ditto, little rain.
May - - -	87	79	74	Variable.	Moderate showers.
June - - -	89	83	77	Ditto.	Clear and dry.
July - - -	92	87	83	S.E. E. S. N.E.	Mild and clear.
August -	94	88	84	N.E. E. N.W. S.	Squalls, with rain.
September	93	87	83	N.E. N. N.W. S.	Clear, showery, and hazy.
October -	86	80	74	E. N.E. N.W.	Mild, rain, & squally.
November	84	74	68	S. S.W. W. N.W.	Moderate and squally.
December	82	70	68	S.S.W. N.W.	Variable, mild, clear.

POPULATION.—In 1720, there were 830 whites, and 310 negroes. In 1727, those classes were 2000 and 2241.

Years.	Slaves.			Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission. Total.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1822	5539	5279	10,808							
1825	4670	4594	9,264	417	392	809	260	162	428	84
1828	4608	4660	9,268	437	426	863	244	171	415	118
1831	4777	4928	9,705	1100	433	190

By the inter-Colonial appointment returns, the number of slaves are 9705; the average value of each, 29*l.* 18*s.*; the relative value of all, 290,573*l.*; and the proportion of 20,000,000*l.*, 128,340*l.*

According to a census in 1826, the population was :—

Whites.		Free, Coloured.		Slaves.		Total.		King's Troops, includ- ing Fa- milies.
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
2297	2291	897	1362	4592	4594	7786	8247	380

The aggregate of the population from 1822 to 1831 was :—

Years.	White and Free Coloured.		Slaves.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1822	2702	3220	5251	5019	7953	8239
1823	2712	3246	5151	5019	7963	8265
1824	3149	3610	5251	5019	8400	8629
1825	3149	3610	4592	4594	7761	8204
1826	3194	3653	4592	4594	7786	8247
1827	3164	3626	4690	4724	7854	8350
1828	3214	3731	4691	4606	7903	8337
1829	3368	3863	4692	4606	8060	8469
1830	3368	3863	4692	4606	8060	8469
1831	3668	3863	4727	4830	8095	8693

PRODUCE AND COMMERCE.—European and tropical vegetables and fruits thrive and are abundant; beef, mutton, and poultry, good and plentiful; the shores abound with fish, and there is turtle enough among the Bahamas to supply all Europe. Almost every island has pretty good water; ambergris is occasionally found. Cotton was formerly an abundant article of exportation, and there is scarcely a spot in any of the islands that is not covered with a luxuriant vegetation.

Ship timber, of a most excellent quality, is abundant on many of the Bahama islands. Logwood, brazilletto, fustic, green ebony, and satin wood, are produced in considerable quantities: for building or planking vessels, the cedar, horseflesh, madeira, mastic, and other durable woods, in great plenty, and there is an inexhaustable supply of very superior fire-wood. Sponges of good quality abound on the island shores, and the water from the wells at New Providence has the desirable quality of keeping good at sea for any length of time.

The agricultural stock in the Bahamas in 1831 consisted of 1165 horses, asses, and mules; 3250 horned cattle; 5975 sheep and goats; and 3755 swine. The quantity of produce raised was 30,350 bushels of Indian corn (at 4*s.* 4*d.* market price per bushel); 74,250*lbs.* of potatoes and yams (at 6*s.* per cwt.); 3225 bushels of peas and beans (at 5*s.* 10*d.* per bushel); 38,465 dozen of pine-apples (at 2*s.* per dozen); 22 tons of cotton (at 5*d.* per pound); 30,500 melons and pumpkins (at 3*s.* per dozen); 31,300*lbs.* of ocre (at 2*d.* per pound); and 19 tons of cassada, or cassava (vide British Guayana for a description), at 10*s.* per cwt.

The principal articles of export in 1831 were—cotton, 69 bales; bark, 70,320*lbs.*; brazilletto, 255 tons; fustic, 308 tons. The value of the imports in 1831 was 91,561*l.*, and of the exports, 74,658*l.*; employing a shipping inwards of 48,765 tons, and outwards of 54,264 tons. When we observe that there are nearly two millions and a half of acres of land in these isles unoccupied, and admit that half

are fit for the support of human life, I cannot see any reason, any justice, or state policy, in leaving thousands to starve at home when we should be offering every encouragement to the unemployed to accept of and till the waste colonial lands.

FINANCE, &c.—The revenue of the settlement is raised after the manner adopted in the other West India settlements.

The gross Revenue and Expenditure in £ sterling, from 1821 to 1831, is stated in official documents to have been :—

Years.	REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.		
	Colonial.	Parliamentary Grant.	Total.	Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	8,419	3,147	11,566	14,042	206	14,848
1822	16,297	3,343	19,640	17,316	223	17,539
1823	17,536	3,413	21,249	No return.		14,834
1824	10,699	3,413	14,112	—	—	16,686
1825	11,555	4,782	19,137	—	—	17,967
1826	13,175	3,997	17,172	—	—	18,329
1827	11,858	4,880	16,513	25,810	790	26,600
1828	15,210	3,252	18,462	17,395	31,279	48,674
1829	17,092	3,252	20,344	24,343	28,839	53,182
1830	14,691	3,252	17,943	19,266	28,831	48,117
1831	19,147	3,252	22,399	20,413	25,920	46,333

In 1836 the grant by the Imperial Parliament for the Civil Government was 1930*l*.

The number of free or public schools is twelve, with 549 male, and 568 female scholars. The public School-room in the town of Nassau is capable of containing 200 scholars.

The Wesleyan Methodists have two Sabbath Schools, where 24 white and 281 coloured children and adults are gratuitously taught reading and spelling, by 10 white and 18 coloured teachers.

In addition to the Sabbath Schools they have two weekly Catechetical Schools, which are attended by 150 children, chiefly coloured; these schools are under the direction and superintendence of the Wesleyan Missionaries.

There are also Sunday Schools held in both the parishes of Christ Church and St. Matthew; the one in the former parish is held at the kirk, where about 80 or 90 white children attend; the one in the latter parish is held in the church, and attended by white and coloured children to the amount of 100. The teachers attend gratuitously.

The school of Carmichael village is for the instruction of the children of the late indentured Africans, and other free persons located in that neighbourhood; its distance from the town of Nassau is about seven miles.

The Wesleyan Methodists have Sunday Schools on several of the out islands, in number ten, where about 630 white and coloured children are taught to spell and read. There are 41 places of worship, maintained at the expense of about 2000*l.* per annum.

GOVERNMENT.—As in the other West India possessions the Government of the Bahamas is modelled after that of England, viz. a House of Assembly, or Commons, consisting of between twenty and thirty members, returned from the several islands, a Council of twelve members, approved by the Crown, and a Governor, who is Commander-in-Chief of the militia, and has the power of summoning and dissolving the legislative body, and of putting a negative on its proceedings. The Electors are free white

persons, of twenty-one years of age, who have resided twelve months within the Government, for six months of which they must have been householders, or freeholders, or in default of that have paid duties to the amount of 50*l.* To become a representative the person must have 200 acres of cultivated land, or property to the value of 2000*l.* currency.

There are several Courts of Law, such as the Supreme Court, which holds its sessions in terms of three weeks, with the powers of the common law at Westminster, and its practice modelled on that of the King's Bench, the Courts of Chancery, Error, Vice-Admiralty, &c.

Nassau, in New Providence, as before observed, is the seat of Government and the centre of commerce; it possesses a fine harbour, nearly land-locked; and on the south side of which the capital extends over a rather steep acclivity to the summit of a ridge, the west of which is crowned by a fortress of considerable strength, where the garrison is kept. The island is divided into parishes, each of which has its church, clergy, and school, liberally provided for. The streets are regularly laid out, the public buildings good, and there is an air of liveliness and cleanliness which immediately attracts the eye of a stranger.

In conclusion, I should be rejoiced to see Government granting the unoccupied lands in the Bahamas in fee simple, and in perpetuity to any responsible individual who might either settle thereon himself, or locate others who possess industry without the means to render it available, either for their own advantage or for the welfare of the state.

BOOK VII.

THE VIRGIN ISLES.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—POPULATION—
GOVERNMENT—COMMERCE, &c.—CHIEF ISLANDS—TOR-
TOLA, &c.

THE *Virgin Islands* (so named by Columbus, on discovery, in 1493, in honour of the 11,000 virgins in the Romish ritual) are a cluster of lofty (except Anegada) islets and rocks, to the number of fifty, to the north-west of the Leeward Islands, extending about twenty-four leagues from east to west, and about sixteen from north to south. Tortola, the capital, is situate in $18^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, and $64^{\circ} 39'$ west longitude.

HISTORY.—The Virgin Islands are divided between the British, Danes, and Spaniards; the east division belongs to the former. The names are Tortola, Virgin Gorda, (or Penniston, and sometimes corrupted into *Spanish Town*), Josvan Dykes, Guana

Isle, Beef and Thatch Islands, Anegada, Nichar, Prickly Pear, Camanas, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt Island, St. Peter's Island, and several others of little or no value. The western division, belonging to the Danes, are St. Thomas, John's, James, Montalvan, Savannahor, Green Island, Brass Isles, Hansatei, &c.

The first possessors of the British Virgin Islands were a party of Dutch buccaneers, who fixed themselves at Tortola about the year 1648, and built a fort for their protection. In 1666, they were expelled by a stronger party of the same profession, who took possession in the name of England; and the English monarch, Charles II., availing himself of this circumstance, shortly thereafter annexed it to the Leeward Island government, in a commission granted to Sir William Stapleton.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF TORTOLA.—A succession of precipitous and rugged mountains run east and west, from one extremity of the island to the other; the shores are indented with bays, harbours, and creeks, and, together with the adjacent keys, afford shelter and anchorage for a great extent of shipping. The interior contains large tracts of waste land and pasturage, with zig-zag paths skirting the mountain sides, and rendering the interior difficult of access, and of course of cultivation; the soil, however, is thin and impoverished, offering little encouragement for sugar-cane plantations.

CAPITAL.—The chief town, Tortola, is situate on the south side of the island, close to the water's edge, in the western bight of a magnificent harbour or

basin, and forming one long street, curving at the base of a projecting point of land. In front of the town and harbour is a chain of small islands, extending far to the southward, and forming the passage called *Sir Francis Drake's Channel*. The harbour of Tortola, extending thus in length fifteen miles and in breadth three and a half, perfectly land-locked, has been seen in war-time affording shelter to 400 vessels waiting for convoy.

The POPULATION is, of whites and free coloured males, 787; females, 986. The slave inhabitants were, from 1818 to 1828,

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission. Total.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1818	3221	3668	6889							
1822	2975	3485	6460	266	239	505	371	347	718	86
1825	2505	2931	5436	237	231	468	168	157	305	83
1828	2510	2889	5399	238	221	459	157	125	282	90

By the intercolonial apportionment returns, the number of slaves was 5192; the average value of each, 31*l.* 16*s.*; the relative value, 165,143*l.*; and the proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* awarded, 72,940*l.*

There are four free schools in Tortola, with 151 males and 260 female scholars, and five places of worship.

Up to 1773, the government of these islands was entrusted to a deputy-governor, with a council, who exercised in a summary manner both the legislative

and executive authority; but in the latter year a local legislature, similar to that of the other islands, was conferred on them, with courts of justice, in consideration of the inhabitants *voluntarily* (!) offering to pay an annual impost of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the crown upon all the natural productions of the islands. They are now under the government of St. Kitt's, but possessing in Tortola a council and assembly of their own. The principal articles of export, in 1828, were,—sugar, 959 hogsheads; rum, 4 puncheons; molasses, 20 ditto; cotton, 980 bales: employing a shipping inwards of 3632 tons, and outwards of 3184 tons.

According to a voluminous statistical table in the possession of James Colquhoun, Esq., the agent for St. Vincent's and several other islands (to whose urbanity and philanthropy I am indebted for many of the facts contained in this volume), the area of the several Virgin Isles, in acres, was,—Anegada, 31,200; Tortola, 13,300; Spanish Town, 9500; Jos Van Dykes, 3200; Peter's Island, 1890; Beef Island, 1560; Guana Island, 1120; and forty other isles, with areas varying from 900 down to 5 acres each: comprising in the whole, 58,649 acres; of which there were, in 1823, under sugar-canes, 3000 acres; cotton grounds, 1000; provisions, 2000; pasture land, 33,500; forest or brushwood land, 11,440; and of barren land, but 7257 acres. The quantity of stock on the island is given at,—horses, 240; mules and asses, 529; horned cattle, 2597; sheep, 11,442; goats, 3225; pigs, 1825; poultry, 44,050; and of fish caught within the year, 15,837,371 lbs.: and

yielding altogether an annual production of property to the extent of 100,000*l.* sterling; and with a total aggregate of moveable and immoveable property of nearly one million sterling.

If encouragement were given to the growth of West India agricultural produce, by the remission of duties in England, there are many spots on the Virgin Isles, as well as in the other islands, where industrious Britons would find a livelihood, instead of perishing of want at home. In war-time they afford a valuable retreat for our merchant shipping:

In the ensuing Vol. will be found the remainder of our West India Colonies, with some illustrations of the working out of the system of Slave Emancipation.

APPENDIX.

(A.)
THE COLONIAL PAR OF EXCHANGE,—TO 1836,
ESTABLISHED BY THE CHARTER TO THE COMPANY OF THE WEST INDIA BANKS,
IS FIVE SPANISH DOLLARS FOR THE SOVEREIGN.

Note.—The Spanish Silver Dollar, which is the Monetary Unit of North and South America, and the only Coin which circulates throughout Europe, Africa, Asia, and America, is the only real effective Money, either of Account or Exchange, by which (including the East Indies) the English Colonial Property is valued.

The corresponding Foreign Monies of Account, Coins, and Measures, to the English Pound Weight of Silver, of 16 North and South American Ounces = 12 Chinese Ounces.

It is the Commercial Law of "The Great Charter," that there shall be but *One* Measure and *One* Weight throughout the Empire.

GOLD.

The *minimum* value of the Pound weight of Silver, is the Ounce weight of Gold of 1000 Pence *.

The Chinese have no *minimum* value for Gold.

A Silver Standard was established in 1811 at Madras: India has consequently a Free Trade in Gold.

Note.—The East Indian Gold Coins are exchanged as Bullion, Silver being the only Standard of Value. The Silver Rupees must invariably be assayed.

The North and South American Mint Prices of Bullion, from 1722:—

The Portuguese Ounce of Pure Gold = 16 Ounces of Pure Silver; viz.

16,000 Reas of Gold	=	60	
960	=	300	for the Sovereign of $\frac{1}{2}$.
5 Dollars = 4800	=	at 16½ = 300	for the Moldore of $\frac{1}{2}$.
6½ Dollars = 6400	=	at 16½ = 400	

The Spanish Par for Gold is $16\frac{1}{2}$ Silver; viz.

The Doblón from 1786 is 86 $\frac{1}{2}$, nominally 87 $\frac{1}{4}$ per Cent. This Doblón, at 16 Dollars, the Spanish Mint proportion, is, by the Assays of the English Mint, $16\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, inclusive of the *Remedy of the Mint*. The Sovereign of 113 or 112 $\frac{1}{2}$ English Grains of Pure Gold, is consequently valued at the Spanish Mints for..... 5 Dollars = this Gold Unit.

$\frac{3}{16}$ = 0.25 for the Gold Shilling.
 $\frac{1}{2}$ = 0.02 $\frac{1}{2}$ for the Gold Penny.

By the United States Tariff of 14th July, 1832, as 16 to 1,

The Sovereign has been 480 Cents = 288 Pence.

* The Ounce 437 $\frac{1}{2}$ English Grains \times 89 $\frac{1}{2}$: 1000 Pence :: 113 Grains of Pure Gold, = 480 Cents = 288 Pence.

x
2

From 1834 the Par has been, 487 $\frac{1}{2}$ Cents = 292 $\frac{1}{2}$ Pence.

Note.—By the Law of 31st July, 1834, the Eagle of 10 Dollars contains

332 English Grains of Pure Gold = 2.053 Sovereigns.

10.263 Dollars is the Spanish Mint Par.

The Russians have partly substituted Platina for Gold; and the Gold and Silver Rubles vary.

Note.—The Rhine Foot and the Cologne Pound Weight of 16 Ounces, the nominal Standards of the German Empire, approximate to the English.

* *Note.*—The Mexican Dollar is divided by the Brazilians into 3 Patucos, of 320 Reas each. The Mint Standards are nominal. Coins, to be valued, must have been assayed. The Portuguese or Brazilian Ounce of Gold ("Dobos" or double "Joazeiro") weighs 437 $\frac{1}{2}$ English Grains, at $\frac{11}{16}$ or 91.6 = 3.949 Sovereigns, as per Assays; (401 Grains Pure Gold) = 17.745 Spanish Dollars for the Par of 17.335 Mairens of Silver.

COLONIAL PAR OF EXCHANGE, &c.—(continued.)

SILVER.

The certain Par of Exchange for the Pound weight of Silver (2 Marks), of 16 Ounces, = 1000 Pence.

Chinese Empire	{ Ounce, or Tale, of	1000 Cash = 83½ Pence = $\frac{1}{12}$ Aliquot parts of Colonial Money.
	{ Mexican Dollar * of 90 to 89½ Tach	720 — 60 —
	{ Rupee, of 3½ per Tale.....(the Mahometan } division is $\frac{1}{10}$ th) }	300 — 25 —

(Bengal Sicca Rupee of } English Grains.
16 Annas, 12 Pice..... } $\frac{7000}{40}$ = 175 Pure.)

British India	{ English Rupee of Silver, } of $\frac{1}{16}$ from 1836	180 = 165 Pure. 320 — 26½ —
	{ English Rupee of Gold, of } $\frac{1}{16}$ or	180 = 165 Pure.

Note.—The Spanish Par for Gold is 10½ Silver, or 100 Dollars for 225 English Rupees of Silver.

Portugal	Ounce, or Milrea, of $\frac{1}{16}$ Pure Silver	1000 Reas = 62½ — = $\frac{1}{16}$
Brazil	Mexican Dollar, of ditto	960 — 60 —
	New Cruzada, from 1811, per Assays	480 — 30 —

Note.—100 Dollars is the Par for 240 Rupees at 25 Pence.

* Note.—In determining the Par, no allowance is made for "the Remedy of the Mint." Gold and silver being Merchandise, the Coins are Weights. The Silver Penny is 7 English Grains; 5½ per Dollar for Coinage. (N.)

COLONIAL PAR OF EXCHANGE, &c.—(continued.)

Russian Empire { The Silver Ruble (say 2 Dollars $\frac{1}{3}$) of 360 Copecs for 1836 = 40 Pence.
 { The Paper Ruble of Account of 100 Copecs is quoted at 11-11 —

The Colonial and Spanish Ratios of Silver to Gold :—

The Colonial and Spanish *minimum* 16-5

The Home *maximum* to 1836 ($\frac{2315}{100}$) Pence.. 14-159 { Difference 25 per Cent. at 16½ to 1, including
 { Coinage, Freight, &c.

Ounce Troy to 1816, 480 Grains $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 77s. 10\frac{1}{2}d. \text{ Gold.} \\ \hline 62d. \text{ Silver.} \end{array} \right. = 15-0725.$

Depreciation 6-45, &c. per Cent from the Mint price of 1816.

The Franc, the Monetary Unit of France, Belgium, Italy, &c., is the 19th of the French Pound weight,
 or $\frac{1}{2}$ *Kilogramme*; at 90 fineness, 10 alloy.

The Mexican Dollar of *maximum* weight and fineness = 5 Francs 45, *Assaoidre* = 27 Francs 15 Centimes for the Sovereign.

From 1804 to 1816, the Spanish Dollar was issued by the Bank of England at 60 Colonial Silver Pence.

From the 23d of March, 1825, the American Dollar (by which the Labour and Capital of the World are valued) has been *depreciated* to 52 Pence, of 373 Grains of 92½ for the Colonial Expenditure; viz.

Pound Troy $\frac{5730}{100} = 87-27 \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ Shillings = 349.
 (N.) "The False Par" to 1816 was 54 Pence of $\frac{5730}{100} = 92-9 \times 4\frac{1}{2} = 413$ Grains, at 92½ = 386.
 Sir Isaac Newton's Par (for the Dollar to 1772) 420 — of 386 to 378.

Grains of Pure Silver.

The Foot, which is the Land *Unit* of the English and Russian Empires, being cubed, contains 1000 *Standard* Ounces of Pure Rain Water at the maximum density; or 800 Ounces of either maximum Alcohol, or *Average* maximum Wheat, at 50 Pints, at 34.56 English Cubic Inches. The North and South American Wholesale Weight of 100 Pounds (4 Madras Mauns, or Spanish Arrobas) is derived from the *Fonseca*, the Spanish and Portuguese Corn Measure of 2 English Cubic Feet. 1600 Chinese Ounces = 1 Chinese Wholesale Weight of 133½ Pounds, English, Spanish, or Portuguese.

The English Foot is also *The Unit* of the East Indian, Portuguese, and Brazilian Land and Marine Measures, or *Cosmographical System*. The Portuguese Land and Marine League is = 20,000.

Hindoo System compared with the French:—

Deci × Mil = 10,000			
Mil	1,000	365½ Days = 1 Average	365,250 Feet × 360 Degrees ÷ 40,000,000 French
		Calendar Year.	Metres = 328 English or Russian <i>Centifoot</i> , &c.
Mil ÷ Deci	100	365½ Mils = 1 Degree.	The Metre is = 3,280,8992 Feet.
Deci	10		Length of the Pendulum = 3,261,608 — Lat. of London.
Unit	1		

Notes.—The Foot is Mr. Peulett Thomson's Scale for the Measurement of Ship Tonnage, from January 1, 1836.

The English Yard is	3	Feet.	The East Indian Cubit is	1½	Feet.
Spanish <i>Vara</i>	2¾	—	Portuguese	2¼	—
Russian <i>Arshin</i>	2½	—	Chinese	1½	—

"*Corn Averages*."—The English Ship Ton is 40 Cubic Feet.
 ¼ = 10 — = 5 South American *Fonseca*, of 8 North American Bushels, or 2 Barrels.

COLONIAL PAR OF EXCHANGE, &c.—(continued.)

Standard of Length, Capacity, and Weight. . . 1 Lineal Foot.

Note.—Corn and Liquids are sold, throughout the Chinese Empire, by Weight; as most naturally (or scientifically), throughout Ireland and Lancashire, the Ship is the only Measure of Capacity for the specific quality or gravity of both Import and Export Corn.
The Spanish Import Standard for Wheat, Barley, Oats, Rye, Malze, Beans, Peas, and Flour, is 100 Pounds Net Weight, standing beam.

Copy of a Letter from his Excellency Señor Mendizabal, Spanish Minister of Finance,
to Mr. Trenor:—

“ London, 34, Cornhill, May 15th, 1835.

“ You have pointed out an error that has been committed in the New Monetary Law of Portugal; and I shall immediately communicate the same to her Most Faithful Majesty's Government.”

(This error amounts to 13½ per Cent.)

For the Course of Exchange, see *Lloyd's List*.

K. TRENOR.

Note.—Mr. Trenor, who has devoted much time to the question of Colonial Exchanges, has favoured me with this curious and interesting Document.—R. M. M.

(B.)

TOTAL AMOUNT OF THE TRADE BETWEEN THE
UNITED KINGDOM AND THE BRITISH WEST
INDIA COLONIES SINCE 1814.

Years.	OFFICIAL VALUE.				Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures Exported to the British West Indies.
	Imports from the British West Indies.	EXPORTS TO THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.			
		British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandize.	Total of Exports.	
1814	9,022,309	6,282,226	339,912	6,622,138	7,019,538
1815	8,903,260	6,742,451	453,630	7,196,081	7,218,057
1816	7,847,885	4,584,509	268,719	4,853,228	4,537,056
1817	8,326,926	6,632,708	382,883	7,015,591	5,890,199
1818	8,608,790	5,717,216	272,491	5,989,707	6,021,627
1819	8,188,539	4,395,215	297,180	4,692,414	4,841,253
1820	8,353,606	4,216,783	314,567	4,531,350	4,197,761
1821	8,367,477	4,940,069	370,738	5,311,807	4,320,581
1822	8,619,765	4,127,052	243,126	4,370,178	3,439,818
1823	8,425,276	4,621,589	285,247	4,906,836	3,676,780
1824	9,065,546	4,843,556	324,375	5,167,931	3,827,489
1825	7,932,829	4,702,249	295,031	4,997,270	3,866,834
1826	8,420,454	3,792,453	255,241	4,047,694	3,199,265
1827	8,380,833	4,685,789	331,586	5,017,375	3,685,222
1828	9,496,950	4,134,744	326,298	4,461,042	3,289,704
1829	9,087,923	5,162,197	356,659	5,518,856	3,612,083
1830	8,509,100	3,749,799	290,878	4,040,677	2,838,448

(C.)
SUGAR (CWTS.) IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM FROM THE BRITISH
WEST INDIA POSSESSIONS *.

Years.	Jamaica.	British Guiana.		Trinidad.	Tobago.	Grenada.	St. Vincent's.	Barbadoes.
		Demerara.	Berbice.					
1814	1,448,831	284,893	9,914	149,435	120,371	206,230	225,405	214,492
1815	1,893,217	322,100	8,318	159,451	120,891	231,883	231,815	196,746
1816	1,882,812	323,444	15,308	139,893	139,158	266,056	265,433	288,023
1817	1,717,890	377,906	14,139	128,434	139,888	196,959	249,418	289,723
1818	1,653,318	420,180	17,764	138,154	112,081	230,959	255,445	249,077
1819	1,614,347	480,933	29,967	166,381	132,344	204,565	263,034	243,648
1820	1,769,125	526,561	37,696	156,043	109,195	184,532	216,080	179,931
1821	1,679,731	492,146	53,258	162,257	108,244	216,368	235,318	211,372
1822	1,413,718	530,948	55,358	178,491	120,726	199,178	261,160	166,682
1823	1,417,747	607,858	56,000	186,892	113,015	247,370	232,575	314,630
1824	1,451,532	615,991	64,000	180,694	123,868	227,014	246,821	245,829
1825	1,113,360	630,276	89,274	189,927	111,350	300,985	257,800	278,845
1826	1,500,860	448,487	49,444	206,438	121,698	249,459	271,858	247,720
1827	1,211,075	711,959	87,572	239,383	71,889	197,796	250,234	203,853
1828	1,363,974	717,165	86,154	265,703	123,244	269,879	288,063	338,845
1829	1,386,392	778,605	86,514	292,833	90,533	218,469	256,265	270,869
1830	1,379,348	780,286	116,967	304,987	93,473	213,169	281,351	336,881
1831	1,395,898	735,616	122,088	240,765	121,949	186,680	221,062	322,779
1832	1,431,689	736,536	137,457	312,265	103,100	188,231	186,812	266,464

Years.	St. Lucia.	Dominica.	Antigua.	St. Kitt's.	Nevis.	Montserrat.	Tortola.	Total.
1814	79,664	34,274	157,023	123,067	54,012	35,067	14,969	3,100,787
1815	72,320	44,116	160,855	141,338	55,224	24,510	24,103	3,380,887
1816	68,831	47,035	197,300	124,758	71,658	28,981	51,094	3,408,982
1817	56,401	31,678	179,371	125,078	45,828	31,214	42,932	3,562,458
1818	49,006	33,830	228,308	120,218	82,369	36,930	43,573	3,664,049
1819	78,720	42,897	209,895	141,601	63,154	37,168	66,422	3,832,774
1820	50,220	45,953	102,573	89,962	36,505	32,315	15,225	3,922,466
1821	77,071	38,120	207,548	128,536	66,023	33,323	25,460	3,731,635
1822	92,061	41,650	102,228	89,682	31,660	27,071	28,170	3,304,120
1823	68,148	39,014	135,466	76,181	44,214	24,466	31,583	3,680,139
1824	71,100	42,330	222,307	132,585	46,734	30,649	20,539	3,717,722
1825	82,263	38,036	142,201	78,538	49,770	19,653	13,670	3,795,375
1826	85,073	45,654	244,514	107,332	73,667	30,482	21,589	3,681,575
1827	79,046	41,342	75,631	99,226	32,330	19,708	20,761	3,335,457
1828	83,248	49,956	176,966	121,206	46,182	25,021	13,275	3,958,056
1829	79,225	56,319	156,658	137,693	51,848	27,238	22,211	3,764,383
1830	86,791	60,663	136,611	135,452	54,236	26,646	17,669	3,941,651
1831	50,234	50,339	169,032	101,968	49,923	26,137	15,559	3,808,024
1832	47,965	58,270	143,336	80,602	89,843	30,355	14,999	3,773,424

* The great importance and value of the British colonies in the West Indies, as regards even sugar alone, is evident from the statement here given; but, in addition to this great importation of sweets, a large quantity of molasses must be considered, the importations of which into the United Kingdom, since 1820, have been as follows:—

Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
1820...39,991	1824...239,068	1828...210,708
1821...58,135	1825...355,592	1829...394,432
	1826...290,504	1830...250,648
	1827...392,444	1831...422,876

	1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.		1902.		1903.		Fall from 1898, 1899.			
	£.	d.	£.	d.	£.	d.	£.	d.	£.	d.	£.	d.	£.	d.	£.	d.	£.	d.		
Indigo, Caraco Floris..... lb.	0	13	0	0	0	11	6	0	9	6	0	6	6	0	6	6	0	6	6	
Copper and Low Ord..... —	0	6	9	0	4	9	0	3	9	0	4	0	2	6	0	2	6	0	2	6
Lignum Vire..... ton.	14	8	8	9	10	0	9	10	0	6	10	0	5	10	0	5	10	0	5	10
Logwood, Jamaica, Picked —	7	5	0	7	0	0	6	10	0	7	0	0	6	10	0	6	10	0	6	10
Molasses	1	2	0	1	1	0	0	18	6	0	14	0	0	13	0	0	14	0	1	1
Mauzaru Wood, ton—	95	5	0	21	5	0	15	5	0	13	5	0	14	5	0	15	15	0	18	0
Large and Solid.....	17	5	0	12	5	0	9	5	0	7	5	0	8	5	0	7	15	0	14	5
Small	0	0	9	3	0	0	10	0	0	9	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Run, per gallon (per Sykes's Hydrometer)—																				
Jamaica, 12 to 14 }	0	2	10	0	3	1	0	3	5	0	3	4	0	2	3	0	2	2	0	2
Ditto, 15 to 18 }																				
Ditto, 28 to 30	0	3	6	0	3	10	0	4	6	0	4	2	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3
Strongest Jamaica	0	3	8	0	4	3	0	4	9	0	4	6	0	3	3	0	3	1	0	3
Domezara	0	3	0	0	3	3	0	3	9	0	4	0	0	3	6	0	2	6	0	2
Tobacco, St. Domingo Leaf —	2	5	0	0	10	0	0	7	3	0	0	0	7	3	0	0	0	0	8	3
Sugar, B. P. Muscovado—	2	8	0	2	5	0	2	3	0	2	4	0	2	0	0	1	15	0	1	15
Jamaica, Fine	1	19	0	1	12	0	1	15	0	1	10	0	1	4	0	1	3	0	1	8
Good Brown	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	9	0	2	10	0	2	9	0	1	18	0	1	15
Havannah, Fine White —	1	16	0	1	16	0	1	16	0	1	16	0	1	16	0	1	16	0	1	16
Ditto, Yellow																				

(E.)
JAMAICA *.—SHIPS INWARDS.

Years.	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1822	271	79,925	179	24,007	33	4,883	354	21,233	337	122,748
1823	322	97,507	156	16,349	206	30,807	277	16,375	1,001	163,188
1824	258	79,319	143	16,183	263	36,785	248	17,385	912	149,572
1825	278	84,740	105	12,537	179	24,866	318	15,374	776	138,037
1828										
1827	300	53,087	145	23,043			248	21,056	693	137,186
1828	240	75,541	165	22,974			269	25,037	674	134,202
1829	263	68,700	172	25,491			250	25,330	715	120,721
1831										
1832										
1833										
1834										

OUTWARDS.

Years.	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1822	310	46,193	151	23,241	83	3,266	373	29,180	875	151,610
1823	274	80,825	131	15,638	219	25,348	509	23,842	933	151,353
1824	301	92,779	141	15,652	260	35,635	238	17,545	940	161,111
1825	253	78,588	117	13,260	162	22,162	232	17,614	764	131,644
1826										
1827										
1828	277	86,532	158	19,959			285	28,610	700	135,101
1829	287	87,729	145	18,205			256	24,454	688	130,388
1830	290	87,480	154	21,766			255	21,591	699	130,747
1831										
1832										
1833										
1834										

* Our statistical returns from Jamaica, as observed under the head of population in the Jamaica chapter, are extremely deficient. I give the above mutilated table, as I do many others in this work, in order to promote greater attention to the subject in future. It is only by means of accurate and full returns that legislation can be wisely performed, more especially in reference to commerce, where so much depends on just analytical comparisons.

RETURN OF THE SHIPPING, FOREIGN AND
BRITISH, EMPLOYED IN THE TRADE WITH
THE BRITISH WEST INDIA ISLANDS,

From 1820 to 1830, both inclusive, distinguishing each Year.

Years.	UNITED KINGDOM.			
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1820	857	240,510	831	233,496
1821	884	245,321	801	246,180
1822	839	232,426	743	208,009
1823	861	233,790	842	232,717
1824	899	244,971	848	233,097
1825	872	232,357	801	219,431
1826	891	243,448	907	251,852
1827	873	243,721	900	248,598
1828	1,013	272,800	1,022	270,495
1829	958	263,338	918	252,992
1830	911	253,872	868	240,664

Rates of Tares allowed on West India Sugar imported into Great Britain:—

From Jamaica, Grenada, Tobago, St. Vincent's, and St. Kitt's.

	Cwt. qrs. lbs.
Hogsheads,—from 8 to 12 cwt.	1 0 7
From 12 to 15 —	1 1 12
From 15 to 17 —	1 2 0
From 17 and upwards	1 2 14

From Dominica, Antigua, Nevis, Montserrat, and Trinidad.

Hogsheads,—from 8 to 12 cwt.	1 0 7
From 12 to 15 —	1 1 4
From 15 to 17 —	1 1 21
From 17 and upwards	1 2 0

THE END.

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